

REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA COUNTRY GENDER EQUALITY BRIEF



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REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA

COUNTRY GENDER

EQUALITY BRIEF



Chişinău, October 2021



ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BPfA	Beijing Platform for Action
CEDAW	UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CoE	Council of Europe
CRC	UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
CRPD	UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
CSOs	Civil Society Organisations
CGEB	Country Gender Equality Brief
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
DV	Domestic Violence
ECA	Europe and Central Asia
EVAWG	Ending Violence Against Women and Girls
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEEW	Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
GFP	Gender Focal Point
GIWPS	Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security
GIP	General Inspectorate of Police
GRB	Gender-Responsive Budgeting
HDI	Human Development Index
ICPD	International Conference on Population and Development
IC	Istanbul Convention, Convention of the Council of Europe on prevention of violence against women and family violence
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate
MHLSP	Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Protection
MLSPF	Ministry of Labour, Social Protection and Family
MLSP	Ministry of Labour and Social Protection

NCDs	Non-Communicable Diseases
NEET	Persons Not in Employment, Education or Training
NSIH	National Social Insurance House (CNAS)
OP	Optional Protocol
OSCE	Organisation for Security and Cooperation in Europe
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SRHR	Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights
UNCT	United Nations Country Team
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
UPR	Universal Periodic Review
UNRC	United Nations Resident Coordinator
UNSDF	United Nations Sustainable Development Framework
UNSR	UN Special Rapporteur
UN Women	United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women
VAW	Violence Against Women
WB	World Bank
WHO	World Health Organisation
WPS	Women, Peace and Security

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

UN Women's Country Gender Equality Brief (CGEB) provides a snapshot of the status of gender equality and women's empowerment in the Republic of Moldova,¹ particularly as measured against the gender-related indicators of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Framed under Agenda 2030 and the SDGs, the CGEB also attempts to summarise if and how women from underrepresented groups may be doubly challenged in the types of discrimination they face. The CGEB closes with a country-specific Matrix of Gender-related SDG Indicators for Moldova.

Developed using a UN Women corporate methodology and template, through a document review completed in consultation with the UN Country Team (UNCT) in Moldova, the CGEB reflects current research and statistics. No primary research or analysis was carried out in developing the CGEB, nor did the document review process or interpret raw data.

MAIN FINDINGS

Moldova ranks 23rd of 153 countries in the 2020 World Economic Forum (WEF)'s Global Gender Gap Report, illustrating the important gains the country has made in terms of gender equality in recent years, particularly in the Health and Survival (ranking 1st) and Economic Participation and Opportunity (ranking 19th) sectors. However, according to the above-mentioned Global Gender Gap Index, the country shows positive, but uneven development: from the 17th rank (in 2006), to 34th (in 2010), to 52nd (in 2013), to 26th (in 2015, 2016), and finally, to 23rd (in 2020).ⁱ

The Republic of Moldova has signed and ratified all relevant international legal frameworks pertaining to gender equality and the empowerment of women. Moldova's legislative and normative frameworks in support of gender equality and advancing women's empowerment is relatively strong. Despite this progress, implementation of the legal framework remains a significant challenge.

According to official data, the absolute poverty rate² is gradually declining, dropping from 29.5 per cent in 2014 to 26.8 per cent in 2020. *Gender differences were noted regarding the poverty rate depending on the sex of the head of the household: **the poverty rate is higher where the head of the household is female*** (29.3 per cent) compared to where the head of the family is male (25.6 per cent).ⁱⁱ

According to official reports,ⁱⁱⁱ Moldova has made progress in the areas of child and maternal health, and the fight against HIV and AIDs. At the same time, *there are several notable issues in the health sector*. Inequalities in accessing primary and specialised health care services are notable between urban and rural areas in Moldova, and there is a likelihood of growing inequalities in this respect. About 48 per cent of people in households with people with disabilities did not go to the doctor, even if they needed to. The same applies to low-income households, the elderly, and women.

According to official statistics, the Republic of Moldova has made important progress in terms of advancing near **universal enrolment of both boys and girls in primary education and in secondary education**. At the same time, there is a need to improve the educational attainment of Roma girls, girls with disabilities, and girls from rural areas, while also improving equal and equitable access to quality education for all populations. Moreover, despite positive

¹ UN Women is currently a non-resident agency in Moldova, with programming and partnerships in the country led by the UN Women Regional Office for Europe and Central Asia based in Istanbul.

² In 2018, the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) revised the calculation methodology by establishing a new absolute poverty line for 2016, <https://statistica.gov.md/newsview.php?l=ro&idc=168&id=6698>.

trends of gender-balanced enrolment in some fields of study (law, medicine, economics), traditional gender differences are maintained, with women preferring the social fields, and men preferring the “real” or technical ones. **The situation is impacted by stereotypes within the career guidance process.**

In Moldova, **women’s political leadership has increased gradually.** Seats in Parliament held by women increased from 8.9 per cent in 1998-2000 to 25.7 per cent in 2019, to a further 39.6 per cent in July 2021. At the local level, the percentage of elected women mayors grew from 10.9 per cent (1999) to 18.0 per cent (2011) to 21.8 per cent (2019).^{iv} Through gender quotas and NGO activism with the support of international organisations, following the results of local elections (October 2019), six women with disabilities and six Roma women were elected as local councillors for the first time.

These statistics show a gradual acceptance of the important role women can play in political life. At the same time, women engaging in politics face different forms of discrimination, a particular violence and sexual harassment in election.^v Nonetheless, despite the adoption of a 40 per cent gender quota, this does not apply in relation to the Government. **The proportion of leading men at all levels is higher than that of women.**

According to the Gender Gap Report, WEF Sub-Index: *Moldova ranks 19th of 153 countries in Economic Participation and Opportunity*, (2020),^{vi} illustrating some progress based on official data. However, **the labour market faces multiple challenges**, including low wages, poor quality of employment, informal employment, and labour migration processes. In 2020, the overall LFPR amongst women (36.1 per cent) was lower than that of men (45.1 per cent). The employment rate amongst women is lower than that of men (by 8.1 percentage points in 2020). The unemployment rate for men (4.3 per cent) is higher than that of women (3.2 per cent) (2020).^{vii} The share of women employed in the ICT sector increased by four per cent during the last few years to 35.9 per cent in 2019.^{viii} There are two times fewer women amongst entrepreneurs compared to men (33.9 per cent versus 66.1 per cent).^{ix}

Women with children have fewer economic opportunities compared to men.

Despite the trend of the gender pay gap decreasing from 24 per cent (2006) to 13.7 per cent (2020), significant disparities remain in some sectors, such as the finance and insurance sectors (44.6 per cent), ICT (38.0 per cent), and industry (19.8 per cent).^x

A number of statistical indicators reveal the socio-demographic differences between rural and urban women. Rural women in Moldova face reduced access to facilities, poor quality of services, and a lack of employment opportunities, amongst others.^{xi} Due to the ageing ascending process (coefficient 20.6 for rural women, 2017)^{xii} determined by low fertility and labour migration, in villages there are a significant share of single elderly women who “survive”, given the reduced opportunities to generate income needed for subsistence (low pensions, heavy land or farm work). Notably, **women live longer than men, but in terms of survival.**

Moldova is amongst the countries significantly affected by migration processes. Forty-six per cent of Moldovan migrants are men, and 54 per cent are women.^{xiii} Amongst other factors, migration contributes to depopulation, especially in rural areas, the intensification of the ageing processes, gender imbalances, particularly in the reproductive age group, high rates of divorce, partly due to spouses migrating, threatens the sustainability of pension systems, and has a negative impact on the formation of the labour market.

The limited official data and evidence on the gender-related impacts of climate change, natural resource management, and environmental issues hampers the development of gender-responsive policies and programmes.

Despite some positive trends in the implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda, women are underrepresented in the security and defence sectors in Moldova, both in general and in decision-making positions. Women are also underrepresented in official dialogue formats concerned with conflict resolution.

CONCLUSIONS:

Despite the progress made, challenges remain in the areas of education, health, women's economic empowerment, women's access to justice, women's political participation, and women's unpaid, unsupported care work at home. The difficulties in advancing family-friendly policies, discriminatory workplace practices that affect women's economic opportunities and security, as well as sexual harassment, are not well documented (despite an existing legal framework); therefore, it is hard to measure the impact of these realities. The prevalence of gender-based violence against women, including domestic violence, remains a pervasive challenge in the country.

Inequality in Moldova is intersectional; gender inequality is connected to economic, age, social, residential, cultural, ethnic and other factors. Moreover, poverty, the disparate availability of quality services in rural areas, the need for greater food security amongst poorer populations, and the employment of women from disadvantaged groups (rural women, older women, women with disabilities, Roma women, and women living with HIV) remain challenges for the advancement gender equality, the empowerment of women, and the country's overall development. It is necessary to ensure that women and girls belonging to disadvantaged groups have access to adequate and accessible education and health services, social protection, health insurance, and economic opportunities, in rural areas in particular.

The advancement of gender equality in Moldova is hindered by the persistence of gender norms and subsequent gendered stereotypes. These norms are based on traditional models of how to be a "good" woman or girl and a "good" man or boy, societal expectations, each gender's expectations and support of each other, and their self-confidence to take on non-traditional roles. Traditional gender roles for both women and men limit their opportunities in personal and professional terms, lead to gender-based

discrimination and gender-based violence and, finally, affect overall well-being.

Often, these gender norms are perpetuated by families, educational institutions, communities, cultures, religious and political leaders, state policies, the private sector, and the media. Comprehensive and transformative gender policies and interventions that focus on diminishing patriarchal power and eliminating gender inequalities are needed.

Regarding the **implementation of SDG 5, "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls"**, some achievements and several gaps should be mentioned. Achievements include an improved legal framework on gender equality and preventing and combatting VAW; the increased coverage of children under three years old with childcare services (+0.9 percentage points); increasing the proportion of seats held by women in the national Parliament to 39.6 per cent (2021); (slightly) increasing the proportion of elected seats held by women in deliberative bodies of local government (as mayors) to 21.8 per cent (2019). Yet gaps remain, including the persistence of violence against women and girls from an intimate partner or husband; the disproportionate burden on women for domestic work and unpaid care, which often affects economic opportunities, independence (the wage gap of 13.7 per cent (2020)), and women's engagement in public life; and the decreased proportion of women in (total) managerial positions, (by -0.8 percentage points in 2020 versus 2018). These findings allow us to conclude that the progress towards SDG 5 is moderate. These findings are more critical compared to official reports, but they confirm the Government's position that the progress towards SDG 5 has been moderate (according to the Voluntary National Review (2020)).

In the context of COVID-19, potential inequalities, including those based on gender, increased both in terms of income and opportunities.

METHODOLOGY

PURPOSE AND SCOPE

UN Women's Country Gender Equality Brief (CGEB) provides a snapshot of the status of gender equality and women's empowerment in the Republic of Moldova, particularly as measured against the gender-related indicators of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs).

The CGEB for the Republic of Moldova provides an **overview of national and international commitments to GEEW, and key statistics on the areas of population demographics, health, education, leadership, labour and economic empowerment, poverty reduction, and ending all forms of VAW.**

Framed under Agenda 2030 and the SDGs, the CGEB also attempts to summarise if and how women from underrepresented groups may be doubly challenged in the types of discrimination they face. The CGEB closes with a country-specific Matrix of Gender-related SDG Indicators.

The CGEB will serve to strengthen the national capacity to monitor the implementation of commitments to GEEW and will serve as an evidence-driven advocacy instrument to effect change for women and girls in real terms by different stakeholders.

INDICATORS

As per a corporate template, the SDG indicators were selected by UN Women as core indicators to measure the drivers, progress, gaps and challenges to GEEW in a country. The CGEB tables include all gender-related SDG indicators and are grounded in the commitments of the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA).

METHODOLOGY

As per the UN Women Corporate Guidelines on the development of Country Gender Equality

Profiles and Briefs,³ the CGEB for the Republic of Moldova:

- *Was developed through a desktop document review of existing national and international data, with priority given to national data generated in recent years (to see dynamic progress).*
- *Took the COVID pandemic context into account.*
- *Underwent a quality control process, whereby UN Women vetted the CGEB methodology, templates and drafts.*

Document Review: The CGEB document review included relevant national legal and regulatory frameworks as well as national action plans; reports generated by the Government, civil society, and international organisations on sustainable development, national growth and the status of GEEW in the Republic of Moldova; national reports and the Concluding observations of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women on the sixth Periodic Report of the Republic of Moldova (2020) and others; the 2020 Voluntary National Review Progress Report; and the National Review of Beijing +25.

Data sources: Preference was given to national data, where it was possible and credible, from official data sources in the Republic of Moldova including, but not limited to: the GenderPulse database; the Population and Housing Census (2014, 2004); the Labour Force Survey; the Household Budget Survey; the Survey on Knowledge, Attitudes and Practices (KAP, 2014); surveys on Violence Against Women (2011, 2018); Perception Surveys (Gender Barometer, 2006, 2016, and others); and the Statistical Yearbooks of the Republic of Moldova. In some cases, comparative EU/global data were used.

³ UN Women Headquarters – Research and Data. 2018. UN Women Guidelines for Country Gender Equality Profiles. 2018 Version.

The CGEB was developed through a desk review only. The CGEB methodology does not entail processing raw data and compiling data to measure specific indicators. Rather, the CGEB captures current statistics and research based on a document review.

DATA LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE CONSIDERATIONS

In the Republic of Moldova, the national statistical body – the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) – has generated a significant amount of sex-disaggregated statistics on the overall socio-economic situation in the country, with significant support from development partners such as UN Women, UNDP, and UNFPA. The NBS' efforts to update the SDGs based on gender-disaggregated data (2020), including in the frame of the VNR process, should be mentioned. However, indicators such as gender and poverty, women's access to assets including land, sexual harassment, and gender and the environment and climate change, currently lack comparable methodologies for both comprehensive and periodic monitoring. It is worth mentioning that the lack of multiple levels of disaggregation by sex and other characteristics, such as age, ethnic minorities, amongst others, limits the integration of intersectional perspectives into the 'Leave No One Behind' (LNOB) analysis.

The GenderPulse statistical database serves as a main channel to access gender-related indicators on different topics.^{4,xv} Despite this progress, the range of published indicators should be continuously extended so as to fill in the existing data gaps mentioned above. Existing statistics or analyses on the socio-economic realities of marginalised groups, such as women from ethnic minorities, women with disabilities, women living with HIV/AIDS, and rural women, should be updated and extended. Another challenge is the lack of metadata for specific indicators.

One of the main challenges faced by the NBS was the recent adoption of a new definition of 'habitual residence' (usual resident population).⁵ According to the new population estimation methodology - the data refer to the usual resident population. Further challenges

include the discrepancy between statistics provided by different data producers, as well as the insufficient capacities of users to explore the existing indicators. Another challenge is the frequency of data collection for specific gender issues, such as violence against women and unpaid domestic and care work.⁶

The CEDAW Committee to Moldova (2020) recommends an improved data collection system that is disaggregated by sex, age, disability, ethnicity, geographical location and other relevant factors.^{xvi}

Monitoring of the status of gender equality and women's empowerment in the Republic of Moldova would greatly benefit from additional efforts on:

- Establishing a clear mechanism of data exchange.
- The production of multiple levels of disaggregation to conduct LNOB analysis.
- Mainstreaming gender into sectoral administrative data.
- Conducting a survey on specific topics such as gender, climate change, and health; conducting a survey on violence against women; and conducting an agriculture census aligned with the SDGs.
- A gender assessment of public investments/ investments towards GEEW, and its impact.

Addressing these challenges and gender data gaps is a prerequisite for understanding the situation of women in the Republic of Moldova, and for achieving gender-related SDG commitments.

4 The first tool for the graphical viewing of gender-sensitive statistical indicators, structured by: demography, decision making, education, economic empowerment, and health.

5 The estimation of LFQ (AFM) indicators uses the population size with habitual residence (or resident population), recalculated based on the results of the 2014 Population and Housing Census and NOT the size of the stable population, as used until 2018 inclusive. The use of the population with habitual residence also has had the impact of reducing the size of the employed population, as well as the size of the unemployed population (economically inactive population), which no longer includes people who are absent from the household for more than 12 months.

6 For example, VAW data is outdated, as the national survey was conducted in 2010. The OSCE-led Survey on the Well-being and Safety of Women was conducted in 2018 in six countries, including Moldova. <https://www.osce.org/secretariat/413237>

I. COUNTRY

DEVELOPMENT CONTEXT

THROUGH GENDER

LENSES

Moldova, officially the Republic of Moldova, is a landlocked country in Eastern Europe, bordered by Romania to the west and Ukraine to the north, east, and south. The proclamation of the country's independence in 1991 led not only to its exit from the Soviet Union but also to the outbreak of military conflict relating to the Transnistrian region, which is currently in latency.

Moldova is one of the smallest countries in Europe, with a population of 2.64 million people. The population consists of 51.9 per cent women and 48.1 per cent men; almost 14.4 per cent of the population is aged over 65 years (Table 3).^{xvii, 7}

International experts consider Moldova to be one of the poorest countries in Europe, with an economy that relies heavily on agriculture.^{xviii} At the same time, according to official sources, the Republic of Moldova is continuously advancing its domestic reform agenda and aligning with European standards, guided both by the European Neighbourhood Policy (ENP), an EU foreign policy instrument, and the fulfilment of the country's commitments under the Association Agreement with the European Union.^{xix}

In the last three years (before COVID-19), the Republic of Moldova has maintained economic growth, with its gross domestic product (GDP) increasing by about four percent per capita. In 2019, the GDP grew by 3.5 per cent (in 2010, it grew by 7.1 per cent).^{xx} In 2020, the GDP has fallen (-7.0 per cent).^{xxi} The share of domestic trade in goods and services remains high (almost half of the GDP), indicating that economic development is still based more on consumption than on production. The national economy's dependence on remittances fell from 30.2 per cent of its GDP in 2010 to 12.4 per cent in 2018^{xxii} and 15.7 per cent in 2020.^{xxiii}

The Republic of Moldova ranked 90 out of 189 countries and territories in UNDP's latest Global Human Development Index (HDI 2019), which puts the country in the 'high human development' category.^{xxiv} The 2019 HDI value for women Moldova is 0.754, in contrast with 0.744 for men, resulting in a GDI value of 1.014, which places the country in Group 1. Despite this progress, Moldova has lost more than 10 per cent of its human development due to inequalities (Table 1).^{xxv}

⁷ The population size with habitual residence in the Republic of Moldova has decreased by 228,700 people (or by 8.0 per cent) in the last seven years, which confirms a clear trend of population decrease since the last census of population and housing (2014) <https://statistica.gov.md/newsview.php?l=ro&id=6695&idc=168>.

Poverty and Malnutrition

According to official data, the absolute poverty rate⁸ is gradually declining, dropping from 29.5 per cent in 2014 to 26.8 per cent in 2020. *Gender differences were noted regarding the absolute poverty rate depending on the sex of the head of the household: **the poverty rate is higher where the head of the household is a woman** (29.3 per cent) compared to if the head of the household is a man (25.6 per cent).*^{xxvi}

The proportion of the population below the international poverty line of US\$4.3 per day decreased, with significant differences remaining between rural and urban populations. The proportion of men is higher than that of women. The population employed in the agricultural sector (12.5 per cent) and farmers (9.4 per cent) recorded a higher level at this indicator (Table 2).

Demography and Health

In terms of the demographic situation (Table 3) in the Republic of Moldova, the female population predominates amongst the population with habitual residence, which is comprised of 51.9 per cent women and 48.1 per cent men.^{xxvii} The average life expectancy in 2019 was 70.9 years, or 66.8 years for men and 75.1 years for women. This is below the EU-28 average (81.0 years in 2018, Eurostat). Therefore, in the last six years, the indicator of life expectancy at birth in 2019 increased by 1.6 years on average for both sexes (compared to 2014). **The increase in life expectancy in recent years is due to a reduction in the overall mortality rate and the infant mortality rate.** The mortality rate in 2019 was 13.7 deaths per 1,000 inhabitants (2.4 per cent less than in 2018), or 15.1 percent for men, and 12.3 per cent for women. The infant mortality rate has also declined, with 8.7 children dying per 1,000 live births (down from a rate of 9.1 in 2014). The infant mortality of boys decreased to 8.9 per cent, while for girls, the rate increased to 8.5 per cent.^{xxviii} Most children were born in health care facilities.

⁸ In 2018, NBS revised the calculation methodology by establishing a new absolute poverty line for 2016 <https://statistica.gov.md/newsview.php?l=ro&idc=168&id=6698>

There are significant gender differences in mortality for various types of illness and disease (Table 4). In 2019, the value of “male over-mortality” was 113 male deaths per 100 female deaths. In the same year, circulatory diseases and malignancies continued to have the highest weight in the main causes of death (75.2 per cent of all deaths), both for women and men (69.7 per cent for men and 81.4 per cent for women). For some diseases, the mortality rate of men aged 35-59 is nine times higher (in the case of self-inflicted injuries) or six times higher (in the case of accidents, pneumonia and acute infarction) than for women in the same age group.^{xxix} The situation can be partially explained by the specificity of professions and occupations with a high risk for life, or by unhealthy habits, amongst other factors.

