

Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in Ukraine

Identifying the pathways to economic, civic and social equality using data from the SCORE Ukraine 2021.



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Executive Summary

Updates Following Russia's Full-Scale Invasion of Ukraine in February 2022

Over 6.8M refugees fleeing Ukraine as of 29 May 2022, **over 90%** of which are women and children

Over 7M internally displaced, where over two thirds of the existing IDP population were women and children

Increased vulnerability to the humanitarian crisis, as **72%** of social assistant recipients in 2019 were women, the gender pay gap stood at **22%** and the pension gap at **32%**

Increased burden of unpaid care work due to the interruption of essential services given that **95%** of single parents are women, and women share the largest burden of unpaid domestic and care work

Heightened risks of exploitation and gender based violence which are exacerbated during conflict, forced displacement, temporary or shelter accommodation, and increased military presence

No access to critical maternal healthcare for the **80,000** women that UNFPA estimates will give birth over the next three months in Ukraine

Despite progress on gender equality, the ratification of most pertinent global conventions, and the adoption of relevant legislation, Ukrainian women continue to face barriers to their meaningful economic, civic and political participation, hindered further by risks of economic fragility, poor health outcomes and exposure to violence for some of the most vulnerable groups. Traditional values and patriarchal views that condone discrimination and violence against women and girls remain widespread, while existing gender inequalities are continuously compounded by the humanitarian crisis caused by Russia's full scale invasion of Ukraine in 2022. The present study is based on perception data from **January to May 2021** and seeks to map the realities and needs of women in Ukraine, the obstacles they faced and their ability to overcome these. The study focusses on key dimensions of the Social Cohesion and Reconciliation (SCORE) Index indicators that align with global gender equality indices and metrics, including economic, civic and political participation, as well as health, wellbeing, and exposure to adversity. The study subsequently aims to provide quantitative evidence from which actionable recommendations can be derived for achieving progress in gender equality and women's empowerment in Ukraine, a prerequisite for both the success of any democratisation and development agenda, and for Ukraine's post-war recovery.

SCORE results show that women report higher levels of subjective poverty and economic insecurity, experiencing lower employment rates despite having equal educational attainment compared to men. The women most vulnerable to economic fragility tend to be older and more rural, suffering from poorer health outcomes and facing barriers in their access to services, as well as feeling disenfranchised from the state and their personal role in civic life. Women overall are less likely to be active citizens, and their civic empowerment was found to depend on their sense of agency and civic responsibility, trust in civil society and political security, as well as intergroup contact, leadership and entrepreneurial skills. When age-related effects are accounted for, women continue to experience lower physical health status and mental wellbeing, both of which are exacerbated by economic fragility and by insufficient access to medical services. Harmful gender norms continue to be pervasive, particularly in men, and while exposure to physical and psychological domestic abuse is similar for both women and men in the sample, women have lower personal security.

Actors seeking to alleviate the challenges faced by the most vulnerable segments of the population should focus on targeting economic and employability recovery, and directing financial assistance to the most vulnerable, isolated and hard-to-reach citizens, namely, older and more rural women. There is a need to expand the provision of psychosocial support, eliminating the stigma surrounding this, and scaling up protection mechanisms for women survivors of domestic violence. Finally, education on the equal rights of women and men, and the importance of women's equal contribution to social and civic life should be mainstreamed and popularised, with targeted emphasis on men of all ages and rural citizens.

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The analyses presented in this report remain relevant in understanding the rapidly changing situation in Ukraine, particularly given that 54% of people in need of assistance in early February 2022, before the full-scale invasion, were women (OCHA 2022).

As evidenced through this report, the perceptions of women in Ukraine, their needs and their resilience will be vital in informing both humanitarian and emergency responses, as well as recovery in the future.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

CEC	Central Election Commission of Ukraine
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women
EU	European Union
GCA	Government Controlled Areas
GII	Gender Inequality Index
GPEDC	Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation
HDI	Human Development Index
IDP	Internally displaced person
NGCA	Non-Government Controlled Areas
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
SCORE	Social Cohesion and Reconciliation
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SeeD	The Centre for Sustainable Peace and Democratic Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNRPP	United Nations Recovery and Peacebuilding Programme
UN Women	UN Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

Introduction

Social cohesion, lasting peace and sustainable development cannot be attained if women do not have equal access to resources and opportunities for education, employment and decision-making. Evidencing this on a global scale, gender equality is both a stand-alone sustainable development goal (**SDG 5**) and cuts across all 17 SDGs, reflected in 45 targets and 54 indicators globally.

Gender equality underpins the **Addis Ababa Action Plan on Transformative Financing for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment**, an integral component of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which calls for the mobilisation and effective use of all types of development resources, and stresses the responsibility that each country has for its socioeconomic development (UN Women 2015b). Gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls is subsequently tracked in several of the **Global Partnership for Effective Development Cooperation** (GPEDC) indicators¹, and forms a dedicated section of commitments in the GPEDC's **Nairobi Outcome Document** (Global Partnership for Effective Development Co-operation 2016).

Prior to Russia's full-scale invasion, Ukraine had achieved moderate progress on SDG 5, though this remained insufficient for the realisation of gender equality (Sachs et al. 2021). Although an equal ratio of "female-to-male years of education" has been maintained since 2011, progress is slower in "female-to-male labour force participation", which stood at 74.46% in 2019 (Sachs et al. 2021). The percentage of women of reproductive age whose demand for family planning has been met using modern methods of contraception was 68.00% in 2012, far from the 100% target. In 2021, just 20.80% of the seats in national parliament were held by women, and although this marks an increase over the past two decades, it lags behind the 50% target (Sachs et al. 2021).

Ukraine has made significant strides in the protection of women's rights, and the Constitution and laws² of Ukraine aim to safeguard equal rights and opportunities for women and men (UN Women Ukraine 2020a). Ukraine has ratified or joined most major international agreements on gender equality, specifically the **Convention of the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women** (CEDAW) and its Optional Protocol, **International Labour Organization** conventions, **United Nations Security Council Resolutions on Women, Peace and Security**, and the **Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action of the 4th World Conference for Women**. In June 2022, the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine also ratified the **Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence** (the Istanbul Convention) which aims to eradicate violence against women and domestic violence through a comprehensive and effective system of prevention, protection and accountability (Council of Europe 2011; Прес-служба Апарату Верховної Ради України 2022). The ratification was hailed as a historic development (Council of Europe 2022) and is a crucial breakthrough, particularly given Ukraine's ambitions for greater European integration and the European Commission's recent backing of EU candidacy status for Ukraine (The European Commission 2022).

The CEDAW legally binds countries to end all forms of discrimination against women and girls in all fields of life, while advancing women's and girls' rights. The primary goal of the CEDAW is the recognition and achievement of equality of women and men, requiring the embodiment of equality in national constitutions and legislations, and warranting the practical realisation of equality (UN

¹ The GPEDC is a multistakeholder platform aiming to advance the effectiveness of development cooperation efforts to deliver results that are long lasting and contribute to the achievement of the SDGs. See www.effectivecooperation.org.

² Several articles of the constitution aim to ensure gender equality, namely, articles 24, 38, 43 and 51. Ukraine has also strengthened its gender equality and anti-discrimination legislation through the following: Law of Ukraine No2866-IV, No5207-VI, No2229-VIII, No2227-VIII, No3739-VI, No1706-VII, No2523-VIII available at zakon.rada.gov.ua/laws/, and several resolutions of the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine (UN Women Ukraine 2020a).

General Assembly 1979). In its latest report, the CEDAW Committee stressed the role of the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine in ensuring the full implementation of the CEDAW in Ukraine. The Committee proposed a series of recommendations to address women's role in peace and security and in public and political life, women's education and employment, the national machinery for the advancement of women, and the elimination of stereotypes and discrimination against women, violence against women, and conflict-related sexual violence (Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women 2017). These led to the approval of the **National Action Plan for the Implementation of the Recommendations set forth in the Concluding Observations of CEDAW for the period up to 2021** (Кабінет Міністрів України 2018b).

The government of Ukraine has also approved the **National Action Plan to implement UN Security Council Resolution 1325 "Women, Peace and Security" for the period up to 2020** and its successor **for the period up to 2025** (Кабінет Міністрів України 2016; 2020c), based on the UNSC Resolution which recognises the **specific impact of armed conflict on women and girls**, the need for their protection, and their full participation in peace agreements, negotiations and post-conflict reconstruction processes (UN Women Ukraine 2020a). The National Action Plan works towards eliminating cultural barriers to enable women's full participation in matters of peace and security, as well as addressing the prevention of domestic violence, human trafficking, and awareness-raising for survivors of sexual and gender-based violence (UN Women Ukraine 2020a; Кабінет Міністрів України 2016). Spread across five sections with tasks implemented by state authorities, oblast and city state administrations, local self-government bodies and civil society, the latest Plan aims to address these topics, bolstered by research, coordination, capacity building and monitoring (Кабінет Міністрів України 2020c).

In 2020, Ukraine's participation in the Beijing+25 review resulted in the comprehensive national assessment on progress towards gender equality since the adoption of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action in 1995 (Working group for the preparation of the Beijing+25 report 2019) and the identification of priorities of work for accelerating gender equality. These are tied to the approval of the **National Human Rights Strategy** (Президента України 2021) and the **Action Plan to Implement the National Human Rights Strategy of Ukraine by 2020** and its successor **covering 2021 to 2023** (Кабінет Міністрів України 2015; 2021b), which aim to enhance the protection of human rights and freedoms based on equality and non-discrimination.

In line with the **Law of Ukraine "On Ensuring the Equal Rights and Opportunities for Women and Men"** (Верховна Рада України 2005) and based on the premise of Ukraine's **State Social Programme for**

Key Figures from the 2021 SCORE Data

9% of women have experienced verbal abuse at home, **5%** have experienced physical abuse, statistics that are similar in men, and **12%** of women do not feel at all safe from violence in their daily life

13% of women living near the "contact line" in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts have experienced verbal abuse at home, **6%** have experienced physical abuse, and **33%** do not feel safe from violence in their daily life

9% of women nationally and **23%** of women living near the "contact line" cannot afford food

56% of all women do not feel that they have a stable source of income, **18%** of women over 60 cannot meet their households' nutritional needs

55% of working-age women are employed full time and **5%** own a business, compared to 66% and 9% of men

60% of women feel that ordinary people like them cannot change things in Ukraine and **74%** feel that authorities do not represent their concerns and views

Ensuring Equal Rights and Opportunities for Women and Men for the period up to 2021³ (Кабінет Міністрів України 2018a), the national machinery for the equal rights of women and men is made up of structures at multiple levels, including the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, the Parliament Commissioner for Human Rights, the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine, the Ministry of Social Policy, executive and local self-government bodies, as well as civil society. The Programme forms the major national strategy on gender equality, aiming to “improve the institutional mechanism to ensure equal rights and opportunities for women and men in all spheres of life and to implement European standards of equality” (Кабінет Міністрів України 2018a), promoting equality in social and economic development, resolving gender imbalances with a focus on human rights, and emphasising gender mainstreaming in all fields (UN Women Ukraine 2020a).

Other important advancements include the **Law of Ukraine “On Preventing and Combating Discrimination”** (Верховна Рада України 2013), the **Law of Ukraine “On Preventing and Combating Domestic Violence”** (Верховна Рада України 2018b) and the **State Programme on Prevention and Elimination of Domestic Violence and Gender-Based Violence until 2025** (Кабінет Міністрів України 2021a), the **Law “On Amendments to the Criminal and Criminal Procedure Codes of Ukraine to Implement the Provisions of the Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence”** (Верховна Рада України 2018a). In terms of equal opportunities, the Ministry of Health **abolished** its order No.256 which banned women from employment in 458 professions previously considered harmful to women’s health (Міністерство охорони здоров’я України 2017) and Ukraine recently joined the **Equal Pay International Coalition** (Міністерство соціальної політики України 2020). Regarding political representation, the **electoral code was amended** to increase the gender quota to 40% in national, subnational and local elections (with the exception of village, settlement and city councils in the amalgamated communities with up to 10,000 voters, where the quota remains at 30%) (Верховна Рада України 2019). The Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine has also recently approved the **Gender Equality Communication Strategy** (Кабінет Міністрів України 2020a), the **Action Plan for the Implementation of the Commitments of the Government of Ukraine under the Biarritz Partnership for Gender Equality** (Кабінет Міністрів України 2020d). Previously, the Cabinet of Ministers assigned the Deputy Prime Minister on EU and Euro-Atlantic Integration with the responsibility of coordinating the state gender equality policy, and introduced the post of **Government Commissioner for Gender Equality Policy**. In 2020, the **Gender Equality Commission** was set up to coordinate the work of executive bodies to ensure equal rights and opportunities for women and men (Кабінет Міністрів України 2020b).

Subsequently, the year 2021 was one expected to mark progress on the targets and on women’s rights in Ukraine, coinciding with the State Social Programme on Ensuring Equal Rights and Opportunities for Women and Men for the period up to 2021, the National Action Plan for the Implementation of the Recommendations set forth in the Concluding Observations of CEDAW for the period up to 2021, the National Human Rights Strategy and Action Plan to Implement the National Human Rights Strategy of Ukraine by 2020, and the National Action Plan to implement UN Security Council Resolution 1325 “Women, Peace and Security” for the period up to 2020. Yet, prior to Russia’s full-scale invasion, monitors noted that legislative changes and political will did not translate into practical implementation, while effective monitoring mechanisms to fully enforce national and international obligations were lacking (UN Women Ukraine 2020a). Concurrently, critics repeatedly pointed to modest or inadequate funding derived from state budgets for the gender equality objectives within these strategies (UN Women Ukraine 2020a).

³ The successor of this strategy and the subsequent action plan are in the process of being drafted according to the Ministry of Social Policy (Міністерство соціальної політики України [Ministry of Social Policy of Ukraine] 2021).

According to the **Gender Inequality Index (GII)**, gender-based inequality in Ukraine in 2019 was lower than in Europe and Central Asia overall (0.234 compared to 0.256 on a scale from 0 to 1, where higher values indicate higher inequalities between women and men), and Ukraine stood 52nd out of 189 countries on the index which measures the loss in potential human development due to disparity between women and men in terms of reproductive health, empowerment and economic activity (UNDP 2019). Based on the World Economic Forum's 2021 **Global Gender Gap Index**, which measures global progress towards parity alongside gender-based gaps in access to economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival and political empowerment, Ukraine ranks 74th out of 156 countries, with an overall score of 0.714 (on a scale from 0 to 1, where higher scores indicate higher gender equality (World Economic Forum 2021)). While this is higher than other countries in the Eastern Europe and Central Asia region (including Hungary, Armenia and Romania) it is far from the top performers in the region (including Lithuania, Latvia, Albania and Moldova (World Economic Forum 2021)).

There are more women (54%) than men (46%) in Ukraine, particularly in terms of the population over the age of 65, of which two thirds are women (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021e). Further, elderly people in Ukraine constitute 38% of the population in conflict-affected areas, compared to the 17% that they make up in other parts of the country (Health Cluster Ukraine 2021; State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021e). In turn, women were estimated to represent between 56% and 76% of older people in conflict-affected areas prior to Russia's country-wide invasion of Ukraine, compared to the national average of 66% (Health Cluster Ukraine 2021; State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021e).

A gender wage gap has been observed in all sectors of economic activity (UN Women Ukraine 2020b), equivalent to 23% in 2019 (CARE International and UN Women 2022), and in the same year the gender pension gap stood at 32%⁴ (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2020), indicating that for every 100 UAH that men receive in pensions, women receive 68 UAH. Reports specify that women are more dependent on social assistance and social services, making up the largest number of the low-income population that applies for state benefits (UN Women Ukraine 2020b), while single mothers make up 95% of single-parent households (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021a) and women are most often the primary caregivers for children, older family members and those who are ill or with disabilities (UN Women Ukraine 2020b).

Despite progress, existing gender inequalities before Russia's full-scale war were compounded by the ongoing armed conflict in the east of Ukraine, which revealed deep-seated gender stereotypes, traditional values and patriarchal views that condone widespread discrimination and violence against women and girls (UN Women Ukraine 2020a). These existed alongside the impact of COVID-19 on women in Ukraine in terms of both economic crisis and health risks due to their prevalence in the over 65 age group (UN Women Ukraine 2020b). The COVID-19 pandemic illuminated women's central role as frontline respondents, healthcare professionals and social workers, but exposed vulnerabilities in areas where strong gender inequalities continue to persist (UN Women Ukraine 2020b). Further, monitors warned that COVID-19 was at risk of reversing the modest gains on women's rights, particularly regarding their economic empowerment, unless gender equality was fully integrated in COVID-19 response and recovery strategies (UN Women Ukraine 2020b).

The ongoing war has triggered additional exacerbation of gender inequalities, particularly among women who face multiple forms of discrimination (CARE International and UN Women 2022). Women's care burden has increased significantly, and the impact of the war on unemployment is

⁴ Equivalent to average monthly pensions of 3,851.05 UAH for men compared to 2,602.47 UAH for women (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2020).

likely to push women further into the informal sectors of the economy, while poverty and dependency on social payments is expected to increase (CARE International and UN Women 2022).

Considering these realities, the present report aims to generate evidence about the specific needs of women in Ukraine, informing gender-responsive programming and policies that seek to advance women's participation in all aspects of civic, public and economic life and in Ukraine's post-war recovery. In achieving these aims, the report is guided by a conceptual framework (Figure 1) centred around the dimensions covered by global gender equality indices, which tend to focus on economic participation, opportunities and educational attainment, political empowerment, and health and survival. Country-specific gender profiles often also include the Human Development Index rating, family planning, unpaid care work, and statistics on violence against women and girls (UNDP Ukraine 2021).

In agreement with these dimensions, preliminary analysis of the SCORE sample from 2021 found that the most significant differences between women and men pertain to indicators relevant to economic participation, civic and political participation, health and wellbeing, and gender norms. Each of these are investigated in the four chapters of this report, and the results are used to develop evidence-based actionable recommendations that identify the opportunities for gender-responsive programming, supporting advocacy for the rights of women and girls, and combating the discriminatory practices and stereotypes that perpetuate inequalities.

The analyses conducted in the present report seek to answer the following research questions:

- *What characterises women with a high risk of economic fragility?*
- *How can women's civic and political participation be strengthened?*
- *What specific challenges do women face regarding their health and wellbeing?*
- *What barriers and adversities do women face with respect to harmful gender norms and gender-based violence?*

Research themes	Promoting Economic Participation	Building Civic & Political Participation	Reinforcing Health and Wellbeing	Tackling Gender Norms and Gender Based Violence
	<p>SCORE indicators</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-rated subjective poverty • Economic security • Health security • Education level • Employment rate • Employment sectors • Employment opportunities • Business ownership and entrepreneurship • Fear of economic instability 	<p>SCORE indicators</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active citizenship and civic engagement • Sense of agency and civic responsibility • Civic optimism and absence of nostalgia • Information consumption • Political security • Trust in government and non-governmental organisations 	<p>SCORE indicators</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anxiety • Depression • Self-reported physical health status • Exposure to COVID-19 • Access to clean water 	<p>SCORE indicators</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender equality mindset • Normalisation of domestic violence • Gender stereotypes • Belief in human rights • Marginalisation • Exposure to domestic violence • Personal security
Relevant global indicators	Promoting Economic Participation	Building Civic & Political Participation	Reinforcing Health and Wellbeing	Tackling Gender Norms and Gender Based Violence
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Estimated income (WEF Global Gender Gap Index, Social Watch Gender Equity Index, EU Gender Equality Index) • Labour force participation (WEF Global Gender Gap Index, UNDP Gender Inequality Index, Social Watch Gender Equity Index) • Full time employment rate, Career Prospects Index, not at risk of poverty (EU Gender Equality Index) • Wage equality (WEF Global Gender Gap Index) • Enrolment in primary, secondary and tertiary education (WEF Global Gender Gap Index, Social Watch Gender Equity Index, EU Gender Equality Index) • Literacy rate (WEF Global Gender Gap Index, Social Watch Gender Equity Index) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Percentage of women in parliament (WEF Global Gender Gap Index, UNDP Gender Inequality Index, Social Watch Gender Equity Index, EU Gender Equality Index) • Percentage of women in ministerial positions (WEF Global Gender Gap Index, Social Watch Gender Equity Index, EU Gender Equality Index) • Years with female head of state (WEF Global Gender Gap Index) • Share of members of regional assemblies (EU Gender Equality Index) • Workers involved in voluntary or charitable activities (EU Gender Equality Index) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self perceived health (EU Gender Equality Index) • Healthy life expectancy (WEF Global Gender Gap Index, EU Gender Equality Index) • Adolescent birth rate (UNDP Gender Inequality Index) • Maternal mortality (UNDP Gender Inequality Index) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Freedom from violence (EU Gender Equality Strategy) • Violence against women, discriminatory family code (OECD) • SDG 5.2, eliminate violence against women and girls, indicators 5.2.1 and 5.2.2 • Gender Social Norms Index (UNDP)

Figure 1: Conceptual framework of four research dimensions covered in the present study, with reference to SCORE indicators and global gender equality indicators and frameworks (World Economic Forum 2021; European Institute for Gender Equality 2022; Social Watch 2012; UNDP Ukraine 2021b; OECD 2022; UNDP 2020).

