



MINISTRY OF  
FOREIGN AFFAIRS  
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# CORRUPTION IN THE EYES OF WOMEN AND MEN







CORRUPTION  
IN THE EYES  
OF WOMEN  
AND MEN

**Corruption in the Eyes of Women and Men** is a study of women's and men's perceptions of corruption and its impact on their lives. The findings of the research will enable more effective efforts of stakeholders to counteract corruption, promote gender equality, and empower women.

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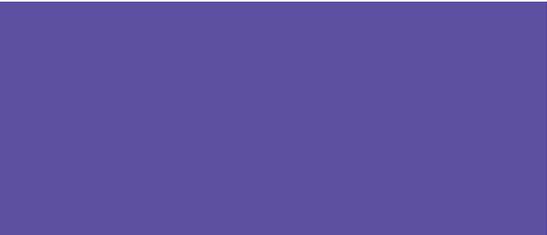


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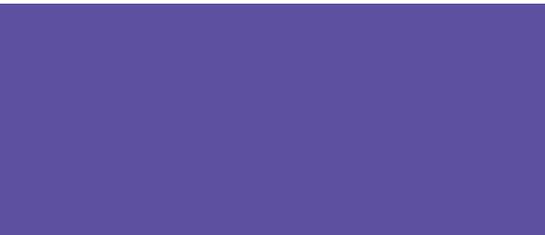


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# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

|              |   |
|--------------|---|
| <b>ATC</b>   | Amalgamated territorial communities             |
| <b>CMU</b>   | Cabinet of Ministers of Ukraine (Government)    |
| <b>GRB</b>   | Gender-responsive budgeting                     |
| <b>HS</b>    | Household Survey                                |
| <b>IDP</b>   | Internally displaced person                     |
| <b>IOM</b>   | International Organization for Migration        |
| <b>KIIS</b>  | Kyiv International Institute of Sociology       |
| <b>LFS</b>   | Labour Force Survey                             |
| <b>NABU</b>  | National Anti-Corruption Bureau of Ukraine      |
| <b>NACP</b>  | National Agency on Corruption Prevention        |
| <b>NGO</b>   | Non-governmental organization                   |
| <b>SAPO</b>  | Specialized Anti-Corruption Prosecutor's Office |
| <b>UNDP</b>  | United Nations Development Programme            |
| <b>UNFPA</b> | United Nations Population Fund                  |
| <b>VRU</b>   | Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine (Parliament)          |

# INTRODUCTION

Corruption remains one of the main obstacles to development, hindering economic and social progress and reducing governmental transparency and the effectiveness of reforms. According to the most widely accepted definition among international organizations, corruption is defined as "the abuse of power by authorities for private gain."<sup>1</sup> Depending on the actors involved, and on the sector in which it takes place, abuse of power can include political, business or domestic corruption arising from the interactions between ordinary citizens and officials.

A high level of corruption is recognized as one of the most significant development challenges in Ukraine.<sup>2</sup> International organizations emphasize that there is a lack of power among state institutions to counteract corrupt practices. They also stress the resignation of the Ukrainian public to corruption in their daily lives.<sup>3</sup> While Ukraine ranked 130 out of 180 countries in the Corruption Perceptions Index of 2017<sup>4</sup>, 87% of respondents in the Global Corruption Barometer survey negatively assessed the government's attempts to change the situation for the better. Furthermore, only 14% of Ukrainians polled agreed that ordinary citizens are able to make difference in this area.<sup>5</sup>

Although the wide-ranging efforts of anti-corruption structures help eliminate corrupt practices in state institutions, considerably less attention is paid to studying the impact of such abuses on the well-being of the entire population and of specific groups. The issues of gender equality were studied through the assessment of corruption risks in the UNDP survey of Ukraine's civil servants in

<sup>1</sup> UNDP (2008). Corruption and Development: Anti-Corruption Intervention for Poverty Reduction, Realization of the MDGs and Promoting Sustainable Development, December 2008.

<sup>2</sup> Ukraine Corruption Report, GAN Business Anti-Corruption Portal, August 2017: <https://www.business-anti-corruption.com/country-profiles/ukraine/>

<sup>3</sup> OECD (2017). Anti-Corruption Reforms in Ukraine. 4th Round of Monitoring of the Istanbul Anti-Corruption Action Plan, Fighting Corruption in Eastern Europe and Central Asia: 168; Ash T., Gunn J., and al (2017). The Struggle for Ukraine, Chatham House Report, Russia and Eurasia Programme, October 2017: 126.

<sup>4</sup> Corruption Perceptions Index 2017, Transparency International: 12.

<sup>5</sup> People and Corruption. Citizen's Voices from Around the World, Transparency International, Global Corruption Barometer, 2016/2017: 14.

2014<sup>6</sup>. Experts from the USAID Support to Anti-Corruption Champion Institutions in Ukraine have also stated the need to incorporate gender analysis into anti-corruption strategies.<sup>7</sup> Still, the impact of corruption on women and men has yet to be addressed at the political level.

The urgency of this issue continues to increase in the context of reform progress in Ukraine, as systemic crises and a lack of austerity measures continue to negatively affect the population's quality of life. In the process of structural transformations, women often encounter increased vulnerability due to manifestations of gender inequality which can limit their opportunities in various spheres. This is exemplified in women's restricted access to decent employment, lower salaries, less political representation and decision-making, which in turn gives rise to discriminatory attitudes and a disproportional division of family obligations between women and men.<sup>8</sup> According to estimates by the World Economic Forum, gender inequality remains high in Ukraine, ranking sixty-first out of 144 countries in terms of gender development in 2017. The political authority of women, their level of representation in the national parliament, and their percentage in senior executive positions in state administration bodies were identified as most problematic areas.<sup>9</sup>

The vulnerability of women in terms of everyday corruption is often exacerbated by gender stereotypes, as women's traditional societal role of caring for the disabled makes them more dependent on access to public services. With generally lower incomes than men,<sup>10</sup> women are also more dependent on the availability and the equity of distribution of state social assistance, along with the state's "generosity". Social and cultural barriers can also determine differences in the attitudes of women and men in regard to corruption, the severity of corruption and strategies to combat it. Therefore, gender analyses must become an essential part of anti-corruption strategies and programs at the national and local levels.