The natural growth in 2020 was negative (-9,900 people), with a different evolution for women and men. The negative natural growth registered higher values for the male population (-5,300 people) compared to the indicator values for the female population (-4,600 people), due to the “male over-mortality”. In 2020 compared to 2019, the negative values of the natural growth were accentuated, both for men and women, highlighting a more substantial decrease in the population size compared to previous years.^{xxx}

Women get married earlier than men; the average age of women at first marriage, in 2019, was 26.0 years, while for men it was 28.9 years.^{xxxi} During the last ten years, the **maternal mortality ratio (per 1,000 births) decreased significantly, from 44.5 (2010) to 15.3 (2018)**^{xxxii}, **particularly in urban areas. Women’s total fertility rate has remained relatively unchanged in recent years (on average 1.78 births per woman), but it has not reached the level of replacement of generations, which is 2.1 children born alive to a woman in her reproductive age (2020).** The average age of the mother at the first birth in 2020 was 25.2 years, slightly higher than in 2019.^{xxxiii} Fertility is declining amongst 15-19-year-old females (at 22.0 per 1,000 girls and women in 2019), but this figure is significant for the

regional context, as it remains higher than the European average (EU – 9.0).^{xxxiv} At the country level, the birth rate has decreased, reaching 11.6 live births per 1,000 inhabitants in 2020, compared to 12.9 live births per 1,000 inhabitants in 2018.^{xxxv}

Women’s legal rights, access, and voice and decision-making authority over reproductive health and sexual rights are central in terms of women’s empowerment and independence. In Moldova, the rate of use of modern contraceptive methods has increased gradually, but is still low (43.9 per cent, compared to the Eastern European average of 52 per cent). One of the key achievements is the provision of free contraceptives (from state budget funds) to certain population groups through family doctors. As the CEDAW Committee (2020) has concluded, it is necessary to ensure that women and girls belonging to disadvantaged groups have access to adequate and accessible health services, including sexual and reproductive health, rights, and health insurance, in rural areas in particular.^{xxxvii} There is some progress in combating cervical cancer and breast cancer. However, Moldova is amongst the countries with the highest incidence rate of cervical cancer, at 30.4 per 100,000 women, compared to an average of 16.0 per 100,000 for Eastern Europe.^{xxxviii}

In the Republic of Moldova, during the last decade, the number of abortions per 1,000 live births has decreased, marking a similar trend seen in Eastern Europe, Western Europe, and the Baltic States. Even so, the number of abortions per 1,000 live births is about 1.5-2 times higher than in Western European countries.^{xxxix}

To increase women with disabilities’ access to quality services and respect for their sexual and reproductive rights, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Protection, with the support of foreign partners, has implemented an initiative that provides equipment to 30 Youth Friendly Health Centres (YFHC) in the country, in the form of gynaecological couches adapted for girls and women with disabilities.^{xl}

On the other hand, groups face a **the lack of sexual education in schools and limited**

youth access to qualitative information on SRHR; these groups must build their decision-making capacity regarding their sexual-reproductive health.⁹ According to a national survey, “among boys the share of those who reported having a sexual intercourse is higher than among girls”. This confirms the persistence of stereotypes, such as that boys must be more experienced than girls, which could lead to over-reporting of this experience by boys and underreporting by girls,^{xli} or could push both to start sexual relations under pressure from their peers.

According to official documents,^{xlii} Moldova has made progress in the areas of child and maternal health, and the fight against HIV and AIDs. HIV testing has become more accessible to young people: about 90 per cent (37 of 41) of youth clinics have provided rapid HIV testing to adolescent girls and boys, in line with new testing guidelines. Self-testing, introduced in Moldova in May 2016, is available to everyone, in addition to the ordinary and fast tests available in non-governmental organisations. However, in 2019, 922 cases of HIV were reported, which is 31 per cent more than in 2010. Of the total number of reported cases, 58 per cent were men and 42 per cent were women. During the last ten years, the number of cases amongst men shows a clear upward trend from 17.4 per 100,000 people (2010), to 28.3 per 100,000 people (2020), while amongst women the situation is stable (18 cases).^{xliii} In the 15-24 year age group, women are more likely to become infected with HIV than men, registering 4.8 more new infections per 100,000 women of this age than in the case of men. In the 15-49 age group, women are less likely to become infected with HIV than men, registering 20.9 fewer new infections per 100,000 women of this age group than in the case of men (2019).^{xliv}

⁹ A recent UNFPA Study (2021) shows that students who studied the course “Decisions for a Healthy Lifestyle” (optional, experimental) more frequently used condoms and oral contraceptive pills during their first sexual intercourse, and their use of these modern methods of contraception became more frequent over time, compared to those who did not study the course. https://moldova.unfpa.org/sites/default/files/pub-pdf/study_to_evaluate_the_knowledge_attitudes_and_practices_regarding_the_health_and_life_skills_of_students_in_vocational_education_and_training_in_the_republic_of_moldova.pdf

At the same time, decreasing the mortality amongst the able-bodied population is a major public health challenge. The prevention of trauma and poisoning, the early identification and the adequate treatment of cardiovascular, oncological and communicable diseases (TB), and taking into consideration gender needs are priority directions in this area. Inequalities in accessing primary and specialised health care services are notable between urban and rural areas in Moldova, and there is a likelihood of growing inequalities in this respect.^{xiv} About 48 per cent of people in households with people with disabilities did not go to the doctor, even if they needed to.^{xvi} The same applies to low-income households, the elderly, and women. As with primary healthcare, in the case of inpatient healthcare, **women refused hospitalisation more frequently than men.** The rate of refusals of inpatient healthcare amongst women is 5.1 per cent, compared to 2.7 per cent for men. As much as 36 per cent of women refused hospitalisation due to family issues. In contrast, only 25 per cent of men cited this reason.^{xvii}

It should be noted that **Moldova's high scores on the WEF's Sub-index on Health and Survival (ranked 1st), and on Economic Participation and Opportunity Sub-index (ranked 19th of 153 countries), according 2020 Gender Gap Report, does not reflect the realities of women's experiences in these areas** (confirmed by the above-mentioned data). More specific in-depth analysis with updated indicators is needed.

Based on lessons learned during the COVID-19 pandemic, it is necessary to strengthen capacity at the national level to respond promptly to the needs of the population in public health emergencies, including by ensuring the continuity of sexual and reproductive health services, especially for women, youth, and other vulnerable groups.

Education

According to *the Education Code* (2014), the mission of education is the satisfaction of the educational requirements of the individual and of society and promoting intercultural dialogue,

the spirit of tolerance, non-discrimination, and social inclusion. The Republic of Moldova has **made important progress in terms of advancing near universal enrolment of both boys and girls in primary education and in secondary education.** Despite demographic problems (decreased birth rate, migration, etc.), the gross enrolment rate in primary school increased slightly for both genders: for girls, enrolment rose from 105.1 per cent (2014/2015) to 105.3 per cent (2019/2020), while for boys, it rose from 106.2 per cent (2014/2015) to 107.2 per cent (2019/2020). The gross enrolment rate in lower secondary education of boys decreased gradually from 105.8 per cent (2014/2015) to 104.9 per cent (2019/2020), while the enrolment rate for girls remained substantially the same, at 106.0 per cent (2019/2020).^{xviii} Thus, over the last few years, more boys than girls participated in primary education and fewer boys than girls participated in lower secondary education (Table 5).¹⁰

PISA 2018^{xlix} emphasizes that in Moldova, **girls perform better than boys in all three areas of study (reading, mathematics and science).** The field that shows the biggest difference between the performance of girls compared to boys is reading (a 41-point difference). On the other hand, boys and girls in Moldova record about the same performance (with a difference of two points in favour of girls) in mathematics; in OECD countries, boys accumulate four points more than girls. Such data can contribute to breaking gender stereotypes and encourage girls to embrace professions traditionally considered masculine.

According to statistics, **the enrolment of girls and boys in tertiary education is lower compared to upper secondary education.** At the same time, there are 20.0 percentage points more girls than boys in tertiary education.¹ Based on current data and previous research, we note that at different levels of tertiary education, girls continue to outperform boys in terms of enrolment and

¹⁰ This is a natural trend in almost all countries because of the higher proportion of boys in the respective age group.

educational attainment. Since 2009/2010, the proportion of women tertiary graduates (higher education) fluctuated around the 60 per cent mark, without any significant increase or decrease. In ICT, 20.7 per cent of graduates were women in the first cycle of higher education by general field of study (2019/2020).^{li} Factors that affected the girls' decisions in favour to ICT were noted, including the prevalence of stereotypes (it is not a domain for girls (31 per cent)), that they never considered ICT amongst the choices for their future career (20 per cent), and also a lack of parental support (14 per cent).^{lii}

64.2 per cent of Master's graduates were women, compared to 35.8 per cent men (2020).^{liii} The top three areas of study at the tertiary level for women in Moldova were languages, education, and journalism and information, while for men they were engineering and engineering activities, transport services, and forestry (Table 4). According to statistical data, in 2020/2021 female students from secondary technical education constituted 21.7 per cent of the total number of students that studied Engineering, Processing and Construction (EPC)^{liv}. On the other hand, **young men aged 18-24 years old leave the education system earlier than young women of the same age**, for entry into the labour market. In 2019, the leaving rate was 22.6 per cent for men compared to 15.3 per cent for women.^{lv}

Another problem in the Moldovan educational system is child dropout and absenteeism, generally so children can carry out domestic work and to assume responsibilities within the household. Children from disadvantaged families – especially rural families with many children – are particularly involved in this phenomenon, while boys are absent more frequently than girls.^{lvi}

Although the **proportion of students with special educational needs and disabilities enrolled in general educational institutions increased from 83.3 per cent in 2014 to 93.6 per cent in 2019/2020**,^{lvii} most educational institutions are not adapted to meet inclusive education standards.^{lviii}

Since 2011, the Government of the Republic of Moldova has taken steps toward the deinstitutionalisation of education and has promoted inclusive education with the adoption of a special programme on inclusive education development in the Republic of Moldova for 2011-2020,^{lix} while also including special provisions in the Education Code (2014). A substantial part of **Law no. 60 of March 30, 2012, on the social inclusion of people with disabilities**, refers to improving accessibility in key areas, such as education for people with disabilities. Despite progress, there are a limited number of women and girls with disabilities in inclusive education,^{li} owing to the lack of accessible school buildings and facilities as well as the lack of training on inclusive education for teachers and staff in schools,^{lix} amongst other factors. Other barriers that should be mentioned are the persistence of negative stereotypes and prejudices against people with disabilities in the Republic of Moldova.^{lxi}

Despite significant investment in the education sector, many schools do not have well-equipped sanitary blocks, while in villages, toilets are usually located outside the building and do not have necessary safe or gender-sensitive conditions.^{lxii}

Regarding the didactical personnel, the significant prevalence of women in the education system should be mentioned. For example, in the 2020/21 academic year, the share of women amongst the total number of teachers was 87.4 per cent, or 91.8 per cent in the total management staff. More than half of these teachers have over 20 years of experience in pedagogical work.^{lxiii} One of the problems was related to the fact that teachers from educational institutions employed under the individual fixed-term employment contract did not benefit from annual paid leave, which affects their livelihood. There is a violation of the right to paid annual leave

^{li} In the 2020/2021 academic year, the share of boys with special educational needs and disabilities, included in general education, remains higher compared to that of girls: 65.9 per cent and 34.1 per cent, respectively. <https://statistica.gov.md/newsview.php?l=ro&idc=168&id=6549>

for teachers with retired status due to the erroneous application of the Labour Code by some employers.¹² Given that the majority of teachers are women, this was identified as gender-based discrimination. Recently, the new provision which provides annual paid leave was adopted.^{lxiv}

Women's empowerment

The Republic of Moldova has signed and ratified all relevant international legal frameworks pertaining to gender equality and the empowerment of women. Moldova's legislative and normative frameworks in support of ensuring gender equality and advancing women's empowerment are relatively strong. In the Republic of Moldova, the National Constitution (1994) prohibits discrimination of any kind. Law No. 121 of May 25, 2012, on ensuring equality, also prohibits discrimination of any kind. An important step towards gender equality promotion and the prohibition of gender-based discrimination was taken in 2006, with the adoption of **Law No. 5-XVI of February 9, 2006, on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men**. During recent years, the law has been updated, and now includes strong provisions with definitions of gender equality, gender-based discrimination, sexist language, sexual harassment, and an institutional framework, all of which reflects the country's commitment to non-discrimination and equality. Political parties are obliged to respect a minimum representation quota of 40 per cent for both sexes in the lists of candidates during the elections.^{lxv} However, with the law receiving very little in terms of national budgetary allocations, and insufficient political will, the mechanisms tasked with implementing the law have a limited capacity.^{lxvi}

Women's representation in national parliaments worldwide ranged from 0 to 61.3 per cent (2019), with a global average of 24 per cent, up from 19 per cent in 2010. At the local level, data from 103 countries show that women's representation in elected deliberative bodies varies from less than 1 per cent to close to 50 per cent, with a median of 26 per cent.^{lxvii} **In Moldova, women's political**

leadership has followed these global trends.¹³

The proportion of seats held by women in Parliament increased from 8.9 per cent in 1998-2000 to 39.6 per cent in July 2021. These statistics show a gradual acceptance of the important role women can play in political life. Nonetheless, despite the adoption of a 40 per cent gender quota, this does not apply in relation to the Government. Unfortunately, at the cabinet minister level, positive dynamics over the years have been unstable and uneven, ranging from 9 per cent (1999-2001) to 5 per cent (2009-2011) to 53.8% (2019'06) to 11.1 per cent (end of 2019) to 29.4 per cent (August 2021) (Table 6).

At the local level, women's leadership roles increased gradually. The percentage of elected women mayors increased from 10.9 per cent (1999) to 15.4 per cent (2003) to 18.0 per cent (2011) to 21.8 per cent (2019).^{lxviii} Seats in local government held by women also increased gradually from 17.4 per cent (2011) to 27.1 per cent (2019) (II level) and from 28.6 per cent (2011) to 36.5 per cent (2019) (I level)¹⁴. Nonetheless, only one rayon (of 32 in total) is led by a woman (2019). These data confirm the pyramid of power: at the base being more women, while as the hierarchy increases, their number decreases. At the national and local level, the gradual increase of women's engagement in politics is in part due to temporary special measures – the 40 per cent gender quota – adopted in the Electoral Code.

¹² In this regard, the Women MPs initiative should be mentioned: teachers employed under an individual fixed-term contract will benefit from paid annual leave. On March 19, 2021, Parliament approved a draft amendment to Article 299 of the Labour Code. The legislative initiative is a result of consultation with women MPs from the Joint Platform for Dialogue of Women MPs with women elected to local public authorities, with the support of the Programme for Strengthening the Role of the Parliament in Improving Gender Equality in Moldova, implemented by UNDP Moldova, UNICEF, UNFPA and UN Women. <https://www.md.undp.org/content/moldova/en/home/presscenter/pressreleases/2021/lege-concedii-profesori.html>

¹³ The global average of women in national parliaments is 24.9 per cent, while the Europe regional average is 29.9 per cent (1st January 2020). https://data.ipu.org/women-averages?month=1&year=2020&op=Show+averages&form_build_id=form-DtsP1HHzMkXfk5QGS8Pm_A7NEXZm3lk_vkMc_Y3ugE&form_id=ipu_women_averages_filter_form

¹⁴ In Moldova, local administration is divided into two levels: I- at community level, II – at rayon level (district/ municipal level)

At the same time, mobilisation of different CSOs advocating for greater social justice, gender equality, and HRBA, has fostered an enabling environment in Moldova, and a greater awareness amongst political parties of the need (and readiness of voters) for women in politics.

Despite gains in women's political activity, women remain significantly under-represented in politics worldwide. *Global studies show that women entering and engaging in politics may face high levels of violence.*^{lxxix} In Moldova, a 2019 study found that one of the main barriers to women's participation in politics was violence, especially in elections. Discrimination against women in elections remained a systemic issue, with an institutionalised and party-related character, especially with regard to independent candidates and those from underrepresented groups. In 2019, serious cases of sexual harassment of women candidates were reported in national and local electoral campaigns.^{lxxx} According to data collected during the public debates, 52 per cent of candidates faced violence during the elections, 43 per cent of election activists were subjected to aggression, hatred and violence during the elections, and 45 per cent of respondents witnessed cases of violence against other women participating in the electoral process, while 15 per cent of them reported cases of violence.^{lxxxi} One hundred and fifty alerts of sexism in the public space, elections and acts of violence in various forms were reported on the platform www.gender.monitor.md in the first round of the 2020 presidential elections.^{lxxxii}

The proportion of leading men at all levels is higher than that of women. In 2019, of the total leaders at all levels (legislators, members of the executive branch, other senior dignitaries and heads of public administration, heads and senior officials of the units), 54.3 per cent were men and 45.7 per cent were women.^{lxxxiii}

In the private sector, women's participation as business owners and managers remains limited. According to a national survey, in Moldova, the share of women involved in business has increased to 33.9 per cent in 2018

(6.4 percentage points higher than in 2009). Despite this progress, there are two times fewer women entrepreneurs compared to men (66.1 per cent).^{lxxxiii} Obstacles to women's involvement in business include a lack of childcare services, the excessively high burden of women in the family, and gender stereotypes. In this regard, more attention to girl's leadership as step to business were specified. Regarding business specialisation, it should be noted that young people often specialise in the field of information and communications, but young men use ICT to a greater extent than young women. Thus, more attention to ICT education at all levels is needed.

Women's leadership roles are hindered by the challenges they face in accessing support for their unpaid care work in the home. In Moldova, according to UN Women data (2019), women spent more time on unpaid domestic chores and care work (20.1 per cent) than men (11.3 per cent).^{lxxxiv} Access to quality and affordable childcare remains a challenge, as does accessing necessary support services for the elderly. This is a direct result of social norms which continue to prescribe women's roles as wives and mothers, first and foremost. Globally, close to 90 per cent of men and women hold some sort of bias against women. According to the Gender Social Norms Index (2020), approximately half of the world's men and women feel that men make better political leaders, and over 40 per cent feel that men make better business executives and that men have more of a right to a job when jobs are scarce.^{lxxxv} In Moldova, 60.3 per cent of people think that men make better political leaders than women, or that women do not have the same rights as men; 58.8 per cent of people think that men should have more of a right to a job than women, or men make better business executives than women do.^{lxxxvi} The preference to have a male president was confirmed by another survey (conducted in November 2020), which found that 51.5 per cent of respondents

¹⁵ The first platform for reporting cases of violence against women in elections has been launched in Moldova www.gender.monitor.md / Platform for Gender Equality and UN Women in Moldova https://gender.monitor.md/pages/view_activity.php?id=NA==

would prefer to have a man as a president, 27.9 per cent of respondents would prefer to have a woman in the role, and for 18 per cent of respondents, gender didn't matter.^{lxxvii} These survey results confirm the persistence of challenges that women in elected and managerial positions face in Moldova. On the one hand, there has been an increase in the recognition and promotion of women in leadership positions, while on the other hand, there exist entrenched beliefs that leadership by men is more appropriate.

Despite the large number of women living in rural areas (nearly 30 per cent of the total population of the country), data indicate that approximately 36 per cent of agricultural holdings (farms) are headed by women, compared to 64 per cent by men. Women administer an area of farmland that is much smaller than that administered by men, a figure which constitutes only 19 per cent of the total. Also, in over 88 per cent of agricultural holdings (farms) run by women, the agricultural production is intended only for personal consumption, compared to 83.9 per cent of those headed by men.^{lxxviii} Thus, the potential for women to obtain adequate income from the agricultural holdings (farms) they run is reduced.¹⁶ It should be noted that **rural women are employed in agricultural activities along with men, in addition to the activities and occupations they have as homemakers.** Despite a strong legal framework governing equal property and equal inheritance rights to both women and men (the Constitution, the Family Code, the Civil Code), in practice, women are rarely able to exercise these rights. This situation can be explained by historical practices during Soviet period and the period following the collapse of the Soviet Union; in the subsequent land privatisation process in the late 1990s, land was divided amongst households, with ownership awarded to the 'heads of the household', who were generally men, as breadwinners and heads of the family. Formally, this was a gender blind policy, but in practice, there was a discriminatory impact on women. However, based on working practices amongst rural women, we conclude they hold limited knowledge about their rights to own land.

A number of statistical indicators reveal the **socio-demographic differences between rural and urban women.** Life expectancy at birth for women in villages is more than three years shorter than for women in cities, and this gap has persisted for the last five years.^{lxxix} According to analytical papers,^{lxxx} rural women in Moldova face reduced access to facilities, a poor quality of services, and a lack of employment opportunities, amongst others. Due to the ageing continuously ascending process¹⁷ (coefficient of 20.6 for rural women, 2017), determined by the low birth rate and labour migration in villages (amongst women involved in labour migration, approximately 70 per cent are from rural areas),^{lxxxi} there is a significant share of single, elderly women who "survive", given their reduced opportunities to generate the income needed for subsistence (low pensions, heavy land or farm work). **Notably, women live longer than men, but in terms of survival.**

According to several research initiatives, challenges to women's economic security may be determined significantly by gender norms, which result in girls being streamed into traditional educational and labour sectors that are often non-competitive or undervalued. The CEDAW Committee (2020) has stressed the persistence of patriarchal attitudes and discriminatory stereotypes concerning the roles and responsibilities of women and men in the family and in society.^{lxxxii}

Traditional perceptions are that a woman's primary 'job' is to take care of the family and their child's education,¹⁸ while the reduced

¹⁶ Note: the data are from the Agriculture Census, 2011.

¹⁷ The coefficient of ageing has increased significantly, from 15.7 (2013) to 21.8 (2020), which corresponds to a high level of demographic ageing according to the UN scale. The ageing coefficient of the female population is seven percentage points higher than that of men (25.1 per cent for women, compared to 18.1 per cent for men).

¹⁸ According to the 2015 CDF 'Men and Gender Equality in the Republic of Moldova' study, 90.5 per cent of men and 81.5 per cent of women consider that the most important role for a woman is to take care of the home and cook for the family. The share of men who consider changing nappies and washing and feeding children to be women's responsibilities is even higher: 95 per cent. This indicator is also quite high amongst women: 75.1 per cent (three out of four women) agree with this statement.

involvement of men in the process of raising and educating children and caring for unfit family members also impacts women's employment opportunities. In part, the impact of these perceptions has resulted in limited state investments to provide affordable and quality day care and pre-primary programmes. In Moldova, the enrolment rate of children in pre-primary education (three to six years old) increased for both boys and girls, increasing from 77.4 per cent (2010/2011) to 96.0 per cent (2019/2020) for girls, and from 76.9 per cent (2010/2011) to 92.0 per cent (2019/2020) for boys.^{lxxxiii} Since 2010, the enrolment rate in early educational institutions increased from 57.1 per cent (2010) to 68.3 per cent (2020) of the total population aged one to six years for both genders, gender differences declining to 68.7 per cent of boys and 68.0 per cent of girls.^{lxxxiv} The limited places for children up to two years old should be mentioned. Childcare groups were only attended by 16,800 children aged one to two years (11.2 per cent). **A lack or insufficiency of childcare services has been most frequently specified by entrepreneurs (57.6 per cent women and 54.7 per cent of men) as an obstacle to women's involvement in business.**^{lxxxv} At the same time, given the increasing ageing population in Moldova (coefficient 21.8 in 2020), limited elderly care support programmes also affect women's employment, because it is women who are seen as the main caregivers. In 2019, 26,707 people in the country were registered with severe disabilities; out of this figure, 4,865 were children with severe disabilities (Table 2). Taking into consideration that only 3,624 people with severe disabilities (around 13.5 per cent out of the total number of persons with severe disabilities) benefited from the Personal Assistance Social Service^{lxxxvi} due to limited social assistance services, there is a high probability that the responsibility of care will fall to women as primary caregivers.