Methodology

Understanding the SCORE Sample

The data analysed in this report was part of a larger effort of quantitative survey data collection for the Ukraine SCORE 2021, which took place between January and May 2021. The SCORE comprised face-to-face interviews with a nationally representative sample of 12,482 citizens, alongside additional sampling of major urban centres across Ukraine (N = 3,600), persons with disabilities (N = 325), anti-terrorist operation (ATO) veterans (N = 519), youth⁵ (N = 1,000), an extended sample of respondents living along the “contact line” of government-controlled Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts (N = 1,010), as well as computer-assisted telephone interviews with 638 respondents in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts NGCA. Respondents were selected using stratified random sampling unless otherwise stated in the report methodology. The present report refers to data collected in the nationally representative sample of 12,482 citizens, and where relevant contrasts this data with the data from the 1,010 respondents living along the “contact line” in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts. The nationally representative dataset referred to in this report consists of 6,838 women and 5,644 men, reflecting 55% and 45% of the sample, respectively, as seen in [Table 1](#). The dataset of respondents living along the “contact line” consists of 555 women and 455 men, reflecting 55% and 45%, respectively. Where relevant, data from Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts GCA, collected between October to November 2019 is (N = 3,325 face-to-face interviews), is referred to for temporal comparison.

Table 1: Gender composition of SCORE 2021 sample and comparison to 2021 estimates from the State Statistics Service (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021e).

	SCORE 2021		State Statistics Service 2021 Estimates	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Mean Age	49.2	45.1	44.5	39.2
% of over 65 population	65%	35%	66%	34%
% of total population	55%	45%	54%	46%
% living in large cities (500K+, Urban)	24%	23%		
% living in large towns or cities (50K-500K, Urban)	22%	21%	70%	69%
% living in small towns (Less than 50K, Urban)	23%	22%		
% living in villages (Rural)	32%	33%	30%	31%

Detecting Demographic Differences

In the present report, statistical significance of the differences in mean indicator scores between women and men were determined using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), at significance level of $p < 0.01$ and controlled for age, with weights applied for proportionality at national level. This methodology is also followed when detecting differences between women in different economic fragility risk groups, and between women and men in the Critical Risk group. ANCOVA was carried out using SPSS and R in RStudio (RStudio Team 2020). Significant differences between intersecting groups, e.g., age groups and gender or urbanity and gender, were determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA), with $F > 20$ or Cohen’s D effect size above medium when comparing two groups, $p < 0.05$. Correlation analyses are capped at significance level $p < 0.01$ and Pearson Correlation













⁵ In the present report, youth refers to respondents aged between 18 to 35, middle age refers to those between 36 and 59, and older respondents are those over the age of 60.

Coefficient (R) $\geq \pm 0.2$, controlled for age, with weights applied for proportionality at national level. These statistical significance thresholds allow us to ascertain between spurious and more robust associations and relationships between indicators and groups.

Identifying Economic Fragility Risk Groups

For the creation of economic fragility risk groups (see [Promoting Economic Participation](#)), the indicators of economic security and subjective poverty were combined, and four distinct groups identified based on the encodings of these indicators. The Critical Risk group was constructed to represent the approximately 23% of the general population that lives below the actual subsistence minimum in Ukraine (The World Bank 2021), consisting of respondents who are unable to afford food and clothes, who do not have a stable basic income, who cannot meet their household's nutritional needs, and cannot rely on welfare benefits. The High Risk group contains respondents who can generally afford food and clothes, but not more expensive goods, who cannot always rely on their income, cannot always meet nutritional needs, or rely on welfare benefits. The Moderate Risk group consists of respondents who can afford necessities and, in some instances, can afford more expensive goods such as household electronics, can rely on their income in most cases, on social payments, and generally can meet their household's nutritional needs. The Low Risk group consists of respondents who can afford even expensive goods, some of which can even afford luxury goods, who have a stable source of income and are always able to meet their household's nutritional needs.

Table 2: The percentage of respondents in each of the groups of critical risk for economic fragility.

	Full Sample		Women		Men	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Critical Risk	3017	 24.2	1869	 27.3	1149	 20.4
High Risk	4633	 37.1	2574	 37.6	2059	 36.5
Moderate Risk	4068	 32.6	2084	 30.5	1984	 35.2
Low Risk	763	 6.1	311	 4.5	452	 8

Investigating the Drivers of Civic Empowerment

To determine the drivers of civic empowerment a linear regression model was conducted in SPSS, with controls for age and urbanity, run on the national representative sample of women. Model fit indices and regression coefficients can be found in the [Annex](#).

Promoting Economic Participation

Results show that women are at increased risk of economic fragility, reinforced by lower levels of employment opportunities, and further impeded when educational attainment is low. The most vulnerable women are older and more rural, experiencing poorer health outcomes and unable to sufficiently access services.

These findings from 2021 are increasingly vital given the disproportionate effect of the war in Ukraine on women and girls. In May 2022, CARE and UN Women reported that the increase in unemployment due to Russia's full-scale invasion of Ukraine has resulted in women taking on new roles and multiple jobs, while their care burden has increased significantly. Internally displaced women were the most affected by disruptions to their income, with the proportion of women reporting a monthly household income of less than UAH 5,000 increasing from 18% before the country-wide war to 65% after the start of the war (CARE International and UN Women 2022).

In addition to economic participation forming a core component of gender equality indices (see [Introduction](#) and [Figure 1](#)), global development indicators also focus specifically on measures of multidimensional poverty (Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative 2021), the proportion of the population living below the actual subsistence minimum (The World Bank 2021), and on the poorest segments of the population (UN Women Ukraine 2020a). The latter, also known as “the bottom 40%”, have worse labour market outcomes than the rest of the population, are less equipped to find a job and more likely to have constraints when looking for jobs, and are more likely to live in rural areas where employment opportunities are more limited (UN Women Ukraine 2020a; Matytsin 2020), highlighting the multiple risk factors that these vulnerable populations face.

Globally, gender equality boosts economic growth and drives development outcomes (IMF 2018). Women's economic empowerment reduces income inequality, strengthens economic diversification, and ultimately supports economic resilience (IMF 2018), demonstrating the urgency of achieving gender equality in the economic sphere.

In Ukraine, 23% of the population lived below the actual subsistence minimum⁶ in 2020 (The World Bank 2021), equivalent to 42% of the rural and 24% of the urban population (FAO 2021). In 2021, the economic activity rate⁷ of women of working age in Ukraine was 56%, compared to 68% for men of the same age (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021d), while the employment rate⁸ of women of working age was 50%, compared to 61% of men (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021c). Women's salaries and income overall are lower than those of men (Grushetsky and Kharchenko 2009) even though 31% of women over 25 in Ukraine have obtained at least bachelor's level education or higher, compared to 28% of men (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021b). As validated below, education is closely linked to the risk of economic fragility, and, as well as being an important measure of gender equality, is also a measure of multidimensional poverty (Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative 2021).

A gender wage gap has been observed in all sectors of economic activity (UN Women Ukraine 2020b), equivalent to 23% in 2019 (CARE International and UN Women 2022), and resulting in women's engagement in low-paid jobs, and subsequently limiting women's opportunities to make savings,

⁶ The actual subsistence minimum is estimated as UAH 3,847 (The World Bank 2021), while the legal subsistence minimum was UAH 2,393 for all groups overall and 2,481 for able-bodied persons in December 2021-January 2022 based on the respective state budgets (Верховна Рада України 2021b; 2021a).

⁷ The percentage of the number of economically active population (aged 15 to 70) to the total population of that age and demographic group.

⁸ The percentage of the number of employed population (aged 15 to 70) to the total population of that age and demographic group.

increasing their vulnerability to economic crises such as that triggered by Russia's invasion of Ukraine or the COVID-19 pandemic (UN Women Ukraine 2020b). The economic inclusion of women is further influenced by their involvement in household duties, their higher likelihood of self-employment in the informal sector, the vertical segregation of labour in Ukraine which results in fewer women in leadership positions, and their higher likelihood of employment in the public service where salaries are generally lower, leading to horizontal employment segregation (UN Women Ukraine 2020b).

In 2019, the gender pension gap in Ukraine was 32% (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2020), and reports specify that women are more dependent on social assistance and social services, making up the largest number of the low-income population that applies for state benefits (UN Women Ukraine 2020b), equivalent to 72% of the total number of persons who were in difficult life circumstances and required assistance during 2019 (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2020).

Women with disabilities represent a uniquely marginalised constituent of this group, experiencing barriers to their access to services, higher exposure to abuse and exclusion from resource distribution, both on the community and on the household level (UN Women Ukraine 2019). Although sex disaggregated statistics are scarce (National Assembly of People with Disabilities of Ukraine 2015), existing evidence points to issues that disproportionately affect women and girls with disabilities (UN Women Ukraine 2019). Of the 136,300 persons who registered their disability for the first time in 2019, 44% women (United Nations Human Rights Monitoring Mission in Ukraine 2020), with data indicating that just one third of women with disabilities of working age have a job, 65% visit a doctor less than once a year, and 76% have no access to a gynaecologist (UN Women Ukraine 2019). Disability is one of the characteristics postulated to further affect access to employment, financial resources, and the socioeconomic situation of women during the war (CARE International and UN Women 2022).

Women are most often the primary caregivers for children, older family members, and those sick and with disabilities, with research during COVID-19 quarantine measures, demonstrating that women carried the major burden of unpaid care work, balancing this with paid work (UN Women Ukraine 2020b). In 2021, 95% of single-parent households consisted of single mothers (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021a), and the number of single mothers in Ukraine that have children with disabilities increases every year (UN Women Ukraine 2020b; Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine 2018). Research following Russia's full-scale invasion of Ukraine indicates that single mothers and households headed by women experience particularly negative effects on their access to income and paid employment (CARE International and UN Women 2022).

In the SCORE sample, perceptions about subjective poverty (see Figure 2 for SCORE's subjective poverty⁹ self-rating scale items) and economic insecurity are higher in women respondents¹⁰. More specifically, 44% of women feel that they have a safe dependable income, compared to 52% of men, while 46% feel that they can meet their own and their dependents nutritional needs, compared to 56% of men (Figure 4 and Figure 5). **While 8% of all women lack money even for food**, compared to 5% of men (Figure 2, Figure 3), **subjective poverty is especially high in older¹¹ and rural women¹²**, and for

⁹ The term subjective poverty has previously been used in the context of poverty and gender in Ukraine (Grushetsky and Kharchenko 2009) and due to similarities in the scale items has been adopted in this report.

¹⁰ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=70$ and 28 , $p<0.01$), weighted mean scores: subjective poverty in women 6.0, men 5.5; economic insecurity of women 5.6, men 5.3.

¹¹ Unweighted ANOVA ($F=370$, $p<0.01$) separates women over 60 into the lowest income adequacy group (weighted mean score 3.0), with a very large Cohen's D effect size compared to both women aged 18-35 (4.8) and women aged 36-59 (4.4). Women over 60 also have Cohen's D effect sizes of huge to very large when compared to men in all age groups (weighted mean scores for increasing age groups of 5.0, 4.7, 3.4).

¹² Unweighted ANOVA ($F=96$, $p<0.01$) separates rural women into the lowest income adequacy group, but there is only a small difference between rural and urban women. The same is true for economic security ($F=37$, $p<0.01$).

those living near the “contact line” in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts, where 23% of women say they lack money even for food, compared to 15% of men. In areas close to the “contact line”, 36% of women and 44% of men feel they have a stable source of income, and 32% of women and 47% of men feel that they can meet their own and dependents’ nutritional needs.

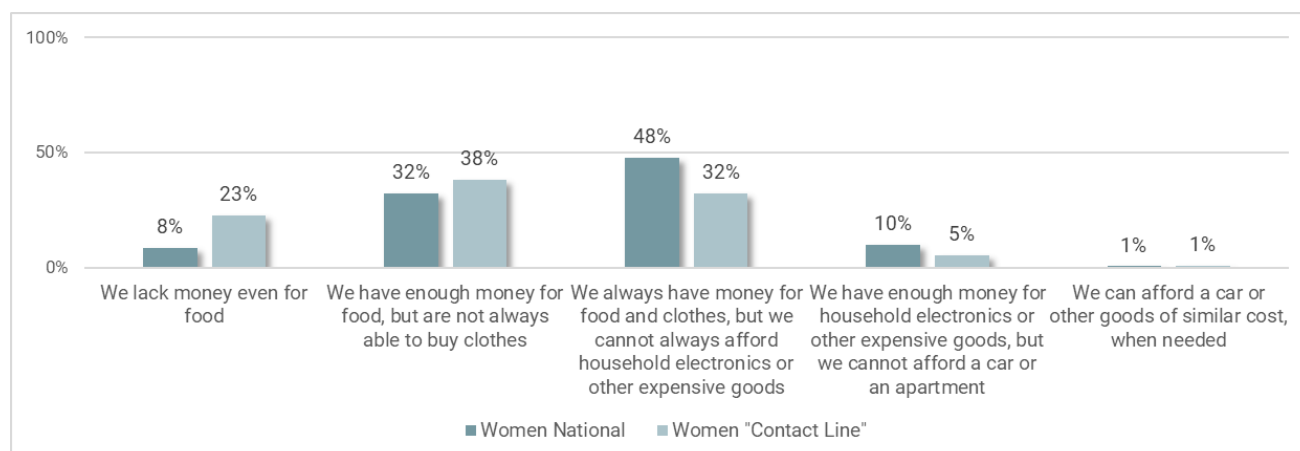


Figure 2: The percentage of respondents who rate themselves in each category of subjective poverty.



Figure 3: The percentage of respondents who rate themselves in each category of subjective poverty.

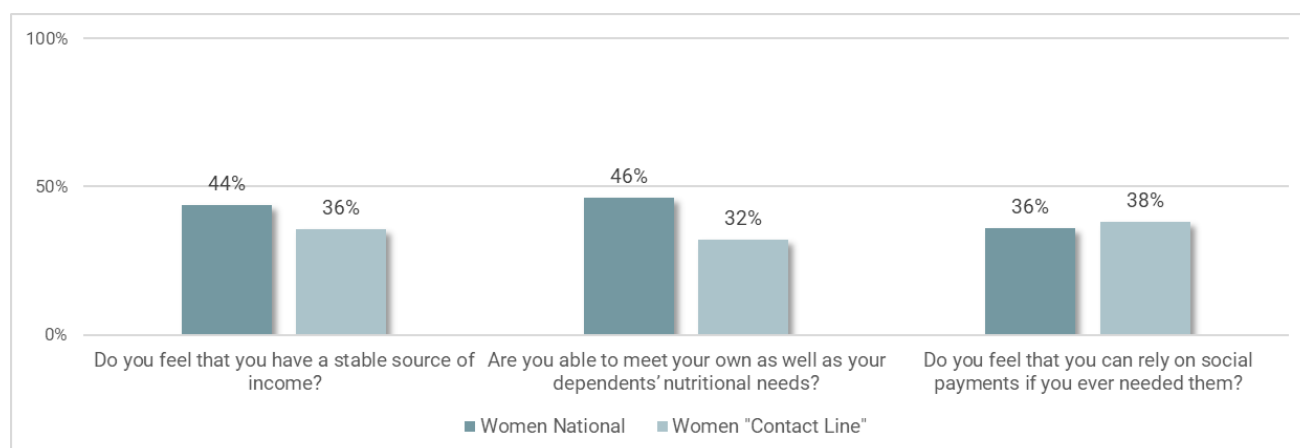


Figure 4: The percentage of respondents who perceive the following "to some extent" or "very much".

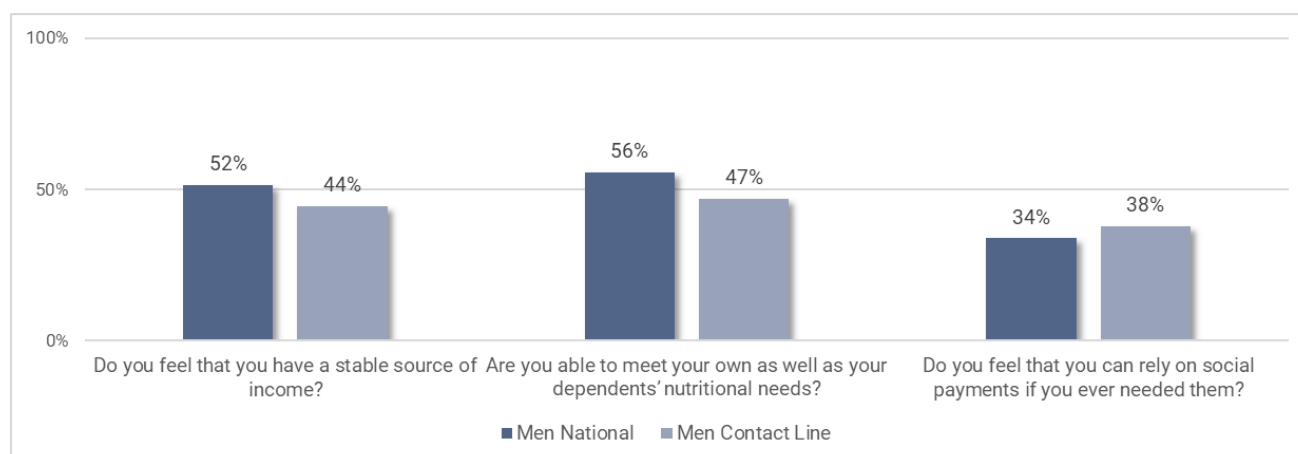


Figure 5: The percentage of respondents who perceive the following "to some extent" or "very much".

In Luhansk Oblast in 2021, 39% of women feel that they have a safe and dependable income, compared to 52% in 2019 (a drop of 13 percentage points), before the pandemic. In Donetsk Oblast, the difference is not as large, with 42% in 2021 and 49% in 2019 (difference of 5%) feeling they have a safe and dependable income. In terms of meeting their own and their dependents' nutritional needs, this has decreased from 48% in Luhansk Oblast in 2019 to 33% in 2021 (difference of 15%), and in Donetsk Oblast from 45% to 40% (difference of 5%). Since 2019, both men and women in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts¹³ express increased fear of economic instability, from 7.3 to 8.3 out of 10, which could be attributed, in part, to the damage that the COVID-19 pandemic inflicted on women's income and livelihoods.

Education level is distinctly lower in rural respondents irrespective of their gender, and women living in rural settlements have a lower level of education than those in large cities¹⁴. When controlling for the effects of age and urbanity, women's education level is linked to a lower risk of economic fragility, and a higher likelihood of full time employment¹⁵. While there is not a statistical difference in the level of full time employment of urban women compared to urban men¹⁶, rural women have significantly lower levels of full time employment than rural men¹⁷ and these women also have the lowest perceptions of employment opportunities¹⁸.

Women respondents at national level report lower entrepreneurship mentality¹⁹, a key driver of women's civic empowerment (see [Building Civic and Political Participation](#)). Women are less likely to be business owners²⁰ and to intend to start their own business, and are less likely to have travelled abroad²¹, including for work.

¹³ Comparison is only possible for Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts, which were the only oblasts surveyed in 2019.

¹⁴ Unweighted ANOVA ($F=139$, $p<0.01$) separates rural respondents into the lowest education group, and reveals a Cohen's D effect of medium size for the difference between rural and urban women (weighted mean scores of 4.9 and 5.6, respectively).

¹⁵ Partial correlation controlled for age and urbanity, Pearson correlation coefficients (R) of -0.245 for risk of economic fragility, 0.198 for full time employment.

¹⁶ Unweighted ANOVA ($F=124$, $p<0.01$) shows small Cohen's D effect size between the two.

¹⁷ Unweighted ANOVA ($F=124$, $p<0.01$) separates rural women into lowest group, with Cohen's D effect size medium compared to rural men.

¹⁸ Unweighted ANOVA ($F=107$, $p<0.01$) separates rural women (2.6) into the lowest group, with Cohen's D effect size medium compared to urban women (3.5), but Cohen's D effect size small compared to rural men (3.0).

¹⁹ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=299$, $p<0.01$), weighted mean scores of 5.7 for women and 6.7 for men. Unweighted ANOVA ($F=330$, $p<0.01$) also reveals Cohen's D effect size of medium between men and women in all age groups, where women consistently score lower than men.

²⁰ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=63$, $p<0.01$) weighted mean scores of 0.4 for women and 0.8 for men.