Accordingly, the task of this study is to assess the gender dimension of corruption in Ukraine. Its findings will enable more effective direction of joint efforts taken by all stakeholders in simultaneously combating corruption, promoting gender equality and empowering women. The study is designed to answer the following key questions:

Are there differences in the perceptions of corruption between women and men?

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<sup>6</sup> Halustyan Yu., Kovalchuk N. (2014). Analysis of corruption risks in civil service related to gender equality / UNDP, Kyiv: 31

<sup>7</sup> USAID (2018). Gender Analysis and Strategy for Incorporating Gender Issues in the Project. Support of Leadership Organizations in Combating Corruption in Ukraine!. Gender, Vulnerable Groups and Corruption. Analysis and Specific Recommendations for Action: 42.

<sup>8</sup> Gerasymenko G., Maksymenko K. (2016). Ukraine Country Gender Assessment – 2016. Document of the World Bank, Washington, D.C.: World Bank Group.

<sup>9</sup> World Economic Forum (2017). The Global Gender Gap Report 2017: 361.

<sup>10</sup> According to the State Statistics Service, the average wages for women was only 79% of the average salary for men, and the average pension amount for women was 70% of men's pensions in 2017.

Do corrupt practices have a different impact on women and men?

What forms of corruption are more often encountered by women and men?

Does corruption contribute to exacerbating gender inequalities within society?

How can gender approaches be integrated into strategies that combat corruption?

In accordance with these tasks, **the first section of this report** presents a brief theoretical overview of the gender and corruption issue and examines the history of the formation of scientific research in this area, as well as the key findings and arguments proposed to substantiate the gender dimension of anticorruption policies.

**The second section** analyzes how gender impacts the attitudes of citizens towards corruption, the perception of the urgency of this issue for national development, and the ability to identify individual corruption practices in society.

**The third section** focuses on gender aspects of the impact of corruption in the lives of citizens, in particular in the context of access to political representation and decision-making, access to socially meaningful services, and access to resources and the labour market. This section also addresses how gender and corruption impacts human rights and the consequences of inefficient governance in unstable countries.

**The fourth section** defines specific forms of corruption that are exclusive to gender. In particular, the section considers the issue of sexual extortion as a form of abuse of authority, along with the category of women who are more prone to an increased risk of gender-based forms of corruption.

**The fifth section** is dedicated to the gender analysis of anticorruption activities in Ukraine. This includes the differences in the readiness of women and men to be proactive against corruption, the ability to recognize effective anti-corruption strategies and the reasons why citizens do not report abuses of authority. According to the survey results of public activists and organizations engaged in activities related to combating corruption, possible methods of integrating gender approaches into anti-corruption strategies have been identified.

This report is based on the results of desk research, including a review of literary sources and a secondary analysis of the results of sociological surveys not previously explored from a gender perspective (Global Corruption Barometer in 2016 and a nationwide GfK poll in 2017). Information for the study was sourced from the State Statistics Service of Ukraine, central bodies of executive power, and from results of sociological surveys on corruption issues. One online poll was conducted among the representatives of 21 public organizations working to combat corruption in Ukraine. The responses of these public activists were paramount in formulating a vision of ways to integrate gender approaches into anticorruption activities.



# GENDER AND CORRUPTION: CONCEPTUAL BASES OF THE STUDY

Over the past decades, the focus on gender equality has surged and the principles of non-discrimination and impartial treatment of citizens, regardless of gender, are now enshrined in global policy frameworks.<sup>11</sup> The most common definition of "gender" refers to the socially and culturally constructed representations and roles associated with members of different biological sexes: men and women.<sup>12</sup> At the conceptual level, this term reinforces the understanding that social expectations regarding behavioural patterns, personal values and priorities of men and women may differ. Strictly defined gender roles and norms can cause unequal treatment of women or men and can limit their rights and opportunities to fully participate in society.

Scientific debates on the role of gender in corruption began at the end of the previous century

when the authors of a number of behavioural studies drew the attention of the public to differences in the attitudes of both women and men to social issues. Their findings demonstrated that women are more responsive to moral and ethical norms; they show more empathy, care and willingness to help others; are more generous in making economic decisions; and have a lower propensity for risky behaviour.<sup>13</sup> Based on these conclusions, it was argued that women are also more likely to give up private gain for the sake of general welfare at the public administration level. Therefore, the propensity for corruption or the willingness to combat abuses of power was perceived as potentially influenced by the biological or socially constructed differences between women and men. Accordingly, the increase in the number of women in national parliaments and senior government positions

was seen as a key instrument for improving the transparency and efficiency of state administration.<sup>14</sup> Later, the evidence base for these arguments was deemed insufficient, although the dispute over women's and men's "natural" inclination towards corruption continues today. In spite of the subsequent change of focus and methodological approach to research, this **first wave of gender-based corruption analysis** was of crucial importance, as it helped establish awareness of the need to incorporate a gender perspective in anti-corruption policies.

**The second wave of studies** was based on international comparisons of the public perception of corruption, including gender analysis and the assessment of other factors related to specific national contexts. The findings showed that gender differences in attitudes towards corruption can depend

<sup>11</sup> United Nations (2017). The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2017, New York: 64.

<sup>12</sup> UNESCO (2004). Role of Men and Boys in Promoting Gender Equality, Advocacy Brief, APPEAL, Bangkok: 15.

<sup>13</sup> Agerberg M. (2014). Perspectives on Gender and Corruption. The Quality of Governance Working Paper Series, University of Gothenburg, 2014: 14.