In the context of international standards, the Strategy of equality between women and men for 2017-2021 in Moldova, a National programme for the implementation of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security for 2018-2021, improves the **reconciliation of family and professional life for women and**

men. It has been noted that in the security and defence sectors, some measures in this field have been implemented. The survey data show some progress in business: in both female-owned enterprises (78.2 per cent) and in male-owned enterprises (78.6 per cent), flexibility is offered in arrival, departure, and lunch breaks for employees to the same extent.^{lxxxvii} An important instrument to facilitate the reconciliation of family and professional life for women and men is 14 days paid paternity leave (from 2016); the number of beneficiaries has gradually increased from 60 people in 2016 to 3,940 people in 2019.^{lxxxviii} This is a step forward given that in previous years, over 90 per cent of the beneficiaries of parental leave were mothers. The interconnection between marital status and managerial status of women and men should also be noted. The share of married businesswomen is approximately 75.3 per cent, while the share of married businessmen is approximately 85.6 per cent (the difference being 10.3 percentage points between the sexes); the share of divorced entrepreneurs is twice as high amongst women (8.9 per cent) compared to men (4.2 per cent).^{lxxxix} These results confirm the difficulty of combining family life and professional life, an issue that affects more women than men.

In Moldova, according to the 2014 Population and Housing Census, 959,000 households were registered in 2014. The average household size of 2.9 people in 2014 has decreased from 3.0 people in 2004 RPL. Similar trends are typical by residence area: an urban household is composed, on average, of 2.7 people, compared with 2.8 people in 2004, while a rural household is composed, on average, of 3.0 people, compared with 3.1 people in 2004. About 39 per cent of households are made up of three to four people, but the number of households made up of one person has increased, while those made up of five or more people has decreased (17.4 per cent compared with 18.8 per cent). Out of the total number of single households, 64 per cent are single women.^{xc} Households are ageing alongside the aging population.

Male-led households are more optimistic about the standard of living of the household. One of the factors that influences the perception of

living standards is the financial capacity of the household. Households run by men can afford unforeseen expenses in the amount of 5,000 lei (US\$294) in a higher proportion than those run by women (13.9 per cent compared to 9.8 per cent in 2018).^{xcii} It should be noted that female-headed households often include care for children and elderly people, thus limiting their economic opportunities.

There is a gender gap regarding subsistence level by category of population (monthly average per capita). The subsistence level for men compared to women is higher in urban and rural areas by over 400 lei.^{xciii} Since 2015, pensions have become a more significant source of the population's income. **Women aged 18 and over are more dependent on social payments than men.** Women exceeded the share of retired men (70.5 per cent in 2020), but received old-age pensions that were 20 per cent lower than that of men.^{xciii,19} The average size of the old-age pension for both men and women in the non-agricultural sector covered the subsistence minimum for retirees, while in the agricultural sector, the average size of the male pension covered only 91.5 per cent of the minimum subsistence value, and for women, only 87.9 per cent (01, 2021).^{xciv} This is a specific feature of poverty in Moldova: a large proportion of poor households are households with elderly people, especially amongst women (given the strong trends of the population ageing).

According to official data, the coverage of the poorest population (those in the poorest 20 per cent of households) with Social Assistance benefits has steadily increased, from 10 per cent in 2014 to 20.7 per cent in 2018.^{xcv} The proportion of the population above the statutory pensionable age receiving a pension decreased to 75.2 per cent. The proportion of unemployed people receiving an unemployment cash benefit was 10.5 per cent in 2019.^{xcvi} The real income (adjusted for inflation) of the poorest 20 per cent of households was 38 per cent higher in 2018 than in 2010. Although the income of poor households has increased, the rate of growth has been moderate since 2015.^{xcvii} However, the income of the poorest households has

increased due to remittances and pensions, which will face a real challenge given the reduction of remittances.

In the above-mentioned context, **we conclude the increasing importance of social services and social protection for women from different groups.** Special attention and support should be given to families living in poverty, specifically to households 'headed' by women who have many children, older persons requiring care, rural women, and women living with disabilities.

In terms of social protection, it should be mentioned that people with disabilities represent about 7 per cent of the population with habitual residence in the country. Women predominate amongst people with disabilities. In the number of people with disabilities, the share of women was higher than that of men, at 51.7 per cent. At the same time, the share of men with disabilities out of the total male population decreased from 7.1 per cent to 6.7 per cent between January 1, 2016, and January 1, 2020. On the other hand, the share of women with disabilities out of the total female population increased from 6.0 per cent to 6.7 per cent between January 1, 2016, and January 1, 2020.^{xcviii}

Gender equality advancement is significantly affected by gender-based violence and violence against women and girls. In Moldova, 25 per cent of ever-partnered women and girls (18-74 years old) were subjected to either physical, sexual, or psychological intimate partner violence (IPV) (in the 12 months prior to the survey in 2018). In addition, 73 per cent of ever-partnered women and girls (18-74 years old) have been subjected to IPV (physical, sexual or psychological), since the age of 15 (2018).^{xcix} **The proportion of women who reported being survivors of VAW is estimated to be at least 40 per cent,** unchanged over the last decade (Table 7).^c

¹⁹ On January 1, 2021, the average size of the old-age pension for men in the non-agricultural sector was 2,901.7 lei, compared to 2,105.2 lei for women. At the same time, the average size of the old-age pension for the employees of the agricultural sector was 1,561.9 lei for men compared to 1,501.6 lei for women.

Data confirm the intersectionality between VAW and age, residential area, and economic status. Given that women aged 50 years or older are more likely to indicate that they have experienced current-partner physical or sexual violence, it follows that the lifetime prevalence of violence is higher amongst women whose partners are aged 50 years or older. For example, 35 per cent of women with partners aged 50–59 years indicate that they have experienced physical violence at the hands of that partner, compared with 15 per cent of those with partners under 30, or 24 per cent overall.^{ci}

Women who live in urban areas are more likely to indicate that they have been sexually harassed at some point in their lifetime than women living in rural areas (55 per cent versus 46 per cent, respectively).^{cii,20} Physical violence at the hands of one's current partner is much more frequent when that partner is unemployed (33 per cent) compared to when they are in paid work (20 per cent). There is a higher lifetime prevalence of current-partner sexual violence when a woman's partner is currently unemployed (10 per cent) compared to when their partner is in paid work (3 per cent).^{ciii}

Due to a strong legal framework and multi-sectoral measures, the number of protection orders has gradually increased from 80 in 2011 to 635 in 2020. Emergency restraining orders applied by police to protect victims of DV also increased from 3,877 (2018)^{civ} to 4,939 (2020).^{cv}

Despite this progress, there are many challenges in the field. Barriers to reporting DV or IPV include shame, financial reasons, lack of information on services available, mistrust of services, fear, and lack of recognition of what counts as violence. An OSCE-led survey (2019) found that 55 per cent of respondents agreed that domestic violence is a private matter and should be handled within the family; 45 per cent agreed that violence against women is often provoked by victims and others.^{cvi} As the CEDAW Committee has recommended, barriers and stigma discouraging women from reporting cases of VAW to the competent authorities should be eliminated, through raising awareness and judicial or police training.^{cvi}

The efforts of some political forces and CSO representatives to advocate for the ratification of the Istanbul Convention by the Republic of Moldova (signed in 2017) culminated with the ratification by the Parliament on 14 October, 2021²¹. On the other hand, some conservative groups and politicians oppose ratification, claiming that the convention will destroy “traditional family values”, and will contribute to the promotion of homosexuality. The CEDAW CO to Moldova (2020) recommended the ratification of the Istanbul Convention be expedited.^{cvi}

Employment

According to the Gender Gap Report, WEF Sub-Index: **in Economic Participation and Opportunity, Moldova ranks 19th of 153 countries** (2020),^{cix} illustrating that important gains have been made in terms of women's economic rights in recent years. Labour legislation protects pregnant women, mothers who have just given birth, and breastfeeding mothers; allows their transfer to an easier job according to their medical certificate; and prohibits work that puts their security or health at risk, or that can affect their pregnancy or breastfeeding.

At the same time, according to data from Women, Business and Law (World Bank),^{cx} the Republic of Moldova received 84.38 points out of a maximum of 100. The country received lower scores for remuneration

²⁰ Non-partner violence does not differ by locality, but women from rural area are consistently more likely to indicate that they have experienced previous-partner and current-partner violence. Thirty per cent of women living in rural areas indicate that they have experienced current partner physical and/or sexual violence compared to 13 per cent of women living in urban areas. The lifetime experience of sexual violence at the hands of a current partner is 7 per cent amongst women living in rural areas compared with 3 per cent amongst women living in urban areas. Previous-partner psychological violence was indicated by 64 per cent of women living in rural areas, compared with 51 per cent of women living in urban areas, and previous-partner physical violence was indicated by 41 per cent of women living in rural areas compared with 29 per cent of women living in urban areas.

²¹ 54 MPs of the Action and Solidarity Party (PAS) supported the endorsement of the document in the second reading, while the MPs of the Bloc of Communists and Socialists (BECS) boycotted the voting in the 101-member parliament

(only 25 points), getting a job (75 points) and pensions (75 points). This can be explained by legal provisions that impose restrictions in the workplace for pregnant or postpartum women, which creates a disadvantage in terms of the fair remuneration of women. As it stands, women and men retire in different conditions. Based on OECD Social Institutions and the Gender Index 2019, Moldova received 21.4 points, with 36.7 points regarding restricted access to productive and financial resources (at the medium level of discrimination).^{cxii}

In 2019, the employment gap for women and men (aged 15-64 years) in Moldova was smaller compared to the EU (6.0 percentage points versus 10.3 percentage points)^{cxiii}. However, **gender inequality in the labour market remains significant**. The overall LFPR is 40.3 per cent, with 36.1 per cent female and 45.1 per cent male participation for ages 15 years and up (2020). The average rate for urban areas was 46.5 per cent, compared to 36.3 per cent in rural areas.^{cxiv} Regarding marital status, 52.1 per cent of married men compared to 44.2 per cent married women are economically active. At the same time, 24.9 per cent of single women and 32.3 per cent single men are economically active.

Youth between the ages of 15-24 years made up 18.3 per cent of the LFPR (15.4 per cent young women and 21.1 per cent young men) for 2020.^{cxv} The highest gender gap in activity rates, 16.0 per cent, was registered for the 25-34 and 55-64 age groups. The gender gap in the LFPR decreases as the age of population increases (Table 8).

The NEET group (young people who are not in employment, education or training) contains a higher proportion of women (19.7 per cent) than men (15.6 per cent) in the 15-24 age group (2020),^{cxvi} partially because men of this age are employed (even informally), or intend to migrate, to a much greater extent than women. Girls tend to drop out of school due to family duties and a lack of money, while boys do so because of a “desire to work”, amongst other reasons.^{cxvii} In the 15-34 age group,²² the indicator shows higher values amongst women compared to men (by 16.5 percentage points), due to their marital status and the fact that there are

few economic opportunities for women with children. These trends can be explained by social norms and societal pressure, including gender norms, where girls are guided to take responsibility for their family, and boys to enter the labour market to fulfil the traditional role of breadwinner, as the expectation is that a “real man” has money in his pocket.

Over the last few years, the employment rate has decreased gradually amongst both women and men, though the employment rate for women is lower than that of men. In 2020, the employment rate for women was 35.0 per cent, compared to 43.1 per cent for men (an 8.1 percentage point difference). The employment rate for women depends on several factors, including the presence of children in the household under the age of 16. The employment rate for women with children is 23.1 percentage points lower than that of employed men with children.^{cxviii} Data show women with children have a LFPR of 39.4 per cent, compared to 62.5 per cent for men with children. Meanwhile, women without children have a LFPR of 62.9 per cent, compared to 56.5 per cent for men without children.^{cxix}

The main employment sector is the services sector, with women engaged at 58.0 per cent and men engaged at 42.0 per cent. There are fewer women in the agricultural sector (39.0 per cent), industry (46.5 per cent), construction (6.4 per cent), transport and storage (27.3 per cent), and information and communications (35.9 per cent), but women predominate in such economic activities as hotels and restaurants (71.8 per cent), financial intermediation and insurance (72.1 per cent), education (82.2 per cent), health and social assistance (80.2 per cent), and cultural activities (59.9 per cent).^{cxx}

The participation rate of people with disabilities in the labour force decreased from 17.2 per cent (2019) to 14.0 per cent (2020); in

²² According to Law no. 215/2016 on youth, “young people” are people aged between 14 and 35 years. In 2020, the NEET group aged 15-24 years for both sexes decreased from 19.5 per cent to 17.6 per cent. For women, the figure was 19.7 per cent (decreased from 22.8 per cent in 2019) and for men, the figure was 15.6 per cent (decreased slightly from 16.5 per cent in 2019).

urban areas, participation dropped from 16.6 per cent to 15.6 per cent, while in rural areas, participation dropped from 17.5 per cent to 13.1 per cent. The participation rate of men in this group was lower (13.3 per cent) than that of women (14.8 per cent, 2020). The employment rate of people with disabilities was 13.7 per cent; 12.8 per cent for men and 14.7 per cent for women. The employment rate of people with disabilities in urban areas was higher (14.9 per cent) compared to the rate for those in rural areas (13.0 per cent).^{cxxi}

According to official data, **the gender pay gap decreased** from 31.9 per cent (2006) to 13.7 per cent (2020), but the decline was irregular²³ (Table 8). In 2020, significant disparities remained in several sectors, such as the finance and insurance sector (44.6 per cent), ICT (38.0 per cent), industry (19.8 per cent), and health and social assistance (23.3 per cent). At the same time, women had higher earnings than men in administrative services and support services (8.1 per cent), education (1.8 per cent), and other services (1.3 per cent).^{cxxii}

The labour market in the Republic of Moldova faces multiple challenges, including low labour productivity and wages, poor quality of employment, informal employment, and labour migration, especially amongst young people.

It should be stated that women tend towards paid employment and formal employment. In 2019, over 83.2 per cent of all employed women were employed on a contract basis. For men, this indicator was 72.6 per cent. Amongst non-employees, men predominated in the self-employed category (71.9 per cent), while women predominated amongst unpaid family workers (74.2 per cent). The share of informal employment in 2019 amongst women was 18.1 per cent, or 27.9 per cent amongst men.^{cxxiii}

The general trend of a decreasing unemployment rate should be noted, with the unemployment rate amongst men prevalent in the majority of age groups. The unemployment rate in 2020 was 3.8 per cent, or 3.2 per cent for women, and 4.3 per cent for men. Amongst people aged 15-24 years, the unemployment rate was 10.9 per cent. The

value of this indicator registered significant disparities by sex (12.3 per cent for women, 9.9 per cent for men). The unemployment rate of persons with disabilities increased gradually from 1.9 per cent (2018) to 2.4 per cent (2020), and in 2020 represented 3.9 per cent amongst men and 0.7 per cent amongst women.^{cxxiv,cxxv}

In 2020, the population of people aged 15 years or older outside the labour force amounted to 1.283 million people or 59.7 per cent of the total population of the same age category, a figure that has increased by 2.2 per cent compared to 2019. The share of women in this category (56.9 per cent) was higher compared to that of men (43.1 per cent). Amongst the inactive population, the largest share, over 45.2 per cent, belongs to the category of pensioners, followed by pupils and students (13.1 per cent) and family caregivers or housewives (13.0 per cent). Additional groups include people who do not work and are not looking for a job in Moldova, because they already have a job abroad, or who plan to work abroad (11.8 per cent), people (declared by households) as having gone abroad to work or who have been looking for work for less than a year (7.0 per cent), and others.^{cxxvi} Out of the 393,000 women outside the labour force, 36.2 per cent are not employed due to housework, compared to 2.4 per cent in the case of men (2020).^{cxxvii}

In Moldova, 15.8 per cent of women and 27.5 per cent of men are own-account workers (2020).^{cxxviii} **In all age groups, more women (7.2 per cent) compared to men (5.3 per cent) work part-time** (2019),^{cxxix} a trend that has persisted for ten years, with small deviations. In 2020, 16.7 per cent of the total employed population worked in the informal sector (in 2010, this figure was 12.7 per cent), and 22.4 per cent had an informal job (in 2010, this figure was 30.9 per cent)^{cxxx}. In this sector, 28.1 per cent are male, while 16.1 per cent are female. Out of the total number of informally employed people, 23.8 per cent were employees and 6.8 per cent

²³ Gender pay gaps in economic activities are largely the consequence of several factors, including occupation, hierarchical position at work and the qualification level of employees.

had an informal job. 'Envelope' salaries were received by 6.7 per cent of employees (8.8 per cent men and 5.7 per cent women), with the highest shares estimated in agriculture (60.8 per cent), trade (9.9 per cent), industry (6.3 per cent) and construction (13.4 per cent).^{cxxxi} It should be noted that 'envelope' salaries or under-reported wages reduce employees' access to social protections.

We conclude that **during recent years, informal employment in the non-agricultural informal sector has decreased**, from 15.8 per cent (2010) to 12.2 per cent (2019). Within the non-agricultural informal sector, women's involvement decreased from 10.8 per cent (2010) to 5.9 per cent (2019), while men's involvement also decreased from 21.1 per cent (2010) to 18.8 per cent (2019).^{cxxxii, 24} This situation is partly determined by labour migration.

Migration processes represent another significant challenge from the gender perspective. Moldova is amongst the countries most affected by international migration. According to UNDESA data, the number of Moldovan emigrants in 2020 was 1,159,400, of which, women constitute 52.2 per cent.^{cxxxiii, 25} According to NBS data, in 2019, only 3,660 people left Moldova,²⁶ the majority going to Russia, USA, Germany, Israel, and other countries traveling either for work or for family immigration.^{cxxxiv} In EU countries (Germany, Italy, Spain, France, and Portugal) Moldovans are mainly employed in the service sector, including construction, restaurant businesses, and local households. Moldovan women leave the country to work more often than men, and their main areas of employment are the service sector and trade.^{cxxxv, 27}

Along with external migration, Moldova faces internal migration pressures, as people migrate from rural areas to urban settlements, especially to the capital city, Chisinau. During 2019, 39,000 people changed their domicile inside the country. Internal migrants (more than 88 per cent) are mostly people of working age, predominantly in the age group of 20-49 years. The flow of arrivals and departures was constituted of 56.2 per cent women and 43.8 per cent men.^{cxxxvi}

Environment and Climate Change

The Republic of Moldova has adopted several policy documents in the field of the environment and climate change. The Strategy for ensuring equality between women and men in the Republic of Moldova for the years 2017-2021 has included the area of climate change. However, the majority of documents are gender blind. Data and statistics on the gender-related aspects of the impacts of climate change, natural resource management, and environmental issues, remain limited, which reveals gaps in the policy. The proportion of the resident population that has a sanitation service, bath, or shower within the dwelling increased gradually from 38.7 per cent (2014) to 46.7 per cent (2018) with a significant rural-urban gap (20.8 per cent versus 83.8 per cent respectively). The situation is marginally better in female-headed households (48.6 per cent) compared to those where the head of the household is male (45.7 per cent).^{cxxxvii}

Peace and security

On the Women, Peace, and Security Index (2019) Moldova has ranked 64 out of 167, with an index value of 0.743.^{cxxxviii} In 2018, the National Programme on the implementation of UNSC Resolution 1325 on WPS for 2018-2021 was approved. The share of women in the total number of employees of the police, including civil protection and border guards, increased gradually; at the beginning of 2020, the total

²⁴ Women aged 15-24 years, and those who are aged 65 years and above, are more frequently engaged in informal employment (9 per cent). For men, the highest rate for informal employment is also amongst young persons (24 per cent), and amongst those aged 25-29 years (22 per cent).

²⁵ The figures may differ greatly from other sources due to dual citizenship and other factors.

²⁶ The majority of emigrants are aged 20-44 years for both women (48 per cent out of total number of emigrants) and men (44 per cent respectively).
https://statbank.statistica.md/PxWeb/pxweb/ro/20%20Populatia%20si%20procesele%20demografice/20%20Populatia%20si%20procesele%20demografice_POPrec_POP070/POP070400rcl.px/?rxid=9a62a0d7-86c4-45da-b7e4-fecc26003802

²⁷ Mass external migration has created serious social problems in Moldova, including raising children in separated families and increasing demographic pressure. Out of 146,000 children (about 14 per cent of Moldovan children), one or both parents work abroad. Approximately 135,000 married couples are separated most of the time due to the migration of one of the partners.

was 21.8 per cent. At the same time, the share of women within the total number of judges at the beginning of 2020 was 49.2 per cent.^{cxviii} The share of women in the defence sector was 20.3 per cent. Despite some positive trends in the implementation of the Women, Peace and Security Agenda, women are underrepresented in the security and defence sectors in Moldova, in both general and decision-making positions. Women are also underrepresented in official dialogue formats concerned with conflict resolution.

COVID: gender perspective

According to Ministry of Health data, from the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic (March 2020) to September 10, 2021, about 273,918 cases of infection with the coronavirus were confirmed, while there were 6,492 cases of death. Of the total number of infected people, women constitute approximately 58.6 per cent; within the total number of deaths, they comprise 51.2 per cent. 1,125 pregnant women became infected with the virus (0.7 per cent of total number of infected women).^{cxl}

Based on existing data and reports,^{cxli} we can conclude that the COVID-19 pandemic situation has affected all populations, but with different impacts on women and men. In the context of COVID-19, potential inequalities, including gender-based inequality, increased both in terms of income and opportunities. Worsened inequalities related to care responsibilities can be attributed to women's significant involvement in unpaid work and their increased burden of care tasks, generally determined by persistent traditional gender roles in Moldovan society. The increased number of DV cases, divorces, and conflicts within families should also be mentioned. Older women, who often do not have adequate income and access to social protection measures, directly bear the consequences of the COVID-19 impact in terms of economic and social development.^{cxlii}

The impact of the pandemic on the situation at work was manifested mainly in the interruption or cessation of activity, reduction of working hours, working from home, and the transition to part-time work, amongst others, all of which affect the economic security of both women and men.