²¹ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=52$, $p<0.01$) weighted mean scores of not having travelled are 8.4 for women and 7.7 for men.

Women are more likely to respond that they are responsible for unpaid domestic work²², and 84% of all women report that they have children, compared to 70% of all men. As with the proportion of skilled professionals, the higher incidence of women who are homemakers may be, in part, a result of the face-to-face survey methodology of the present study. The difference in parenthood is particularly striking in younger respondents, where 64% of women under 35 say that they have children of any age, compared to just 40% of men in the same age group (difference of 24%). While the gap closes for respondents above 60 (92% of women and 89% of men; difference of 3%) and for those aged between 36-59 (90% of women, 83% of men; difference of 7%), differences remain across urban and rural settlements. In the largest cities, 81% of women say they have children compared to 68% of men (difference of 13%), in large towns this corresponds to 84% of women and 70% of men (difference of 14%), in small towns to 83% of women and 73% of men (difference of 10%), and in villages 86% of women say they are parents compared to 70% of men (difference of 16%). This demonstrates a specific burden of single parenthood on young women and rural women.

Respondents' self-reported economic insecurity and subjective poverty (see [Figure 2](#), [Figure 4](#)), were combined to assess their risk of economic fragility, enabling the characterisation of risk groups to better inform tailored recommendations ([Table 3](#) and [Figure 6](#)). The selection of these indicators was based on the definition of the actual subsistence minimum (Верховна Рада України 2018), defined as the level sufficient to ensure the normal functioning of the human body, maintaining its health, a minimum set of foods and non-food products, and a minimum set of services needed to meet the basic social and cultural needs of the individual²³.

Based on this method, respondents with critical risk of economic fragility (Critical Risk group) were defined as encapsulating 24.2% of the full sample (see [Table 3](#)), similar to the population below the actual subsistence minimum in Ukraine (23.3% (The World Bank 2021)). It is noteworthy that the proportion of women in the Critical Risk group is higher than the proportion of men in that group.

Table 3: The percentage of respondents in each of the groups of critical risk for economic fragility.

	Full Sample		Women		Men	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Critical Risk	3017	 24.2	1869	 27.3	1149	 20.4
High Risk	4633	 37.1	2574	 37.6	2059	 36.5
Moderate Risk	4068	 32.6	2084	 30.5	1984	 35.2
Low Risk	763	 6.1	311	 4.5	452	 8

²² Unweighted ANOVA ($F=121$, $p<0.01$) shows that women under 59 are most likely to be responsible for unpaid domestic work, with Cohen's D effect sizes of medium to large when compared to men of the same ages. For parenthood, unweighted ANOVA ($F=499$, $p<0.01$) shows that, while women under 35 are not the most likely to be parents, they are significantly more likely to be parents compared to men of the same age group (weighted mean scores of 8.4 and 7.0, respectively, Cohen's D effect size large). Unweighted ANOVA ($F=111$, $p<0.01$) also shows that rural women (8.6) are distinctly more likely to be parents, with Cohen's D effect size of large compared to rural men and medium compared to urban men (7.0).

²³ The actual subsistence minimum is estimated as UAH 3,847 (The World Bank 2021), while the legal subsistence minimum was UAH 2,393 for all groups overall and 2,481 for able-bodied persons in December 2021-January 2022 based on the respective state budgets (Верховна Рада України 2021b; 2021a).

Risk of economic fragility

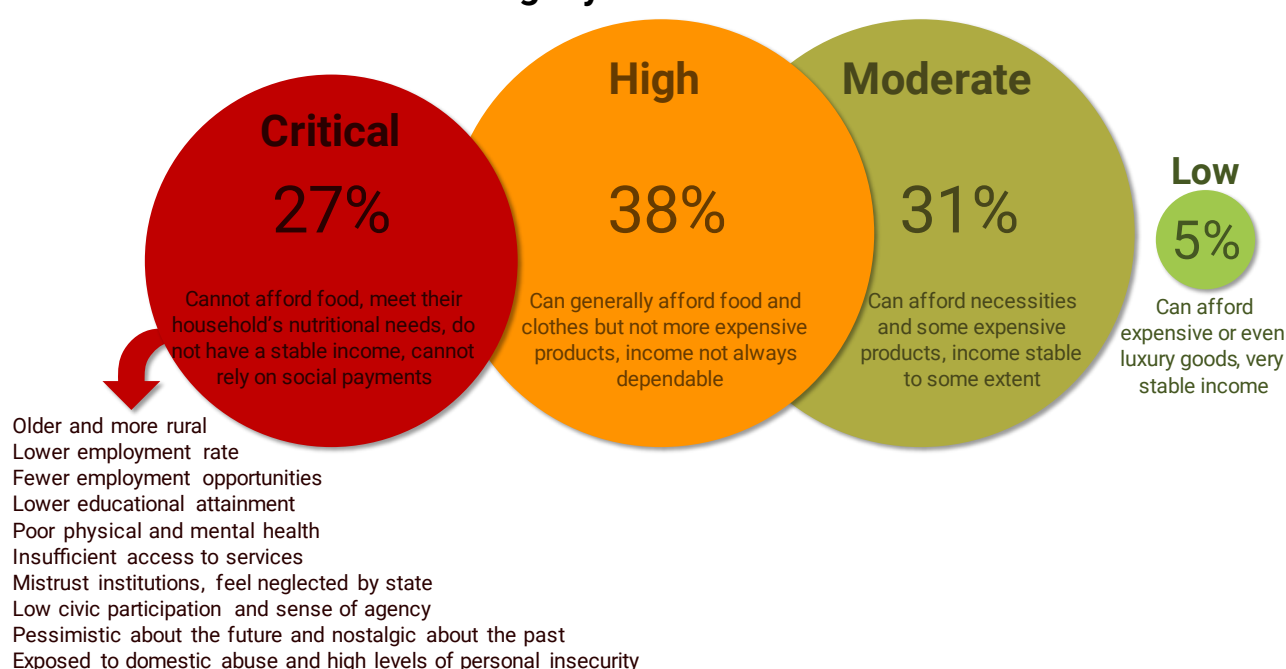


Figure 6: Summary of characteristics of women respondents in the Critical Risk of economic fragility group. Characteristics identified using ANCOVA, controlled for age, $F > 20$, $p < 0.01$.

Table 4: The percentage of women respondents per demographic disaggregation that falls into each economic fragility group.

		Critical Risk	High Risk	Moderate Risk	Low Risk
IDP status	No	27%	38%	31%	5%
	Yes	28%	37%	33%	3%
Disability status	None	26%	38%	31%	5%
	Yes, group I	38%	40%	20%	2%
	Yes, group II	50%	34%	14%	2%
	Yes, group III	45%	34%	16%	5%
	Don't know	43%	37%	20%	0%
Educational attainment	Primary	53%	32%	12%	3%
	Secondary academic	41%	39%	18%	2%
	Secondary vocational	31%	39%	27%	3%
	Higher	15%	35%	42%	8%

Women in the Critical Risk group have less perceived employment opportunities²⁴, and are less likely to be employed²⁵ (Table 5) as well as having a lower level of educational attainment (Table 4). This indicates the cyclical nature of their risk of economic fragility and the importance of increasing the support and opportunities available to these women in order to break this cycle. Even when the effects of age are controlled for, women in the Critical Risk group are more likely to be pensioners (Table 5). Women in the Critical Risk group have higher perceptions of subjective poverty than men

²⁴ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=905$, $p<0.01$), weighted mean score for women in Critical Risk group is 2.1 out of 10, compared to 3.0 (High Risk), 4.2 (Moderate Risk) and 5.1 (Low Risk).

²⁵ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=608$, $p<0.01$), weighted mean score for women in Critical Risk group is 2.0 out of 10, compared to 3.9 (High Risk), 5.5 (Moderate Risk), 5.7 (Low Risk).

in this group do²⁶, but both women and men have equally low perceptions of employment opportunities and fears of economic instability²⁷.

Of women in the Critical Risk group, 73% feel that buying necessary medicine is a problem for them, compared to 46% in the High, 22% in the Moderate and 7% in the Low Risk groups. Of women in the Critical Risk group, 67% do not have access to basic medical services and 82% to specialised medical services where they live. For the High Risk group, these percentages are 44% and 66%, and decrease further for the Moderate (23% and 52%) and Low (10% and 33%) Risk groups of women, although even in the latter one third do not have sufficient access to specialised medical care (Table 6). Women in the Critical Risk group subsequently have lower health security²⁸ (Table 5) and have lower physical health status (see [Reinforcing Health and Wellbeing](#)).

Economic fragility is also linked to the relationships that citizens have with the institutions representing them. Respondents with critical risk of economic fragility have less access to reliable services of all types, with the leading concerns surrounding health and infrastructure services²⁹. Trust in institutions is also low, with the Ministry of Health emerging as a concern³⁰, in line with the lower levels on all health measures in the Critical Risk group (Table 5), and in part likely to be linked to the COVID-19 pandemic (Dagli-Hustings et al. 2022). **A quantitative association was found between economic fragility and citizens' vertical social cohesion (see Glossary)³¹, and subsequently their overall social cohesion** (Guest and Panayiotou 2021). Similarly, women with a critical risk of economic fragility have the lowest perceptions of authorities caring³² about people like them and have the lowest levels of political security³³. Trust in the police³⁴ is also a concern for women in the Critical Risk group, who report lower levels of personal security³⁵ and higher levels of exposure to domestic abuse (see [Tackling Gender Norms and Gender-based Violence](#)). This segment of the population also feels pessimistic about the future of Ukraine, and tends to be more nostalgic about Soviet times³⁶. These characteristics pose additional threats, as they play a pivotal role in women's civic empowerment (see [Building Civic and Political Participation](#)).

²⁶ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=26$, $p<0.01$), weighted mean score for women is 8.1 out of 10 compared to 7.9 for men.

²⁷ 2.1 and 2.2 out of 10 for employment opportunities, 8.1 out of 10 for fear of economic instability.

²⁸ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=1806$, $p<0.01$), where the weighted mean score for women in the Critical Risk group is 3.4 out of 10, compared to 4.7 in the High, 5.7 in the Moderate and 7.0 in the Low Risk groups.

²⁹ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=327$, $p<0.01$ for health services; $F=322$, $p<0.01$ for infrastructure). Weighted mean scores for health and infrastructure: 5.1 and 5.6 for Critical Risk group, 5.6 and 6.1 for High Risk group, 6.1 and 6.5 for Moderate Risk group, 6.8 for Low Risk group.

³⁰ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=292$, $p<0.01$), weighted mean scores: 2.3 for Critical Risk group, 3.1 for High Risk, 3.7 for Moderate Risk and 4.2 for Low Risk group.

³¹ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) -0.365 for risk of economic fragility and vertical social cohesion, -0.322 for social cohesion overall.

³² Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=653$, $p<0.01$) weighted mean scores: 1.7 for Critical Risk group, 2.4 for High Risk, 3.3 for Moderate Risk and 4.1 for Low Risk group.

³³ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=489$, $p<0.01$) weighted mean scores: 5.5 for Critical Risk group, 6.2 for High Risk group, 7.2 for Moderate Risk group and 7.8 for Low Risk group.

³⁴ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=286$, $p<0.01$), weighted mean scores: 2.3 for Critical Risk group, 3.1 for High Risk, 3.6 for Moderate and 4.1 for Low Risk group.

³⁵ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=577$, $p<0.01$) weighted mean scores: 3.5 Critical Risk group, 4.3 High Risk group, 5.1 Moderate Risk group, 5.8 Low Risk group.

³⁶ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=509$ for civic optimism and $F=822$ for Soviet nostalgia, $p<0.01$). Weighted mean scores in civic optimism: 3.4 (Critical Risk group), 4.5 (High Risk group), 5.5 (Moderate Risk group), 6.0 (Low Risk group); Soviet nostalgia: 7.4, 6.1, 4.7, 3.7, respectively.

Table 5: Comparison of mean indicator scores for women in each of the four risk groups for economic fragility, shown alongside the full sample of women, and the full sample of women and men, for comparison. ANCOVA was carried out on the four risk groups, controlled for age. Relevant variables shown, all $F > 100$, $p < 0.01$, for groupwise comparison between the four groups. No statistical test was carried out to compare the risk groups with the full samples.

	Women				Full Sample	
	Critical Risk	High Risk	Moderate Risk	Low Risk	Women	Women & Men
Urbanity	6.2	7.0	7.1	7.1	6.8	6.7
Full time employment	2.0	3.9	5.5	5.7	3.9	4.6
Pensioner	5.4	3.2	1.8	0.8	3.2	2.8
Health status	5.1	6.2	6.8	7.6	6.2	6.5
Education	4.7	5.3	6.0	6.5	5.4	5.4
Fear of economic instability	8.1	7.5	7.1	7.0	7.5	7.5
Employment opportunities	2.1	3.0	4.2	5.1	3.2	3.4
Number of children under 18	0.4	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.6	0.7
Number of people in household	2.6	3.0	3.2	3.2	3.0	3.0
Provision of public services	5.3	5.8	6.3	6.7	5.9	5.8
Provision of infrastructure	5.6	6.1	6.5	6.8	6.1	6.1
Provision of basic schooling	6.2	6.5	7.1	7.3	6.6	6.6
Provision of higher education	4.0	4.6	5.3	5.6	4.7	4.7
Provision of health care	5.1	5.6	6.1	6.8	5.7	5.6
Provision of justice services	4.2	4.7	5.1	5.6	4.7	4.7
Provision of administrative services	6.3	6.8	7.2	7.4	6.8	6.8
Provision of welfare payments	6.2	6.6	7.2	7.5	6.7	6.6
Quality of roads	5.0	5.3	5.8	6.1	5.4	5.4
Quality of public transport	6.1	6.5	6.9	7.2	6.5	6.5
Provision of utilities	5.9	6.5	6.9	7.2	6.5	6.5
Internet access	7.2	7.7	8.1	8.4	7.7	7.8
Health security	3.4	4.7	5.7	7.0	4.8	4.8
Environmental security	5.0	5.3	6.0	6.2	5.4	5.5
Access to clean water	4.8	5.2	5.9	6.1	5.3	5.4
Personal security	3.5	4.3	5.1	5.8	4.4	4.7
Political security	5.5	6.2	7.2	7.8	6.4	6.5
Ukrainian authorities care	1.7	2.4	3.3	4.1	2.6	2.6
Accountability of authorities	2.1	2.7	3.2	3.8	2.7	2.7
Trust in central institutions	1.9	2.4	3.0	3.4	2.5	2.4
Trust in local institutions	3.9	4.5	5.0	5.2	4.5	4.4
Trust in courts	1.5	2.1	2.6	3.0	2.1	2.0
Trust in police	2.3	3.1	3.6	4.1	3.1	3.0
Trust in Ministry of Health	2.3	3.1	3.7	4.2	3.1	3.0
Anxiety	5.2	4.7	4.3	3.9	4.7	4.1
Depression	3.6	3.4	3.0	2.7	3.3	3.0
Active citizenship orientation	2.9	3.9	4.3	4.7	3.8	4.1
Civic engagement	1.7	2.1	2.3	2.8	2.1	2.1
Civic empowerment	2.5	3.0	3.2	3.7	3.0	3.1
Civic optimism	3.4	4.5	5.5	6.0	4.6	4.7
Soviet nostalgia	7.4	6.1	4.7	3.7	5.9	5.7
Optimism about future	3.0	4.2	5.4	6.2	4.3	4.5
Sense of agency	4.7	5.4	5.8	6.6	5.4	5.5
Traditional & online media consumption	5.0	5.6	6.1	5.9	5.6	5.7

Table 6: Comparison of women respondents who reported that the following are "not at all" or "not really" applicable to them, by risk group for economic fragility.

	Critical Risk	High Risk	Moderate Risk	Low Risk
Do you have sufficient access to basic and emergency medical services in your locality?	67%	44%	23%	10%
Do you have sufficient access to specialized medical services in your locality?	82%	66%	52%	33%
Do you feel that buying necessary medicine is not a problem for you?	73%	46%	22%	7%

Certain oblasts have a high percentage of women at critical risk of economic fragility (Figure 7). Kirovohrad Oblast has the highest percentage of women in the Critical Risk group (58%), followed by Sumy Oblast (53%), Luhansk and Chernihiv oblasts (41%), Cherkasy Oblast (38%), Zakarpattia Oblast (37%) and Poltava Oblast (34%). In all of the aforementioned oblasts except Cherkasy Oblast, the largest proportion of women is in the Critical Risk group (Table 7). Separate SCORE studies in Ukraine indicate that, although economic security generally experiences a downturn across the country, both women and men in Kirovohrad, Zakarpattia and Poltava oblasts report substantial decreases in economic security from 2018 to 2021 (Dagli-Hustings et al. 2022). Additionally, respondents in Kirovohrad and Luhansk oblasts report among the lowest levels of the indicators that comprise vertical social cohesion (Guest and Panayiotou 2021). Taken together, these findings indicate the potential of geographical targeting of financial assistance interventions.

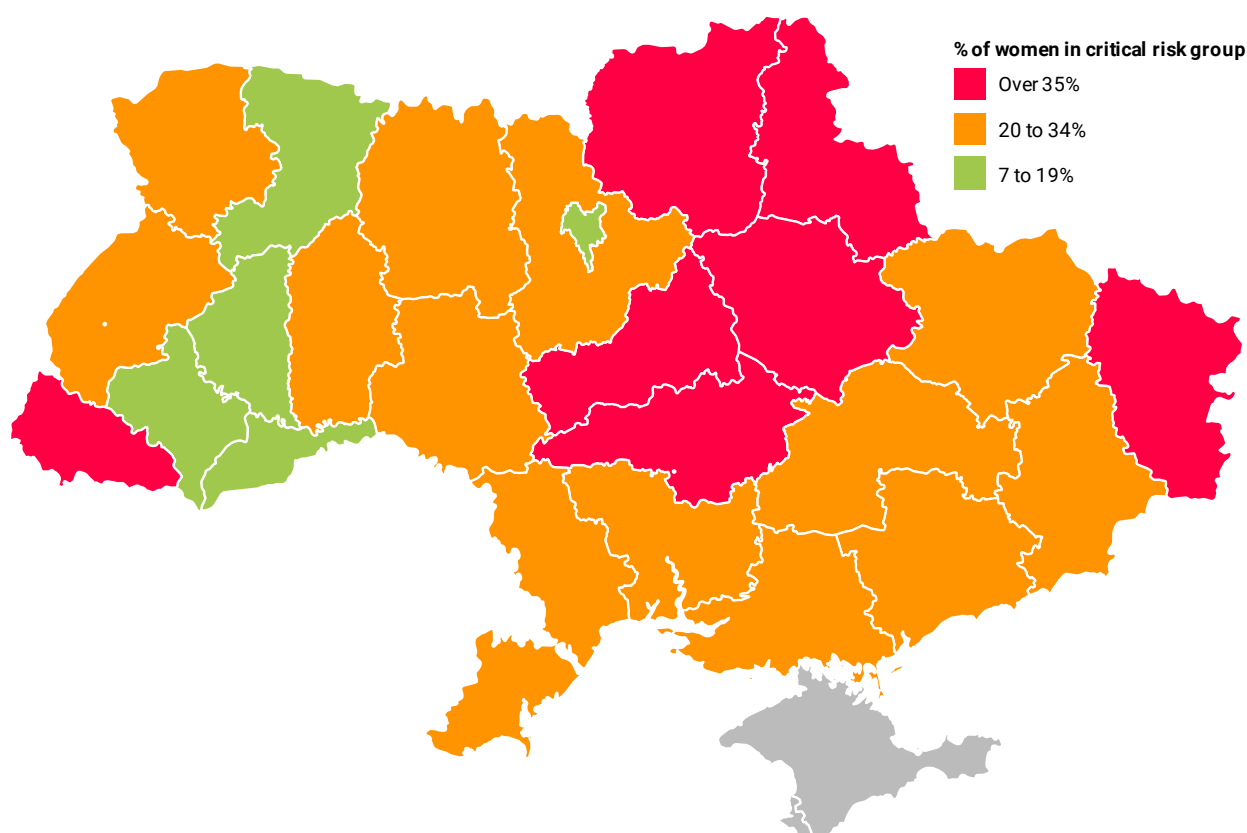
















































































Figure 7: Categorisation of the oblasts of Ukraine based on the percentage of women per oblast that fall into the critical risk of economic fragility category. Grey indicates that no data was collected.

Table 7: Proportion of women per oblast in each of the four risk groups for economic fragility.