<sup>14</sup> Dollar D. et al (1999). Are Women Really the Fairer Sex? Corruption and Women in Government, WB Working Series: 4.

significantly on institutional factors, such as the state structure or economic development of the country, the level of democracy, and the widespread cultural practices and traditions that define gender norms and stereotypes.<sup>15</sup> According to some researchers, the less frequent involvement of women in corrupt practices can be attributed not so much to their personal preferences, but to the external barriers of male corporate networks that impede women's access to power.<sup>16</sup> Others argue that the connection between corruption and the level of women's political representation is irrelevant if other variables of fairness in state institutions — rule of law, plurality of views, freedom of speech — are taken into account.<sup>17</sup> In democratic states, low corruption levels and the parity of women in parliament are not necessarily interdependent findings, as in both cases progress is determined by the overall effectiveness of social institutions. By contrast, in autocratic regimes differences in attitudes of both genders towards corrupt practices are likely to be minimal, as

corruption is a socially acceptable norm.<sup>18</sup>

***The third wave of scientific discourse on gender and corruption*** is associated with the recognition of differences in the impact of corrupt practices on the lives of women and men, hence the need to reject a gender-blind approach to the development and implementation of anti-corruption programs and strategies. Numerous studies highlight the increased vulnerability of women to the negative effects of corruption, especially in healthcare, education, and social and household services.<sup>19</sup>

Such risks are associated with women's reproductive activities, which require specialized medical services, impose on them the duty of caring for underage children or disabled relatives, and instill in them the need to address a number of issues related to maintaining the household. In addition to the direct impact of corruption on women's lives, they more often become indirect victims of corruption because of

their prevailing numbers in socially vulnerable categories, whose welfare depends on state social policy measures and the targeted use of budgetary resources allocated for their support.<sup>20</sup>

At this stage of the gender analysis of corruption, the existence of specific, gender-based forms of corruption are recognized, such as the abuse of power in exchange for sexual favours.<sup>21</sup> Studies stress that sexual exploitation is a specific form of corruption to which women are much more vulnerable than men.<sup>22</sup> According to international estimates, women account for more than 80% of victims of human trafficking, workplace or sexual exploitation, and are victims of forced marriages and the organ trade industry.<sup>23</sup>

Finally, corruption risks increase in conditions of instability, hostility or humanitarian catastrophe, while abuses of power during a crisis have disproportionate consequences for women who might be exposed to gender-based discrimination or gender-based violence by officials.

<sup>15</sup> Seppanen M. and Virtanen P. (2008). Corruption, Poverty and Gender: Case Studies of Nicaragua and Tanzania, MoFA, Finland; UNIFEM (2006). The Story Behind the Numbers: Women and Employment in Central and Eastern Europe and Western CIS.

<sup>16</sup> Goetz A. (2007). 'Political Cleaners: How Women are the New Anti-Corruption Force. Does the Evidence Wash?' In: Development and Change, Volume 38, Issue 1: 87-105.

<sup>17</sup> Sung H.-E. (2003). 'Fairer Sex or Fairer System? Gender and Corruption Revisited'. In: Social Forces 82(2): 703-723.

<sup>18</sup> Esarey J., Chirillo G. (2013). 'Fairer Sex' or Purity Myth? Corruption, Gender and Institutional Context. In: Politics & Gender, 9(4) : 361-389.

<sup>19</sup> UNDP and UNIFEM (2010). Corruption, Accountability and Gender: Understanding the Connections: 48; Transparency International (2014). Gender, Equality and Corruption: What are the Linkages? Policy Brief No 1/2014; UNDP (2012). Seeing beyond the State: Grassroots Women' Perspective on Corruption and Anti-Corruption: 64; Sen S. and Ostin P. (2007). Unequal, Unfair, Ineffective and Inefficient: Gender Inequity in Health: Why it exists and how we can change it, Report of the WHO Commission on Social Determinants of Health; Transparency International (2010). Corruption and Gender in Service Delivery: The Unequal Impacts. Working Paper 2.

<sup>20</sup> U4 BRIEF. The Gendered Impact of Corruption: Who Suffers More – Men or Women? August 2015: 9.

<sup>21</sup> Goetz A. and Jenkins R. (2005). Reinventing Accountability: Making Democracy Work for Human Development, London: Palgrave.

<sup>22</sup> UNDP (2012). Sexual extortion toolkit, BDP.

<sup>23</sup> GTZ (2004). Corruption and Gender: Approaches and Recommendations for TA.

The recognition of the various effects of corruption on women and men that are exacerbated by gender norms, inequality and gender-based discrimination has drawn attention to the need for the integration of a gender analysis in the development of anti-corruption policies. Accordingly,

at the global level there is an understanding of the importance of the simultaneous promotion of gender equality, empowerment of women and implementation of anti-corruption programs as mutually reinforcing development strategies.<sup>24</sup> The need to focus on empowering women, support

their economic opportunities and civic engagement, and engage women in educational programs with a special focus on the development of leadership capital, is recognized as a central element in strategies to combat corruption and its negative effects.<sup>25</sup>

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<sup>24</sup> Anti-Corruption and Human Rights - How to Become Mutually Reinforcing? Report of the Roundtable (Lund, 13-14 November 2017), Raoul Wallenberg Institute of Human Rights and Humanitarian Law: 29.

<sup>25</sup> UNDP (2011). Primers in Gender and Democratic Governance: Primer 5. Women's Empowerment, Corruption, Accountability and Gender: Understanding the Connection.



# DIFFERENCES IN THE ATTITUDE OF WOMEN AND MEN TOWARDS CORRUPTION

The public's attitude towards corruption enables us to assess perceptions of the acuteness of this issue in society and the level of corruption in state institutions, as well as the willingness to be personally involved in fighting against corrupt practices. The most reliable tool for collecting such data is the Global Corruption Barometer sociological survey conducted by Transparency International in more than 60 countries.<sup>26</sup> In this survey, the public expresses its subjective assessment of the level of corruption in the country, shares its experience in unofficial payments when receiving services, evaluates the government's achievements in fighting corruption, etc. The gender analysis of findings in 2008 justified the assumption for the first time that women are more sensitive to corruption than men, and in particular are

more concerned about the level of corruption in society, are more acutely aware of its manifestations, and are more strongly affected by its negative effects in their own lives.<sup>27</sup>

The findings of this study led to a discussion on global gender differences in a population's tolerance to corruption.<sup>28</sup> International researchers argue that women are more likely to disapprove of bribery, are less involved in corrupt practices, and to a lesser extent justify the use of bribes by others.<sup>29</sup> The largest gap in the public perception of corruption was determined to be in the social services sector, including education, healthcare and housing. In developed countries, the number of women who believed there was a high level of corruption in education was higher than the corresponding

number of men - by a factor of 1.3.<sup>30</sup>

These findings were explained as the result of women being more likely to encounter educational corruption, as in most cases they are responsible for raising children and for their child's education.