CONCLUSIONS:

In terms of efforts to promote gender equality and ensure women's human rights, the situation in different critical areas is varied. Due to increased pressure from CSOs and aid from international organisations (including UN agencies), the state response to violence against women and domestic violence has been significant in recent years. In other areas, specifically those related to the political, social and economic rights of women (health, work, economic empowerment, social security, and education), we have noted several national and local interventions by the state, civil society organisations, and development partners. Despite these positive trends, there are significant gaps in the above-mentioned areas, specifically regarding the interconnection between gender, age, disability, residence, marital and socio-economic status, and nationality.

The National Bureau of Statistics has produced significant statistical data related to the SDG indicators. However, in the context of the new NBS methodology concerning the data of the usual resident population, it is necessary to ensure continuity with previously collected data. Restructuring age groups has posed a challenge for analysis, because it complicates comparisons to previous years.

Taking into consideration the existing discrepancies between data presented in the GenderPulse statistical application (a valuable, interactive tool for the easy-to-understand graphical viewing of gender-sensitive statistical indicators) and recently published data based on the new NBS methodology, it is necessary to update all indicators.

The collection and use of statistical data related to the SDG indicators should be intersectoral and intersectional, accounting for the interconnection between gender, age, disability, residence, marital and socio-economic, and ethnics statutes.

In terms of the discrepancy between statistics provided by different data producers, constructive cooperation between data producers is recommended. Increased attention is required for the production of both quantitative and qualitative data.

It is necessary to ensure knowledge and understanding of the SDG methodology amongst stakeholders and strengthen the capacity of users to explore the existing indicators, in order to avoid presenting misleading data that distort the picture and divert attention from the real issues.

Also, it is important to ensure better coordinated work between governmental agencies and CSOs regarding the development of a coherent and holistic approach to data collection and use. This can help streamline the monitoring of the implementation of the 2030 Agenda.

Unlike the obligations under the CEDAW, the EU-Moldova Association Agreement commitments to the SDGs are not mandatory and are often not capitalised at fair value. In this context, it is important to continue raising awareness amongst stakeholders and other actors, with a focus on SDGs in connection with international documents in which the Republic of Moldova is a party.

II. SUMMARY OF LEGAL FRAMEWORKS AND INTERNATIONAL COMMITMENTS ON GEEW

This section monitors SDG indicator 5.1.1: Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex.

With its proclamation of independence in 1991, the Republic of Moldova joined several international Treaties and Commitments relevant to Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women: ^{cxliii}

- The **UN Convention on the Rights of the Child** (1993)
- The **Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination** (1993)
- The **Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women** (1994)
- The **Convention against Torture and Other Cruel Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment** (1995)
- The **Convention for the Protection of All Persons from Enforced Disappearance** (2007)
- The **UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities** (2010)
- The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995)
- The EU-Moldova Partnership Agreement (2014)
- The Agenda 2030 on Sustainable Development, 2015 (especially SDG 5)
- Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (2021)

In 2019, the Government of the Republic of Moldova prepared its **National Review of Beijing +25**.^{cxliiv} In February 2020, the **Sixth periodic report on CEDAW implementation was submitted by the Republic of Moldova**

under Article 18 of the convention for the 75th session of the UN Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women. In July 2020, the Government of the Republic of Moldova presented the first **Voluntary National Review of Agenda 2030 implementation**. These reports outline the progress made by the Republic of Moldova in the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action, CEDAW, and Agenda 2030 respectively, but also the challenges faced in these fields.

In February 2017, the Republic of Moldova signed the Council of Europe's **Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence** and in October 2021 after long advocacy process it is ratified by the Parliament.

The Republic of Moldova is not part of the UN International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families. The Concluding observations of the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women in the Sixth periodic report of the Republic of Moldova (2020) recommended that the Republic of Moldova ratify the above-mentioned document, as well as the ILO Violence and Harassment Convention, 2019 (No. 190).^{cxlv}

Based on international commitments, relatively strong legislative and normative frameworks in support of ensuring gender equality and the advancement of women's empowerment were approved. This chapter includes two components: the summary and the general review of these national frameworks (Annex 1).

I. National Constitution and Laws that are significant to advancing Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women:

• **Equality and Non-Discrimination:**

The **Constitution of the Republic of Moldova** (1994)^{cxlvi} enshrines the principle of equality of all citizens before the law and public authorities, without any discrimination as to race, nationality, ethnic origin, language, religion, sex, political choice, personal property or social origin, amongst others. **Law No. 121 on Ensuring Equality** (2012)^{cxlvii} includes definitions of different types of discrimination; to this end, the Council for Preventing and Eliminating Discrimination and Ensuring Equality was created. **Law No. 5 on Ensuring Equal Opportunities for Women and Men** (2006)^{cxlviii} is the guiding policy on gender equality; it includes definitions concerning gender equality, sexual harassment, victimisation, and GBD within the national machinery. The Government should ensure the implementation of these laws, the functionality of the national machinery, and allocation of adequate resources.^{cxlix}

• **Rights in the Family and Marriage:**

The **Constitution of the Republic of Moldova** enshrines the right to free choice and consent in marriage where marriage is defined as a union between a woman and a man, ensures the equal rights of women and men in the family, and the right and duty of parents, amongst others. Within the **Family Code**,^{cl} only marriages registered by the state are legally recognised; marriage between people of the same sex is prohibited. The minimum marriage age is 18 years, though if good reasons

are provided, the matrimonial age may be reduced (this issue contested by CEDAW Committee). Also, the Civil Code and the Family Code ensure the right of women with psychosocial or intellectual disabilities to enter into marriage and exercise parental responsibilities.^{cli}

• **Land Rights: [Ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex. (SDG indicator 1.4.2; 5.a.1 and 5.1.2)]**

- The **Constitution of the Republic of Moldova, the Civil Code, and Family Code** that govern rights in the family and marriage ensure equal property and equal inheritance rights to both women and men. The **Land Code**^{clii} stipulates some gender aspects; land commissions establish an equivalent land quota that is assigned in private property. However, in practice, women face obstacles to exercising these rights. Unequal inheritance practices also contribute to low rates of land ownership amongst women.

• **Women's Leadership:**

Provisions that demand political parties observe a minimum gender quota of 40 per cent in managerial bodies and lists of candidates were introduced in **Law No. 5-XVI on Ensuring Equal Opportunities for Women and Men, in the Electoral Code and in Law No. 294 on Political Parties**. New provisions of the Electoral Code give advantageous conditions to women in regards to the mandatory number of signatures they need to collect to be registered as candidates to the position of MP for single-member constituencies, placement provisions, and financial support for parties to promote women, amongst others.^{cliii} At the same time, it is recommended that the country strengthen sanctions for non-compliance with the minimum quota of 40 per cent, and provide special programmes for women, especially from disadvantaged groups.^{cliv}

• **Legislation on Sexual and Reproductive Health (SDG indicator 5.6.2):**

Law No. 138 on Reproductive Health^{clv} includes definitions for reproductive health, sexual health, reproductive rights, and family planning, amongst others, with a focus

on risk-free motherhood, the diagnosis, prevention and treatment of STIs and HIV/AIDS, safe abortions, the sexual-reproductive health of adolescents, the sexual health of the elderly, the early diagnosis and treatment of genital and breast cancers the prevention and treatment of infertility and the sexual-reproductive health of men. The voluntary interruption of pregnancy has been stipulated by the **law on health protection**^{clvi}. At the same time, we note that women have limited access to early detection programmes and breast and cervical cancer treatments, there is stigmatization of and discrimination against women living with HIV/AIDS,^{clvii} and women from disadvantaged groups have limited access to SRH services.

• **Violence Against Women and Girls, Human Trafficking and Exploitation:**

Law No. 241 on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings,^{clviii} establishes an institutional framework on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings, and a national referral system for the protection and assistance of victims and alleged victims of human trafficking. According to the Criminal Code, human trafficking and child trafficking are punishable by imprisonment for six to 20 years. However, there are several gaps in this area, including limited access to free medical assistance, rehabilitation services and state compensation, and a lack of protection for victims of trafficking during the investigation stage.^{clix}

Law No. 45-XVI on preventing and combating violence within family^{clx} provides a definition of violence within the family and types of violence, institutional mechanisms and protection measures for victims of DV (protection orders and emergency restriction orders), state obligations to offer services, and state guaranteed legal aid to victims, amongst others. Violence within the family is criminalised (**Criminal Code**). **Law No. 137/2016 on the rehabilitation of victims of crimes** includes the provision of financial compensation, though this is often not applied in cases of GBV against women. **Law No. 113/2020** for the modification of some normative acts includes new and updated provisions, including

provisions on state-guaranteed legal emergency aid.^{clxi} Challenges that should be noted include the underreporting of GBV due to fear of stigmatization and re-victimisation, insufficient resources, and limited access to services addressed to GBV victims.

II. National Policies, Programmes and Action Plans on advancing Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women:

• **Gender Equality:**

The current **Strategy for ensuring equality between women and men in the Republic of Moldova for the years 2017-2021**, and the Action Plan on its implementation,^{clxii} cover ten areas of intervention: women's participation in decision-making, the labour market and gender pay gap, social protection and family policies, health, education, climate change, institutional mechanisms, stereotypes in society and nonviolent communication, gender equality in the security and defence sector, and gender-sensitive budgeting. The assessment (2021) states that progress on impact results has been uneven.²⁸

• **Human Rights:**

The **Third Human Rights National Action Plan for the years 2018–2022** (PNADO)^{clxiii} covers 16 areas of intervention, including gender equality and GBV. Based on the same Parliament Decision, No. 89,^{clxiv} the National Human Rights Council (NHRC) was established to ensure, better coordinate, and monitor the implementation of PNADO III. At the moment, the NHRC has replaced specialised commissions, including on gender equality, but does not have the capacity to cover their areas.

²⁸An analysis of the impact indicators shows that for 49 per cent, certain positive progress was attested, for 37 per cent of the indicators, no progress was made, and for 14 per cent of the indicators, there was a regression. Progress has been largely evidenced in areas where the sector was not well established (climate change, and the security and defence sector). For more established sectors (education, the labour market, and health), progress has been more temperate.

• Violence Against Women and Girls, Human Trafficking and Exploitation:

The **National Strategy for Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Human Beings for 2018–2023** is currently being implemented. The new Roadmap for 2021–2023 has been elaborated and should be approved. The **National Strategy on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Violence in the Family for 2018–2023** has been implemented and has passed a mid-term assessment. The assessment (2020) identifies that the implementation of the strategy has been achieved at an average degree of 24 per cent.^{clxv,29} The new Action Plan for its implementation is likely to be approved.

• Sexual and Reproductive Health

Currently, the National Programme on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights 2018–2022 (SRHR programme) focuses on access to sexual and reproductive health services. It seeks, in the case of humanitarian situations, to improve quality of care and take a human rights-based and patient-centred approach to sexual and reproductive health through providing the population with information and education. The new National Programme for the Prevention and Control of HIV/AIDS and Sexually Transmitted Infections for

the years 2021–2025 has been drafted and should be approved by the Government.

• Women, Peace and Security (WPS):

In 2018, Moldova adopted the first National Programme on the implementation of the UNSC Resolution 1325 on WPS for 2018–2021 period and Action Plan for its implementation.^{clxvi} These documents do not include the Transnistria region, and do not address the concept of human security. The lack of a national coordination body in the implementation of the WPS Agenda affects progress in the field. The second national programme on the implementation the UNSC Resolution 1325 on WPS is under elaboration.

• The Government Programme

The newly proposed Government Programme “Moldova in Good Times” (August 3, 2021) includes some references regarding GBV, gender equality in the labour market, the gender pay gap, amongst others.

²⁹The highest degree of achievement can be seen under general objective four, the development of integrated policies in the field of prevention and controlling violence against women and domestic violence, which, based on multisectoral cooperation and data collection, registers 35.3 per cent. The lowest degree of achievement is under general objective two, strengthening the protection and assistance mechanisms for female victims of violence and domestic violence, at 13.3 per cent.

CONCLUSIONS:

The Republic of Moldova has ratified a number of UN treaties and conventions, assuming important commitments in promoting gender equality and women's empowerment. Based on international standards, the Republic of Moldova has adopted a comprehensive legal framework on gender equality. Special laws and strategies were adopted with a focus on the promotion of gender equality, preventing and combating violence against women and girls, and human trafficking and exploitation. Gender mainstreaming crosscuts several sectoral documents.

We conclude that the legal framework covers the following SDGs targets:

- SDG 5.1: End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere. 5.1.1: Actions on the implementation of the CEDAW.
- SDG 5.2: Eliminate all forms of violence against all women and girls, including trafficking and sexual and other types of exploitation. Laws and regulations on domestic violence and anti-trafficking.
- SDG 5.6.2: Laws and regulations on *Sexual and Reproductive Health*.
- SDG indicator 1.4.2, 5.a.1 and 5.1.2: Ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex. A legal framework that ensures land rights.
- SDG 8, 8.3: Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalisation and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises,

including through access to financial services. Legal frameworks include the Labour Code, and the Employment Strategy 2017-2021, amongst others.

- SDG 10.3: Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies, actions.
- SDG 13.2: Integrate climate change measures into national policies, strategies and planning. The strategy for ensuring equality between women and men in the Republic of Moldova for the years 2017-2021 includes the area of climate change.

Despite achievements in policy adoption, several challenges have affected their implementation, including political instability and inconsistency (with each change of government the attitude towards EG and VAW fluctuates), unstable institutional mechanisms or lack thereof, insufficient human and financial resources, and the persistence of stereotypes, amongst others. CEDAW's Concluding observations on Moldova highlighted several measures that should be taken^{clxvii} to ensure that gender equality is not only "de jure", but also "de facto".

The Republic of Moldova should ensure implementation of the Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (the Istanbul Convention³⁰), ratify the ILO Violence and Harassment Convention, 2019 (No. 190), and the UN International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (1990).

³⁰The Moldovan Parliament ratified on 14 October the Convention of the Council of Europe on prevention of violence against women and family violence, better known as the Istanbul Convention.

III. INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS

After the Beijing Conference (1995), the Government of the Republic of Moldova undertook a set of measures to enforce a **national mechanism which guaranteed the involvement of women in leadership and decision-making process**. Following the Beijing Conference, the state system for supporting and advancing women at the national level had the following components:

- The Presidential Committee on Women and Family Issues (1999-2001)
- The Subcommittee for Equal Opportunities within the Parliamentary Commission for Human rights, Cults, Ethnic Minorities and Foreign Communities (1998-2000)
- The Governmental Committee for Women's Issues (since February 1999)
- Operating divisions within the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection which are as follows: The Division for Social Insurance, Pensions and Family Protection, set up in 1994-1998; The Division for Family Protection, 1998-1999; The Division for Family Policies and Equal Opportunities, 1999-2001
- Gender focal points within all ministries and departments (since 1999)
- Local committees on women's issues operating at a local level
- Experts in the area of equal opportunities in various regions, including five regional gender centres, 2001-2003^{clxviii}

The experiences gained through the above-mentioned structures were useful in understanding what works, and in identifying gaps. In accordance with **Law No. 5-XVI of February 9, 2006 on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men**, a strong institutional framework for equality between women and men was established, including a) Parliament, b) the Government, c) the Governmental Commission for Equality between Women and Men, d) the Ministry of Health and

Social Protection (a specialised body), e) ministries and other central administrative authorities (gender units), and f) local public administration authorities (gender units). Between 2006-2018, the law was updated and the institutional framework was extended; in addition to the Governmental Commission on Equality between Women and Men, structures such as the Council for Preventing and Eliminating Discrimination and Ensuring Equality, a gender coordination group, and ombudsmen, amongst others, were included.^{clxix} According to Article 19 of the law, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Social Protection (MHLSP) is the central public authority empowered to elaborate and promote policies in the field of equality between women and men. Within the MHLSP, gender equality is entrusted to a specialised subdivision, the Department of Policies to Ensure Equality between Women and Men.

One of the general objectives of the Strategy for ensuring equality between women and men in the Republic of Moldova for the years 2017-2021 is to strengthen the institutional mechanism in the field. To achieve this strategy, a series of activities have been designed that coordinate groups on gender, both in terms of strengthening the capacities of their members and capitalising on the contributions of each public policy sector.

However, despite these strong provisions, there are many gaps.³¹ With the law receiving very little in terms of national budgetary allocation, and insufficient political will, the mechanisms

³¹ Despite the progress that has been made, many challenges should be mentioned, such as the low level of implementation of legal provisions within the national machinery on gender equality, and the lack of functionality and sustainability of the national machinery's activities, including the Women, Peace and Security Agenda, amongst others. https://tbinternet.ohchr.org/Treaties/CEDAW/Shared_Documents/MDA/INT_CEDAW_CSS_MDA_41047_E.docx

to implement the law have a limited capacity, and as a result, the functionality of the local gender focal points is low. The CEDAW CO to Moldova (2020) is concerned about the suspension of the Governmental Committee for Equality between Women and Men, and the lack of a mandate to sanction gender-based discrimination within the National Council on the Prevention and Elimination of Discrimination and Ensuring Equality. Gaps in the national machinery also adversely affect the effective implementation of national legislation on gender equality and the overall National Strategy.^{clxx}

The National Strategy on Preventing and Combating Violence Against Women and Violence in the Family for 2018–2023 seeks to strengthen the institutional mechanism and establish a specialised body for intersectoral

coordination: the Inter-Ministerial Coordinating Council in the field of preventing and combating domestic violence (created in 2010). It should be mentioned that over the course of their tenure, some structures, such as the National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings (2001-2017)³² and the Governmental Commission on Equality between Women and Men (2006-2017), were functional. After the reform of the central public authorities, all structures were suspended, and the National Human Rights Council,³³ with the permanent Secretariat for Human Rights, was established. At the same time, there have been continuous discussions about the role of the National Human Rights Council, which absorbed all previous specialised commissions and committees.

CSOs on gender and women's rights are advocating to restart the activities of the Government Commission on Equality between Women and Men (according to Law no. 5). Based on the recommendations of the CEDAW CO to Moldova (2020),^{clxxi} **it has been recommended to resume the activities of the Governmental Committee for Equality between Women and Men under the coordination of the Vice Prime Minister. This will provide the Council for Preventing and Eliminating**

Discrimination and Ensuring Equality with a strong mandate on women's rights and authority to issue binding rulings and impose sanctions on GBV, and will equip them with adequate resources. It will also strengthen the capacity of the Department of Policies for Ensuring Gender Equality within the MHLSP and will ensure effective coordination between the local gender focal points (GFPs) and gender coordination groups in different ministries.

³²The National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings was created by Government Decision No. 1219 of November 9, 2001 and was strengthened by Law No. 241.

³³The National Council for Human Rights is a consultative body of the Government, established in order to monitor the implementation of state policy in the field of human rights, as well as international human rights treaties to which the Republic of Moldova is a party, and to monitor compliance with commitments. <https://cancelaria.gov.md/node/5148>

IV. PARTNERSHIPS

The successful elaboration and implementation of public policies require strong partnerships between different actors, including government structures, the private sector, civil society and various individuals. During the establishment of a legal and institutional framework on gender equality and women's advancement in the Republic of Moldova, different types of partnerships were created. Thus, in terms of the elaboration of draft laws, strategies and action plans on gender equality, domestic violence, anti-trafficking and others, additional documents have been consulted (as mentioned above). This consultative process was undertaken with the involvement of representatives from relevant ministries, especially inter-ministerial partnerships, local public authorities, CSOs, the private sector, academia and various individuals. Public consultations, both offline and online, were used.

The Government is committed to strengthening the national machinery on gender equality through initiatives such as the Government Commission on Equality between Women and Men, as well as the National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings, both of which have contributed to inter-ministerial and inter-departmental partnerships at all levels of the Moldovan Government. Focus has been placed on resource coordination and the management and evaluation of the impact, achievements, gaps, and challenges faced by respective laws relating to GE and GBV. However, there remain many gaps in the field, including the suspension of the Governmental Committee for Equality between Women and Men, the lack of a mandate to sanction gender-based discrimination within the National Council on the Prevention and Elimination of Discrimination and Ensuring Equality, and the low functionality of GFPs at a local level, amongst others.

The relationships between civil society, including women's rights activists, non-governmental organisations, trade unions

and academic representatives, and national mechanisms on gender equality, domestic violence and anti-trafficking, have primarily been focused on building public and technical dialogues. The initial focus was on the incorporation of international commitments on gender equality and women's empowerment within national legislation, followed by a focus on monitoring the implementation of these commitments. It should be noted that the Government Commission on Equality between Women and Men, and the National Committee for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings, have become platforms for dialogue between different stakeholders.

Since 2010, with the creation of the National Coalition "Life without violence in the family" and the Platform for Gender Equality (since 2015) the dialogue between the Government and CSOs active in the promotion of GE has been strongly focused on strengthening the state response to international and national commitments on GEEW, and on prevention, protection and response in relation to GBV. Partnership agreements between state structures and NGOs in the field have yielded new specific experiences and tools that aim to better coordinate efforts and resources and build capacity. State structures and local public administrations (LPAs) recognise the expertise of civil society in this regard and have requested their assistance and partnership.

In the Republic of Moldova, the CSOs active in GEEW advocate for the interests of women from marginalised groups and also for the mechanisms through which these women can access services and support. Specifically, this includes rural women, older women, women living with disabilities, women living with HIV and AIDs, women survivors of GBV, women from ethnic minorities, and the LGBTI community. There are currently about 7,950 republican public associations registered with the Ministry of Justice. According to some studies, only about 25 per cent of the total number of CSOs are sufficiently active and

develop various projects and initiatives.^{clxxii} There are over 100 CSOs that work on gender equality, the empowerment of women, GBV, and anti-trafficking in Moldova. Despite the positive trends in the activities of women's CSOs, many of them, particularly in rural areas, face difficulties in accessing funds for gender-sensitive programs. This is due to their limited financial and organisational capacities to maintain long-term alliances with LPAs and other national NGOs.

Thanks to support from UN Women and Sweden, a partnership with the private sector has been developed that explores Women's Empowerment Principles (WEPs) and the principles of corporate-social responsibility. In 2016, the UN Women team and the National Platform for Women of Moldova started to promote these principles, and identified more than 200 companies that subscribed to these principles.^{clxxiii} Between 2019-2020, work with the private sector on WEPs developed further,

and around 30 companies developed an action plan on the implementation of WEPs. In addition to these road maps, WEPs guidelines and a self-assessment questionnaire have been developed, both of which offer technical support for companies on improving the implementation of Women's Empowerment Principles.