	Critical Risk	High Risk	Moderate Risk	Low Risk
Kirovohrad Oblast	 58%	 29%	 13%	0%
Sumy Oblast	 53%	 28%	 16%	3%
Luhansk Oblast	 41%	 36%	 20%	3%
Chernihiv Oblast	 41%	 36%	 21%	2%
Cherkasy Oblast	 38%	 46%	 14%	2%
Zakarpattia Oblast	 37%	 34%	 22%	6%
Poltava Oblast	 34%	 31%	 30%	5%
Donetsk Oblast	 33%	 36%	 26%	4%
Kharkiv Oblast	 31%	 35%	 30%	4%
Kherson Oblast	 31%	 34%	 31%	4%
Odesa Oblast	 31%	 40%	 27%	3%
Kyiv Oblast	 27%	 40%	 31%	2%
Volyn Oblast	 26%	 41%	 31%	3%
Khmelnyskyi Oblast	 25%	 40%	 30%	5%
Vinnitsia Oblast	 24%	 44%	 28%	4%
Mykolaiv Oblast	 24%	 44%	 29%	3%
Zhytomyr Oblast	 23%	 32%	 38%	7%
Dnipropetrovsk Oblast	 22%	 43%	 31%	4%
Lviv Oblast	 22%	 33%	 40%	5%
Zaporizhzhia Oblast	 22%	 41%	 33%	5%
Rivne Oblast	 17%	 42%	 37%	4%
Kyiv city	 15%	 42%	 35%	8%
Chernivtsi Oblast	 14%	 35%	 42%	10%
Ivano-Frankivsk Oblast	 13%	 34%	 43%	11%
Ternopil Oblast	 7%	 32%	 56%	5%
Full sample	 27%	 38%	 31%	5%

Building Civic and Political Participation

Results show that women are more apathetic about civic life, but that empowerment can be increased by building agency and civic responsibility. Technical skills such as leadership and entrepreneurship also bolster empowerment, while opportunities for contact with other groups and cooperation within the community pave the way for more participation.

Given the sweeping impact that the war in Ukraine has had on the lives of millions of Ukrainian women and men, and the mobilisation of women both in Ukraine and abroad to volunteer, the social capital and networks of women in Ukraine will be vital for future recovery. Research reveals that women from diverse backgrounds are involved in volunteering and providing assistance, and women's leadership has increased in community-level humanitarian efforts. Yet, women's participation in formal decision-making processes has decreased, particularly for those who have recently been displaced (CARE International and UN Women 2022).

Before the war, in the appointed Cabinet of Ministers of Prime Minister Denys Shmyhal in 2021, only three of twenty three (13%) were women (Верховна Рада України 2022). By 2021 in the ninth Verkhovna Rada, women held 21% of the seats in Ukraine's parliament a figure which has been increasing slowly but steadily since 1990, where only thirteen women were in parliament, at 3% (Odarchenko 2021). Following the local elections in October 2020, 28% of oblast councils and 42% of village councils were led by women, successes attributed, in part, to the application of gender quotas to the electoral code (Ukrainian Women's Congress 2021). Subsequently, following the results of the 2020 Ukrainian local elections, data from the Central Election Commission of Ukraine (CEC) demonstrates that in local politics there was a 13% increase in the proportion of women nominated as candidates by political parties and a 12% increase in the proportion of women elected as councillors (Центральної виборчої комісії 2020a; 2020b).

These statistics highlight an improvement in women's civic and political participation in the recent years, though much remains to be done to achieve equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political and public life. Of the four subindices of the Global Gender Gap Index, the lowest score in Ukraine was in "Political Empowerment", at 0.147, compared to the other components of "Economic Participation and Opportunity", "Educational Attainment" and "Health and Survival", in which Ukraine scored 0.732, 1.000 and 0.978 on a 0 to 1 scale (where higher scores indicate better gender equality), respectively (World Economic Forum 2021). This demonstrates that politics remains the area with the largest gap that needs to be closed in order to achieve gender equality in Ukraine.

Various studies also point to the prevalence of harmful gender stereotypes, vertical and horizontal segregation, discriminatory practices, and a general lack of gender responsiveness in politics at both national and local levels, which contribute to the creation of a political environment where women do not feel safe and are not treated as equals (Ukrainian Women's Fund 2011; Скорик 2014; Марценюк 2019). In contrast, public opinion surveys highlight certain egalitarian tendencies among the Ukrainian public when it comes to politics: while patriarchal attitudes are still widespread, Ukrainians are apt to believe that women can improve the situation in government structures, and that the state must provide equal rights and opportunities for men and women to participate in political life (Марценюк 2019). Taken together, these findings show that perception shifts have yet to translate into institutional structures, further demonstrating the urgency of women's political inclusion.

Women's participation is essential for sustainable peace after conflict, forging peace processes that are focussed on vital aspects of reconciliation, economic development, education and transitional justice (Lindborg 2017). Increasing evidence demonstrates that women's participation contributes to the conclusion of peace talks and the implementation and durability of peace agreements (UN Women 2015a). Further, women's engagement in peace processes is linked to a broadening of the

issues discussed, increasing community buy-in and addressing root causes, and to more pressure on negotiating parties to reach an agreement (UN Women 2015a).

Women in the SCORE sample **have lower political security** than men³⁷, presumably at least in part due to their high levels of exclusion from the political sphere, as well as the prevalence of stereotypes which discourage women's political participation. Women in the sample also display **lower levels of active citizenship** than men³⁸, and active citizenship is **distinctly low in older women**³⁹ and **women at critical risk of economic fragility**⁴⁰. Women have a **lower sense of agency and responsibility**⁴¹ (Figure 9), both of which are lower in older women compared to younger women⁴², pointing to the increased isolation from public life that older women face.

The lower levels of agency and civic responsibility, paired with higher levels of passive citizenship orientation⁴³, result in women having higher levels of political apathy and information consumption apathy⁴⁴. Women are also less likely to condone political violence and to display violent citizenship tendencies than men are⁴⁵ (Figure 8), indicating the wide-reaching benefits of increasing women's participation.

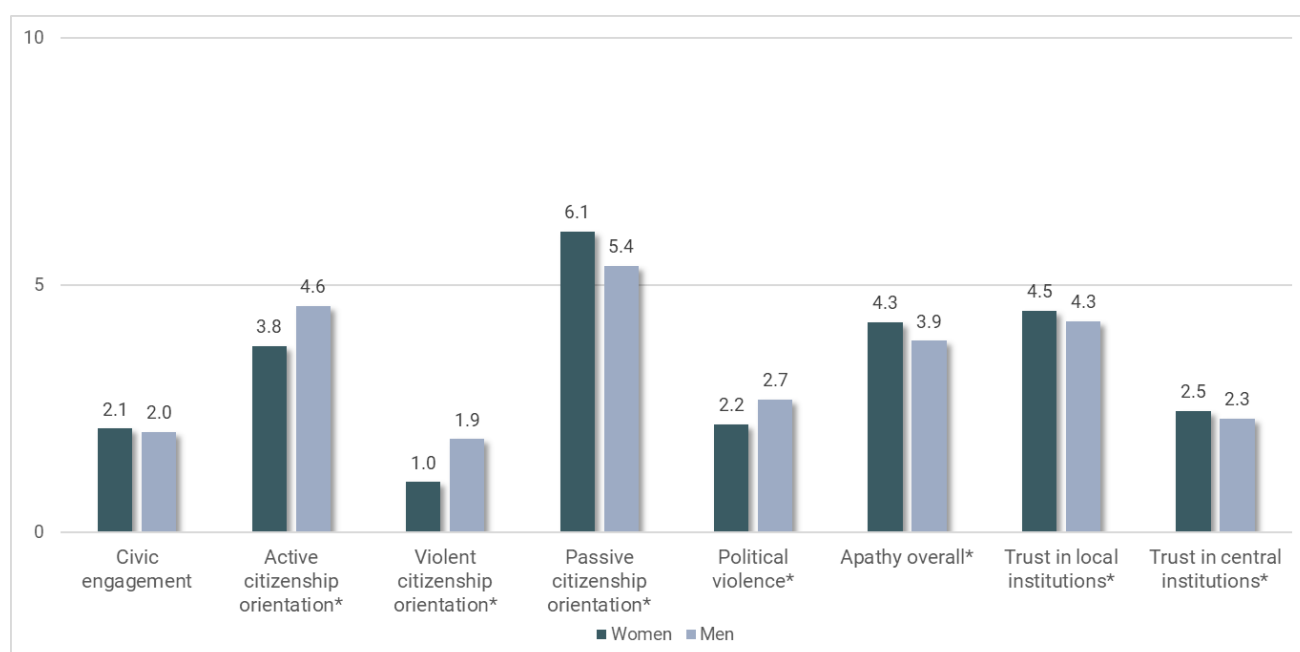


Figure 8: Civic and political participation indicators. Asterisks denote statistically significant difference between women and men in ANCOVA, controlled for age, $F > 20$, $p < 0.01$.

³⁷ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age $F = 29$, $p < 0.01$), weighted mean scores of 6.4 in women and 6.7 in men.

³⁸ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F = 166$, $p < 0.01$), weighted mean scores of 3.8 for women and 4.6 for men.

³⁹ Unweighted ANOVA ($F = 77$, $p < 0.01$) puts older women in the lowest group (weighted mean score 3.1), with Cohen's D effect sizes of medium compared to both younger women (4.1) and to men in the same age group (4.0).

⁴⁰ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F = 267$, $p < 0.01$).

⁴¹ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F = 25$ and 58 , $p < 0.01$) mean scores of 5.1 and 5.1 in women, 5.7 and 5.5 in men, for agency and responsibility, respectively.

⁴² Unweighted ANOVA, $F = 35$, $p < 0.01$, weighted mean scores of 5.7 and 5.3 in younger women and 5.0 and 4.8 in older women, for agency and civic responsibility, respectively, with Cohen's D effect size of medium between the two age groups.

⁴³ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F = 180$, $p < 0.01$), weighted mean scores of 6.1 in women and 5.4 in men.

⁴⁴ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F = 104$ for political apathy, $F = 123$ for information apathy, $p < 0.01$).

⁴⁵ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age $F = 82$ and 381 , $p < 0.01$), weighted mean scores of 2.2 for political violence in women and 2.7 in men, and 1.0 for violent citizenship orientation in women and 1.9 in men.

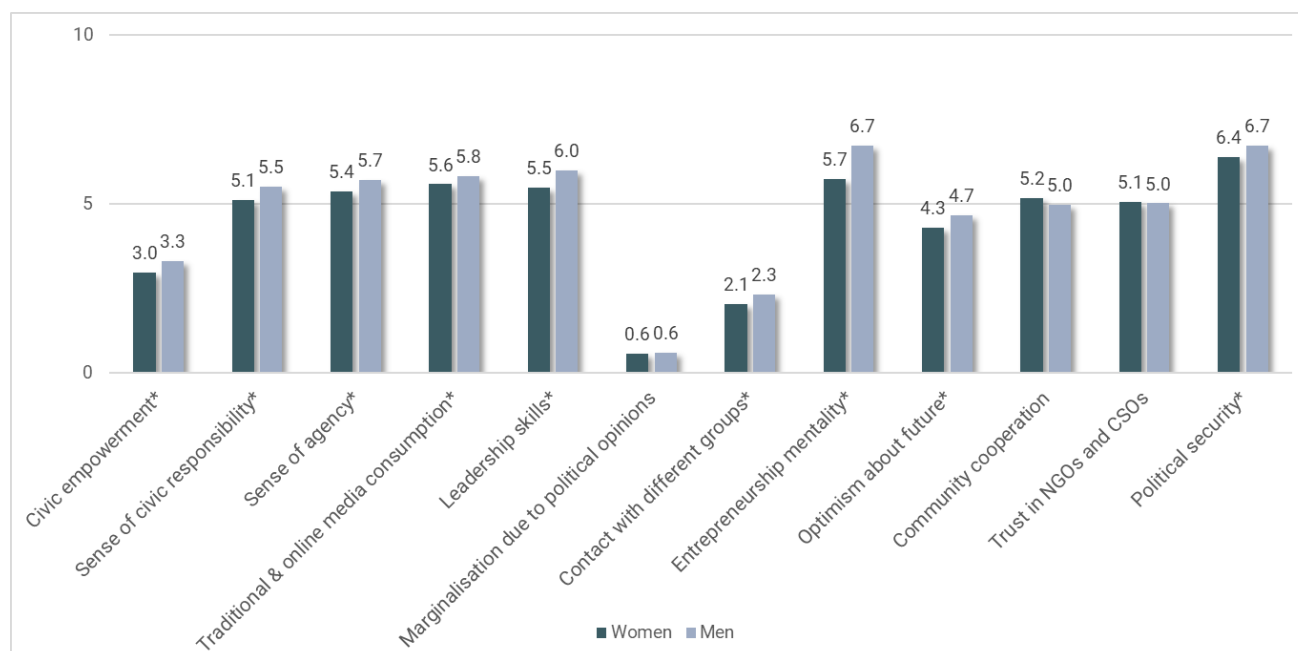


Figure 9: Civic and political participation indicators relevant for driving civic empowerment. Asterisks denote statistically significant difference between women and men in ANCOVA, controlled for age, $F > 20$, $p < 0.01$.

Civic optimism decreased in women from Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts⁴⁶ from 4.4 in 2019 to 2.9 in 2021, as did trust in central institutions, from 4.3 in 2019 to 2.2 in 2021. Both, as speculated in separate SCORE publications, can be tied to waning optimism surrounding the 2019 elections (Dagli-Hustings et al. 2022). In women respondents, the biggest decrease in trust is seen towards the President, from 5.8 to 2.8 out of 10, followed by trust towards the Verkhovna Rada, from 4.0 to 1.7, trust in the Cabinet of Ministers, from 3.9 to 1.8, and finally, trust in the courts from 3.5 to 2.4, with figures similar in men. Nevertheless, since the escalation of Russian military aggression in 2022, research has shown that confidence in government is on the rise⁴⁷. Independent of these changes, women have more trust in institutions⁴⁸ and rate public service provision more effectively than men⁴⁹.

Respondents' civic empowerment was evaluated by combining their active citizenship orientation, as measured through their likelihood of reacting peacefully for positive change in a situation of civic unrest, alongside their frequency of engagement in civic and political life (see Figure 10). All but three of the drivers of civic empowerment were statistically significantly lower in women respondents (Figure 9).

Women's civic empowerment depends on their sense of agency and civic responsibility, two indicators which were low in women in 2021, and which are perpetuated by harmful gender stereotypes⁵⁰. Increased trust in NGOs and CSOs bolsters women's civic empowerment, while women's experience of marginalisation due to their political opinions motivates them to become more active and engaged.

⁴⁶ Comparison is only possible for Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts which were the only oblasts surveyed in 2019.

⁴⁷ 93% of respondents support the activities of the President and 84% of local mayors, according to research by the sociological group "Rating" in March 2022 (RatingGroup 2022).

⁴⁸ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age: $F = 49$, $p < 0.01$), weighted mean scores of 2.5 in women and 2.3 in men for trust in central institutions; $F = 30$, weighted mean scores of 4.5 and 4.3 in women and men for trust in local institutions.

⁴⁹ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F = 27$, $p < 0.01$) weighted mean scores of 5.9 in women and 5.8 in men for public service provision, 6.7 in women and 6.5 in men for welfare payment provision.

⁵⁰ Partial correlation controlled for age, $R = -0.224$ for gender stereotypes and sense of agency, -0.200 for gender stereotypes and sense of civic responsibility in women, $p < 0.01$.

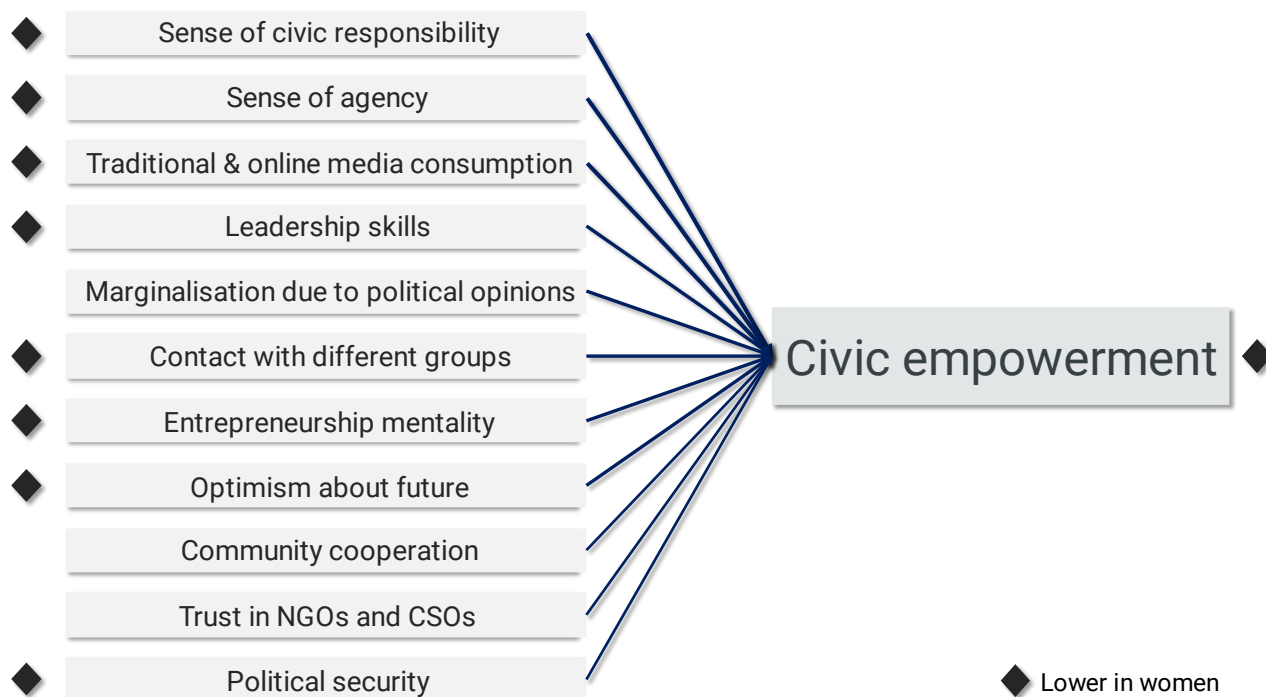


Figure 10: Results of linear regression with outcome civic empowerment, drivers ranked in order of predictive power, for model fit indices see Annex. Rhombus indicates that mean scores for indicators are statistically significantly lower in women than in men, as determined by ANCOVA controlled for age, $F>35$, $p<0.01$.

Optimism about the future, evaluated through the measures of civic optimism and the absence of Soviet nostalgia, was found to drive civic empowerment. Remaining informed about current events, both through online and traditional (television, radio, newspaper) sources also paves the way for increased civic empowerment, validating the reciprocal, undermining influence that information consumption apathy has on civic empowerment and participation (The Centre for Sustainable Peace and Democratic Development (SeeD) 2021). Civic empowerment is also driven by intergroup contact, while community cooperation appears to serve as a catalyst of increased activism and engagement, evidencing that local-level interventions, which could then be scaled up, may form immediate entry-points for women's participation.

Women's political security also emerged as a driver of their civic empowerment, albeit a weak one. Alongside sense of agency, political security makes up a core component of vertical social cohesion (Guest and Panayiotou 2021), which describes the degree of harmonious citizen-institution relationships in a society (see [Glossary](#)). This demonstrates the importance of **vertical social cohesion in forming the foundations of civic empowerment for women across Ukraine**, particularly given that these indicators are lower in women respondents.

Women's tendency to underrate their leadership and entrepreneurial skills (see [Promoting Economic Participation](#)) was also evidenced to have a negative effect on civic empowerment, indicating that economic and employability strengthening programmes could have multiple, wide-reaching benefits on women's civic and political empowerment. This is further supported by the observation that additional skills, such as growth mindset and critical thinking⁵¹, are also linked to leadership and entrepreneurial skills.

⁵¹ Partial correlation controlled for age, $R=0.4$ to 0.5 for entrepreneurship mentality and leadership skills, critical thinking and growth mindset in women and men, $p<0.01$. Partial correlation controlled for age, $R=0.6$ to 0.7 for leadership skills, critical thinking and growth mindset in women and men, $p<0.01$.

Reinforcing Health and Wellbeing

Independent of their age, women respondents have poorer health outcomes, with specific vulnerabilities emerging for women living near the “contact line”, women with disabilities, and women with a critical risk of economic fragility, who also face additional barriers to their access to healthcare.

These findings are particularly relevant given the humanitarian crisis as a result of Russia’s full-scale invasion of Ukraine in February 2022. In recent research, 49% of women respondents and 50% of men reported that their mental health was the area of their life most impacted by war (CARE International and UN Women 2022). The lack of access to sexual and reproductive health services as well as maternal, newborn and child health, are becoming a primary concern (CARE International and UN Women 2022), and at the start of the war over 265,000 women were pregnant in Ukraine, with 80,000 expected to give birth in the first three months of the war (UNFPA 2022). Older women, people with disabilities, chronic diseases, and other illnesses have faced increasing health problems since the war began (CARE International and UN Women 2022).