The findings of the most recent Global Corruption Barometer survey (2016) show that economic development, corruption and public health are perceived by Ukrainians as three most important problems that the government should address. Unfortunately, in terms of corruption perceptions, Ukraine stands out in an undesirable manner among other countries in the region, as only Moldova shows lower figures in this indicator (Figure 2.1). Yet **according to the perception of the relevance of corruption by gender, certain differences indeed persist: it was**

<sup>26</sup> [https://www.transparency.org/news/feature/global\\_corruption\\_barometer\\_citizens\\_voices\\_from\\_around\\_the\\_world](https://www.transparency.org/news/feature/global_corruption_barometer_citizens_voices_from_around_the_world)

<sup>27</sup> UNIFEM's Progress of the World's Women 2008 Report 'Who Answers to Women? Gender and Accountability'.

<sup>28</sup> Swamy et al. (2000). Gender and Corruption, IRIS Centre Working Paper No. 232.

<sup>29</sup> World Bank (2001). Engendering development: through gender equality in rights, resources, and voice. Policy World Bank Policy Research Report, Washington, D.C.

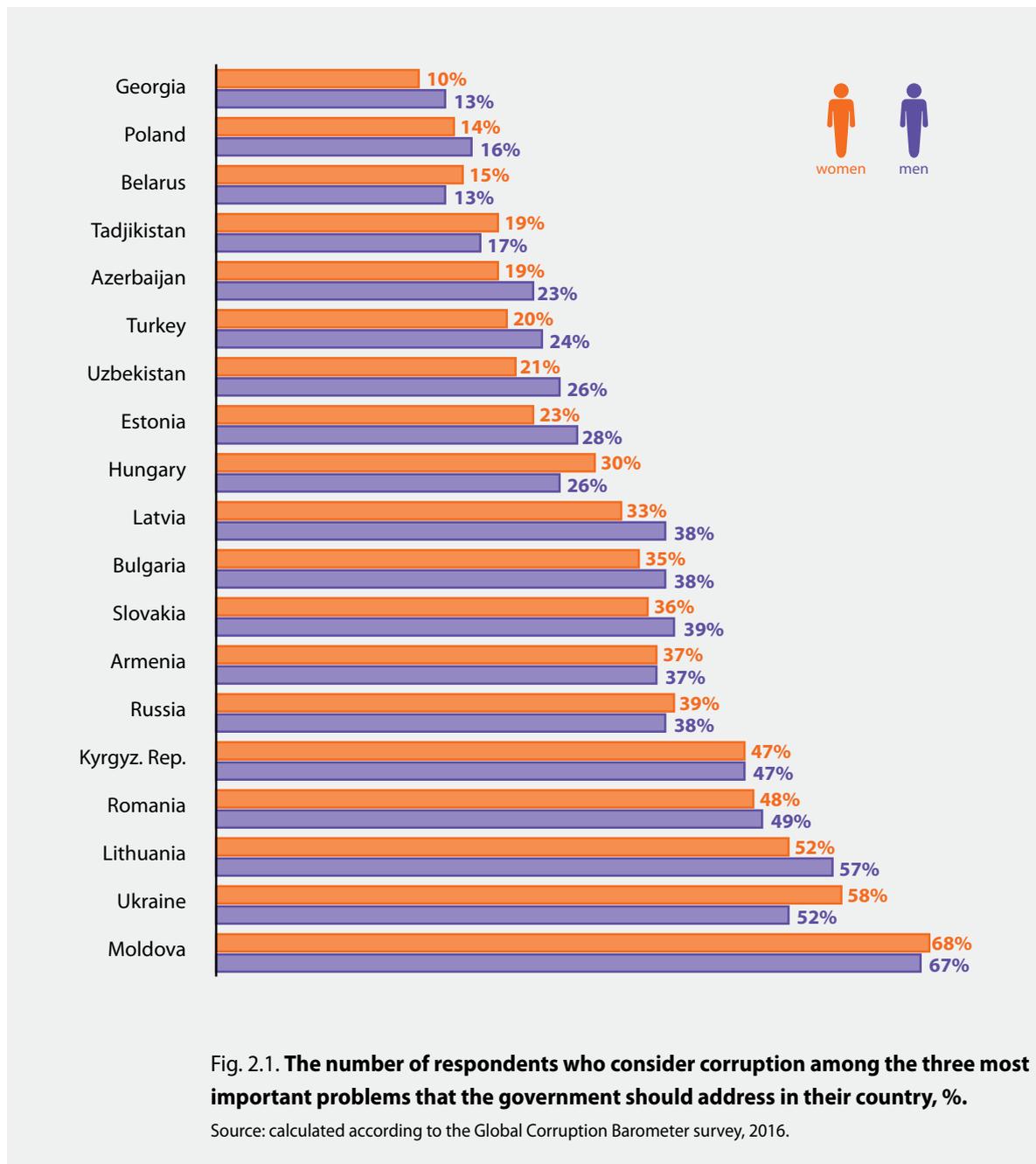
<sup>30</sup> UNIFEM's Progress of the World's Women 2008 Report 'Who Answers to Women? Gender and Accountability'.

**considered the most significant issue in the country by 58% of female respondents and 52% of male respondents.** Likewise, a relatively larger share of women than men are concerned with the state of public health (50% vs.

45% of respondents, respectively), while for men, issues related to economic development are more important (71% vs. 67%). Significant gender differences in the public perception of issues such as unemployment, crime, the

environment, political stability, education and infrastructure development are not observed (Annex A).