Key partners and national stakeholders on gender equality and the empowerment of women, including ending VAW and GBV, are international multilateral organisations such as UN Women, UNDP, UNFPA, UNESCO, UNICEF, the European Union, OSCE, USAID, ADA, the Oak Foundation, and IREX Europe, amongst others.

It is important to restart the dialogue of the Gender Theme Group within the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection (as the central authority on gender equality) with the involvement of CSOs active in GEEW and development partners.

VII. FINANCING FOR GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN'S EMPOWERMENT

THIS SECTION MONITORS SDG INDICATOR 5.C.1: WHETHER OR NOT THERE ARE SYSTEMS TO TRACK AND MAKE PUBLIC ALLOCATIONS FOR GENDER EQUALITY AND THE EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN:

In the Republic of Moldova, there is currently no system in place to track and make public allocations for gender equality and the empowerment of women, although the Government has reported some data in this field. However, the 2020 Voluntary National Review (VNR) does not contain data on this indicator.

Achieving the SDGs, and more specifically, gender equality and the empowerment of women, will require the adoption of specific legislative frameworks in accordance with international norms and standards on GEEW, as well as the establishment of functional institutional mechanisms with relevant human and financial resources to implement, coordinate, manage and evaluate these efforts. Additional needs include strengthened political and practical commitments towards partnership and cooperation, including the state, CSOs, the media, public/private partnerships, and inter-ministerial and central-local administration partnerships. Finally, the increased mobilisation of resources addressed to specific services and programmes focused on the needs of women from different social groups will be needed to achieve gender equality and the empowerment of women.

Globally, only 19 per cent of sixty-nine countries reviewed by UN Women met the criteria for establishing a comprehensive system to track budget allocations from the

perspective of gender equality and women's empowerment.^{clxxiv}

In recent years, the Republic of Moldova has enacted several measures towards the promotion of gender budgeting, including the elaboration of training manuals and curricula for academic training on GRB, strengthening the capacities of civil servants and CSOs on GRB, and completing a gender analysis of some LPA budgets. The Strategy for Ensuring Equality between Women and Men in the Republic of Moldova for the years 2017-2021 includes special activities on gender budgeting. National action plans on the implementation of the Strategy for Ensuring Equality between Women and Men for the years 2017-2021 and the National Strategy on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Violence in the Family for 2018-2023 have planned resources from the national budget, international partners, and CSOs through target financing and other sources of funding that are not prohibited by national legislation.

BOX 1

Funding of Political Parties for Quota Representation

...In order to create favourable conditions for the participation of women in politics, new legislative amendments on the funding of political parties from the state budget were approved in 2018, with the following distribution of resources:

(a) 40 per cent to political parties in proportion to the performance obtained at the parliamentary elections.

(b) 40 per cent to political parties in proportion to the performance obtained in the local general elections.

(c) 10 per cent to political parties in proportion to their observance of at least a 40 per cent share of women candidates from the total number of candidates nominated in all uninominal constituencies in the parliamentary elections. This increase

will be determined from the sum, allocated for the budget year of the respective party.

(d) 5 per cent to political parties in proportion to the number of women actually elected as Members of Parliament in the uninominal constituencies.

(e) 5 per cent to political parties in proportion to the young people actually elected in the general parliamentary and local elections.^{clxxv}

Example:

Based on the results of the 2019 local elections, 4,119 women were elected, for which the parties received, in 2021, 2,561,287.50 lei, or 7.5 per cent of the total amount allocated to political parties in 2021.^{clxxvi}

Despite of some positive examples of financial allocation for gender equality programmes (including parental leave, rehabilitation centres for victims of domestic violence and trafficking, and incentives for quota representation within political parties (Box 1)) there is no robust gender-responsive budgeting system that includes not only the allocation of resources, but also the monitoring of these allocations and their impact from a gender perspective. In this context, there is limited available data on the national budgetary allocations of the legislative and regulatory frameworks mentioned above. The reluctance of authorities to ensure the implementation of gender-responsive budgeting affects progress on women's empowerment and the advancement of gender equality. More effort is needed in this field.

In recent years, the main donors towards GEEW were the Government of Sweden, United Nations agencies, the European Union, USAID, the Austrian Development

Agency, the Council of Europe, Switzerland, the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany, the Government of the United Kingdom, the EBRD, the World Bank, and the Global Fund to Fight HIV/AIDS.

According to OECD statistics, the Republic of Moldova receives the sixth largest sum of foreign aid for development in Europe; between 2015-2017, this was an average of 3 per cent of the total aid in the region, surpassing Albania, North Macedonia, Montenegro, and Belarus.^{clxxvii} According to Aid Management Platform data, the aid received during the 2017-2018 period was mainly disbursed in the fields of government and civil society (31 per cent), energy generation and supply (29 per cent), health (7 per cent), education (6 per cent), and development of transport and storage capacities (14 per cent).^{clxxviii} Unfortunately, there is no information on resources allocated to programmes that aim to address gender equality and the empowerment of women.

VIII. GENDER EQUALITY AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT – WHAT THE DATA TELL US

A Minimum Set of 52 quantitative gender-sensitive indicators was agreed at the global level,³⁴ which are grouped in five major areas,³⁵ tackling one or more of the critical areas of intervention of the Beijing Platform for Action. During the nationalisation process, only 45 gender-sensitive indicators were considered to be relevant for the Republic of Moldova, which are found in eight Sustainable Development Goals and 32 nationalised targets; 42 of these 45 indicators are quantitative, and three are narrative. As in the case of other SDG indicators, these gender-sensitive indicators were not fully adopted during the nationalisation process, or were adjusted and transposed with national proxy indicators.

The continuous global updates to the classification system for the availability of SDG indicators highlighted the need for an inventory of global indicators that are relevant from a gender perspective. This exercise was carried out in March 2018 and was followed by a comprehensive review in 2020 by the UN Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Gender Statistics (IAEG-GS). As a result, a reconciled list of gender-relevant SDG indicators was produced, consisting of 82 unique indicators (87 in total)³⁶ which are found in 64 targets of 14 SDGs. Following the 2020 comprehensive review, the Advisory Group's Chair, in consultation with several custodian agencies and the IAEG-GS Secretariat, reviewed the Minimum Set of Gender Indicators, namely by examining Tier-III and discontinued indicators³⁷ and taking into account the discussions held by the IAEG-GS at the previous IAEG-GS meetings.³⁸

A national revision of the SDG indicators was undertaken in 2020 by national authorities. During this review, it was determined that 66 indicators (82.5 per cent) out of the list of gender-related global indicators were relevant in the national context, which has integrated 37 indicators (71.5 per cent) from the Minimum Set. As a result of adjustments, divisions, and reconciliation with national alternatives, a list of 129 gender-sensitive indicators was decided, which represents 38.2 per cent of the total reviewed national SDG indicators and covers 63 nationalised targets of 14 SDGs

In terms of availability, these gender-sensitive indicators are distributed as follows: **47 indicators (36.4 per cent) are fully available, 54 indicators (41.9 per cent) are partially available with the possibility of easily estimating the missing elements, and 28 indicators (21.7 per cent) are**

³⁴The Minimum Set of Gender Indicators was agreed by the United Nations Statistical Commission in its 44th Session in 2013 (E/CN.3/2013/33) <https://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/doc13/2013-10-GenderStats-E.pdf>

³⁵Major areas of the Minimum Set of Gender Indicators include (i) economic structures and access to resources, (ii) education, (iii) health and related services, (iv) public life and decision-making processes and, (v) women's and children's rights.

³⁶The Advisory Group's proposal was presented at the 14th IAEG-GS meeting in December 2020.

³⁷Discontinued indicators refer to those that had stopped being disseminated by their custodian agencies.

³⁸As a result, one Tier-I, three Tier-III indicators and two discontinued indicators have been archived, ten new gender-relevant SDG indicators have been introduced to the Minimum Set, and one Tier-I, one Tier-III, and four discontinued indicators have been replaced with new (gender-relevant SDG) indicators proposed by the custodian agencies.

missing and a number of actions should be undertaken to produce them (see Table 7). It should be mentioned that eight (or 6.2 per cent) out of the 129 gender-sensitive indicators have been produced by international agencies responsible at

the global level, based on data submitted by each country as well as their own tools for collecting and estimating data. Out of these eight indicators, three are fully available, two are partially available, and three indicators are missing.

FIGURE 1.
Distribution of Reviewed Nationalised Gender-Sensitive SDG Indicators According to Their Availability

	Total	Fully	Partially/ May Be Easily Calculated	Missing
SDG 1	17	1	13	3
SDG 2	3			3
SDG 3	22	15	6	1
SDG 4	17	10	5	2
SDG 5	18	8	6	4
SDG 6	2	2		
SDG 7	1		1	
SDG 8	9	6	2	1
SDG 9	2	1	1	
SDG 10	4	1	2	1
SDG 11	7		4	3
SDG 12	0			
SDG 13	3		2	1
SDG 14	0			
SDG 15	0			
SDG 16	23	3	11	9
SDG 17	1		1	
Total	129	47	54	28

As stated in the GEF Global Acceleration Plan for Gender launched at the Paris Forum in July: “To make gender equality a reality, bold gender data commitments and innovative solutions are needed to tackle challenges related to filling data gaps, promoting greater use of data to inform evidence-based policies, and driving financial investments to build and strengthen gender data systems”. The strong global commitments that resulted from the Forum provide a unique opportunity over the next five years to improve gender data and drive progress on the ambitious goals outlined by the Action Coalitions. In order to develop innovative measures and internationally accepted standards for the measuring GEEW, UN Women needs to remain committed to national stakeholders in supporting areas where significant methodological work is needed.

TABLE 1.
Moldova's Global Rankings

Global Indices	2000	2010	Most Recent
Human Development Index (HDI) ³⁹	Value of 0.701 (2000), ^{clxxxix} 105 out of 173 countries	Value of 0.713 (2010), ^{clxxx} 98 out of 169 countries	Value of 0.750 (2019), ^{clxxxi} 90 out of 189 countries
HDR Ranking (Inequality Adjusted)	n/a	Value of 0.539 (2010), ^{clxxxii} 61 out of 140 countries	Value of 0.672 (2019), ^{clxxxiii} 61 out of 152 countries
HDR Gender Development Index (GDI)	Value 0.698 (2000), ^{clxxxiv} 86 out of 144 countries	Value 0.990 (2013), ^{clxxxv} 14 out of 147 countries	Value of 1.014 (2019), ^{clxxxvi} Group 1 <i>Group 1 comprises countries with high equality between women and men in HDI achievements (absolute deviation of less than 2.5 per cent)</i>
HDR Gender Inequality Index (GII)	n/a	Value of 0.429 (2010), ^{clxxxvii} 40 out of 138 countries	Value of 0.204 (2019), ^{clxxxviii} 46 out of 189 countries
World Economic Forum (WEF)'s Global Gender Gap Index	17 out of 115 countries with a score of 0.713 (2006) ^{clxxxix}	34 out of 134 countries with a score of 0.716 (2010) ^{cxc}	23 out of 153 countries with a score of 0.757 (2020) ^{cxc}
WEF Sub-Index: Economic Participation and Opportunity	2 out of 115 countries with a score of 0.760 (2006)	10 out of 134 countries with a score of 0.770 (2010)	19 out of 153 countries with a score of 0.788 (2020)
WEF Sub-Index: Educational Attainment	37 out of 115 countries with a score of 0.994 (2006)	66 out of 134 countries with a score of 0.989 (2010)	61 out of 153 countries with a score of 0.996 of (2020)
WEF Sub-Index: Health and Survival	1 out of 115 countries with a score of 0.980 (2006)	1 out of 134 countries with a score of 0.979 (2010)	1 out of 153 countries with a score of 0.980 (2020)
WEF Sub-Index: Political Empowerment	50 out of 115 countries with a score of 0.117 (2006)	69 out of 134 countries with a score of 0.124 (2010)	45 out of 153 countries with a score of 0.264 (2020)

Global Indices	2000	2010	Most Recent
OECD Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) ⁴⁰	n/a	Social Institutions and Gender Index 2012, ^{cxcii} ranked 29 th Discrimination in the family, ranked 48 th Restricted physical integrity, ranked 9 th Son Bias, ranked 68 th Restricted access to productive and financial resources, ranked 55 th Restricted civil liberties, ranked 46 th	Social Institutions and Gender Index 2019, ^{cxci} 21.4 Discrimination in the family, 23 Restricted physical integrity, 12.7 Restricted access to productive and financial resources, 36.7 Restricted civil liberties, 11

³⁹The HDI rankings and values in the 2018 Statistical Update cannot therefore be compared directly to HDI rankings and values published in previous Human Development Reports.

⁴⁰The SIGI is based on qualitative and quantitative data on discriminatory social institutions for 180 countries. A detailed profile for each country compiles information on laws, social norms and practices related to the SIGI sub-indices. The coding of scores for SIGI variables is based on a consistent coding framework that is applied to all countries. A low score in this index means a low level of discrimination and inequality. SIGI 2019 Classifications are as follows: SIGI<20% - very low level of discrimination, 20%<SIGI<30% - low level of discrimination, 30%<SIGI<40% - medium level of discrimination, 40%<SIGI<50% - high level of discrimination, SIGI>50% - very high level of discrimination <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=SIGI2019>

TABLE 2.
Gender Dimensions of Poverty

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
The proportion of the population below the international poverty line of US\$4.3 per day, by sex, age, employment status and geographical location (urban/rural) (National SDG indicators 1.1.2) ^{cxciv}	n/a	Total: 7.0% (2014) Urban: 2.5% Rural: 10.3% Men: 7.4% Women: 6.7% Age groups: 0-14 years: 12.8% 15+ years: 5.7% Men: 6.0% Women: 5.5% 15-24 years: 7.8% Men: 7.4% Women: 8.1% 25+ years: 5.3% Men: 5.7% Women: 5.0%	Total: 4.8% (2018) Urban: 1.3% Rural: 7.2% Men: 5.2% Women: 4.4% Age groups: 0-14 years: 8.1% 15+ years: 4.0% Men: 4.5% Women: 3.6% 15-24 years: 7.8% Men: 9.2% Women: 6.0% 25+ years: 3.5% Men: 3.6% Women: 3.3%
			The proportion of population below the international poverty line of US\$4.3 per day has decreased, with significant differences remaining between rural and urban populations. The proportion of men is higher than that of women. Based on employment status, the population employed in the agricultural sector (12.5%) and as farmers (9.4%) recorded a higher level below the international poverty line of US\$4.3 per day.
National Poverty Rate ⁴¹	28.1% (2000) ^{cxcv}	Absolute poverty rate: 29.5% (2014); Absolute poverty rate by sex of household head: Male: 28.8% Female: 30.8%	Absolute poverty rate: 26.8% (2020) Absolute poverty rate by sex of household head: Male: 25.6% Female: 29.3% ^{cxcvi} Absolute poverty rate has decreased, though the prevalence amongst women was maintained.

⁴¹ The data are not comparable. The calculation methodology used in 2000 and 2020 is different.

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Multidimensional poverty, by sex (SDG indicator 1.2.2.)	n/a	n/a	In the Republic of Moldova in 2012, 1.1% of the population (0.038 thousand people) were in multidimensional poverty, and another 2.2% were almost in multidimensional poverty (0.077 thousand people). ^{cxcvii}
Relative poverty rate by percentage of sex, age, persons with disability, (resident population) (National SDG indicator 10.2.1) ^{cxcviii}	n/a	<p>Total: 8.9% (2010) Men: 9.1% Women: 8.7%</p> <p>Age groups: 0-17 years: 13.8% 18-29 years: 8.0% 30-39 years: 11.4% 40-49 years: 8.3% 50-59 years: 6.0% 60+ years: 4.9%</p> <p>People with disabilities: 6.8% People without disabilities: 9.0%</p>	<p>Total 3.9% (2018) Men: 4.0% Women: 3.7%</p> <p>Age groups: 0-17 years: 7.6% 18-29 years: 3.7% 30-39 years: 5.2% 40-49 years: 3.0% 50-59 years: 2.8% 60+ years: 1.8%</p> <p>People with disabilities: 3.2% People without disabilities: 3.9%.</p> <p>The relative poverty rate has decreased in recent years. The rate for men is higher than that of women.</p>
Time-use data	n/a	<p>Moldova's time-use survey was conducted in 2011-2012 ^{cxcix}</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Men, on average, perform income-generating work for 45 minutes longer per day than women. - Most unpaid work is performed by women. Approximately 66% of the total working time constitutes unpaid work (4:40 hours per day), while men allocate half the time towards unpaid work this activity (2:38 hours per day, or 46% of the time used for various forms of work practiced by men). - Mothers offer significantly more time to their children than fathers: 2.4 hours per day compared to 1.3 hours per day. 	The most recent data use the same source presented in previous column for 2012.

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
The proportion of the population covered by social protection floors/systems, by sex, distinguishing children, unemployed persons, older persons, persons with disabilities, pregnant women, new-borns, work injury victims and the poor and vulnerable (SDG indicator 1.3.1) ^{cc}	22.8% of unemployed people received unemployment benefits (2000) 84% of people above retirement age received a pension (2000) ^{ccii}	14.9% of unemployed people who benefit from unemployment allowance (2010): Men: 13.5% Women: 16.5% The proportion of retirement-age people who benefit from social insurance age-limited pensions (within the resident population): 84.7% in 2011, where 77.5% were men and 87.9% were women The proportion of women who have delivered children and are beneficiaries of maternity allowances: 44.7% (2014) The proportion of employees covered with benefits for temporary work incapacitation, caused by work accidents or occupational diseases: Total: 17.4% Men: 13.0% Women: 22.0% (2014)	9.2% of unemployed people benefit from unemployment allowance (2018): Men: 7.9% Women: 10.6% The proportion of retirement-age people who benefit from social insurance age-limited pension (within the resident population): 82.6 % in 2018, where 79.2% were men and 84.1% were women The proportion of women who have delivered children and are beneficiaries of maternity allowances: 61.5% (2018). The proportion of employees covered with benefits for temporary work incapacitation, caused by work accidents or occupational diseases: Total: 16.5% Men: 12.9% Women: 20.2% (2018) Coverage of the poorest population (I quintile) with social assistance benefits (within the resident population): 6.4%
		Coverage of the poorest population (I quintile) with social assistance benefits (within the resident population): 3.4% (2010)	
Enrolment rate in early education (%)	In 2000/2001 the net enrolment rate of children in pre-primary education was 38.5%: 37.1% for girls and 23.3% for boys.	The enrolment rate in early education of children aged one to six years accounts for 57.1% in 2010. ^{ccii}	The enrolment rate in early education of children aged one to six years accounts for 68.3% with no major differences by sex (girls at 68.0%, boys at 68.7%) (2020). ^{cciii}

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Percentage of the population accessing elderly care or care for the severely disabled ⁴²	n/a	In 2012, 26,527 persons with severe disabilities were registered in the country. A new social service for persons with severe disabilities was introduced in legislation; 19 persons with disabilities benefited. ^{ccvi}	In 2019, 26,707 persons with severe disabilities were registered in the country. Out of this group, 4,865 were children with severe disabilities. 3,624 persons with severe disabilities benefited from Personal Assistance Social Service (approximately 13.5% out of total number of persons with severe disabilities). ^{ccv}
Percentage of the population accessing paid paternity or maternity leave	Parental leave in 2007: 24,852 beneficiaries, 94.3% mothers and only 2.1% fathers.	Parental leave in 2010: 32,190 beneficiaries, 99.0% mothers and only 0.6% fathers. ^{ccvi} Maternity leave benefits: 100% of wages paid. ^{ccvii}	Parental leave in 2019: 46,929 beneficiaries, ^{ccviii} out of which 84.1% were mothers and 15.2% were fathers. In 2016, 14 days of paid paternity leave was introduced in legislation. In 2019, 3,940 fathers benefited from this leave ^{ccix} compared 2,559 fathers in 2017 or 60 in 2016. ^{ccx}

⁴²Note: this indicator does not have national metadata. Only partially available data are available.

TABLE 3.
Demographic Overview

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Population size ^{ccxi}	3,644,100 inhabitants	3,563,700 inhabitants	Note: 2,640,500 residents (2020), ^{ccxii} based on 2014 census data ⁴³
Average life Expectancy (years)	Men: 63.9 Women: 71.2 ^{ccxiii}	Men: 66.8 Women: 74.9 (2011) ^{ccxiv}	Total: 70.9 Men: 66.8 Women: 75.1 (2019) ^{ccxv}
Age and sex, by % of population ^{ccxvi}	1,744,500 (47.9%) men 1,899,600 (52.1%) women	2010 1,713,500 (48.1%) men 1,850,200 (51.9%) women <i>Men</i> 0-14 years: 8.4% 15-34 years: 17.6% 35-59 years: 16.3% 60+ years: 5.7-% <i>Women</i> 0-14 years: 8.0% 15-34 years: 17.1% 35-59 years: 18.1% 60+ years: 8.7%	2020 Men: 1,269,200 (48.1%) Women: 1,371,300 (51.9) ^{ccxvii} <i>Age groups:</i> <i>0-14 years</i> Men: 52.9% Women: 47.1% <i>15-34 years</i> Men: 50.8% Women: 49.2% <i>35-64 years</i> Men: 47.8% Women: 52.2% <i>65 years old and over</i> Men: 37.9% Women: 62.1% The share of men prevails in the group between 0 and 35 years of age, while the share of women is greater from 35 years of age and up.
Literacy rate and overall educational attainment, by % of population	Literacy rate (2006) Female: 98% Male: 99% ^{ccxviii}	Literacy rate (2014) Total: 99.3% Men: 99.6% Women: 99.1 ^{ccxix}	Literacy rate (2020) Men: 99.6% Women: 99.1% ^{ccxx}
		Population with at least some secondary education, 2012: Female: 93.6% Male: 96.6% ^{ccxxi}	Population with at least some secondary education, 2019: Female: 96.6% Male: 98.1% ^{ccxxii}
	Mean years of schooling: 9.0 (2000) ^{ccxxiii}	Mean years of schooling: 11.1 (2010) ^{ccxxiv}	Mean years of schooling: Average: 11.7 (2019) ^{ccxxv} Female: 11.8 Male: 11.6
The average age at first marriage, by sex, age		Most men who married in 2010 were between 25-29 years old (35.1%), while women were between 20-24 years old (47.9%). The average age at first marriage was 26 years for men and 23 years for women. Of the total marriages registered in 2010, those concluded by singles accounted for 82.7% for men and 85.0% for women. ^{ccxxvi}	Most men married in 2019 were between 25-29 years old (36.5%), and women were between 20-24 years old (43.8%). The average age at first marriage was 28.9 years for men and 26 years for women. ^{ccxxvii}

⁴³The Transdnistria region has not been covered by the census.