In Ukraine, disproportionate health risks and existing gender inequalities were compounded by the ongoing war and by COVID-19 at the national level (UN Women Ukraine 2020a). Before Russia’s country-wide invasion, women and children represented 68% of the conflict-affected population in Ukraine, and elderly people made up 38% of the population in conflict affected areas, compared to the 17% that they make up in other parts of the country (Health Cluster Ukraine 2021; State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021e). In turn, women were estimated to represent between 56% and 76% of older people in conflict-affected areas, compared to the national average of 66% (Health Cluster Ukraine 2021; State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021e). These statistics are critical, given the prevalence of mental health disorders in conflict-affected populations globally (Charlson et al. 2019). At the national level, two thirds of the population over 65 are women (State Statistics Service of Ukraine 2021e), an age group facing a higher prevalence of comorbidities such as chronic diseases, mental health issues and disabilities, and a higher risk of developing severe COVID-19 illness (UN Women Ukraine 2020b; Health Cluster Ukraine 2021). Exposing additional vulnerabilities, the first chapter of the present report also identified an association between poorer health outcomes and risk of economic fragility.

Women in the SCORE sample reported higher levels of anxiety and depression⁵² (Figure 11, Figure 12), lower mental wellbeing⁵³ and physical health status⁵⁴ (observations which remain when the effects of age are controlled for). Older women have the highest levels of anxiety and depression, compared to both younger women and to men in the same age group⁵⁵. Anxiety and depression are also higher in women at critical risk of economic fragility⁵⁶. The same is true for physical health status, which is lowest in older women⁵⁷, and in those with a critical risk of economic fragility⁵⁸, and there is a quantitative association between poor physical health, subjective poverty, and mental

⁵² Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age F=670 and 212, p<0.01) weighted mean scores of 4.7 for anxiety and 3.3 for depression in women, compared to 3.4 and 2.8 respectively in men.

⁵³ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, F=454, p<0.01) weighted mean scores of 6.2 in women and 7.0 in men.

⁵⁴ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, F=152, p<0.01) weighted mean score of 6.2 in women and 6.9 in men.

⁵⁵ Unweighted ANOVA separates older women into the highest group (weighted mean score 5.3 for anxiety and 3.6 for depression), F=241, p<0.01, with Cohen’s D effect sizes above medium compared to younger women (anxiety 4.2, depression 3.0), middle-aged women (anxiety 4.6, depression 3.2), and older men (anxiety 4.0, depression 2.9).

⁵⁶ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age F=189 for anxiety, F=163 for depression, p<0.01). Weighted mean scores anxiety: 5.2 for Critical Risk group, 4.7 for High Risk group, 4.3 for Moderate and 3.9 for Low Risk group; depression: 3.6 for Critical, 3.4 for High, 3.0 for Moderate and 2.7 for Low Risk groups.

⁵⁷ Unweighted ANOVA separates older women into the lowest group (weighted mean score 4.6), F=924, p<0.01, with Cohen’s D effect sizes above medium compared to younger women (7.8), middle-aged women (6.4) and older men (5.2).

⁵⁸ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, F=976, p<0.01), mean scores 5.1 for Critical Risk group, 6.2 for High Risk group, 6.8 for Moderate and 7.6 for Low Risk group.

wellbeing⁵⁹. At the intersection of gender and disability, previous SCORE research identified the specific vulnerabilities of women with disabilities who reported the highest levels of anxiety and depression⁶⁰ (Machlouzarides 2022).

In areas close to the “contact line” in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts, 90% of women worry a lot about bad things that could happen, 83% have trouble not worrying, 81% feel depressed or very sad, 80% do not feel like doing anything, and 68% feel bad about things they have done (Figure 11, Figure 12). These findings are consistent with independent assessments which identify the mental health consequences of the armed conflict in eastern Ukraine (World Health Organization 2020), and the prevalence of mental health disorders in conflict-affected populations globally (Charlson et al. 2019).

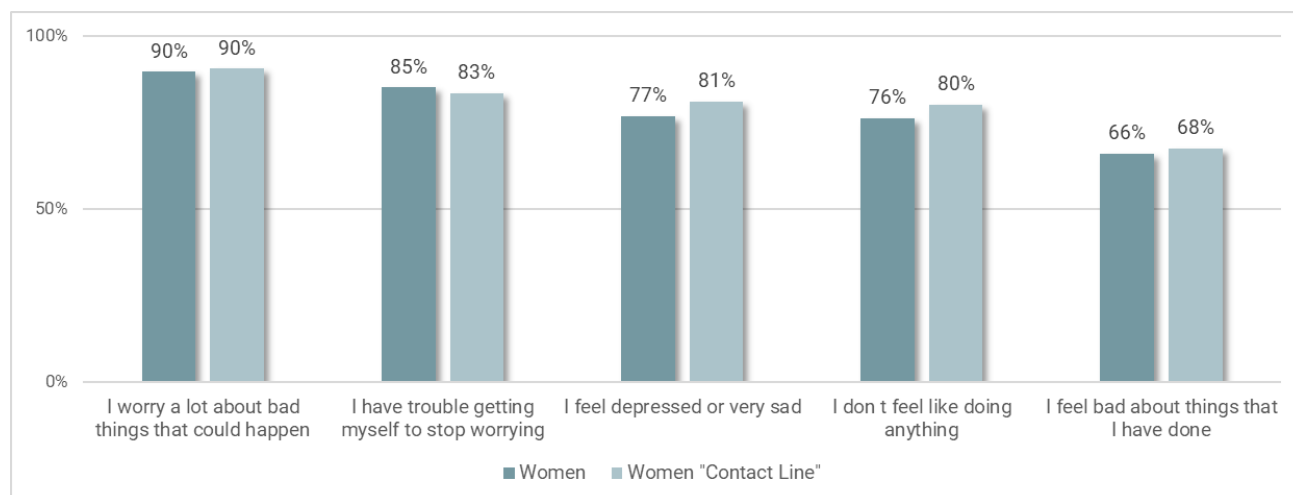


Figure 11: Percentage of respondents who reported that the following occur "sometimes", "often" and "very often".

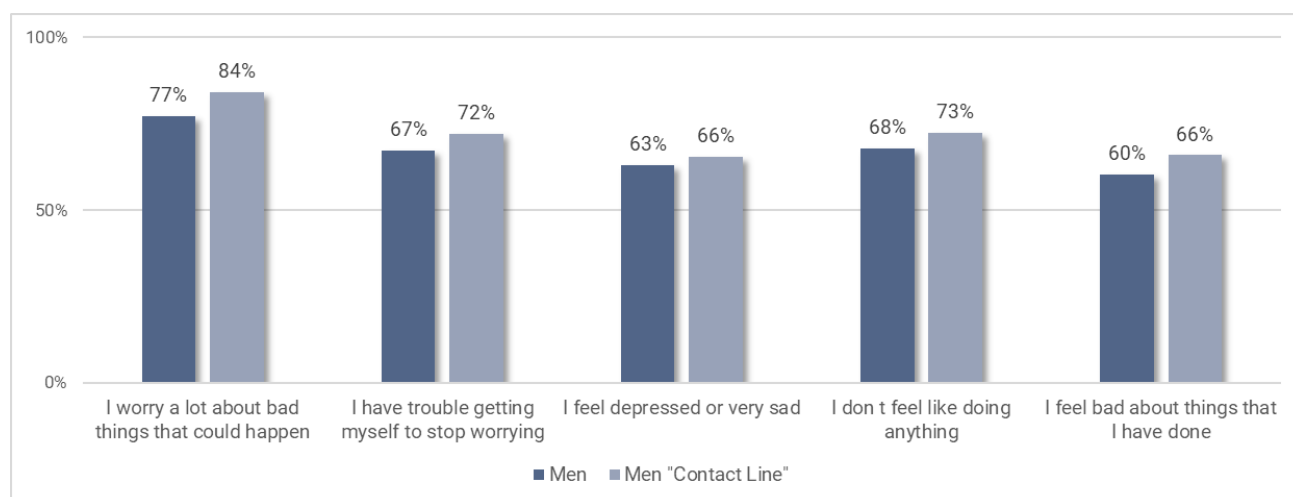


Figure 12: Percentage of respondents who reported that the following occur "sometimes", "often" and "very often".

Women report higher household exposure to COVID-19⁶¹, in agreement with previous records of a higher number of COVID-19 cases among women in Ukraine (UN Women Ukraine 2020b). While 61% of women in the national sample are satisfied with the quality of air they breathe, this decreases to

⁵⁹ Partial correlation controlled for age with Pearson correlation coefficient (R) -0.21 for subjective poverty and physical health, 0.23 for mental wellbeing and physical health, -0.14 for subjective poverty and mental wellbeing.

⁶⁰ Unweighted ANOVA, $F=205$ for anxiety, $F=74$ for depression, $p<0.01$, Cohen's D effect sizes are medium and large. Scores out of 10: women with disabilities 6.5 in anxiety and 4.0 in depression, women without disability status 4.8 in anxiety and 3.3 in depression, men with disabilities 4.3 in anxiety and 3.4 in depression, men without disability status 3.6 in anxiety and 2.8 in depression.

⁶¹ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=31$, $p<0.01$), weighted mean scores of 1.9 for women and 1.7 for men.

50% of women in proximity to the “contact line”. Urban women have the lowest levels of access to clean water⁶², and while 58% of women in the national sample are satisfied with their access to clean water, this decreases to 41% for women in proximity to the “contact line”. These findings are consistent with previous research that identified problems in water supply and/or access for women respondents living in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts and in southern regions of the country particularly as a result of COVID-19 in Ukraine (UN Women Ukraine 2020b), but contrasts reports of insufficient safe drinking water being an issue that affects rural, rather than urban, areas (FAO 2021).

Half (50%) of women over 60 and 47% of rural women do not have sufficient access to basic medical services where they live (figures are similar for men). Further, 57% of older women say that buying necessary medicine is a problem for them, as do 42% of middle aged and 32% of younger women. Buying necessary medicine is also a problem for 52% of rural women. Near the “contact line”, 82% of both men and women do not have sufficient access to specialised medical services, and approximately 50% do not have access to basic medical services.

Women also appear more isolated on a social level, and have less contact with different groups⁶³, which has negative implications on their civic empowerment (see [Building Civic and Political Participation](#)) and on their mental wellbeing (World Health Organization. Regional Office for Europe 2021). Contact is distinctly low in rural and older women⁶⁴, with 29% of women over 60 living in single-person households (compared to 11% of men). Women also report less readiness for dialogue⁶⁵ with other groups, and this is linked to decreased social tolerance towards minority groups⁶⁶, an important component of horizontal social cohesion (Guest and Panayiotou 2021) which assesses the degree of harmonious citizen-citizen relationships in a society (see [Glossary](#)). Conversely, women have higher levels of family coherence⁶⁷ than men do, and this appears to act as a protective factor, linked to lower levels of marginalisation⁶⁸, more empathy⁶⁹ and horizontal social cohesion⁷⁰, higher distress tolerance⁷¹, critical thinking⁷² and growth mindset⁷³, but also lower levels of aggression⁷⁴.

In the SCORE sample, women report slightly higher levels of marginalisation due to their gender and health status, although for both women and men across the sample, the most common form of marginalisation is due to their income level ([Figure 13](#)). As found in previous SCORE research (Machlouzarides 2022), marginalisation is linked to lower levels of mental wellbeing⁷⁵.

⁶² Unweighted ANOVA separates urban women into the lowest group ($F=251$, $p<0.01$), with weighted mean score of 4.8, compared to urban men at 5.1, rural women and rural men at 6.4.

⁶³ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=85$, $p<0.01$) weighted mean score of 2.1 for women and 2.3 for men.

⁶⁴ Unweighted ANOVA separates rural women ($F=82$, $p<0.01$) and older women ($F=39$, $p<0.01$) into the lowest group, with weighted mean scores of 1.8.

⁶⁵ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=31$, $p<0.01$), weighted mean score 4.0 for women and 4.3 for men.

⁶⁶ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) 0.236 in women, 0.234 in men, $p<0.01$.

⁶⁷ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=26$, $p<0.01$), weighted mean score 8.7 for women, 8.5 for men.

⁶⁸ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) -0.226 in women, -0.168 in men, $p<0.01$.

⁶⁹ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) 0.230 in women, 0.213 in men, $p<0.01$.

⁷⁰ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) 0.240 in women, 0.207 in men, $p<0.01$.

⁷¹ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) 0.266 in women, 0.291 in men, $p<0.01$.

⁷² Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) 0.226 in women, 0.254 in men, $p<0.01$.

⁷³ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) 0.251 in women, 0.295 in men, $p<0.01$.

⁷⁴ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) -0.245 in women, -0.221 in men, $p<0.01$.

⁷⁵ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) -0.183 in women, -0.225 in men, $p<0.01$.

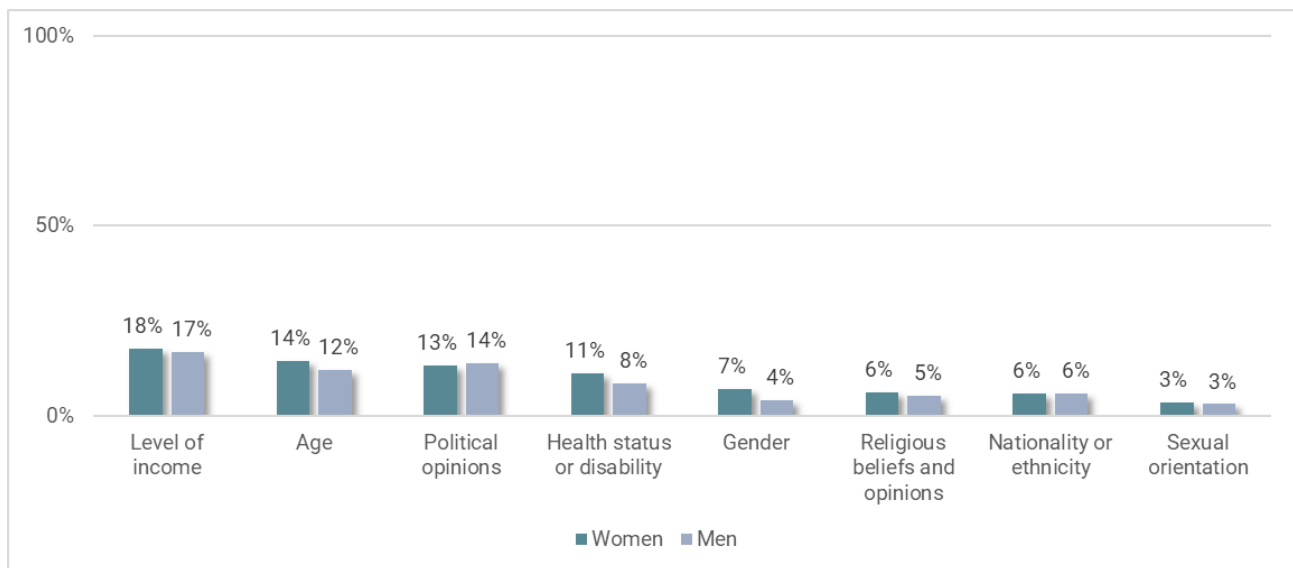


Figure 13: Percentage of respondents who report that they have been marginalised "sometimes", "often" or "very often", due to their personal characteristics or the personal characteristics of their family members.

Tackling Gender Norms and Gender-based Violence

Harmful stereotypes towards both women and men are pervasive, but women lead the way in expressing a gender equality mindset. Women have lower levels of personal security, and conflict-affected women alongside those at critical risk of economic fragility have a higher risk of exposure to domestic abuse. Where comparisons are possible, data shows slight increases in exposure to domestic abuse post-COVID-19.

These findings are particularly important since Russia's full-scale invasion of Ukraine in February 2022, given that women are at heightened risk of gender-based violence during armed conflict and mass displacement. Recent research reports that women were concerned about their personal security even during the day, while there are increasing and concerning reports of conflict-related sexual violence emerging (CARE International and UN Women 2022). Concurrently, the Commissioner for Human Rights of the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine, Liudmyla Denisova, reported at least 400 incidents of rape of children and adults by Russian military forces by April 2022 (Suspilne Media 2022). Alongside a reported increase in domestic violence, services for GBV survivors and shelters are not operating at pre-war capacities (CARE International and UN Women 2022). Physical safety and access to bomb shelters are limited to vulnerable populations, such as those with restricted mobility and women who may fear for their safety in the streets at night (CARE International and UN Women 2022).

Despite progress in Ukraine, existing gender inequalities are compounded by the ongoing war, which has revealed deep-seated gender stereotypes, traditional values and patriarchal views that condone widespread discrimination and violence against women and girls (UN Women Ukraine 2020a). Concurrently across the country, the COVID-19 pandemic exposed vulnerabilities in areas where strong gender inequalities continue to persist, with critics warning that COVID-19 was at risk of reversing the gains on women's rights, particularly regarding their economic empowerment, unless gender equality was fully integrated into COVID-19 response and recovery strategies (UN Women Ukraine 2020b).

Women are more likely to be victims/survivors of domestic violence, and women and girls constituted the majority of registered victims/survivors of rape, domestic violence and human trafficking in 2018 (UN Women Ukraine 2020b). Figures from 2014 show that 22% of women aged 15 to 49 have experienced physical and/or sexual violence (UNFPA 2014). Two thirds (67%) of women have experienced psychological, physical or sexual violence at the hands of a partner or non-partner since the age of 15, and nearly half (49%) of women have experienced sexual harassment since the age of 15 (OSCE 2019). Further, there has been a reported increase in domestic violence, rape, prostitution and survival sex in the conflict-affected territories of Ukraine, mostly affecting women (Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights 2017), who are at an increased risk of domestic, sexual and gender-based violence compared to those in other regions (Health Cluster Ukraine 2021). These figures are expected to rise given the current phase of the war in Ukraine, with allegations continually surfacing since the beginning of Russia's full-scale invasion (Insecurity Insight 2022).

Social isolation measures due to COVID-19 also led to an increase in domestic violence, evidenced from early data which marked an increase from 1,273 calls to the "La Strada Ukraine" domestic violence hotline (0 800 500 335 or 116-123) in February 2020, to 2,051 calls between 12 March and 12 April 2020, as well as government data from Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts which recorded an increase from 1,196 in the first quarter of 2019 to 1,970 in the first quarter of 2020 in Donetsk Oblast, and from 748 to 1,069 in Luhansk Oblast (UN Women Ukraine 2020b), and the national domestic violence hotline (102) reported a 26% increase in calls from January-April 2019 to January-April 2020 (UNFPA 2020).

Men in the SCORE sample display higher levels of support for gender stereotypes⁷⁶ and normalisation of domestic violence against women⁷⁷ than women do, while **women exhibit a gender equality mindset**⁷⁸. Gender stereotypes are the lowest in young women⁷⁹, and normalisation of domestic violence against women is the lowest in women under the age of 59⁸⁰. Worryingly, young men do not appear to be less supportive of harmful gender stereotypes or less likely to normalise gender-based violence compared to older men, and aggression is also much higher in men overall⁸¹. **A quantitative association between gender stereotypes and civic empowerment also becomes evident**, whereby support for harmful stereotypes leads to lower levels of sense of agency and civic responsibility in both women and men⁸².

Regarding gender stereotypes (Figure 14, Figure 15), **37% of women think that men should have the final word when important household decisions are made**, compared to 61% of men – these figures do not vary largely between age groups, but are slightly higher in rural respondents, especially considering the 44% of rural women who agree with this statement, compared to 30% of women in the most urban settlements. Of men, **62% think that women are too emotional and that this affects their rationality and judgement**, compared to 41% of women (38% of women under 35, 41% of women between 36 and 59, and 45% of women above 60, 35% of women in the most urban settlements and 47% of rural women). Almost 8 in 10 (79%) men of all ages think that women should have more delicate jobs (82% of rural men and 81% of men over 60), with women closely mirroring this view at 75% (80% of rural women and 78% of women over 60). Finally, 61% of men and 54% of women think that women should take care of their children instead of working if the man can provide for the family.