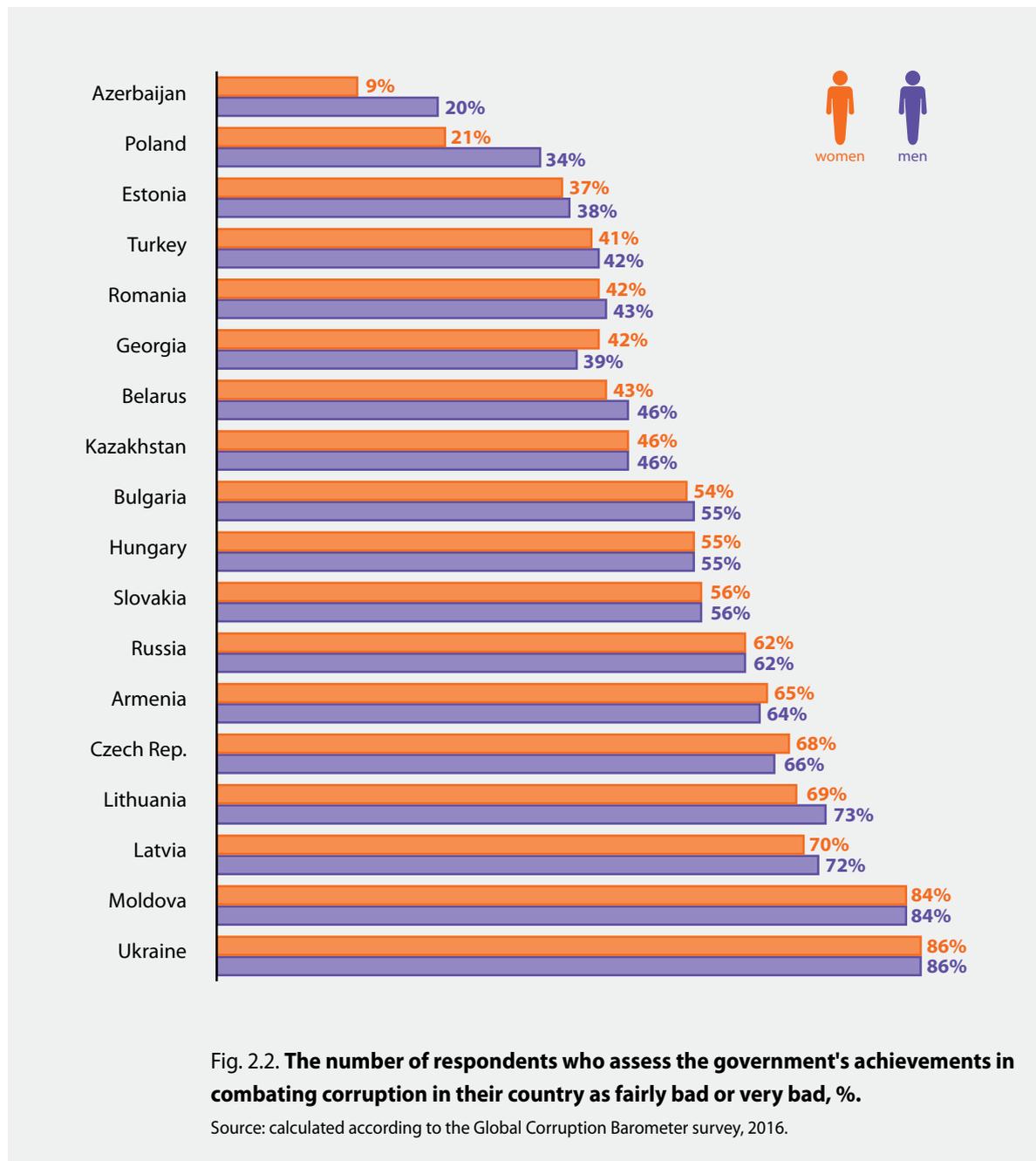
Despite the significance of the issue, Ukraine lags far behind other



countries in the region regarding citizen's assessments of their government's achievements in combating corruption. More than 80% of respondents in the Global Corruption Barometer survey in 2016 assessed the performance

results of government officials as fairly bad or very bad (Figure 2.2), while a smaller share of the population, in comparison to other countries in the region, agreed that ordinary people can make a difference in the fight