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Household composition and size	The average household size was 3.0 people. By residence area: urban households were composed, on average, of 2.8 people, while rural households were composed, on average, of 3.1 people. The number of households made up of five or more people was 18.8% (PHC 2004).	n/a	According to the 2014 Census, the average household size has decreased to 2.9 people, compared with 3.0 people in 2004 PHC. Similar trends are registered by residence area (2.7 people for urban households compared to 3.0 people for rural households). Approximately 39% of households were made up of 3-4 people and the number of households made up of one person has increased while those made up of five or more people has decreased (17.4% in 2014 compared with 18.8% in 2004). Out of the total number of single households, 64% were single women. ^{ccxxviii} Households with a child aged 0-17 years: 37.5%.
Distribution of population by residence and regions in %	3,644,100 inhabitants 1,514,200 (41.5%) urban 2,129,900 (58.5%) rural	3,563,700 Inhabitants 1,476,700 (41.4%) urban 2,087,000 (58.6%) rural	2019 Urban: 43.1% Rural: 56.9% ^{ccxxx} The trend of increased urbanisation in the country should be noted. For example, the population from Chisinau (the capital of the country) accounts for 23.5% of the country's population. There are 6.8% more women than men (2019) ^{ccxxxi}
Percentage of the population who have migrated (internally), by sex, by location, and by sector	n/a	In the two years prior to 2014, 56,600 individuals migrated internally, out of which 50.4% were women and 49.6% were men. 32,800 individuals moved from villages to other localities, and 17,900 moved from towns to other localities. The capital city is amongst the most desired residences by internal migrants; 16,600 people moved to Chisinau from other localities. ^{ccxxxii}	In 2019, 39,000 people changed their domicile inside the country. This figure is comprised of mostly internal migrants (more than 88%), who are people of working age, predominantly in the age group 20-49 years. <i>In the migration flow, women account for 56.2% and men account for 43.8%.</i> ^{ccxxxiii} Internal migrants predominantly migrate to Chisinau (the capital of the country).

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Proportion of the population who migrated (externally), by sex, by age, by location, and by sector	In 2006, 310,100 individuals worked abroad. Out of this figure, 36.2 % were women and 63.8 % were men.	According to LFS data, about 300,000 people had worked abroad for a certain period of time from 2010-2014. Migrant women account for about 35% of all migrants and 7.8% of all women aged 15 years and above in the country. Migration is oriented both toward CIS and EU countries, the most preferred countries being Russia and Italy, the former which hosted 48% of migrant women and the latter of which hosted 31% of migrant women. Most women were employed in household services (43.1%), construction (21.3%), and trade (10.8%). ^{ccxxxiv}	In 2018, 352,700 individuals worked abroad. Out of this figure, 32.5 % were women and 67.75% were men. Ages 25-34: 40% women and 42% men Ages 35-44: 20.3% women and 23.2% men ^{ccxxxv} 48.3% of men emigrated to the Russian Federation, while 35.4% of women emigrated to Italy.
	<i>Number of emigrants: 9,128 people (2000)</i>	<i>Number of emigrants: 4,714 people. The main countries of destination: Ukraine, Russia, USA, Israel, and Germany (2010).</i> ^{ccxxxvii}	<i>Number of emigrants: 3,660 people (2019), out of which women account for 52%. The main countries of destination: Russia, Germany, USA, Ukraine, and Israel.</i> ^{ccxxxviii}
The ageing factor of the population (as of January 1, number of persons aged 60 years and over per 100 inhabitants)	Total: 13.7 Males: 11.2 Females: 16.0 (2001) ^{ccxxxix}	Total: 14.0 Males: 11.5 Females: 16.4 (2010) ^{ccxl}	Total: 21.8 Males: 18.1 Females: 25.1 (2020) ^{ccxli}

TABLE 4.
Demographic Overview

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Death by communicable diseases, by type, gender, age, location	<p>Infectious and parasite diseases (deaths per 100,000 inhabitants, 2001): Total: 17.3 cases per 100,000 inhabitants Men: 28.4 cases per 100,000 Women: 7.1 cases per 100,000^{ccxliii}</p>	<p>Infectious and parasite diseases (deaths per 100,000 inhabitants, 2010): Total: 16.5 cases per 100,000 inhabitants Men: 26.3 cases per 100,000 Women: 7.4 cases per 100,000 0-14 years old Women: 3.1 Men: 4.3 15-34 years old Women: 5.4 Men: 15.9 35-59 years old Women: 8.4 Men: 65.8 60+ years old Women: 9.5 Men: 27.5^{ccxliiii}</p>	<p>Incidence of infectious and parasitic diseases: 13.6 cases per 100,000 inhabitants Men: 18.7 cases per 100,000 Women: 9.0 cases per 100,000 (2019)^{ccxliv} 0-14 years old Women: 2.1 Men: 4.3 15-34 years old Women: 4.4 Men: 5.9 35-59 years old Women: 11.6 Men: 35.2 60+ years old Women: 14.7 Men: 22.5^{ccxlv} Overall, the death rate has decreased for all categories, with exception of the ages of 60 years and greater. Moreover, for women, the death rate has increased from 7.4 to 9.0 cases per 100,000.</p>
Mortality rate, attributed to cardiovascular disease, cancer, diabetes or chronic respiratory disease, by sex and age per 100,000 people (SDG 3.4.1.)	<p><i>Tumours</i>: 81.7, of which 62.2 were females <i>Cardiovascular diseases</i>: 110.5 total, of which 58.0 were females <i>Respiratory diseases</i>: 28.8 total, of which 10.9 were females <i>Digestive diseases</i>: 69.4 total, of which 44.1 were females^{ccxlvi}</p>	<p>2014 Total: 1,006.3 Men: 1,324.6 Women: 717.5^{ccxlvii}</p>	<p>2018 Total: 1,024.5 Men: 1,382.6 Women: 702.9 The mortality rate attributed to cardiovascular disease, cancer, digestive system diseases, diabetes or chronic respiratory disease amongst persons aged between 30-70 years, per 100,000 people (of the usual resident population), decreased slowly amongst women, but increased amongst men and in the population total. Men's mortality is about two times higher than that of women (1,382.6 versus 702.9 in 2018).^{ccxlviii}</p>
The proportion of population with mandatory health insurance (within the resident population) (National SDG 3.8.2.2) ^{ccxlix}	n/a	<p>Total: 76.8% (2010) In urban areas: 83.3% In rural areas: 72.0% Men: 72.9% Women: 80.2%</p>	<p>Total: 82.6% (2018) In urban areas: 87.9% In rural areas: 78.4% Men: 78.6% Women: 85.9% Compared to 2010, the proportion of men and women of population with mandatory health insurance has increased, with prevalence amongst women and the urban population.</p>

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Frequency of health visits in a year, by sex	Number of visits to physician, per one inhabitant: 5.3 (2000) ^{ccl}	According to the Health Survey (2016), the share of people who benefited from medical services in 2012 was 21.5%. Between 2008 and 2012, there was a continuous decrease in the share of people who benefited from medical services in the last four weeks. In 2010, there was a sharp decrease to 19%, compared to 23% in 2008. ^{ccli}	According to the Health Survey (2016), the share of people who benefited from medical services in 2016 was 24.5%. Women were more often addressed to primary care medical services than men (29.3% of women versus 19.1% of men). Men and women aged 65-74 years and 75 years and over accessed medical services most often. Women in the 45-54 and 55-65 age groups accessed medical services almost two times more often compared to men. ^{cclii} People with health insurance also went to the doctor twice as often as those without health insurance. ^{ccliii}
The incidence of HIV infections per 100,000 uninfected people, by sex, age and key populations (of the resident population) (SDG target 3.3.1) ^{ccliv}	n/a	2010 Total: 32.4 Men: 41.6 Women: 23.8 Age groups: 15-24 years old: 24.4 25-34 years old: 67.3 35-44 years old: 72.3 45-54 years old: 32.5 55+ years old: 5.2	2018 Total: 21.1 Men: 27.3 Women: 15.4 Age groups: 15-24 years old: 15.3 25-34 years old: 46.5 35-44 years old: 40.8 45-54 years old: 19.2 55+ years old: 3.6 High-risk population categories: Injecting drug users (IDUs): 770.7 Commercial Sex Workers (CSW): 483.2 Men who have sex with men (MSM): 970.4
HIV associated deaths per 100,000 residents (National SDG indicator 3.3.1.1) ^{cclv}	n/a	2010 Total: 0.08 Men: 0.06 Women: 0.11	2018 Total: 3.7 Men: 4.64 Women: 2.82 HIV associated deaths increased, with a prevalence towards male deaths.
Percentage of the population facing malnutrition	n/a	n/a	Even though Moldova is a lower-to-middle-income country, it still faces issues of malnutrition. ^{cclvi} Child malnutrition in Moldova was reported at 0.33333 in 2019, according to World Bank development indicators compiled from officially recognised sources. ^{cclvii}

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Maternal Mortality Ratio (MMR) (SDG indicator 3.1.1) (per 100,000 births)	MMR: 27.1 (2000) ^{cclviii}	MMR: 44.5 (2010) ^{cclix} Area of residence: Urban: 52.8 Rural: 39.5	MMR: 15.3 (2018) ^{cclx} Area of residence: Urban: 0 Rural: 24.3 The significant decrease of the MMR, especially in urban areas, should be noted.
Use of modern contraceptives, by % of population aged 15-49 years ^{cclxi}	Contraceptive prevalence: 43.7% (2000) Use of modern methods: Married/In-union: 43.7%	Contraceptive prevalence: 41.7% (2012) Use of modern methods: All women: 34.2% Married/In-union: 42.3% Unmarried/Not in-union: 17.2%	Contraceptive prevalence: 43.9% (2020) Use of modern methods: All women: 39.0% Married/In-union: 43.9% Unmarried/Not in-union: 27.8%
Most common forms of modern contraceptives used Contraceptive prevalence (%) ^{cclxii}	2000 Intrauterine devices (IUD): 34.5% Pill: 3.3% Male condom: 3.5	2012 Female sterilisation: 4.4% IUD: 19.8% Pill: 5.3% Male condom: 11.9%	2020 Female sterilisation: 4.3% IUD: 11.3% Pill: 6.9% Male condom: 19.5%
Proportion of women of reproductive age (Aged 15-49 years) who have their family planning needs satisfied with modern methods (SDG indicator 3.7.1) ^{cclxiii}	n/a	2012 <i>Demand satisfied by modern methods:</i> Married/In-union: 60.4% <i>Unmet needs:</i> Married/In-union: 9.5%	2020 <i>Demand satisfied by modern methods:</i> All women: 59.5% Married/In-union: 56.9% Unmarried/Not in-union: 70.9% <i>Unmet needs:</i> All women: 16.4% Married/In-union: 21.2% Unmarried/Not in-union: 5.6%
Proportion of women aged 15-49 years who make their own decisions regarding sexual relations, contraceptive use and reproductive healthcare (SDG indicator 5.6.1)	n/a	n/a	n/a
Average age of first birth	n/a	Mean age at birth of first child: 23.3 years (2009) ^{cclxiv}	Mean age of women at birth of first child: 25.2 years (2020) In 2020, the average age of the mother at the first birth was 25.2 years old, slightly higher than in 2019 when the figure was 25.1 years old. ^{cclxv}
Proportion of births attended by skilled healthcare personnel (SDG indicator 3.1.2)	100% (2000-2008) ^{cclxvi}	99.6% (2010) ^{cclxvii}	99.6% (2018) ^{cclxviii}

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Adolescent birth rate (Aged 15-19 years) per 1,000 women in that age group, by area of residence (within the resident population) (SDG Indic. 3.7.2)	n/a	Adolescent birth rate: Total: 26.74 (2010) Urban: 14.82 Rural: 33.4	Adolescent birth rate: Total: 23.9 (2018) ^{cclxix} Urban: 10.83 Rural: 30.82
Number of abortions, per 1,000 women aged 15-49 years	18,426 total abortions (2000) ^{cclxx}	14,785 total abortions (2010) ^{cclxxi} Per 1,000 women aged 15-49 years: 15 cases	10,830 total abortions (2018) ^{cclxxii} Per 1,000 women aged 15-49 years: 12 cases <i>During the last decade, the number of abortions per 1,000 live births has decreased, in a trend similar to other countries in Eastern Europe, Western Europe, and the Baltic States. The number of abortions per 1,000 live births is about 1.5-2 times higher than in Western European countries.</i> ^{cclxxiii}
Percentage of women accessing gynaecological care, by age, status, and location	Approximately 91% of women are granted prenatal medical assistance. 9% are not granted such assistance. ^{cclxxiv}	Antenatal care coverage (2012): ^{cclxxv} - At least once by skilled personnel: 98.8% - At least four times by any provider: 95.4% Content of antenatal care: 97.5%	Antenatal care, at least four visits, women aged 15-49 years: 97.5% (2019) ^{cclxxiv}

TABLE 5.
Gender Dimensions of Education

Indicator	2000 ⁴⁴	2010	Most Recent
Enrolment rate in primary education, in % (SDG indicator 4.5.1)	Total: 99.4%, Girls: 99.4% Boys: 99.4% ^{cclxxvii}	Total: 105.7% Girls: 105.1% Boys: 106.2% (2014/2015) Thus, fewer girls participate in primary education than boys (by 1.1 percentage points). ^{vii}	Total: 106.3% Girls: 105.3% Boys: 107.2% (2019/2020) Thus, fewer girls participate in primary education than boys (by 1.9 percentage points). Compared to 2014/2015, the gross enrolment rate ⁴⁵ of girls increased an insignificant amount from 105.1% to 105.3%. Meanwhile, the gross enrolment rate of boys increased by one percentage point, from 106.2% to 107.2%. ^{cclxxix}
Enrolment rate in secondary education, in % (SDG indicator 4.5.1)	Total: 90.2%, Girls: 90.7% Boys: 89.7% ^{cclxxx}	Lower secondary education (2014/2015): Total: 105.8% Girls: 105.9% Boys: 105.8% ^{cclxxxii}	Lower secondary education (2019/2020): Total: 104.9% Girls: 106.0% Boys: 104.9% Thus, fewer boys than girls participate in lower secondary education (by 1.1%). ^{cclxxxiii}
		Enrolment rate in upper secondary education (2014/2015): Girls: 67.3% Boys: 65.1% The participation of girls in upper secondary education is 2.2 percentage points higher compared to that of boys.	Enrolment rate in upper secondary education (2019/2020): ^{cclxxxiii} Girls: 81.6%. Boys: 77.3% The participation of girls in upper secondary education is 4.3 percentage points higher compared to that of boys.
Tertiary education and completion, in % (SDG indicator 4.5.1)	2000/2001 ^{cclxxxiv} Share of women amongst students in: Colleges: 57.2% Higher-learning institutions: 56.3%.	Enrolment rate in tertiary education (2014/2015): Girls: 57.3% Boys: 44.1% The participation of girls in tertiary secondary education is 13.2 percentage points higher compared to that of boys.	Enrolment rate in tertiary education (2019/2020): ^{cclxxxv} Girls: 67.1%. Boys: 47.1% The gender differences have increased significantly over time to a 20 percentage point difference. <i>The enrolment of boys and girls in tertiary education is lower compared to the enrolment rate in upper secondary education.</i>

⁴⁴Given that the methodology for calculating data has changed over time from net to gross enrolment rate, the data are not comparable.

⁴⁵The gross enrolment rate represents the total number of children/students involved in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the total population of the official age-group corresponding to the same level of education in a certain school year..

Indicator	2000 ⁴⁴	2010	Most Recent
Gender Parity Index by level of education ^{cclxxxvi}	n/a	Primary education: 0.99 Lower secondary education: 1.00 Upper secondary education: 1.03 Tertiary education: 1.30 (2014/15)	Primary education: 1.00 Lower secondary education: 1.01 Upper secondary: 1.06 Tertiary education: 1.42 (2019/20) Gender parity is registered in primary education. The gender gap in favour of girls for values higher than one is notable particularly in upper secondary and tertiary education.
Percentage of women and men graduating at the tertiary level with a degree/diploma in a STEM-related field	n/a	n/a	Share of graduates in science, technology, engineering and mathematics programmes at the tertiary level: Women: 12.3% Men: 39.11% (2018) ^{cclxxxvii}
Distribution of students in higher education institutions, STEM-related fields by sex	n/a	Distribution of students in higher education institutions by field of studies (2009/2010) ^{cclxxxviii} Engineering and related activities: Women: 15.4% Men: 84.6% Exact sciences: Women: 44.3% Men: 55.7%	Distribution of students in higher education institutions by field of studies (2019/2020) ^{cclxxxix} Engineering and related activities: Women: 17.3% Men: 82.7% Physical sciences: Women: 39.3% Men: 60.7% Information and Communication Technologies: Women: 21.5% Men: 78.5%
Top three areas of study (tertiary level) for women, and for men	2000/2001 Higher education: Female-dominated fields of study: Education: 70.7% Health: 64.9% Arts and cinema: 62.3% Economics: 60.9% Male-dominated fields of study: Theology: 86.8% Sports: 80.5% Industry: 64.3% Law: 61.4%	2009/2010 Higher education: ^{ccxc} Female-dominated fields of study: Social services: 83.7% Communication sciences: 82.9% Social sciences: 81.8% Pharmacology: 81.4% Male-dominated fields of study: Transport services: 96.1% Security services: 93.1% Engineering and related activities: 84.6% Agricultural science: 75.8%	In 2019/20 In higher education, ^{ccxci} Female-dominated fields of study: Languages: 85.5% Education: 84.2% Journalism and information: 81.6% Male-dominated fields of study: Transport services: 90.0% Forestry: 83.0% Engineering and engineering activities: 82.7% It is noteworthy that the most subscribed fields, such as law and the humanities, are practiced equally by both men and women.

Indicator	2000 ⁴⁴	2010	Most Recent
Enrolment into pre-primary/ day care, by sex (SDG indicators 4.2.1 and 4.2.2.)	n/a	In 2010/2011, the enrolment rate of children in pre-primary education (aged 3-6 years) was 77.1%, or 77.4% for girls and 76.9% for boys. ^{ccxcii}	In 2019/2020, the enrolment rate of children in pre-primary education was 92.0% for boys and 96.0% for girls ^{ccxciii}
The degree to which gender equality concepts have been mainstreamed into primary, secondary, and tertiary levels (SDG indicator 4.7.1)	<p>Gender aspects are included in the standards and materials in preschool education (assisted by UN Women), 2019.</p> <p>At the <i>secondary level</i>, gender is mainstreamed into the optional discipline “Education for Health” (grades V-XII). This curriculum was approved by MECR/MECC order no. 1110 of September 6, 2019. Curriculum and didactic materials were elaborated based on a Memorandum of Partnership between MECR and UNFPA https://mecc.gov.md/sites/default/files/curriculum_educatie_pt_sanatate_2019_red_dupa_cnc.pdf</p> <p><i>There is no data available on the degree to which gender equality concepts have been mainstreamed into vocational education.</i></p> <p>Between 2017-2019, as a non-formal activity, Gender-Centru, the Centre for University Information in partnership with MECR, and Moldova State University, with OSCE Mission support, organised several public lectures on gender equality education and career development addressed to students and teachers from vocational schools.</p> <p><i>High education:</i> Since 2003, Moldova State University has made the discipline “Gender Education” mandatory within the Faculty on Psychology and Education Sciences. www.usm.md</p>		
The proportion of children and young people (a) in grades two to three, (b) at the end of primary school, and (c) at the end of lower secondary school, achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading, and (ii) mathematics, by sex (SDG indicator 4.1.1)	n/a	n/a	<p>Minimum proficiency in mathematics, at the primary education level: Total: 87.6%, Women: 88.7% Men: 86.5%.</p> <p>Minimum proficiency in reading, at the primary education level: Total: 91.3% Women: 93% Men: 89.5%.</p> <p>Minimum proficiency in mathematics, at the lower secondary education level: Total: 49.7% Women: 50.3% Men: 49.1%</p> <p>Minimum proficiency in reading, at the lower secondary education level: Total: 54.2% Women: 65.1% Men: 43.4%^{ccxciv}</p>

Indicator	2000 ⁴⁴	2010	Most Recent
The participation rate of youth and adults in formal and nonformal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex (SDG indicator 4.3.1)	n/a	n/a	The degree of involvement in lifelong learning programs for both women and men aged 25-64 years is very low: Men: 1.3% Women: 1.4% (2019) ^{ccxcv} Only 0.3% of people aged 55-74 years are involved in lifelong learning activities. Adult participation in lifelong learning has decreased amongst both men and women, as well as for those from both urban and rural areas (2019). ^{ccxcvi}
The proportion of population in a given age group by minimum level of achieved education, numeracy skills, by sex (SDG indicator 4.6.1) ^{ccxcvii}		In 2015, the share of the population aged 24-49 years with a higher level of education was 7.0% higher compared to the share of the population aged 50-64 years. At the same time, the share of the population aged 24-49 years with a medium education level was 15.1% lower compared to the population aged 50-64 years. Women aged 24-49 years have a low level of education at a ratio lower (by 3.1%) than that of men from the same age group (22.9% versus 26.0%) and have a medium level of education at a ratio lower (by 4.7%) than that of men from the same age group (50.7% versus 55.4%). Women aged 24-49 years have high level of education at a ratio higher (by 7.7%) than that of men from the same age group (26.3% versus 18.6%).	In 2019, the share of population aged 24-49 years with a low education level was 10.1% greater when compared to the population aged 50-64, while the share of the population aged 24-49 years with a high level of education was 12.2% greater compared to the population aged 50-64 years. At the same time, the share of population aged 24-49 years with a medium level of education level was 22.3% lower compared to the population aged 50-64 years. <i>When comparing 2019 with 2015, the greater differences in education levels between the population aged 24-49 years compared to the population aged 50-64 years is notable.</i> Women aged 24-49 years have a low level of education at a ratio lower (by 4.7%) than men aged 24-49 years (23.2% versus 27.9%) and have a medium level of education at a ratio lower (by 4.5%) than men of the same age group (46.3% versus 50.8%). Women aged 24-49 years have a high level of education at a ratio higher (by 9.2%) than men from the same age group (30.5% versus 21.3%).