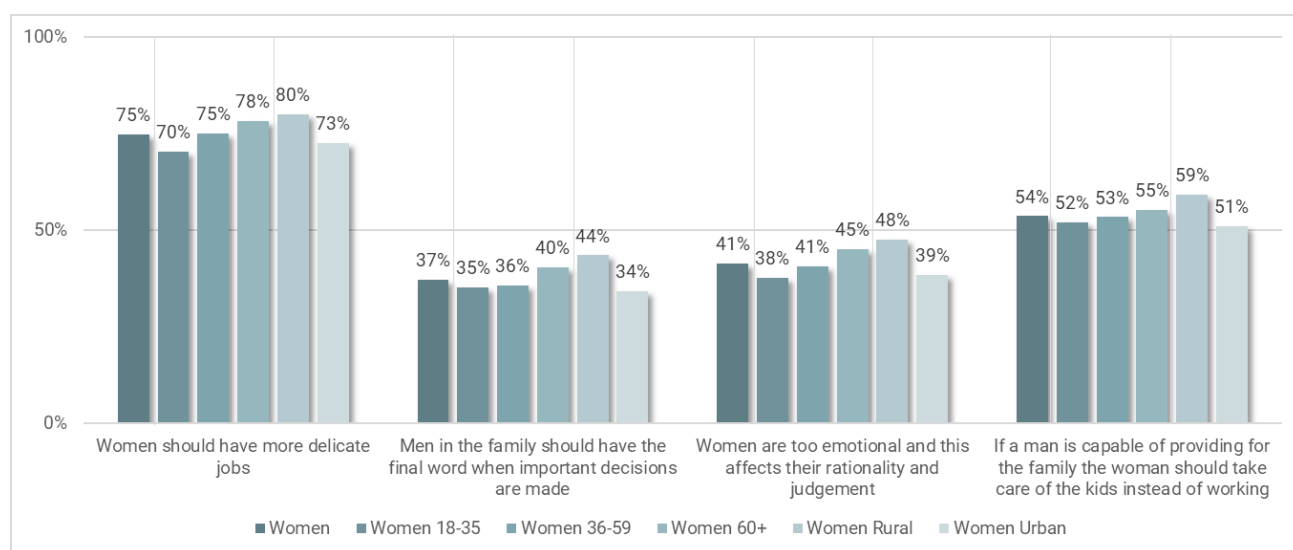


Figure 14: Percentage of respondents who "somewhat agree" and "strongly agree" with the following statements.

⁷⁶ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=339$, $p<0.01$) weighted mean scores of 4.8 for women and 5.4 for men.

⁷⁷ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=137$, $p<0.01$) weighted mean scores of 0.8 for women and 1.3 for men.

⁷⁸ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=395$, $p<0.01$), weighted mean scores of 6.2 for women and 5.6 for men.

⁷⁹ Unweighted ANOVA ($F=97$, $p<0.01$), separates young women (weighted mean score 4.6) into the lowest group, with Cohen's D effect size of medium compared to older women (5.0 for those above 60), and effect sizes between large and very large for younger men (5.4), middle-aged men (5.4) and older men (5.5).

⁸⁰ Unweighted ANOVA ($F=37$, $p<0.01$), separates young women (weighted mean score 0.7) and middle-aged women (0.8) into the lowest group, while older women score slightly higher (1.0), and men of all ages score the highest (1.3).

⁸¹ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=438$, $p<0.01$) weighted mean score 0.6 for women, 1.2 for men.

⁸² Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) in women is -0.200 for sense of civic responsibility, -0.224 for sense of agency ($p<0.01$), -0.184 and -0.176, respectively in men.

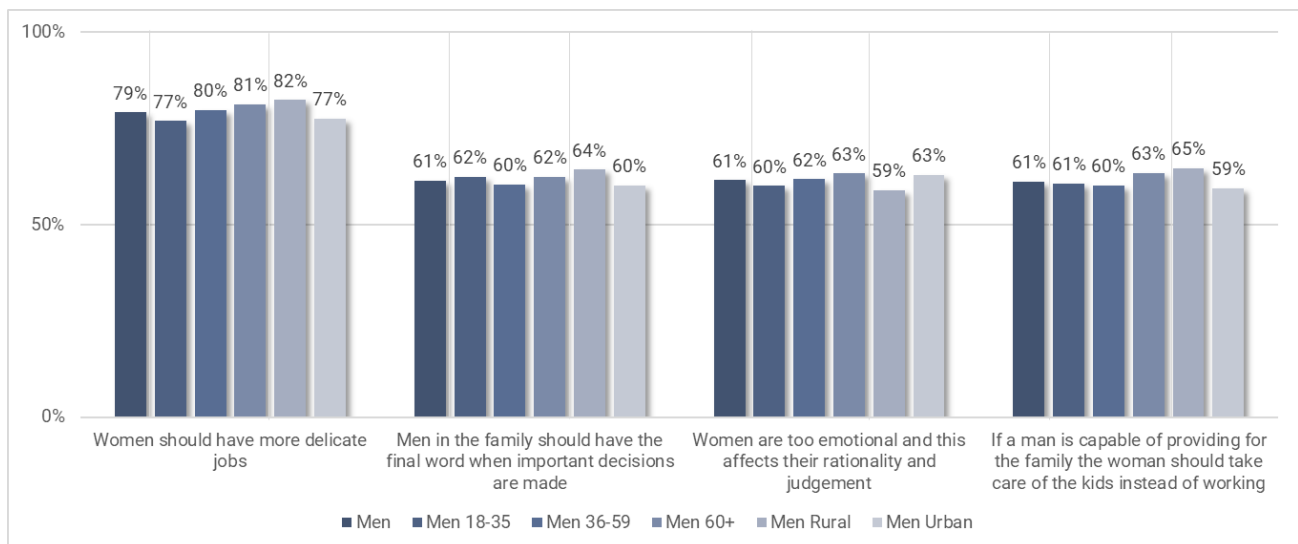


Figure 15: Percentage of respondents who "somewhat agree" and "strongly agree" with the following statements.

Negative masculinities also appear to pose a challenge (Figure 16, Figure 17). Almost half (48%) of men of all ages agree to some extent that men should not cry even when something very bad happens, a statement that 35% of women agree with. One quarter (25%) of men believe that men are not capable of taking care of children on their own, compared to 34% of women.

With respect to gender-based violence (Figure 16, Figure 17), **13% of men think a husband can discipline his wife to correct her behaviour** (10% somewhat and 3% strongly agree with this), compared to 7% of women (6% somewhat and 1% strongly agree). Men in large cities (16%) and small towns (15%) are more likely to agree with this. Additionally, 7% of men think women should tolerate violence to keep the family together, compared to 6% of women.

In terms of reproductive rights, 9% of young men, 8% of middle-aged men and 11% of older men (equivalent to 9% of all ages) think that it is totally unnecessary to have the freedom to choose to have an abortion, compared to 6%, 7% and 9% of women in the same respective age groups (7% of all ages). Finally, 30% of all men and 27% of all women think it is totally unnecessary for people to have the freedom to express their sexual orientation and gender identity.

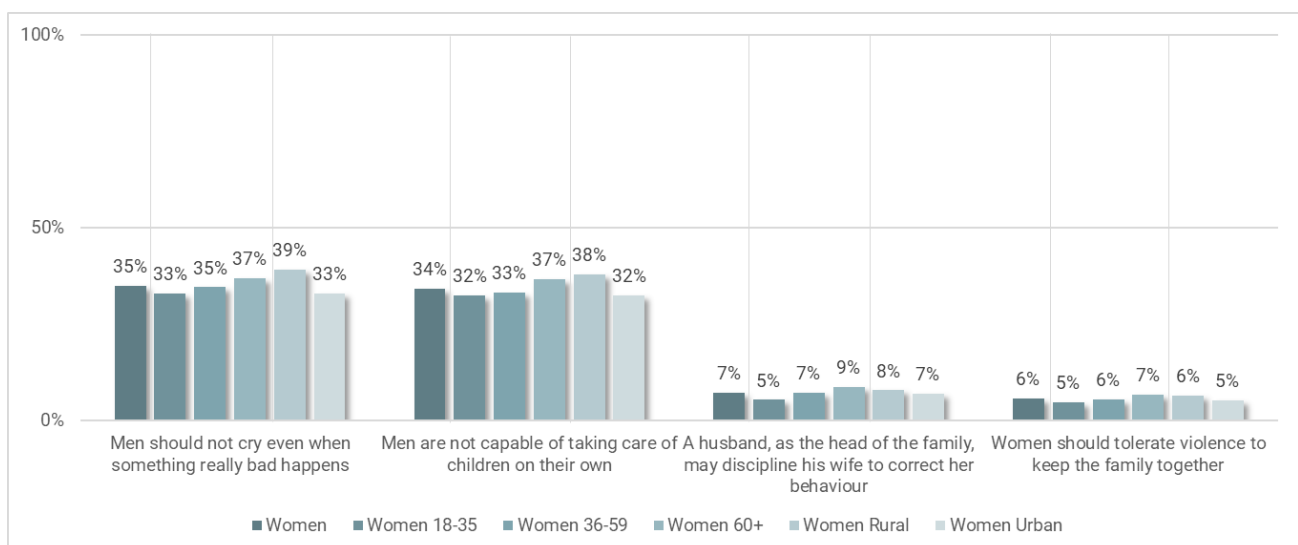


Figure 16: Percentage of respondents who "somewhat agree" and "strongly agree" with the following statements.

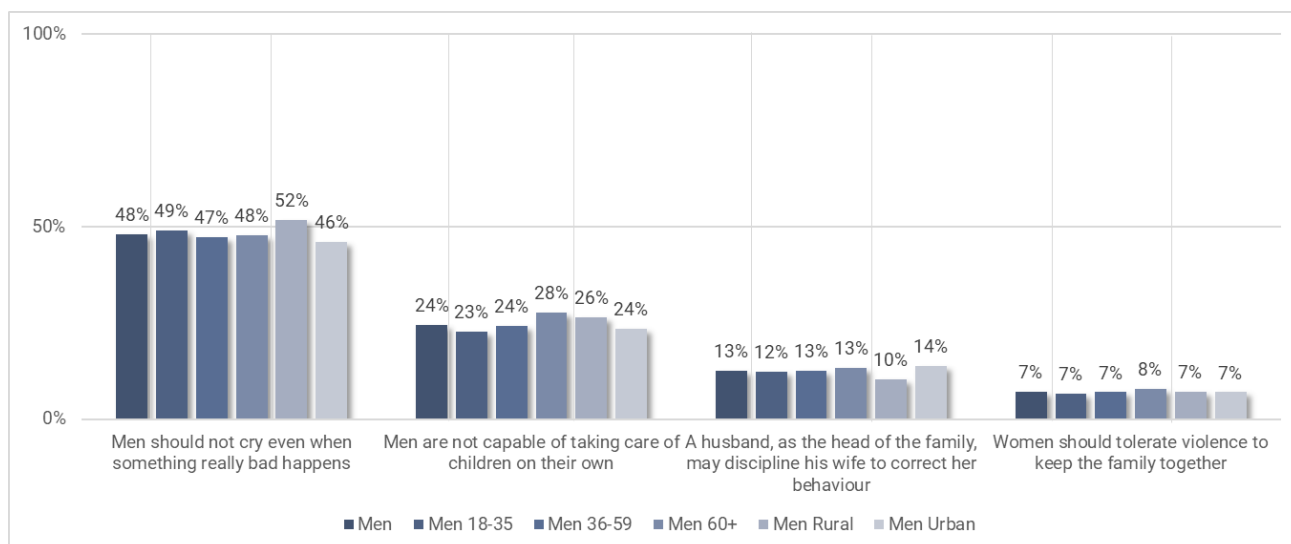


Figure 17: Percentage of respondents who "somewhat agree" and "strongly agree" with the following statements.

In the nationally representative sample, Khmelnytskyi Oblast, Sumy Oblast and Lviv Oblast score above the national average with respect to condoning gender stereotypes (Figure 18), while respondents in Zhytomyr Oblast, Ternopil Oblast, Dnipropetrovsk Oblast and Kyiv Oblast are more likely to normalise domestic violence against women (Figure 19). These findings demonstrate the need for geographically targeted education and awareness-raising interventions to combat gender stereotypes and gender-based violence.

GENDER STEREOTYPES

SCORE
UKRAINE / 2021

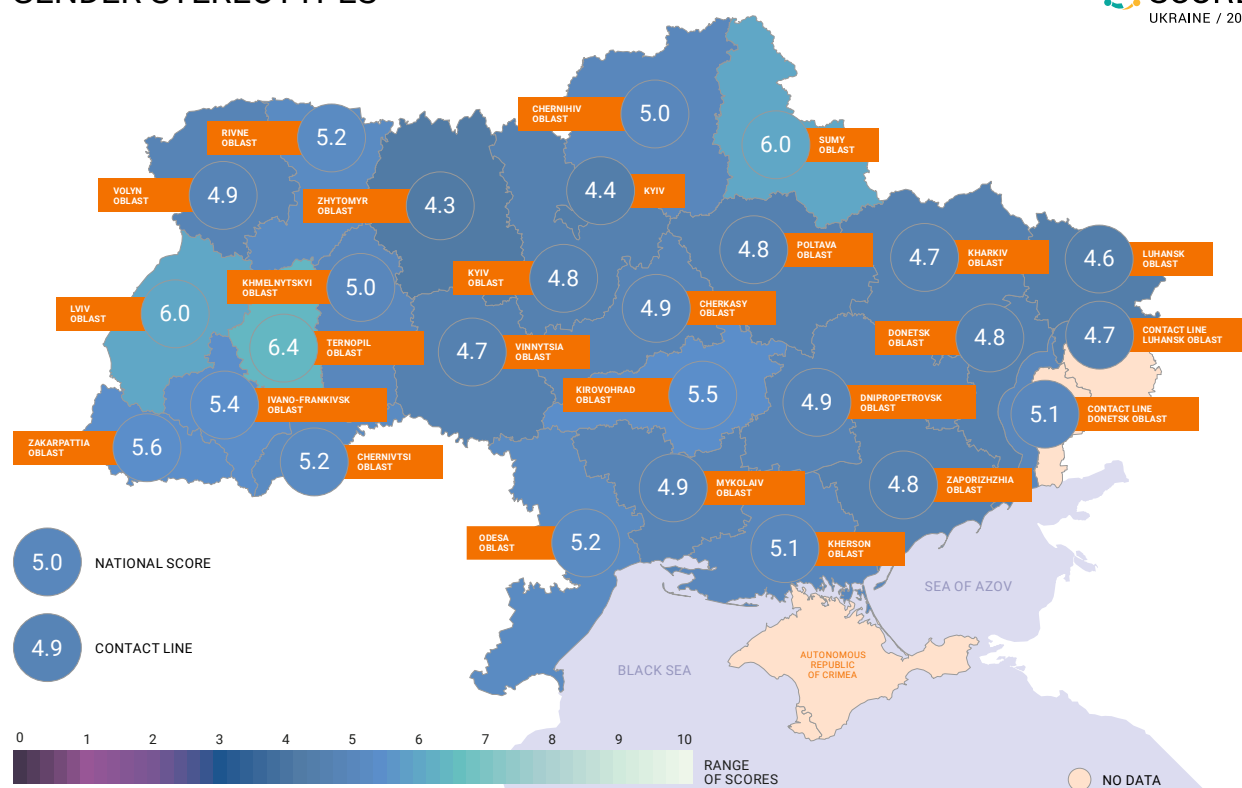


Figure 18: Mean scores in "gender stereotypes", Ukraine 2021. National representative sample N=12,482; "contact line" N=1,010.

NORMALISATION OF DOMESTIC VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

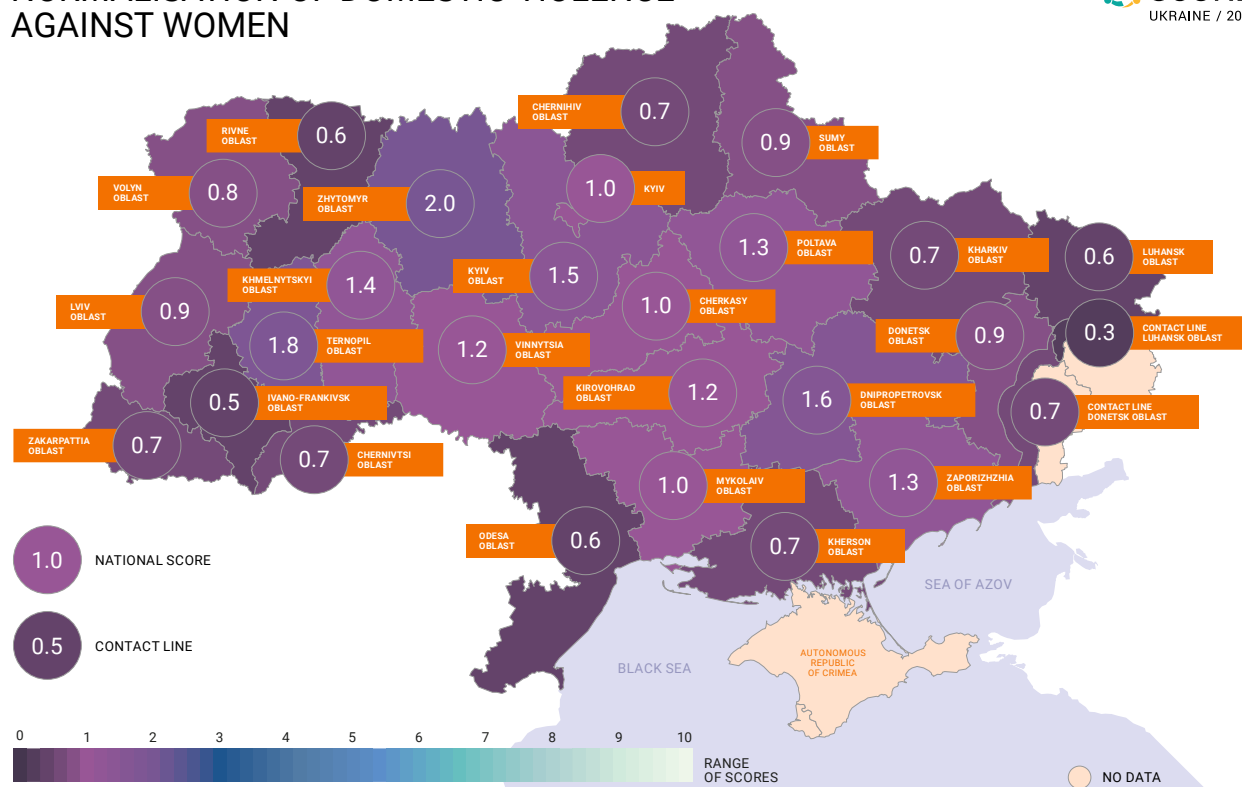


Figure 19: Mean scores in “normalisation of domestic violence against women”, Ukraine 2021. National representative sample N=12,482; “contact line” N=1,010.

Exposure to domestic abuse is linked to higher levels of conflict exposure⁸³ and marginalisation⁸⁴. Of women living in areas close to the “contact line”, 13% have experienced verbal abuse and 6% have experienced physical abuse at home, compared to 9% and 5% of women in national sample (Figure 20).

Comparing pre- and post-COVID19 data for Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts, in 2021 10% of women in Luhansk Oblast and 11% of women in Donetsk Oblast experienced verbal abuse at home, compared to 6% and 7% who experienced physical abuse at home respectively. These correspond to small increases compared to 2019, where verbal abuse at home was experienced by 9% of respondents in Luhansk Oblast and 7% in Donetsk Oblast, and physical abuse at home was experienced by 5% in Luhansk Oblast and 4% in Donetsk Oblast. This is consistent with estimates of increased exposure to domestic abuse following movement restrictions arising during pandemic measures (Health Cluster Ukraine 2021).

⁸³ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) 0.240, p<0.01, in women.

⁸⁴ Partial correlation controlled for age, Pearson correlation coefficient (R) 0.180, p<0.01, in women.

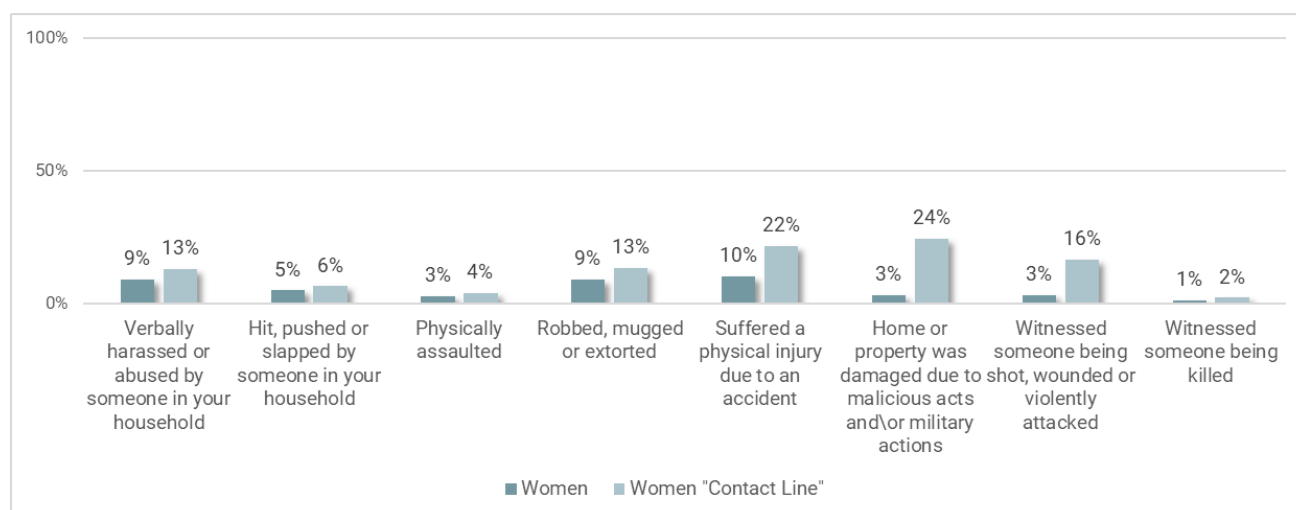


Figure 20: Percentage of respondents who report personal experience of these events.