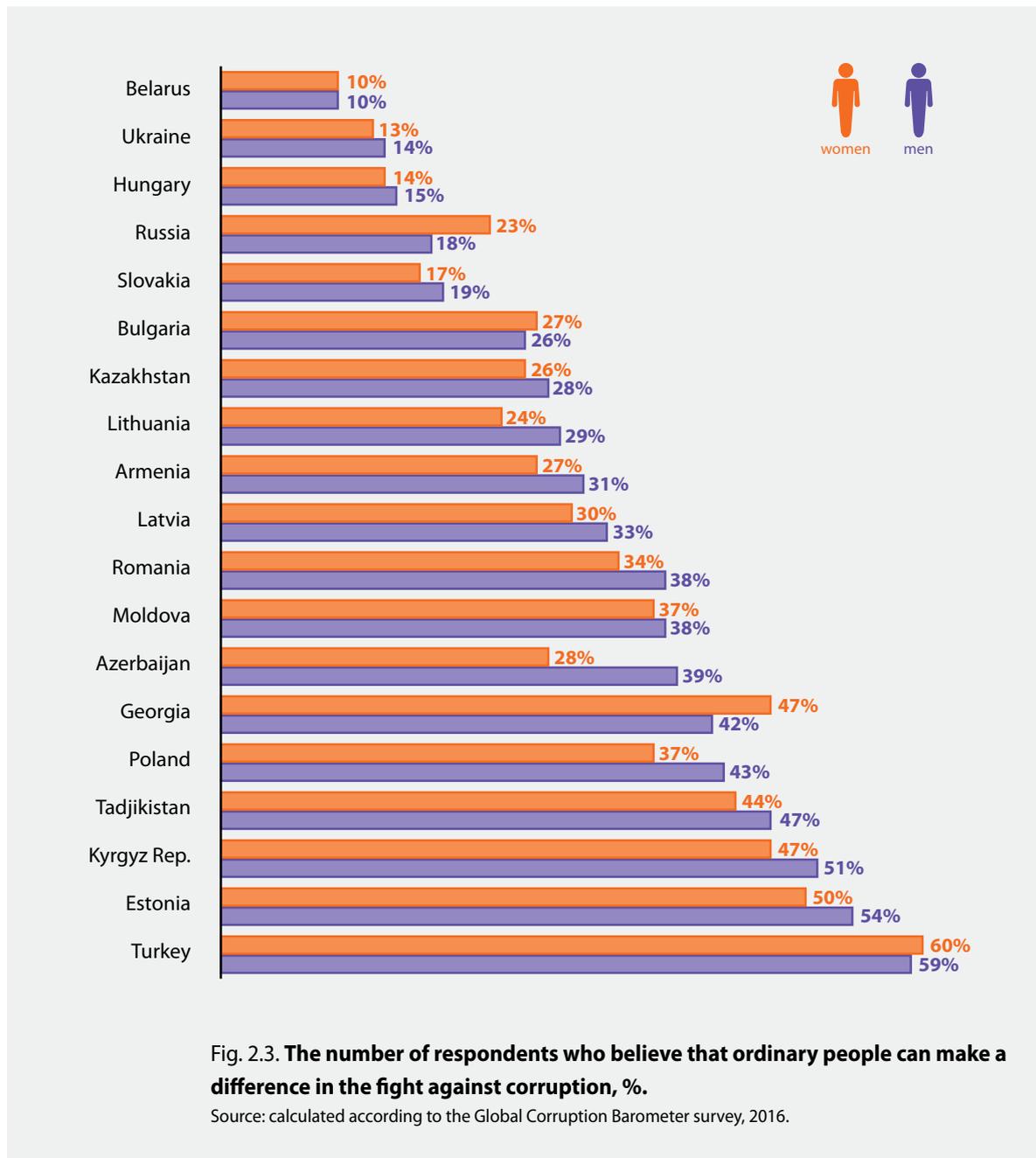
against corruption (Figure 2.3). Therefore, it can be concluded that corrupt practices have become so deeply embedded in the everyday lives of people that both genders have reached a consensus on attitudes towards corruption.



The corruption perception survey conducted by the Kyiv International Institute of Sociology (KIIS) in 2015 also failed to reveal any significant differences in the

values and attitudes of women and men towards corruption.<sup>31</sup> Although a slightly smaller proportion of women than men agreed that bribery is an integral

part of the Ukrainian mentality and that most people try to resolve issues with bribes if given the opportunity, the difference in the responses of the different genders



<sup>31</sup> KIIS (2015). The State of Corruption in Ukraine. Comparative Analysis of Nationwide Studies: 2007, 2009, 2011 and 2015: Kyiv International Institute of Sociology: 68.

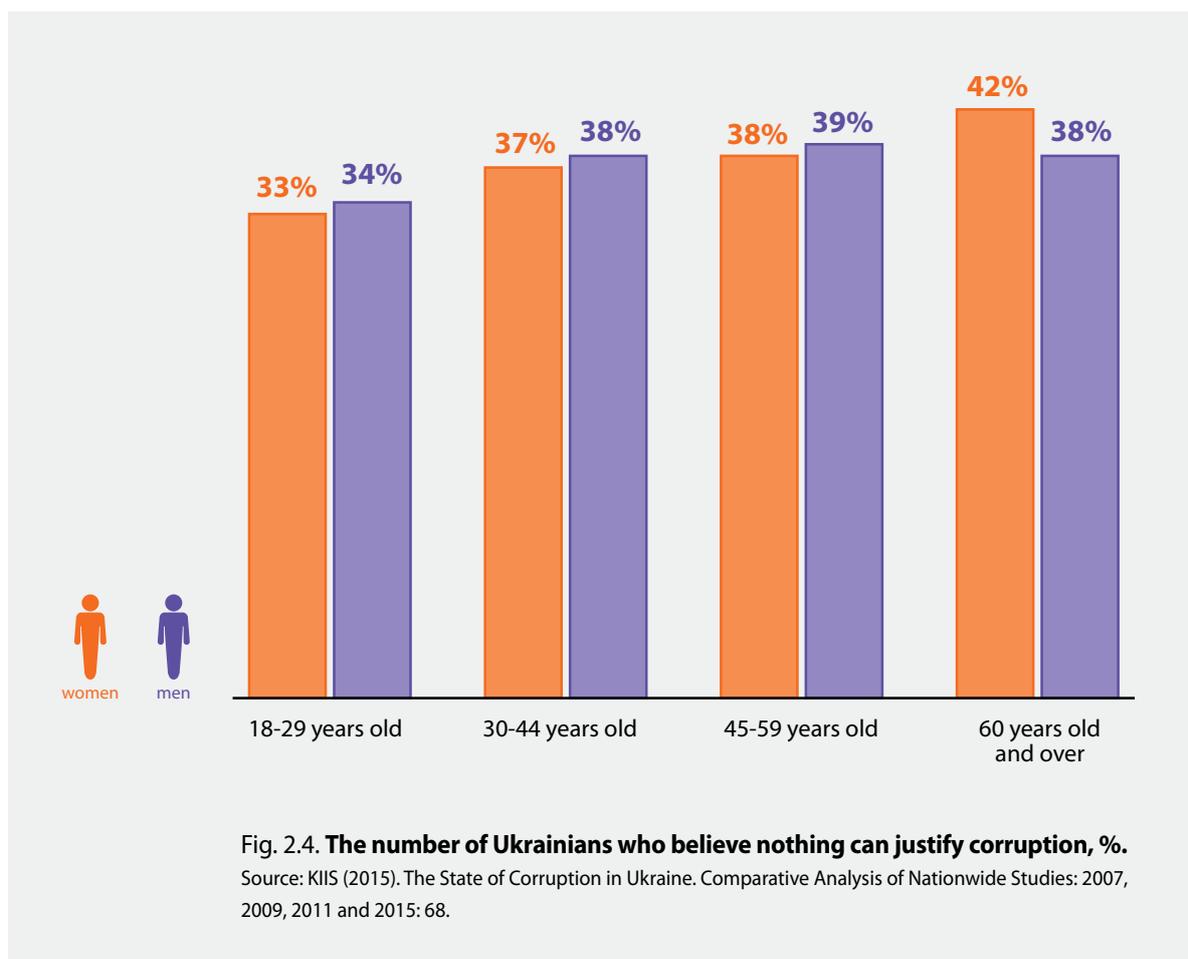
was simply a few percentage points (Annex B).