Indicator	2000 ⁴⁴	2010	Most Recent
<p>The proportion of schools with access to</p> <p>(a) electricity,</p> <p>(b) the internet for pedagogical purposes,</p> <p>(c) computers for pedagogical purposes,</p> <p>(d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities,</p> <p>(e) basic drinking water,</p> <p>(f) single sex basic sanitation facilities, and</p> <p>(g) basic handwashing facilities, (SDG indicator 4.a.1.)</p>	<p>2005/2006</p> <p>Primary/general education institutions:</p> <p>b) Number of computers per 100 students: 2.1 Share of computers with internet access: 22.3%^{ccxcviii}</p> <p>c) Computers for teaching purposes: 6.8%</p> <p>d) n/a</p>	<p>Primary/general education institutions:</p> <p>a) 100% of schools have access to electricity</p> <p>b) Number of computers per 100 students: 4.8 Share of computers with internet access: 39.8%</p> <p>c) Computers for teaching purposes: 7.9%^{ccxcix}</p> <p>d) At the <i>level of kindergartens</i>: spaces adapted for children with disabilities: 24 in 2013^{ccc}</p>	<p>Primary / general education institutions:</p> <p>a) 100% of schools have access to electricity</p> <p>b) Number of computers per 100 students: 9.0 (2020/2021)^{ccci}</p> <p>Provision of computers to primary and general secondary education institutions: Computers with internet access: 80.2% Computers used for teaching purposes: 87.4%</p> <p>c) Computers used for teaching purposes: 7.1 per 100 pupils with internet access</p> <p>d) 34.5% of schools were generally equipped with access ramps (2018).^{cccii}</p> <p>Curricula and teaching materials were elaborated based on an inclusive education development programme in the Republic of Moldova for 2011-2020^{ccciii}</p>

TABLE 6.
Women in Leadership

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
The proportion of seats held by women in (a) national parliaments, ^{ccciv} (b) local governments (SDG indicator 5.5.1) ^{46,cccv}	Seats in Parliament held by women: 8.9% (1998-2001) b) Seats in local government held by women: II level: 13.2% (2007) I level: 26.5% (2007)	a) Seats in Parliament held by women: 24.8% (2009-2010) b) Seats in local government held by women: II level: 17.4% (2011) I level: 28.6% (2011)	a) Seats in Parliament held by women: 25.7% (2019) 39.6% (11 July 2021) ^{cccvi} b) Seats in local government held by women: II level: 27.1% (2019) I level: 36.5% (2019)
Percentage of women mayors (elected)	10.9% (01.01.1999 after local election) ^{cccvii} 15.4% (2003)	18.0% (2011)	21.8% (2019) ^{cccviii}
Percentage of women Cabinet ministers	6.3% (2003) ^{cccix} 9% (1999-2001) ^{cccix}	5% (2009-2011) ^{cccxi}	11.1% (end of 2019) ^{cccxi} 53.8% (June 2019) ^{cccxi} 29.4% (August 2021) ^{cccxi}
Percentage of appointed local government leaders, by sex ⁴⁷	Women: 0% Men: 100% (01.01.1999 after local election) ^{cccxi}	Women: 9.3% Men: 90.7% (2011) ^{cccxi}	Women: 3.1% Men: 96.9% (2019) ^{cccxi}
Share of women in managerial positions, in % (SDG indicator 5.5.2)	n/a	Women: 48.5% Men: 51.5% (2015) ^{cccxi}	Women: 42.3% Men: 57.7% (2020) ^{cccxi}
Perceptions of women and men as leaders and decision-makers (SDG 16.7.2.)	n/a	According to the Gender Barometer (2006): 61% of respondents agree the sex of people who lead in public administration, politics, or work does not matter.	According to the Gender Barometer (2016): ^{cccxi} 72% of respondents say the sex of people who lead in public administration, politics, or work does not matter. -10.8% of respondents would prefer a man for the position of chair of the parents' committee at school, while 31.6% would opt for a woman. - 17.8% of respondents would give priority to a man in the position of school director and 23.5% would give priority to a woman. -In the position of mayor, 33.2% would opt for a man and only 11.7% would accept a woman. - 40.5% of respondents would prefer a man at the head of the state, while only 7.6% would prefer a woman.

⁴⁶Local councils at two levels: I- at the community level, II – at the rayon level (District/Municipal level).

⁴⁷For CGEB Moldova, the term “governor” is defined as the “head of rayon”.

Indicator	2000	Most Recent
Data on women's engagement in peacebuilding, defence, and security	<p>n/a</p> <p>Share of women in the police: 9.2%</p> <p>Share of women in the defence sector: 21.1%</p> <p>Share of women officers: 11.8%</p>	<p>10 women peacekeepers were engaged in the Moldovan group peacekeeping mission in 2009-2020. In 2017, a woman was delegated for the first time as the Head of the Delegation/Committee on Peace and Security, the Vice Prime Minister for Reintegration, to conduct the peacebuilding process. Share of women in the police: 21.8% (2019) Share of women in the defence sector: 20.3% (2019) Despite the decreased share of women within the total number of soldiers, sergeants, and non-commissioned officers in the defence sector, the share of women officers has increased to 20.5%.</p>

TABLE 7.
Gender-Based Violence in Moldova

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
The proportion of ever-partnered women and girls aged 15 years and older subjected to physical, sexual or psychological abuse, by a current or former intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by form of violence and age. (SDG indicator 5.2.1).	<p>Percentage of women physically assaulted by an intimate partner: 14% (1997)^{cccxxi}</p> <p>Data on family offences committed in 2002 shows that, as a result of family conflicts, 105 offences were committed (71 in 12 months of 2001), including 71 deliberate murders and 34 cases of severe bodily injuries, with 34 more homicides compared to a similar period in the previous year.^{cccxxii}</p>	<p>Total VAW incidence: 26.8%^{cccxxiii}</p> <p>Physical violence: 8.9%</p> <p>Sexual violence: 4.1%</p> <p>Psychological violence: 25.7%</p> <p>Economic violence: 4.2%.</p> <p>By age and form of violence:</p> <p><i>Physical violence (%)</i>: 15-24 years: 18.7 25-34 years: 11.1 35-44 years: 5.8 45-54 years: 9.5 55-59 years: 2.6 60-65 years: 8.</p> <p><i>Sexual violence (%)</i>: 15-24 years: 1.8 25-34 years: 8.6 35-44 years: 4.1 45-54 years: 2.5 55-59 years: 2.2 60-65 years: 1.3</p> <p><i>Psychological violence (%)</i>: 15-24 years: 33.3 25-34 years: 32.4 35-44 years: 22.7 45-54 years: 24.3 55-59 years: 20.2 60-65 years: 21.1</p> <p><i>Economic violence (%)</i> with higher risk in age groups: 15-24 years: 5.6 25-34 years: 3.7 35-44 years: 5.3 45-54 years: 5.1 55-59 years: 1.9 60-65 years: 2.2</p>	<p>Total: 25% (2018)^{cccxxiv}</p> <p>Physical violence: 9%</p> <p>Sexual violence: 2%</p> <p>Psychological violence: 23%</p> <p>By age (%): 18-29 years: 35% 30-39 years: 27% 40-49 years: 25% 50-59 years: 22% 60+ years: 14%</p> <p>The most affected were women in the age groups 18-29 years and 30-39 years.</p>
Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years or older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner in the previous 12 months, by age and place of occurrence (SDG indicator 5.2.2);	n/a	Proportion of women and girls aged 15 years or older subjected to sexual violence by persons other than an intimate partner during their lifetime (%): n/a	Prevalence of non-partner physical and/or sexual violence (%): ^{cccxxv} 18-29 years = 1 30-39 years = 1 40-49 years: 2 50-59 years: 0 60+ years: 1

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Proportion of young women and men aged 18 to 20 years who experienced sexual violence by age 18 (SDG indicator 5.2.2.; 16.2.3)	n/a	n/a	n/a
Victims of physical or sexual harassment, by sex (SDG indicator 11.7.2)	n/a	<p>Approximately 40% of women had suffered at least one instance of physical violence from their husbands or current or most recent partner during their life. In the 12 months prior to the study, cases of physical violence were reported by approximately 9% of women.</p> <p>On average, approximately 6% of the total number of women surveyed mentioned that they had suffered violent actions on the part of other people at least once in their lifetime. In the 12 months prior to the study, the risk of non-partner physical violence was even lower, with only approximately 1% of women reporting cases of physical violence.</p> <p>Approximately 19% of women have been victims of sexual violence by their spouse at least once in their lifetime, while approximately 4% reported that they suffered sexual violence by their spouse in the 12 months prior to the survey.</p> <p>There have been only two reported cases of lifelong sexual violence by others and no cases in the 12 months before the survey.^{cccxxvi}</p>	<p>49% of women aged 15 years or older had experienced at least one form of sexual harassment and 18% had experienced it in the 12 months prior to the survey.</p> <p>Younger women (18-29 years) were more likely to indicate having been sexually harassed since the age of 15 (63%) compared to women overall (49%), those without children (68%) and students (70%).^{cccxxvii}</p>
Percentage of women who have faced GBV and accessed support services (by type)	n/a	<p>Police: 86%</p> <p>Medical assistance: 21.9%</p> <p>Psychological assistance: 1.3%</p> <p>Legal assistance: 2.8%</p> <p>Other: 15.4%^{cccxxviii}</p>	<p>Contact after the most serious incident of physical and/or sexual violence:^{cccxxix}</p> <p>Women most often accessed the police and medical services; they rarely accessed social, legal and shelter services.</p> <p><i>Police (self-reported): 11%</i> <i>Medical help: 10%</i> <i>Social services: 2%</i> <i>Legal services/lawyers: 2%</i> <i>Women's shelters: 1%</i></p>

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Number of protection orders issued (annual basis)	n/a	80 protection orders (2010) ^{cccxxx}	635 protection orders 4,939 emergency restraining orders (2020) ^{cccxxxi}
Number of GBV cases, including sexual violence, processed by the courts.	n/a	n/a	Criminal cases on domestic violence: 2020: 866 2019: 969 2018: 998 2017: 956 2016: 1,782 ^{cccxxxi} The decreasing trend in the number of criminal cases is related to the amendments provided by Law No. 196 of July 28, 2016, including the completion of the Contravention Code with Article 78 ¹ Domestic violence ⁴⁸ .
Number of victims of human trafficking per 100,000 people, by sex, age and form of exploitation (SDG indicator 16.2.2)	2000: 6 victims (all female)	2008: Total: 11 victims Females: 10 Males: 1 ^{cccxxxiii}	2018: Total: 13 victims Men: 16 Women: 11 Adults: 14 Children: 10 Forms of exploitation: Sexual: 3.4 Work: 8.9 Begging: 0.4 ^{cccxxxiv}
Number of victims of violence per 100 000 people by sex, age, types of violence (within the resident population) (National SDG indicator 16.1.3.1) ^{cccxxxv}	n/a	In 2013: Total: 66.5 Men: 69.8 Women: 63.4 <i>Types of crimes</i> Premeditated severe injuries: 3.5 Kidnapping a person: 1.7 Sexual assault: 6.5 Robbery: 18.7 Brigandage: 2.1 Blackmail: 0.7 Domestic violence: 16.9 Hooliganism: 16.5	In 2018: Total: 91.1 Men: 101.6 Women: 81.3 <i>Types of crimes</i> Premeditated severe injuries: 5.1 Kidnapping a person: 1.2 Sexual assault: 15. Robbery: 16.7 Brigandage: 1.8 Blackmail: 2.2 Domestic violence: 19.1 Hooliganism: 29.5 <i>Age groups</i> 0-17 years: 85.3 18 years and over: 92.4

⁴⁸Article 78¹ Domestic violence: Ill-treatment or other violent acts committed by a family member against another family member, which caused insignificant damage to bodily integrity is sanctioned with unpaid work for the benefit of the community from 40 to 60 hours or with a contravention arrest from 7 to 15 days.

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Perceptions of gender-based violence	n/a	<p>According to an NBS study (2010):^{ccccxxvi}</p> <p>91.1% of women do not support the application of abusive physical actions in cases where the woman refuses to have intimate relationship with her husband or partner.</p> <p>14% agree that women must maintain sexual intercourse with their spouse or partner, even if it is against their will.</p> <p>8.7% of women respondents agree with the possible application of physically abusive actions by the spouse or partner in cases where the woman is suspected to be unfaithful.</p> <p>Every fourth woman justifies the violent behaviour of the husband or partner, while every second woman disagrees with the situation when the spouse or partner abuses the wife if she has been discovered as being unfaithful.</p> <p>70.2% of women agree that "the husband or partner must feel as if they are the head of the family".</p> <p>53.8% of women think that it is not good to contradict your husband or partner in the presence of other people.</p>	<p>According to an OSCE-led survey (2019):</p> <p>50% of respondents believe their friends would generally agree that a good wife obeys her husband, even if she disagrees.</p> <p>15% think that their friends would generally agree that a woman is obliged to have sex with her husband even if she does not want it.</p> <p>76% agree that violence against women by partners, acquaintances or foreigners is widespread in Moldova.</p> <p>55% of respondents agree that domestic violence is a private matter and should be handled within family.</p> <p>45% agree that violence against women is often provoked by victims and others.</p> <p>28% agree that women are more frequently raped by a stranger than by someone they know.</p>

TABLE 8.

Gender Dimensions of Labour and Economic Empowerment

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR), by sex, by marital status and by industry	<p>Overall LFPR:^{cccxxxviii}</p> <p>Total LFPR (ages 15+) (2000): 59.9% Female: 56.3% Male: 63.9%</p> <p>75.2% of married men compared to 68.9% married women were economically active.</p> <p>Single LFPR: Female: 33.9% Male: 42.1%</p>	<p>Overall LFPR:^{cccxxxix}</p> <p>Total LFPR (ages 15+) (2010): 41.6% Female: 38.6% Male: 45%</p> <p>54.9% of married men compared to 48.2% married women were economically active.</p> <p>Single LFPR: Female: 26.3% Male: 29.5%</p> <p>The main economic sector of employment was services, with women engaged at 64.2% and men engaged at 55.3%.</p> <p>The second largest sector was agriculture, with women engaged at 24.5% and men engaged at 30.5%.^{cccxi}</p>	<p>Overall LFPR:^{cccxli}</p> <p>Total LFPR (ages 15+) (2020): 40.3% Female: 36.1% Male: 45.1%</p> <p>52.1% of married men compared to 44.2% married women were economically active.</p> <p>Single LFPR: Female: 24.9% Male: 32.3%</p> <p>Youth between the ages of 15-24 years contributed to 18.3% of the LFPR (15.4% young women and 21.1% young men) for 2020.^{cccxlii}</p> <p>The highest gender gap in activity rates of 16.0% was registered for the 25-34 and 55-64 age groups.</p> <p>Data on LFPR by presence of children (2019): Women with children: 39.4% Men with children: 62.5%</p> <p>Women without children: 62.9% Men without children: 56.5%^{cccxlili}</p> <p>Services was the main economic sector of employment, with women engaged at 58.0% and men engaged at 42.0%. Per sector, women participated less in the agricultural sector (39.0%), industry (46.5%), construction (6.4%), transport and storage (27.3%), and the information and communications sectors (35.9%), but predominated in economic activities such as hotels and restaurants (71.8%), financial intermediation and insurance (72.1%), education (82.2%), health and social assistance (80.2%), and cultural activities and leisure (59.9%).^{cccxliv}</p>

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Unemployment rate, by sex, age and persons with disabilities (SDG indicator 8.5.2)	The unemployment rate in 2000 was 9.7% amongst men and 7.2% amongst women. ^{cccxliv} Ages 15-24: Women: 14.9% Men: 16.6% Ages 25-34: Women: 7.5% Men: 12.0% Ages 35-44: Women: 6.9% Men: 9.5% Ages 45-54: Women: 6.6% Men: 7.7% Ages 55-64: Women: 1.6% Men: 3.4%	The unemployment rate in 2010 was 9.1% amongst men and 5.7% amongst women. ^{cccxlv} Ages 15-24: Women: 15% Men: 20% Ages 25-34: Women: 7.0% Men: 10.3% Ages 35-44: Women: 5.1% Men: 8.3% Ages 45-54: Women: 3.8% Men: 6.1% Ages 55-64: Women: 2.1% Men: 4.4% The share of unemployed persons with disabilities within the total unemployed population was 1.7% in 2015 and 1.5% in 2014. ^{cccxlvii}	The unemployment rate in 2020 was 4.3% amongst men and 3.2% amongst women. ^{cccxlviii} Amongst people aged 15-24 years, the unemployment rate was 10.9%. The value of this indicator registered significant disparities by sex (12.3% for women, 9.9% for men) and area (14.6% for urban environments, 7.0% in rural areas). In the age category of 15-29 years, this indicator had the value of 6.2%. The general trend of a decreasing unemployment rate amongst men in the majority age groups should be noted. The share of unemployed persons with disabilities in 2020 was 2.4%. Men with disabilities: 3.9% Women with disabilities: 0.7%
Proportion of youth (aged 15-24 years) not in education, employment or training (by sex) (SDG 8.6.1)	ILO modelled estimates (2005). ^{cccclix} Women: 23.4 % Men: 31.1%	The NEET group aged 15-24 years (2014) ^{ccccl} Women: 25.7% Men: 29.8	The NEET group aged 15-24 years (2020). ^{ccccli} Women: 19.7% Men: 15.6% The NEET group aged 15-29 years: Women: 32.5% Men: 19.6% The NEET group aged 15-34 years: Women: 39.4% Men: 22.9% In group aged 15-34 years, the indicator shows higher values amongst women compared to men (by 16.5 percentage points).
Percentage of unemployed persons accessing adult education/workforce skills development	n/a	In 2010, 2,380 unemployed persons graduated vocational training courses, including 1,703 women. Of these, 73.6% were later employed. ^{ccccli}	In 2019, 868 unemployed persons graduated vocational training courses, 67% being women, 59% from rural areas and approximately 4% persons with disabilities. ^{ccccliii}

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Average earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, (SDG indicator 8.5.1)	31.9% gender pay gap in 2006. ^{cccliv} The average nominal salary within the national economy was 407.9 lei (approximately US\$33) in the year 2000. ^{ccclv}	12.2% gender pay gap in 2011. The biggest gender pay gap was in the information and communication sector: 21.2% (with women's salaries averaging 6,417.3 lei, men's salaries averaging 8,147.1 lei) The gender pay gap in the finance and insurance sector was 14.2% (with women's salaries averaging 6,629.6 lei, men's salaries averaging 7,730.5 lei)	The average monthly average salary for women was 7,387.2 lei, while for men, the average monthly salary was 8,558.5 lei (2020). The gender pay gap in 2020 was 13.7%. Women had lower earnings than men in most economic activities: Financial and insurance: 44.6% (8,807.6 lei) less Information and communications: 38.0% (8,136.5 lei) less Industry: 19.8% (1,652.4 lei) less Health and social assistance: 23.3% (2,486.0 lei) less At the same time, women had higher earnings than men in the following activities: Administrative services and support services: 8.1% (487.4 lei) more Education: 1.8% (127.5 lei) more Other service activities: 1.3% (120.2 lei) more ^{ccclvi}
Proportion of the population employed in part time labour, by sex	n/a	6.6% of women of all ages were working part-time compared to 7.3% of men (2010). ^{ccclvii}	7.2 % of women of all ages were working part-time compared to 5.3% of men (2019). ^{ccclviii}
Distribution of the inactive population (25-64 years) by main categories of inactivity and sex	n/a	n/a	Out of 393,000 women outside the labour force, 36.2% were not employed due to housework, compared to 2.4% in case of men (2020) ^{ccclix}
Percentage of the population who own their own business (SME)	n/a	In 2009, ^{ccclx} the number of male entrepreneurs was 2.6 times larger than the number of female entrepreneurs (72.5% men versus 27.5% women).	According to a NBS Survey in 2018, the share of women involved in business was 33.9%, compared to 66.1% for men. Despite some progress, there were two times fewer women entrepreneurs compared to men. ^{ccclxi} <i>According to the World Bank Global Enterprise Survey (2019):</i> ^{ccclxii} - 17.6% of firms had a majority female ownership - 39.9% of these firms had female participation in ownership - 18.6% of these firms had women in top management positions

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex (SDG Indicator 1.4.2; 5.a.1 and 5.1.2)	n/a	<p>Agricultural census (2011): 63.7% of the managers of agricultural holdings were men.</p> <p>10% of farm managers were under the age of 35 years old (7% of men and 3% women).</p> <p>Approximately 36% of agricultural holdings (farms) were headed by women and 64% by men. Women administered a total area of farmland that was much smaller than that of men; only 19% of the total area.</p> <p>In over 88% of agricultural holdings (farms) run by women, the agricultural production is intended only for personal consumption, compared to 83.9% of those headed by men.^{ccclxxii}</p>	Most recent data: the same source presented in previous column for 2011.
Share of the agricultural production of small agricultural producers in total agricultural production ^{ccclxiv}	n/a	Share of the agricultural production of small agricultural producers in total agricultural production: 61.5 % in 2010	Share of the agricultural production of small agricultural producers in total agricultural production: 50.5% in 2018
Percentage of the population who are self-employed	2000: Men: 36.3% Women: 38.1%	2010: Men: 33.8% Women: 24.8%	2020: Men: 24.8% Women: 8.9% ^{ccclxv}
Percentage of the employed population in the informal sector	In 2003, the informal sector accounted for 14.5% of total employment in the economy (38.0% of people had an informal job).	In 2010, the informal sector accounted for 12.7% of total employment in the economy (30.9% of people had an informal job). ^{ccclxvi}	<p>In 2020, the informal sector accounted for 16.7% of the total employed population, and 22.4% had an informal job (28.1% for men, 16.1% for women). Out of the total number of informally employed people, 23.8% were employees.</p> <p>Out of the total number of employees, 6.8% had an informal job. An 'envelope' salary was received by 6.7% of employees (including 8.8% of men and 5.7% of women). The highest shares were estimated in the agriculture (60.8%), trade (9.9%), industry (6.3%), and construction (13.4%) sectors.^{ccclxvii}</p>

Indicator	2000	2010	Most Recent
Proportion of informal employment in non-agricultural employment, by sex (SDG indicator 8.3.1)	-	In 2010, the share of people informally employed in the non-agricultural sector was 15.8%. Within this group, women comprised 10.8% while men comprised 21.1%. ^{ccclxviii}	In 2019, informal employment in the non-agricultural informal sector was at 12.2%. Women made up 5.9% of the population in the non-agricultural informal sector and men made up 18.8%. ^{ccclxix} Women aged 15-24 years and those who were aged of 65 years and above were more frequently engaged in informal employment (9%). For men, the highest rates were amongst young people (24%) and middle-aged people (25-49 years), at 22%.
The proportion and number of children aged 5-17 years engaged in child labour, by sex and age (SDG indicator 8.7.1)	n/a	177,000 children between the ages of five and 17 worked in 2009, representing 29.7% of all children in this age group. By age, employment rates amongst children aged 5-11, 12-14 and 15-17 years were estimated to be 13.8 %, 43.3% and 42.3 % respectively. The employment rate amongst boys (35.1%) exceeds that of girls (24%) by about ten percentage points. The gender gap in employment is smaller amongst younger children aged 5-11 years (7.8%) than amongst children aged 12-14 years (15.4%) and aged 15-17 years (13.1%). ^{ccclxx}	n/a
Frequency rates of fatal and nonfatal occupational injuries, by sex (SDG indicator 8.8.1).	Total occupational injuries per 100,000 workers: 84 cases (2000), with a fatal accidents rate of 6.6 cases per 100,000 employees	Total occupational injuries per 100,000 workers: Total: 96 cases, with a fatal accident rate of 6.6 cases per 100,000 employees Men: 1.5 Women: 12.7 ^{ccclxxi} Nonfatal occupational injuries per 100,000 workers: Total: 89.5 Men: 124.8 Women: 60.2 (2010) ^{ccclxxii}	The rate of accidents at work per 100,000 employees was 79 cases in 2019, ^{ccclxxiii} a number that has decreased slowly compared to 2018 (82 cases), with non-fatal accidents increasing more quickly than fatal accidents. Men are more affected by accidents, especially non-fatal accidents (117 cases per 100,000 employees), at a rate of 2.6 times that of women (44 cases per 100,000 employees). The rate of fatal accidents is: Men: 11.4 cases per 100,000 employees Women: 0.6 cases per 100,000 employees

GENERAL REVIEW OF THE LEGAL AND NORMATIVE FRAMEWORK OF THE REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA TO ADVANCE GENDER EQUALITY AND THE EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN

I. National Constitution and Laws Which Are Significant to Advancing Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women

• Equality and Non-Discrimination:

- The **Constitution of the Republic of Moldova** (1994)^{ccclxxiv} enshrines the principle of equality of all citizens before the law and public authorities, without any discrimination as to race, nationality, ethnic origin, language, religion, sex, political choice, personal property or social origin (Article 16. Equality of Rights); ensures protective measures of work security and hygiene, working conditions for women and young people (Article 43. The Right of Working and of Access to Work); upholds women's equal rights to men to enter into marriage and equal rights of woman and men in the family and each parents' duty (Article 48. Family); and supports the right of mothers

and children to receive special protection and care (Article 50. Protection of mothers, children and young people).