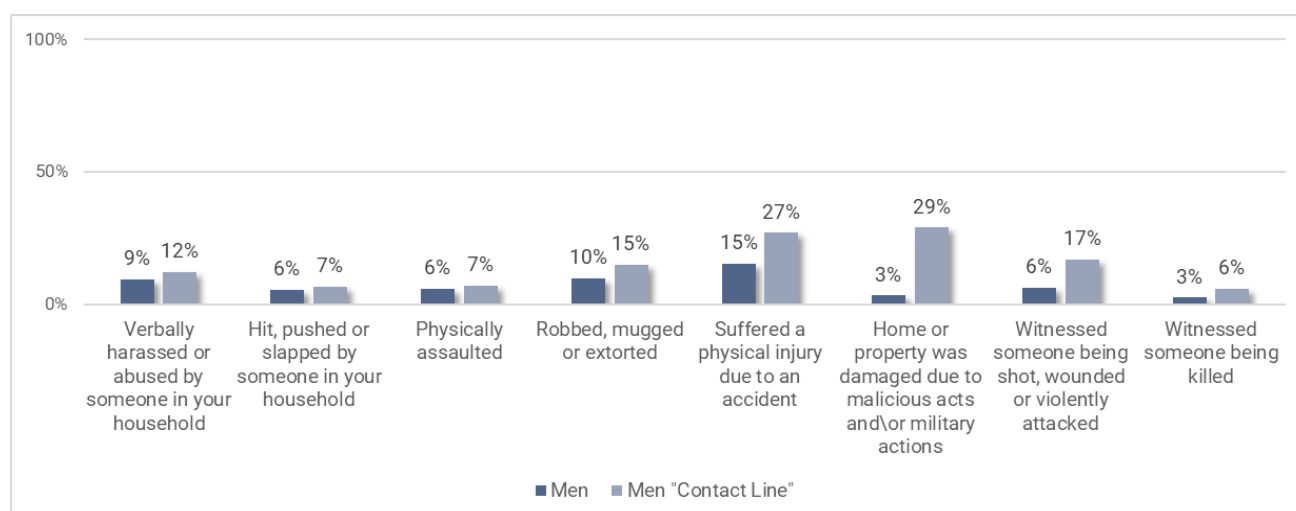


Figure 21: Percentage of respondents who report personal experience of these events.

Women have lower levels of personal security⁸⁵ (27% do not feel at all safe walking in their locality at night, compared to 15% of men; 12% do not feel at all safe in their daily life compared to 9% of men, [Figure 22](#), [Figure 23](#)), and this is lowest for urban women⁸⁶ and for older women⁸⁷. Personal security is also lower in women under 35 compared to men of the same age group⁸⁸ and is lower in women at critical risk of economic fragility⁸⁹, who also have lower levels of trust in the police⁹⁰. Of those living near the “contact line”, 33% of women do not feel at all safe in their daily life, along with 27% of men, while 44% do not feel at all safe walking in their locality, compared to 29% of men ([Figure 22](#), [Figure 23](#)).

⁸⁵ Weighted ANCOVA (controlled for age, $F=167$, $p<0.01$) weighted mean scores of 4.4 for women and 5.1 for men

⁸⁶ Unweighted ANOVA separates rural women into lowest group ($F=128$, $p<0.01$) with weighted mean scores: 4.2 for urban women, 4.8 for rural women, 5.4 for rural men and 4.9 for urban men.

⁸⁷ Unweighted ANOVA separates older women into lowest group ($F=82$, $p<0.01$), with a weighted mean score of 4.1 for older women, compared to younger women (4.7), middle aged women (4.4), younger men (5.5), middle-aged men (5.0) and older men (4.6).

⁸⁸ Unweighted ANOVA ($F=82$, $p<0.01$) with Cohen's D effect size medium between young women (weighted mean score 4.7) and men, the latter of which have the highest levels of personal security (5.5).

⁸⁹ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=577$, $p<0.01$) mean scores in personal security: 3.5 Critical Risk group, 4.3 High Risk group, 5.1 Moderate Risk group, 5.8 Low Risk group.

⁹⁰ Weighted ANCOVA controlled for age ($F=286$, $p<0.01$), mean scores: 2.3 for Critical Risk group, 3.1 for High Risk, 3.6 for Moderate and 4.1 for Low Risk group.

Of women living near the “contact line”, 13% have been robbed, mugged or extorted, compared to 9% of women in full sample, and 22% of women near the “contact line” have experienced a physical injury due to an accident compared to 10% of women in full sample (Figure 20). Of women living near the “contact line”, 24% have experienced home or property damage compared to 3% in full sample, 6% have lost a close one due to the armed conflict compared to 2% in full sample, and 17% have witnessed someone being shot, wounded or violently attacked, compared to 3% of women in the full sample.

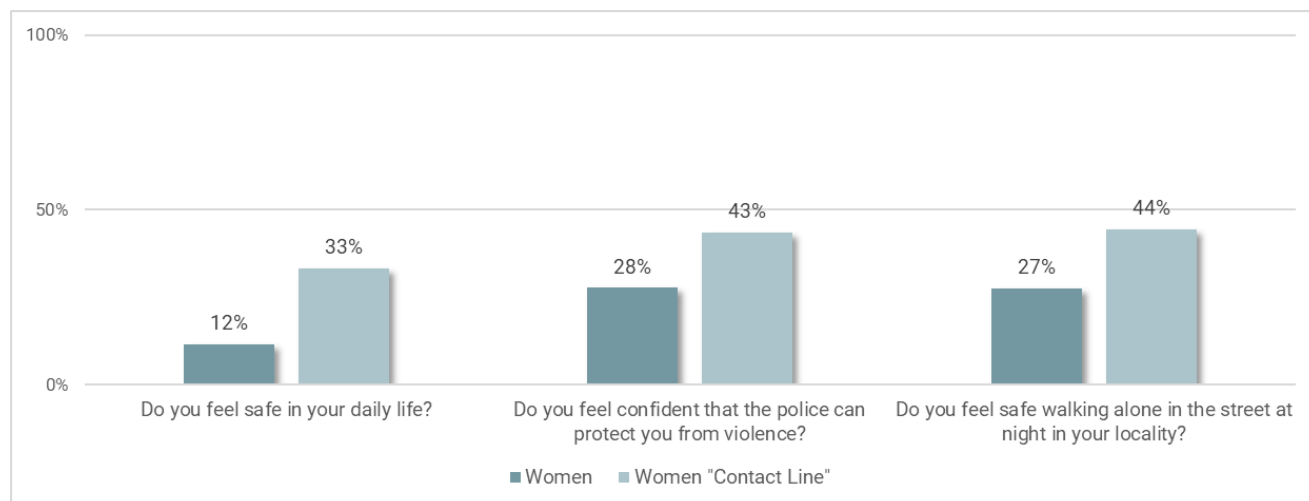


Figure 22: Percentage of respondents who report that they do "not at all" feel the following.

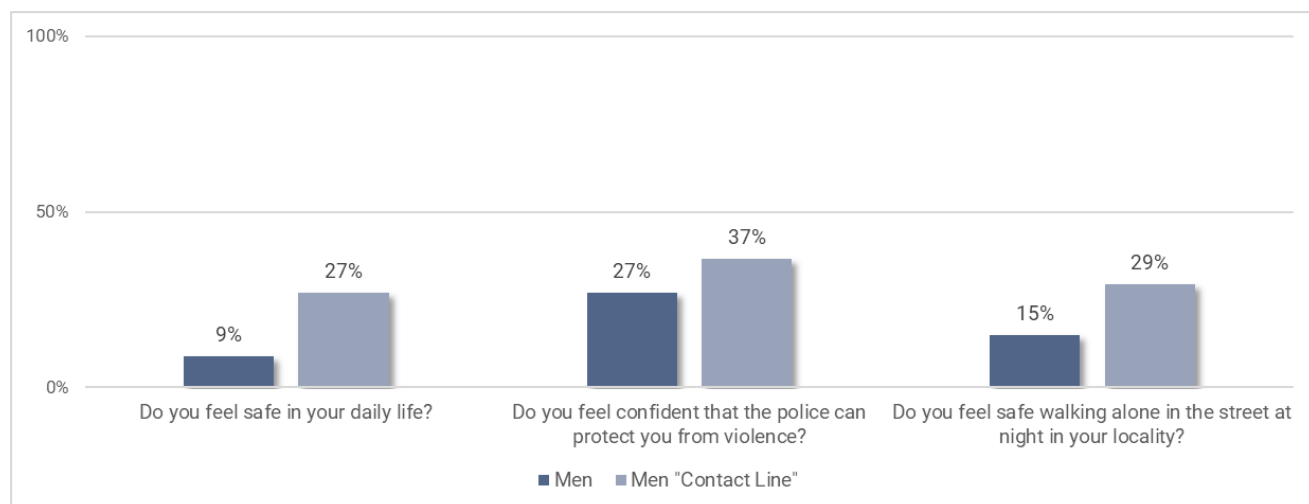


Figure 23: Percentage of respondents who report that they do "not at all" feel the following.

Key Findings and Recommendations

PROMOTING ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION	RECOMMENDATIONS	Government, regional & local authorities	International organisations & donors	Civil society organisations
Women have higher self-rated subjective poverty and economic insecurity, especially older and rural women and those living near the "contact line" in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts.	Design targeted interventions to assist with expenditure on medication and access to health services, particularly for vulnerable groups of women such as those with critical risk of economic fragility, older and rural women, and especially considering the war in Ukraine in 2022. Extend these to ensure that humanitarian assistance addresses the needs of all groups.	●	●	●
Educational attainment is linked to a lower risk of economic fragility and a higher employment rate, and women in rural settlements have among the lowest levels of educational attainment and employment. Full time employment is particularly low for women in Ternopil Oblast, while educational attainments is low in Kirovohrad Oblast.	Design and implement transformative social protection policies that will address the needs of elderly and rural women who are vulnerable to poverty. Given the current war, integrate early childhood development programming into humanitarian services to support children and remove barriers to mothers needing to access services.	●	●	●
Women have a higher burden of parenthood, especially women under 35 and rural women.	Spearhead geographical and gender-sensitive targeting of economic and financial assistance, economic empowerment activities and financial literacy projects to vulnerable groups of women.	●	●	●
Women's economic security has decreased since the pandemic, and fears of economic instability have increased.	Launch programmes for employability skills development, (re)training, connecting job-seekers to employment opportunities, and debt restructuring for vulnerable women post-COVID-19 ⁹¹ and post-war. Ensure that displaced women can access vocational training and new opportunities for livelihoods.	●	●	●
27% of women are at critical risk of economic fragility, a group which tends to have lower employment rates, opportunities, and educational attainment. These women have poorer physical and mental health, insufficient access to basic services and healthcare, report low personal security and are more likely to have experienced domestic abuse. They feel disenfranchised from the state, are disengaged from civic life and are pessimistic about the future.	Build on the recommendations of the Addis Ababa Action Plan on Transformative Financing for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment to ensure fair and progressive tax systems by addressing explicit and implicit gender biases in tax policies, and to provide tax incentives to support ownership of assets by women, specifically targeting vulnerable groups, those with higher risks of economic fragility, older and rural women.	●		
	Provide access to safe spaces where vulnerable groups (e.g., low income women, women who have experienced domestic abuse or women who have low personal security) can access resources for financial literacy or employability skills training.	●	●	●
Over 35% of women in Kirovohrad, Sumy, Luhansk, Chernihiv, Cherkasy and Zakarpattia oblasts are at critical risk of economic fragility - above the national average.	Develop programmes supporting women entrepreneurs, including entrepreneurial skills strengthening, technical and financial support for small and medium sized women-owned businesses ⁹² .	●	●	●

⁹¹ E.g., the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the International Labor Organization (ILO) in Ukraine have [launched](#) the "Economic Empowerment of Women as a Response to the COVID-19 Crisis in Ukraine" project, aiming to contribute to sustainable recovery of living standards of the COVID-19 affected population by promoting and supporting women's economic empowerment.

⁹² Examples of successful initiatives include the United Nations Recovery and Peacebuilding Programme (UN RPP)'s support for women owned [business start-ups](#) and skills training in management, fundraising and marketing. Further, the USAID funded Democratic Governance in the East (DG East) activity focuses on women's initiatives, recognising the role of women as a driving force for local development, while the Small Project Assistance Program (SPA) works with women's organisations to build capacities in local communities. Additionally, in the private sector, Oshchadbank and

	Launch initiatives to promote science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) ⁹³ education in girls, aiming to eliminate horizontal employment segregation. Provide clear programmes for continuing education for those women and girls whose schooling was interrupted due to the war in Ukraine, including support to host communities in other countries to enable their immediate integration into education systems.	●	●	●
	Provide financial and technical assistance to the Government of Ukraine for economic recovery, gender impact assessments, monitoring of gender-sensitive programme implementation, and develop capacity building programmes for NGOs working with vulnerable populations.		●	
	Develop, disseminate and enforce transparent salary guidelines to eliminate gender gaps in paid work and ensure equal employment opportunities for women ⁹⁴ .	●		
	Facilitate awareness-raising campaigns for equality and non-discrimination during hiring and in the workplace, emphasising the mutual benefits of a balanced working environment, providing opportunities for inclusive dialogue to highlight the interdependence between women and men and their mutual contribution to the economy.	●	●	●
	Enhance, through legislature and policies, conditions for combining work and care ⁹⁵ for family members, such as flexible working hours, distance working and funded child-care facilities as well as prioritising investments in quality social infrastructure and services that reduce and redistribute women's unpaid care and domestic work, enabling their full participation in the economy, as posited by the Addis Ababa Action Plan. In the context of the current war, alleviate mothers' increased care burden through after-school activities or programming that offers support with home schooling.	●	●	
	Strengthen the collection of sex disaggregated statistics, ranging from humanitarian needs, the impact of COVID-19 on employment rates to paid work inequalities, in order to enable effective targeting of interventions and policies and monitoring of targets.	●	●	●

Western NIS Enterprise Fund implement an affordable lending programme for social enterprises, while Oshchadbank runs the Build Your Own platform which trains and supports would-be entrepreneurs.

⁹³ Previous SCORE studies with youth in the Caucasus (2019) identified that girls' participation in STEM subjects and programmes would help address the gender pay gap and capitalise on their stronger academic performance.

⁹⁴ E.g., the USAID funded Global Labor Program (GLP) in Ukraine works to ensure equal employment opportunities for women and vulnerable groups.

⁹⁵ Previous SCORE findings from 2017 show that the most popular gender mainstreaming options in Cyprus were gender equality policies in private sector employment and free childcare.

BUILDING CIVIC AND POLITICAL PARTICIPATION	RECOMMENDATIONS	Government, regional & local authorities	International organisations & donors	Civil society organisations
<p>Civic empowerment is lower in women and depends on a stronger sense of agency, civic responsibility and civic optimism. Civic empowerment is particularly low in Kharkiv Oblast.</p> <p>Civic empowerment is driven by consumption of information about current events, opportunities for intergroup contact and community cooperation. Information consumption should be prioritised in Zakarpattia Oblast, and community cooperation in Kyiv city.</p> <p>Leadership and entrepreneurial skills further equip women to increase their involvement in civic life. Women's entrepreneurship programmes could focus on Volyn Oblast, where women also underrate their leadership skills.</p> <p>Political security also plays a small role in women's civic participation.</p> <p>All of these drivers are lower in women, who appear apathetic about civic and political life, and increasingly pessimistic about the future of Ukraine.</p> <p>Trust in NGOs and CSOs, and community cooperation lead to increased civic empowerment, demonstrating that local initiatives could form an immediate entry point to women's participation.</p>	Ensure gender balance and include the appropriate representatives of the national gender equality machinery in all high level decision making councils, peacebuilding processes, and crisis response bodies (i.e., the Government Commissioner for Gender Equality Policy, The Minister of Social Policy) and mainstream gender sensitivity ⁹⁶ during the drafting and adoption of regulations by the Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine.	●		
	Combine employability skills development (e.g., leadership and entrepreneurial skills) with programmes that provide opportunities for participation in local civic and political life (e.g., participatory local budgeting, design of local community interventions).	●	●	●
	Establish participatory governance mechanisms (e.g., online petitions, voting for community projects) and inclusive dialogue around practical issues (such as service provision) with a focus on increasing women's participation and providing opportunities for women's involvement in developing action plans and budgets.	●		●
	Provide platforms for women-led advocacy and training on civic awareness and participation mechanisms, amplifying women's voices to reach decision-makers and encouraging their inclusion at policy level.		●	●
	Facilitate the uptake of local projects, businesses or community interventions led by women to strengthen women's sense of agency and provide real examples of success.	●	●	●
	Strengthen cooperation between government and civil society, through communication channels, technical NGO support and funding.	●	●	●
	Recognise and reward the significant contribution of the national women's rights movement and women's civil society organisations on delivering key services to disadvantaged and conflict-affected populations.	●		
	Identify amendments to the Election Code of Ukraine and other relevant legislation and secure their proper implementation to ensure the preservation of a balance between women and men on electoral lists.	●		
	Allocate financial and technical resources to prioritise women's political participation. Ensure that humanitarian interventions support women's decision-making ⁹⁷ and consult women from both formal and informal community and civil society groups in planning response and recovery.	●	●	
	Develop inclusive policies and gender-sensitive strategies to foster an engaging political environment for women, especially those in underrepresented groups.	●		

⁹⁶ E.g., the United Nations Recovery and Peacebuilding Programme (UN RPP) has [supported local government](#) in conflict-affected communities to create gender-responsive local development strategies through participatory processes, and to establish Local Gender Coordination Councils to ensure that gender is mainstreamed into local programmes and budgets. Public sector successes include the [integration of gender equality principles](#) in the Strategies for Development of Donetsk and Volyn oblasts, as well as a number of oblasts which are [signatories](#) of the European Charter for Equality of Women and Men in Local Life.

⁹⁷ E.g., CARE International's [Women Lead in Emergencies Approach](#).

REINFORCING HEALTH AND WELLBEING	RECOMMENDATIONS	Government, regional & local authorities	International organisations & donors	Civil society organisations
<p>Women experience higher levels of anxiety and depression, and these are especially acute in older women and in women with a critical risk of economic fragility.</p> <p>Independent of age, women have a poorer physical health status, which is exacerbated in women who are older and women with a critical risk of economic fragility.</p> <p>Both mental and physical health are lower in women living close to the "contact line", and as previous research shows, women with disabilities experience multiple vulnerabilities regarding their health and wellbeing.</p> <p>In addition to lower health outcomes, older and rural women, and women living near the "contact line" have insufficient access to healthcare services and may face challenges in affording their medicines, while women in Kirovohrad oblast also report among the lowest healthcare service provision.</p>	Design targeted interventions to assist with the expenditure on medication and access to health services, especially for vulnerable groups of women such as those with critical risk of economic fragility, older and rural women. This may include amending social welfare to improve affordability of medication.	●	●	●
	Improve service delivery ⁹⁸ for hard-to-reach areas and for isolated populations with limited access to services. This should include increased accessibility (online and physical/built), online access to administrative services ⁹⁹ better public transportation, targeted social support programmes for vulnerable groups (women with disabilities, IDP women, minority women), as well as the scale-up of mobile clinics ¹⁰⁰ , home-based care and medicine delivery, and repair of infrastructure in conflict affected areas ¹⁰¹ .	●	●	●
	Provide adequate public funding for mental health programmes, increase the coverage of mental health services, target programmes to the needs of populations with intersecting vulnerabilities (e.g., isolated or hard-to-reach populations, older women, women at risk of economic fragility), and build awareness on the availability of said programmes. Increasing coverage could take the form of remote or mobile services (e.g., telephone helplines ¹⁰²), community support groups, and training of local health workers to offer, or conduct needs assessments for, psychosocial support ¹⁰³ .	●	●	●
	Strengthen cooperation between government and civil society ¹⁰⁴ , and improve government assistance to civil society organisations working on the delivery of key services to disadvantaged and vulnerable populations.	●	●	●
	Given the current war, ensure that safe and accessible mental health and psychosocial support services are made available, including online and offline, to limit the barriers caused by safety risks or mobility concerns. Further, ensure that all psychosocial support can be reached by all without fear of discrimination.	●	●	●

⁹⁸ E.g., the United Nations Recovery and Peacebuilding Programme (UN RPP) has supported the development of [Administrative Service Centres](#) (ASCs) in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts alongside digital, mobile ASC to ensure service delivery to persons with disabilities, elderly persons, and those living in remote rural areas.