Very similar positions were also displayed by women and men in the disapproval of acts of corruption. 68% of respondents of both genders agreed that people who offer bribes should be just as accountable as the officials who accept them, and 94% of respondents of both genders stated that corrupt officials should be removed from office. Both women and men were inclined to

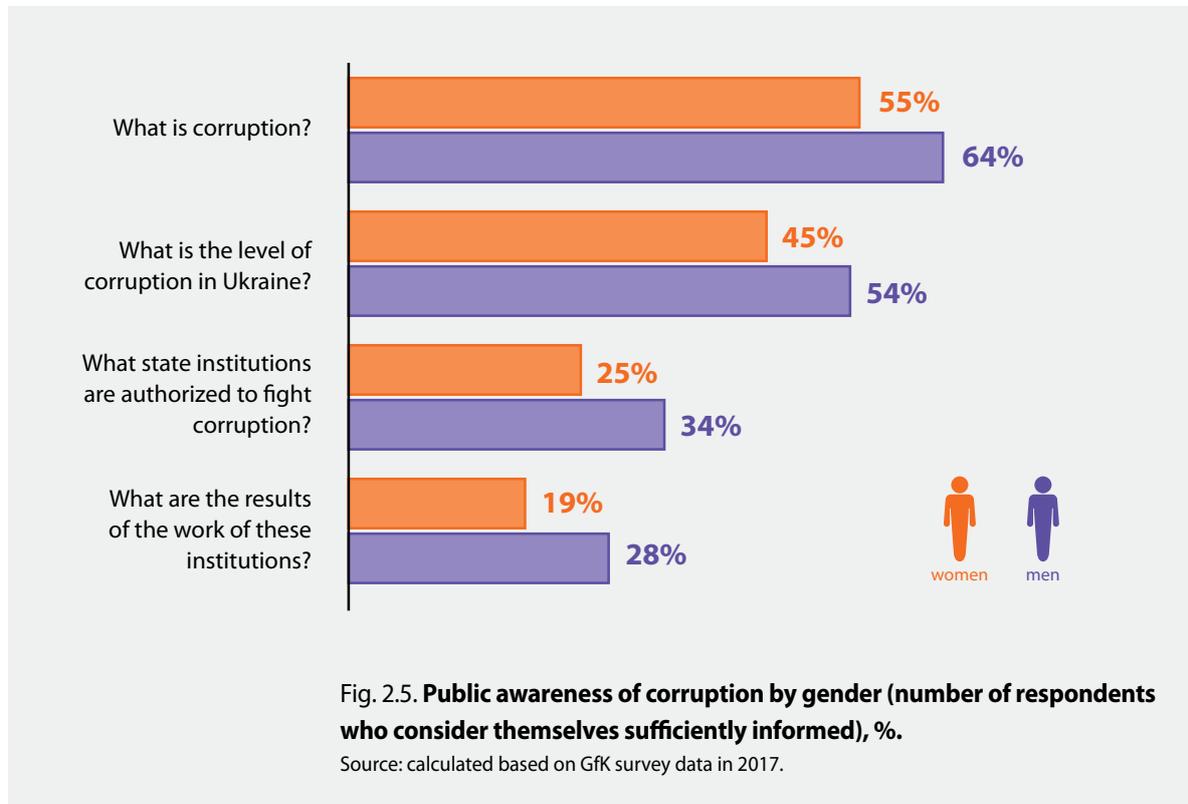
explain the bribery of government employees as a result of low wages (43% of both respondent groups) and were skeptical of the assumption that they would not take bribes if wages were significantly increased (36% of men agreed vs. 39% of women).<sup>32</sup> More than one third of the KIIS survey respondents in 2015, both women and men, agreed that corruption in society is unacceptable. **A notable gender gap in tolerance towards corruption can only be seen**

**among the elderly:** 42% of women aged 60 and older agreed with the statement that nothing can justify corruption, compared to 38% of men of the same age group (Figure 2.4).

However, certain gender differences are observed in the self-assessment of personal levels of corruption awareness. According to GfK survey data in 2017, a **significantly smaller proportion of women (55%) admitted that they were sufficiently knowledgeable**



<sup>32</sup> Ibid.



**about corruption, versus 64% of men.**<sup>33</sup> Likewise, less than half of all women (45%) believed they have sufficient knowledge to assess the level of corruption in Ukraine, versus 54% of men, and only a quarter of women have sufficient information about government agencies authorized to fight corruption, versus one third of men.

Lastly, only 19% of women and 28% of men believe that they are well-informed about the results of the efforts of anti-corruption bodies in Ukraine (Figure 2.5).

Most likely due to greater awareness, relatively more polled men

were able to identify corrupt practices that ordinary people might encounter in their everyday lives (Figure 2.6). However, these gender differences should not be considered too significant in terms of statistical variation.

**Slightly more men than women perceive corruption as a widespread phenomenon in society (83% vs. 78%, respectively), and believe corruption exists in various social institutions of Ukraine** (Figure 2.7). Although the assumption exists that women tend to notice corruption less in public institutions because they make up the majority of public employ-

ees, it is hard to recognize this as true when it comes to law enforcement agencies or the Armed Forces.

More likely, these differences are related to a lower women's interest to corruption and the lack in awareness on its forms to identify them in real life.