- In February 2006, **Law No. 5 on Ensuring Equal Opportunities for Women and Men**^{ccclxxv} was approved by Parliament.⁴⁹ This law has acted as the guiding policy for the government and other actors, as it pertains to gender equality. Several definitions concerning gender equality, sexual harassment, victimisation, GBD, and direct and indirect discrimination were included. The national machinery and authorised bodies with tasks and responsibilities in the field gender

⁴⁹It is interesting to note that when the law was being developed, conservative politicians and groups in the Government, Parliament, and in society objected to the use of the term "gender equality" in the title of the law, on the basis that it is a foreign concept which contravenes national culture.

equality were determined. However, due to the lack of national budgetary allocations, and insufficient political will, the mechanisms tasked with implementing the law have a limited capacity.

- In 2012, **Law No. 121 on Ensuring Equality**^{ccclxxvi} was adopted by Parliament. This law includes several definitions concerning different types of discrimination, harassment, and victimisation, amongst others; the Council for Preventing and Eliminating Discrimination and Ensuring Equality was established.

- Despite the above legislative frameworks, as per the CEDAW Committee's most recent Concluding Observations (COs), the Council for Preventing and Eliminating Discrimination and Ensuring Equality should have a strong mandate on women's rights and the authority to issue binding rulings and impose sanctions for gender-based discrimination, with the allocation of adequate resources.^{ccclxxvii} The Committee recommends to amend the Law on Ensuring Equal Opportunities Between Women and Men and/or the Law on Ensuring Equality to include "a comprehensive definition of discrimination against women that covers, in addition to direct and indirect discrimination, discrimination in the public and private spheres and intersecting forms of discrimination, in accordance with article 1 of the Convention".

• **Rights in the Family and Marriage:**

- The **Constitution of the Republic of Moldova** enshrines the right to free choice and consent in marriage and defines marriage as a union between a woman and a man. Equal rights of women and men in the family, and the right and duty of parents to ensure their child's upbringing, education, and training, are specified (Article 48. Family).

- According to Article 2 of the **Family Code** (FC),^{ccclxxviii} only marriages registered by state organs of civil status are legally recognised. Religious marriages that do not include a civil marriage license are unrecognised.⁵⁰ At the same time, marriage between persons of the same sex is prohibited (Article 15. Barriers in marriage). In accordance with Article 14 of FC, the minimum marriage age is 18 years, though, if good reasons are provided, the

matrimonial age may be reduced, but not by more than two years.

- Family relations are regulated in accordance with the following principles: monogamy, freely consented marriage between a man and a woman, and equal rights of spouses in the family (Article 2. The basic principles of family legal framework, p.3). The limitation of the husband's right to request the dissolution of the marriage during his wife's pregnancy and for one year after the birth of the child if they were born alive and living (Article 34) was introduced, thus protecting the rights of the pregnant wife. Parents have equal rights and obligations towards their children, regardless of whether their children are born in or out of wedlock (article 58).

- However, the Family Code does not regulate informal or de facto unions. There is no specific provision dealing with forced marriage. There are no specific penalties for authorising or knowingly entering into child or early marriage. However, there are criminal sanctions in cases involving sexual relations with someone under the age of 16 (**Criminal Code**, article 174).

- In terms of the prevalence of early marriage, there are no official statistics, and it is assumed by many to be a rare phenomenon in the country. Some research data show that amongst the Roma population, there may be discriminatory practices resulting in early marriages.^{ccclxxix} Twelve per cent of girls in Moldova are married before the age of 18. Child marriage is most common within Moldova's Roma communities, where it is reportedly "welcome" to marry girls between the ages of 12 and 14.^{ccclxxx}

- The CEDAW CO (2020) for the Republic of Moldova recommends "amending article 14 of the Family Code to remove all exceptions to the legal minimum age of marriage of 18 years and continue efforts to raise awareness amongst Roma communities on the negative effects of child marriage on the health and well-being of women and girls and their access to education

⁵⁰ According to the rules, religious marriages are based on civil marriage certificates.

and employment". They have also made the recommendation to "amend article 24 of the Civil Code and the Family Code to ensure the rights of women with psychosocial and/or intellectual disabilities to enter into marriage and exercise parental responsibilities".^{ccclxxxii}

• **Land Rights: [Ownership or secure rights over agricultural land, by sex. (SDG indicator 1.4.2; 5.a.1 and 5.1.2)]**

- **The Constitution of the Republic of Moldova**, the Civil Code, and the Family Code all govern rights in the family and marriage and ensure equal property and inheritance rights for both women and men. According to the Constitution, the state guarantees the realisation of property rights in the forms requested by the owner, if they do not contradict society's interests (Article 127. Property).

- The right of spouses to own, use, and dispose of common property is regulated. The property acquired by spouses during their marriage belongs to both individuals, as does the right of property in disinheritance (**Family Code**, Article 21).

- **Land Code** No. 828 of December 25, 1991 (last updated in 2020),^{ccclxxxiii} stipulates some gender aspects, including: that the land commissions establish the equivalent land quota that is assigned in private property: to the persons who previously worked at the agricultural enterprises from the respective locality and, also who worked in the social sphere, with work experience of 25 years for men and 20 years for women (Article 12).⁵¹

- However, in practice, women face obstacles to exercising these rights. *This may in part be due to the unequal registration of land ownership, particularly after the collapse of the Soviet Union and the subsequent land privatisation process in the late 1990s. At that time, land was divided amongst households, with ownership awarded to men, who were traditionally "heads of the household". Only in the absence of men as heads of the household were women granted land titles at that time.*⁵²

- Thus, the policies established during the 'Soviet period' and after were formally gender blind, but in practice, they had a discriminatory impact on women. Unequal inheritance

practices also contributed to low rates of land ownership by women. Based on working practices amongst rural women, we conclude they hold limited knowledge about their rights to own land. At the same time, as results of awareness campaigns, we note that young women are more informed about their rights.

• **Women's Leadership:**

- Provisions that demand political parties observe the minimum gender quota of 40 per cent in managerial bodies and lists of candidates were introduced in **Law No. 5-XVI on Ensuring Equal Opportunities for Women and Men, in the Electoral Code and in Law No. 294 on Political Parties** (based on Law 71, 2016). The new provisions of the Electoral Code give advantageous conditions to women in regards to the mandatory number of signatures they need to collect to be registered as candidates to the position of MP for single-member constituencies.⁵³

⁵¹ Article 12: Allocation of privately-owned land shares. The land commissions establish the equivalent land quota that is assigned in private property: to the persons who previously worked at the agricultural enterprises from the respective locality: 25 years of age for men, 20 years of age for women. Up to 50 per cent of the equivalent land share calculated on the respective administrative-territorial unit is attributed to: persons domiciled in rural localities who have been employed in the social sphere with a length of service of 25 years for men and 20 years for women who have lost the ability to work in the specialty for reasons of age or health, if no member of their family has received the equivalent share of land

⁵² It should be noted that the above-mentioned situation is characteristic of several ex-Soviet states such as Moldova, Armenia, Georgia, Azerbaijan, and Kazakhstan.

⁵³ Accordingly, a female candidate can be registered if she manages to collect the signatures of at least 250 people (while male candidates are required to collect a minimum of 500 signatures) and at most 500 supporters (at most 1000 for male candidates) with voting rights from the constituency in which they are going to run for elections. Another important gender impacting element is the new party financing formula, with the following distribution of resources:

- a) 40% to political parties in proportion to the parliamentary elections results.
- b) 40% to political parties in proportion to the results of the mayoral elections.
- c) 10% to political parties, proportionately, which will respect the 40% quota of female candidates of the total number of candidates nominated in all single-member constituencies in Parliamentary elections. This increase is to be based on the amount appropriated to the party concerned in that particular budget year.
- d) 5% to political parties in proportion to the number of women effectively elected as MP by single-member constituencies.
- e) 5% to political parties in proportion to the young people effectively elected in Parliamentary elections and local general elections.

- It should be noted that the duty of the Central Electoral Commission is to ensure that the adopted temporary special measures are respected, and to reject the registration of the electoral list of a political party, or an alliance of political parties, if the electoral list does not meet the requirements defined by Article 46 (3) of the Electoral Code.^{ccclxxxiii}

- Due to adoption of temporary special measures, after the Parliamentary elections in February 2019, 25.7 per cent of MP seats were held by women; this share rose to 39.6 per cent after the Parliamentary elections on 11 July, 2021. After local elections in October 2019,⁵⁴ the number of women mayors and councillors increased. At the same time, the CEDAW CO to Moldova (2020) noted several concerns and recommended strengthening sanctions for non-compliance with the minimum quota of 40 per cent, and providing for special recruitment programmes for women, paying particular attention to women belonging to disadvantaged groups, amongst other measures.^{ccclxxxiv}

• **Legislation on Sexual and Reproductive Health (SDG indicator 5.6.2):**

- In 2012, **Law No. 138 on Reproductive Health**^{ccclxxxv} was adopted by the Parliament of the Republic of Moldova with amendments in 2017 and 2018. The law includes several definitions including reproductive health, sexual health, reproductive rights, and family planning. Reproductive health services are focused on ensuring the rights in the following priority areas: family planning and contraception; risk-free motherhood; the diagnosis, prevention and treatment of sexually transmitted infections and HIV/AIDS; safe abortion; the sexual-reproductive health of adolescents; the sexual health of the elderly; the early diagnosis and treatment of genital and breast cancers; the prevention and treatment of infertility; the sexual-reproductive health of men (Article 3). Selective abortion of embryos of a certain sex, specified in international bioethics regulations, is prohibited (Article 9). The law stipulates that in the case of minors up to the age of 16, voluntary consent for obtaining reproductive health care services must be

expressed by both the minor and his legal representative (Article 6). In cases where there is not a legal representative, the minor's consent is accepted with the approval of the medical commission.

- Voluntary interruption of pregnancy has been stipulated by the **Law on health protection** (no. 411-XIII of 1995) and specified in the regulations for conducting voluntary interruption of pregnancy (2010):^{ccclxxxvi} voluntary interruption of pregnancy during the first 12 weeks of pregnancy, also by the drug method during the first nine weeks, by the vacuum method of manual or electric suction during the first ten weeks.

- Moldova's relatively strong legislation in support of women's SRHR should be mentioned. At the same time, the CEDAW CO to Moldova (2020) noted several concerns related to women's limited access to early detection programmes and treatment programmes for breast and cervical cancer, the limited use of modern contraceptives by women and men, stigmatization and discrimination against women living with HIV/AIDS,^{ccclxxxvii} and limited access to SRH services for rural women, women from ethnic minorities, and women living with disabilities. Due to COVID-19, access to safe abortion services is more limited.^{ccclxxxviii}

• **Violence Against Women and Girls, Human Trafficking and Exploitation:**

- In 2005, the Republic of Moldova adopted **Law No. 241 on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings**,^{ccclxxxix} establishing an institutional framework on preventing and combating trafficking in human beings, and a national referral system for the protection and assistance of victims and alleged victims of trafficking in human beings, with several provisions adjusted over the years. According to Articles 165 and 206 of the Criminal Code, human trafficking and child trafficking are punishable by imprisonment for six to 20 years. However, the CEDAW CO to Moldova

⁵⁴ Placement provisions should be mentioned, where four out of ten candidates on the electoral lists should be of the same sex (voted on July 31, 2019).

(2020) addressed several gaps in the legal framework implementation, including limited access to free medical assistance, as well as to rehabilitation services and state compensation, the lack of protection of victims of trafficking during the investigation stage, and the requirement for victims to face to their traffickers at a police station in order to initiate criminal proceedings, amongst others. ^{cccxc}

- In 2007, **Law No. 45-XVI on preventing and combating violence within family**⁵⁵ was adopted (updated in 2010, 2016, 2018, and 2020).^{cccxc} The law provides a definition of violence within the family and types of violence, institutional mechanisms and protection measures for victims of DV (protection orders and emergency restriction orders), state obligations to offer services, and state guaranteed legal aid and financial compensation to domestic violence victims. Law No. 113 in July 2020,⁵⁶ which aims to align provisions applicable in civil legislation with the Istanbul Convention (and in line with CEDAW recommendations), specifically defines (for the first time) violence against women, covers all forms of violence, introduces the obligation of specialists to assess the risks of committing/repeating acts of violence, and provides state-guaranteed legal assistance from the moment the complaint is filed by the survivor. The new provisions included in Law No. 113 respond partly to CEDAW Recommendation No. 23 and are aligned with SDG 5.2. By a special provision in the **Criminal Code**, violence within the family was criminalised (Article 201).¹

- **Law No. 196/2016** (the amendment of Law No. 45-XVI on Preventing and Combating Domestic Violence) and **Law No. 137/2016 on the rehabilitation of victims of crimes** include the provision of financial compensation, but this is often not applied in cases of gender-based violence against women.

- In addition to these laws, the Government has also adopted a series of documents to support their implementation:

- Government Decision No. 72 of February 7, 2012, on the Inter-Ministerial Coordinating

Council in the field of preventing and combating domestic violence.^{cccxcii}

- The regulations of the activities of the teams within the territorial multidisciplinary framework of the National Reference System (2014, updated in 2018).^{cccxciii}
- Methodical instruction on police intervention in preventing and combating cases of domestic violence (2018).^{cccxciv}
- Instructions regarding the intervention of social assistance sections/directorates and family protection in cases of domestic violence (2019).^{cccxcv}
- Recently adopted Law No. 113 from July 9, 2020, for the modification of some normative acts.⁵⁷

Despite of the adoption of a strong legal framework, the CEDAW CO to Moldova (2020) is concerned about the underreporting of GBV due to fear of stigmatization and re-victimisation, the limited enforcement of the legislative framework to combat GBV due to insufficient resources, and the limited access to social services, psychosocial counselling, legal assistance and rehabilitation programmes addressed to GBV victims.

II. National Policies, Programmes and Action Plans:

• Gender Equality:

- To ensure the implementation of the objectives of the Beijing Platform of Action and Declaration (1995), in 1998 the Government of the Republic of Moldova approved the Action Plan to improve the

⁵⁵It is interesting to note that when the law was being developed, conservative politicians and groups objected to the use of the term "domestic violence" in the title of the Law, arguing that it is a foreign concept, but also that it has associations with "domestic animals or activities".

⁵⁶https://www.legis.md/cautare/getResults?doc_id=122517&lang=ro

⁵⁷According to Law No. 113 from July 9, 2020, for the modification of some normative acts, several provisions were updated: a definition of psychological violence, an emergency restriction order, a new provision on violence against women and other updates (in Law No. 45/2007); updated some provisions of Law No. 198/2007 regarding the legal assistance guaranteed by the state and of Law No. 8/2008 on probation. https://www.legis.md/cautare/getResults?doc_id=122517&lang=ro

treatment of women and their role in society. This was followed by the National Plan “Promotion of gender equality in the society for the period 2003-2005” and the National Plan “Promotion of gender equality in the society for the period 2006-2009”.

- The National Programme on Ensuring Gender Equality for 2010-2015^{cccxcvi} and its associated action plans were adopted to ensure the promotion of gender equality in the economic, political, and social lives of women and men, which is the basis for respecting the fundamental human rights of all citizens of the country.

- The current Strategy for ensuring equality between women and men in the Republic of Moldova for the years 2017-2021 and the Action Plan for its implementation^{cccxcvii} covered ten areas of intervention: women’s participation in decision-making, the labour market and gender pay gap, social protection and family policies, health, education, climate change, institutional mechanisms, stereotypes in society and nonviolent communication, gender equality in the security and defence sector, and gender-sensitive budgeting. The goal of the strategy is to empower women and achieve de facto equality between women and men in the Republic of Moldova. According to the procedure, annual monitoring reports on the strategy’s implementation are prepared by MHLSP/MLSP, with the involvement of relevant stakeholders.

The implementation of the National Strategy for Employment 2017-2021 has contributed to the integration of women in the labour market by launching programmes to support entrepreneurship amongst women, such as the “Women in Business” programme. At the same time, there remain challenges to ensuring business sustainability.

• **Human Rights:**

- Two successive Human Rights Action Plans, for 2004-2008 and 2011-2014, were adopted by the Republic of Moldova.

- The **Third Human Rights National Action Plan for the years 2018–2022** (PNADO) was elaborated^{cccxcviii} by the Ministry of Justice with the involvement of several stakeholders and

was approved by Parliament in Decision No. 89 of May 24, 2018. The document covers 16 areas of intervention, including gender equality and GBV. Based on the same Parliament Decision No. 89^{cccxcix} the National Human Rights Council was established, to ensure better coordination and monitoring of the implementation of PNADO.

• **Violence Against Women and Girls, Human Trafficking and Exploitation:**

- In 2001, the first National plan for preventing and combating trafficking in human beings was approved,^{cd} which was supplemented by several action plans. A crucial step in the field was the approval of the National Referral System Strategy for the Protection and Assistance to Victims and Potential Victims of Human Trafficking and the Action Plan of the National Referral System Strategy (Parliament Decision No. 257 of 5.12.2008). The new National Strategy for Preventing and Combating Trafficking in Human Beings for 2018–2023 and the 2018–2020 Action Plan on its implementation were adopted.

- In 2018, the National Strategy on Preventing and Combating Violence Against Women and Violence in the Family for 2018–2023 and the 2018–2020 Action Plan for its implementation were adopted (GD No. 281 of April 3, 2018). This document includes references to the Istanbul Convention, after it was signed by Moldova in February 2017.

- According to procedure, annual monitoring reports on the implementation of action plans are prepared by MHLSP, with the involvement of relevant stakeholders.

• **Sexual and Reproductive Health**

- In 2018, the new National Programme on Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights 2018–2022 (SRHR programme) was adopted. The SRHR programme aims to ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health services, including in the case of humanitarian situations, to improve the quality of care and maintain human rights-based and patient-centred approaches to sexual and reproductive health. It also prioritises population information and education. The programme is supplemented by some directives of the National Strategy on

Reproductive Health, approved by Government Decision No. 913 of August 26, 2005.

• **Women, Peace and Security (WPS):**

- In 2018, the Republic of Moldova adopted the National Program on Implementation of the UNSC Resolution 1325 on WPS for 2018–2021 and the National Action Plan regarding the implementation of the programme.^{cdi} Based on national documents, structures such as the Ministry of Interior Affairs, the Ministry of Defence, Custom Services, and Intelligence Services are implementing

the institution's plan. The expenses for the implementation of the nominated plan will be made from the account and within the limits of the allocations approved annually in the budgets of the responsible authorities or institutions and from other sources not prohibited by law. As a result, there are a few resources allocated, and the majority of activities are implemented with support from partners. The second National Program on the implementation the UNSC Resolution 1325 on WPS is under elaboration.

Several action plans that include gender aspects, and are focused on the implementation of the concluding observations and recommendations of international structures, have been adopted.⁵⁸ Of the Government programmes approved during the last several years, only two of them (for 2013-2014 and 2015-2018) include gender policy as a separate component of social policy. The newly adopted Government Programme “Moldova in Good Times” (August

3, 2021) includes some references to GBV, gender equality in the labour market, and gender pay gaps.

At its first ever working session, the newly established Human Rights Committee, chaired by the Prime Minister of the Republic of Moldova, reviewed the recommendations from the 6th periodic report of the CEDAW Committee to the country, issued during March 2020, and approved a set of measures for their implementation.

⁵⁸The National Action Plan for the Implementation of the Association Agreement between the Republic of Moldova and the European Union in the period 2014-2016; Action plans on the implementation of CEDAW Concluding Observations to Moldova (2006, 2013), amongst others.

ANNEX II

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