⁹⁹ For example, the United Nations Recovery and Peacebuilding Programme (UN RPP) [DIA Support Project](#) in partnership with the Government of Ukraine (Ministry of Digital Transformation) to strengthen digitally-enhanced, digitalised or mobile-based services to vulnerable groups.

¹⁰⁰ E.g., the United Nations Population Fund in Ukraine (UNFPA) supports [mobile clinics](#) as does the [World Health Organization](#) (WHO) alongside the Ukrainian health authorities.

¹⁰¹ E.g., the UN RPP has supported the [rehabilitation](#) of healthcare facilities, schools and other critical infrastructure in Donetsk and Luhansk oblasts since 2015.

¹⁰² E.g., the International Organization for Migration (IOM) provides a toll-free emotional support [hotline](#).

¹⁰³ E.g., Médecins Sans Frontières (MSF) is working to empower family doctors and community nurses to [provide basic mental healthcare](#).

¹⁰⁴ A successful platform in Ukraine is the [Ukrainian Women's Congress](#) (UWC), a permanent public platform that sets the gender policy agenda for the Ukrainian Parliament, Government, local communities, public, private and media sectors, which annually brings together stakeholders from all sectors including civil society, as well as conducting regional UWCs at the local level.

TACKLING GENDER NORMS AND GENDER BASED VIOLENCE	RECOMMENDATIONS	Government, regional & local authorities	International organisations & donors	Civil society organisations
<p>Women are more supportive of gender equality, with younger age groups increasingly standing up against harmful gender norms. Conversely, younger men do not display a more equal mindset than older men.</p> <p>Gender stereotypes were found to reduce agency and civic responsibility, and continue to pose a challenge to both women and men.</p> <p>Women with critical risk of economic fragility have a higher risk of exposure to domestic abuse, as do women living near the "contact line", where domestic abuse shows a small uptick following pandemic lockdown measures.</p> <p>Personal security is lower in women, with the most acute risks felt by women living in conflict-affected areas.</p>	Enhance the capacity of government to protect women's rights, combat gender-based discrimination and prevent violence against women by fully implementing CEDAW Committee Concluding Observations.	●	●	
	Push for the ratification of the Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (the Istanbul Convention).	●	●	●
	Promote the adoption of specific policies and measures to eliminate discriminatory stereotypes and patriarchal attitudes in all segments of public life.	●		
	Harmonise anti-discrimination legislation to include direct and indirect discrimination in both the public and private sectors, as well as intersecting forms of discrimination against women, and strengthen monitoring bodies to ensure compliance with said legislation.	●	●	
	Provide legal assistance and training for vulnerable women, e.g., those with experience of discrimination, increasing awareness about human rights and enabling women to challenge such instances of discrimination.	●	●	●
	Use online and traditional media as well as the national education system ¹⁰⁵ to popularise and disseminate education about human rights and their protection, the intersectional discrimination faced by women and girls, and the importance and benefits of gender equality for Ukrainian society overall.	●	●	●
	Strengthen national gender based violence response processes to better address needs of vulnerable groups (e.g., conflict-affected populations), including improving the effectiveness of preventative and support mechanisms, and addressing potential social exclusion of domestic and gender based violence survivors ¹⁰⁶ . Practical examples include expanding crisis centres, hotlines, and temporary shelters, outsourcing social services for vulnerable groups to NGOs ¹⁰⁷ , fostering special peer support groups, and establishing safe spaces where women are encouraged to participate in community life. Humanitarian actors, given the current war, should continue to advocate for more resources to address the increased risk of GBV, while ensuring complementarity to government services and compensating for services that have been suspended to address IDP needs.	●	●	●

¹⁰⁵ Previous SCORE research in Cyprus in 2017 found that there was limited awareness and understanding of the challenges surrounding gender disparity, with prevalent perceptions that gender inequality does not pose a challenge, identifying information and awareness raising as an important intervention. Separate research in Moldova in 2017 found that information consumption was a strong inhibitor of negative attitudes towards women, further supporting this recommendation.

¹⁰⁶ The UN RPP in Ukraine alongside local government has [provided](#) administrative, psychological and legal aid services to conflict-affected populations, the majority of which were women. The UNFPA has [supported](#) the development of a national toll-free hotline to provide psychological support, information and legal counselling to survivors of gender-based and domestic violence, as well as assisting survivors in obtaining essential services, and supported the Government of Ukraine to adopt a framework for programmes on domestic violence/gender-based violence prevention, including the establishment of regional and municipal gender-based violence coordination bodies.

¹⁰⁷ A successful example of government-civil society collaboration includes the work of the [Slavic Heart Charity Foundation](#) which has partnered with the National Police to combat domestic violence, and with the local government to provide humanitarian aid, in Donetsk Oblast.

	Design interventions to raise awareness about gender equality, gender-based discrimination and violence, while providing space for behavioural reflection and dialogue around the vulnerabilities faced by young men.	●	●	●
	Develop geographically targeted, localised initiatives that tackle gender-based violence and the proliferation of harmful gender stereotypes in the home, while simultaneously offering psychosocial support and responding to the root causes of deconstructive behaviour and attitudes.	●	●	●
	Strengthen public communications to deliver information about the support services available, including collaboration with television and radio which are widely accessible. Ensure that information regarding GBV services continues to be accessible given the current war, taking into account barriers such as lack of internet access or mobile phone connections.	●	●	●
	Provide technical and financial assistance to all levels of government to conduct and implement gender assessments and gender-sensitive programmes and policies ¹⁰⁸ .		●	●

¹⁰⁸ See [collaboration](#) between Ministry of Regional Development and UN Women.

Glossary

Accountability of authorities: The extent to which respondents believe that authority representatives are absolutely accountable and can be held accountable, as opposed to being not accountable at all and it being impossible to hold them accountable.

Active citizenship: The extent to which respondents are willing to use political and social means of action to change the current conditions in their community or society, but definitely without using any kind of violence.

Active citizenship orientation scenario: The likelihood that respondents report they would participate peacefully in protests and public debates, ensuring that they avoid provoking violence, in a situation of widespread public outcry in response to authorities' incapability.

Aggression: The extent to which respondents display aggressive tendencies, including, getting into fights often, having threatened people and their likelihood of hitting another person if provoked.

Anxiety: The extent to which respondents report that they worry about things that could happen and are unable to stop themselves from worrying.

Apathy: A composite indicator measuring the extent to which one does not care about societal problems, through a disinterest about political changes and events affecting the future of Ukraine, a lack of interest about the prevalence of corruption, and a lack of motivation for thinking critically about media and information one consumes.

Civic empowerment: The extent to which respondents are likely to involve themselves peacefully and positively in response to a situation of civic unrest, as opposed to passively remaining focused on their own affairs, alongside the frequency of their current participation in public life.

Civic engagement: The frequency of respondents' participation in public life, including NGO events, volunteering, signing petitions, attending demonstrations, voting, local authorities' events, activities to improve their neighbourhood, and debating social, political and civic issues online.

Civic optimism: The extent to which respondents believe that each generation in Ukraine is better off than the previous one.

Community cooperation: The extent to which respondents report that they can rely on people in their community for help when they have serious problems, and the extent to which people from their community have come together to actively solve common problems over the year prior to surveying.

Contact with different groups: The frequency to which respondents report having everyday interaction and communication with people from different socio-political or ethnic groups to their own.

Corruption apathy: The extent to which respondents are not concerned about corruption given that it is not harmful to them personally.

Critical thinking: The extent to which respondents report that they can explain newly acquired information in their own words, whether they corroborate new information from several sources and make an effort to separate facts from opinions, and whether they base their thinking on objective and verifiable evidence.

Depression: The extent to which respondents report that they feel very sad, are apathetic about daily life, and feel guilty about things they have done.

Distress tolerance: The extent to which respondents report that they remain hopeful in the face of adversities, that they can handle unpleasant feelings, and that they are able to deal with bad events and become stronger in the face of difficulties.

Economic fragility: A composite measure of respondents' self-rated subjective poverty and economic insecurity, adapted to reflect a measure that approximates the actual subsistence minimum.

Education level: The highest level of education that the respondent has completed, from primary or unfinished secondary, to postgraduate, including secondary academic or vocational school.

Empathy: The extent to which respondents have tender, concerned feelings for those less fortunate, whether they help people in need and whether they try to help people who are suffering.

Employment opportunities: The extent to which respondents report that it would be easy to find a job that satisfied them in their locality, if they were looking for one.

Entrepreneurship mentality: The extent to which respondents are willing to take certain risks to achieve success, their tendency of looking for new approaches to solve problems and whether they are motivated to work harder by challenging tasks.

Environmental security: The extent to which respondents are satisfied with the quality of air they breathe and their access to clean water.

Executive functioning: The extent to which respondents report that they are able to learn complex activities, set competing priorities, and prevent themselves from acting on impulse.

Exposure to conflict: The extent to which respondents, their close friends or their family, have heard or seen actual fighting or shelling, experienced home or property damage due to military actions, lost someone due to the conflict in the east, or witnessed someone being shot, wounded, violently attacked or killed.

Exposure to domestic abuse: Whether respondents or their close friends or family have been subject to emotional or physical violence perpetrated by someone in their household.

Family coherence: The extent to which respondents report that there are strong bonds within their family, that they enjoy spending time with their family, and that their family provides them with the support and encouragement that they feel they need.

Fear of economic instability: The extent to which respondents expect a dramatic rise in prices over the next couple of years, whether they are preparing for difficult times financially, and whether investments and businesses in their locality are closing down frequently.

Gender: "refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, as well as the relations between women and those between men. These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialization processes. They are context/ time-specific and changeable. Gender determines what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman or a man in a given context. In most societies there are differences and inequalities between women and men in responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, access to and control over resources, as well as decision-making opportunities. Gender is part of the broader socio-cultural context. Other important criteria for socio-cultural analysis include class, race, poverty level, ethnic group and age" (OSAGI 2001).

Gender equality mindset: The extent to which respondents reject traditional gender norms, including that women should have more delicate jobs or that they should be homemakers, that men should make household decisions, that women are too emotional, that men should not cry and that they are incapable of looking after children alone, as well as the rejection of gender-based violence.

Gender stereotypes: The extent to which respondents condone traditional gender norms, including that women should have more delicate jobs or that they should be homemakers, that men should make household decisions, that women are too emotional, that men should not cry and that they are incapable of looking after children alone.

Growth mindset: The extent to which respondents report that they consider feedback and criticism to improve themselves, put effort into learning and developing new skills, believe that they can improve on things with practice, and are interested in expanding their horizons.

Health security: The extent to which respondents have sufficient access to basic and emergency medical services, and specialised medical services in their locality, as well as the ease with which they are able to buy necessary medicine.

Health status: The extent to which respondents perceive that their health status is good and that they almost never suffer from serious health problems, as opposed to very poor health status with multiple chronic or underlying health conditions.

Horizontal social cohesion: A composite indicator measuring the degree of harmonious citizen-citizen relationships in a society, consisting of the indicators which measure pluralistic Ukrainian identity, citizens' sense of belonging to Ukraine, their social tolerance of minority groups, their social proximity and lack of social threat towards socio-political groups different to their own, and their community cooperation.

Information consumption apathy: The extent to which respondents are not capable of critically appraising the information they consume, alongside a general absence of consumption of media about news and current events.

Leadership skills: The extent to which respondents report that they are able to generate future directions in a team environment, identify strengths within a team and use these for impactful collaboration, inspire other people to find direction, and are confident in being a leader.

Locality satisfaction: The extent to which respondents have access to leisure activities in their locality, and whether they believe their locality is a good place to raise a family, to live and to work.

Marginalisation: The extent to which respondents feel that they are treated unfairly based on certain social characteristics, namely, their health status or disability, education level, income level, native language, gender, religious beliefs, nationality or ethnicity, sexual orientation, political opinions, or age.

Mental wellbeing: The extent to which respondents report good mental health, measured as an absence of anxiety (constant worrying) and depression (sadness, apathy and guilt).

Normalisation of domestic violence: The extent to which respondents condone gender based violence, particularly in terms of husbands disciplining their wives using violence and women tolerating violence for fear of implications on the rest of their family.

Online media consumption: The frequency of respondents' consumption of news and current events through news websites and social media

Optimism about future: The extent to which respondents believe that future generations are increasingly better off in Ukraine, alongside the absence of feeling that life was better during Soviet times.

Personal security: The extent to which respondents feel safe from violence in their daily life, feel safe walking alone at night in their local area, and feel that the police can protect them from violence.

Political apathy: The extent to which respondents are not committed to common good, do not feel responsible for the future of the country, and believe that normal people cannot change anything.

Political security: The extent to which respondents feel that they can freely express their political views without negative repercussions and get together with like-minded people and publicly express their collective views.

Political violence: The extent to which respondents believe that the use of violence is sometimes justified to achieve political goals, as opposed to violence worsening social divisions and ultimately not solving any problems.

Pro-Russia orientation: The extent to which respondents support Ukraine joining the Eurasian Economic Union, whether they believe that Ukraine cannot flourish without Russia, and whether they believe all divisions between Ukraine and Russia are artificial and that Ukrainians and Russians are all one people.

Provision of infrastructure: The extent to which respondents report efficient provision of quality roads, public transportation and basic utilities in their locality.

Provision of public services: The extent to which respondents report efficient provision of basic schooling, higher education, healthcare, justice services, administrative services, and welfare services or payments in their locality.

Provision of utilities: The extent to which respondents report efficient provision of basic utilities, such as water, heating, electricity and waste disposal, in their locality.

Readiness for dialogue with different groups: The extent to which respondents believe that people from different socio-political or ethnic groups would be willing to hear their arguments and discuss with them, and whether they believe they could have mutually beneficial dialogue.

Sense of agency: The extent to which respondents believe that ordinary people like them are able to change things in their community and whether they believe their vote in elections counts and would make a difference.

Sense of civic responsibility: The extent to which respondents believe that what happens to Ukraine in the future is of concern to them, that they care about the future of Ukraine, and that they can contribute to politics as citizens.

Sense of civic duty: The combined extent to which respondents display a sense of agency and civic responsibility, i.e., they believe that ordinary people can make a change in Ukraine, that they can contribute to politics, that the future of Ukraine is of a concern to them, and that there is value in them voting in elections.

Sex: “refers to the biological characteristics that define humans as female or male. While these sets of biological characteristics are not mutually exclusive, as there are individuals who possess both, they tend to differentiate humans as males and females” (World Health Organization 2022).

Social cohesion overall: The combined measure of the state of harmonious, mutually beneficial relations and reciprocity between actors, encompassing citizen-citizen relationships (horizontal) and citizen-institution relationships (vertical).

Social threat: The extent to which respondents believe that the presence of different socio-political or ethnic groups will undermine the unity of their community.

Soviet nostalgia: The extent to which respondents have regrets about the collapse of the Soviet Union, whether they would like the Soviet Union to be reconstructed with Ukraine as part of it, whether they are proud that their country was part of the Soviet Union, whether they feel that themselves and their family would have achieved more during the Soviet Union, and whether they believe that the quality of education, healthcare, the equality of opportunity and community relations were better during the Soviet Union.

Subjective poverty: The extent to which respondents are asked to self-rate the financial situation of their household, ranging from being able to afford food, being able to afford food but not clothes, being able to afford clothes but not other expensive goods, being able to afford expensive goods but not luxuries (e.g., car or apartment), and, finally, being able to afford luxury goods. This indicator is also referred to as “estimated income” or “income” in separate SCORE publications.

Traditional media consumption: The frequency of respondents’ consumption of news and information about current events through television, radio or newspapers.

Trust in central institutions: The extent to which respondents trust the President, Verkhovna Rada, Cabinet of Ministers and courts of Ukraine.

Trust in courts: The extent to which respondents trust the courts in Ukraine.

Trust in local institutions: The extent to which respondents trust their oblast state administration, their village or town administration, and their mayor or the head of their town or village or the head of the MCA.

Trust in non-governmental (NGOs) and civil society organisations (CSOs): The extent to which respondents trust non-governmental or civil society organisations in Ukraine.

Trust in the police: The extent to which respondents trust the police.

Ukrainian authorities care: The extent to which respondents believe that public authorities represent their concerns and views, that they care equally about all parts of Ukraine, that they are open to hear points of view differing to the official point of view, and that they are attentive to the needs of ordinary people.

Vertical social cohesion: A composite indicator measuring the degree of harmonious citizen-institution relationships in a society, consisting of the indicators which measure how much citizens perceive that Ukrainian authorities care about them, how citizens rate the accountability of authorities, citizens’ political security and their sense of agency.

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Annex

Table 8: Linear regression with dependent variable civic empowerment, controlled for age and urbanity

Sample	Dependent variable	R ²	Unstandardised		Standardised	t	Sig.
			B	Std. Error	B		
Women, national sample, N = 6,838	Civic empowerment	0.378					
Independent variables	(constant)		-0.813	0.099		-8.205	0
	Age		0.004	0.001	0.04	3.829	0
	Urbanity		-0.024	0.003	-0.068	-6.924	0
	Political security		0.018	0.006	0.03	2.927	0.003
	Traditional & online media consumption		0.129	0.008	0.172	16.67	0
	Contact with different groups		0.115	0.011	0.104	10.328	0
	Sense of agency		0.108	0.008	0.173	14.049	0
	Sense of civic responsibility		0.129	0.008	0.195	16.196	0
	Leadership skills		0.082	0.007	0.128	10.916	0
	Trust in NGOs and CSOs		0.032	0.006	0.055	5.536	0
	Optimism about future		0.053	0.006	0.091	8.585	0
	Community cooperation		0.037	0.006	0.062	6.269	0
	Marginalisation due to political opinions		0.109	0.01	0.105	10.771	0
	Entrepreneurship mentality		0.059	0.007	0.096	8.039	0

About the SCORE

The Social Cohesion and Reconciliation Index (SCORE) for eastern Ukraine is a joint initiative funded by USAID to support the Democratic Governance in the East program (DG East), and implemented by the Centre for Sustainable Peace and Democratic Development (SeeD) in partnership with the United Nations Recovery and Peacebuilding Programme (UN RPP).

The aim of the SCORE Index is to assist national and international stakeholders in their peacebuilding efforts, providing an evidence base for developing policies and programmes that strengthen national unity and social cohesion, as well as for monitoring the progress of their implementation.

The SCORE Index in Ukraine is implemented on an annual basis, and findings presented in this report are based on 19,292 face-to-face interviews conducted across Ukraine between January and May 2021, alongside 638 CATI interviews in the non-government controlled areas.

The SCORE Index uses a mixed-methods participatory research approach, including multi-level stakeholder and expert consultations to design and calibrate indicators and develop relevant conceptual methods that can answer the context-specific research objectives. The SCORE Index was developed in Cyprus through the joint efforts of SeeD and UNDP's Action for Cooperation and Trust programme (UNDP-ACT), with USAID funding. Among other countries, it has been implemented in Afghanistan, Bosnia Herzegovina, Côte d'Ivoire and Liberia.

About the Partners

The Centre for Sustainable Peace and Democratic Development (SeeD) works with international development organisations, governments, and civil society to design and implement people-centred and evidence-based strategies for promoting peaceful, inclusive and resilient societies. Through its global project portfolio, SeeD provides social

transformation policy recommendations that are rooted in citizen engagement strategies and an empirical understanding of the behaviours of individuals, groups, and communities. SeeD's approach focusses on understanding the root causes of societal challenges by developing an evidence-based theory of change which is empirically tested using the SCORE Index.

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) supports strategic capacity development initiatives to promote inclusive growth and sustainable human development. Through partnerships with national, regional, and local governments, civil society, and the private sector, UNDP strives to support Ukraine in its efforts to eliminate poverty, develop people's capacity, achieve equitable results, sustain the environment, and advance democratic governance.

UNDP, through its flagship UN Recovery and Peacebuilding Programme (UN RPP), is helping to restore critically important social and economic infrastructure and effective work of local governments in eastern Ukraine; to create jobs and spur entrepreneurship among IDPs and host communities, and to promote peace and reconciliation.

USAID has partnered with Ukraine since 1992, providing more than US\$3 billion in assistance. USAID's strategic priorities up to 2021 included strengthening democracy and good governance, promoting economic development and energy security, improving healthcare systems, and mitigating the effects of the conflict in the east.

USAID's DG East program is a five-year activity to improve trust and confidence between citizens and government in eastern Ukraine, building opportunities for the region to lead Ukraine's democratic transformation. DG East aims to strengthen the connection and trust between citizens and their government in eastern Ukraine by promoting good governance and inclusive civic identity, increasing interaction between citizens and civil society, and increasing collaboration between government and citizens and citizen participation in community development and local decision-making.