This thesis is proven by the situational analysis in transition economies, explaining the lower level of perceived corruption among women in this region as a "renaissance" of the patriarchy in post-soviet society, where the traditional social roles of women

<sup>33</sup> Corruption in Ukraine: 2017. Analysis of Findings under the Pilot Application of the Methodology for the Assessment of the Corruption Level in Ukraine. – Kyiv, GfK Ukraine.

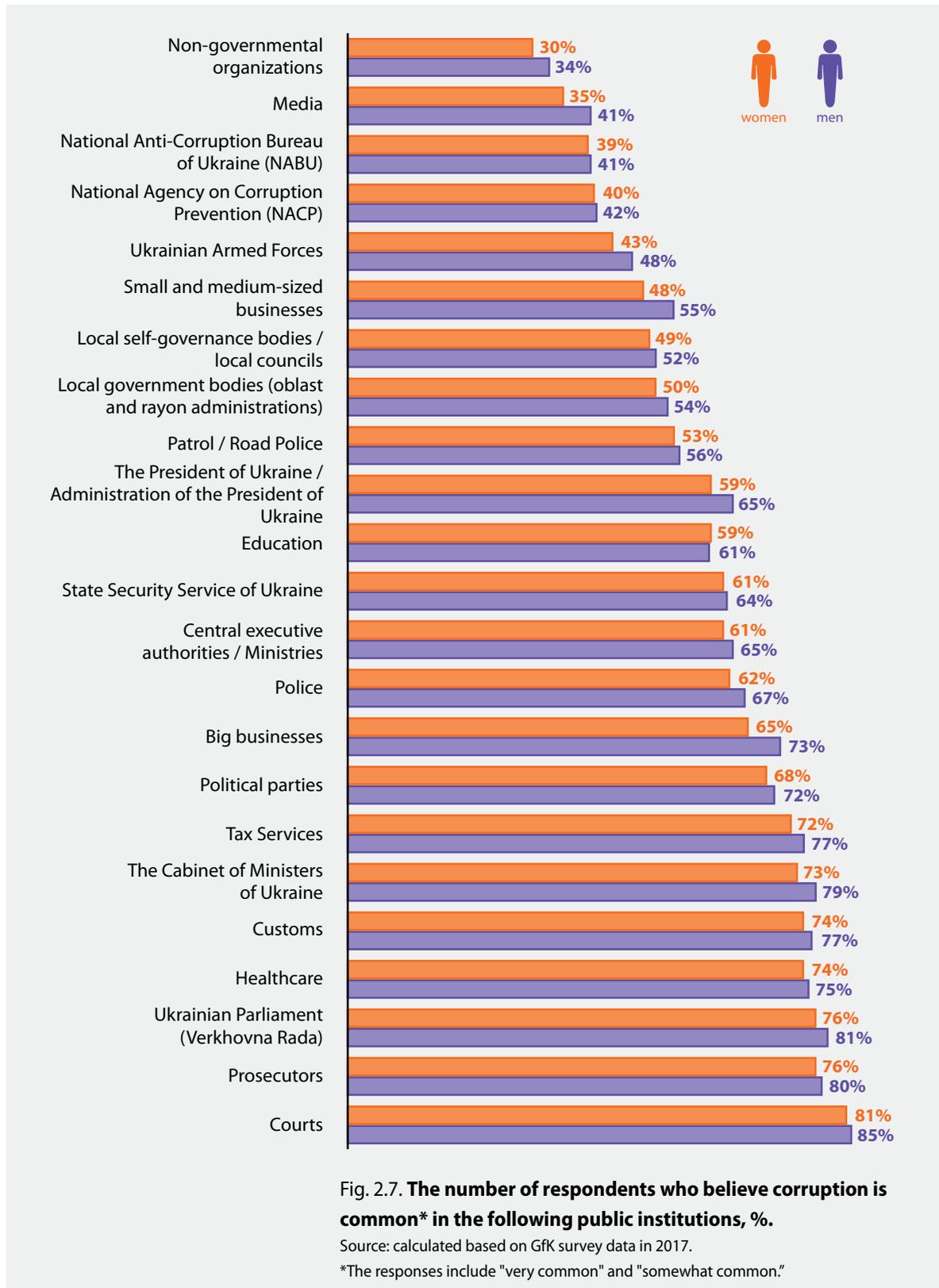


and their exclusion from "male" corporate networks limit their experience of corruption.<sup>34</sup>

The most significant gender differences in the assessment of the public relate to business corruption, where the share of men

who agreed that this issue was typical for all sizes of businesses exceed the corresponding share of women by 8% (Figure 2.7).

<sup>34</sup> Michailova J. and Melnikovska I. (2009). Gender, Corruption and Sustainable Growth in Transition Countries. Christian-Albrecht University and Kyiv Institute for the World Economy.



The attitude of men towards prevalence of corruption among senior government officials and the media is seen as more pronounced (the share of men who agreed with these assumptions exceeded the respective share of women by 6%).

In summary, differences in the perception of corruption among Ukrainian women and men are not

considered to be high, which is indicative of the all-encompassing, normative nature of this issue. Surveys show that women tend to consider themselves less aware of corruption than men and are relatively less likely to identify its manifestations in public institutions. It can be argued that these differences are due to the influence of widespread gender norms, which prioritize the private, not social, life for

women. This may influence women's decreased interest in socio-economic processes and phenomena, including corruption. At the same time, the sense of acuteness of the corruption issue has increased, especially among women, who consider it a priority for the country. This gives grounds to suggest that women have an increased vulnerability to the effects of corruption.



# THE INFLUENCE OF CORRUPTION ON MEN AND WOMEN IN UKRAINE

As discussions on gender differences in the perception of corruption continue, the various effects of corruption on the lives of women and men are being unanimously recognized by researchers. International organizations identify four interrelated areas in which corruption can exacerbate gender differences: 1) access to basic services, markets and loans; 2) involvement in the political sphere; 3) human rights violations; 4) consequences of ineffective management.<sup>35</sup> In accordance with this framework approach, the gender analysis was built around the following issues: 1) involvement in political life and decision-making; 2) access to socially significant services; 3) access to the labour market and resources; 4) human rights violations; and 5) consequences of inefficient governance in unstable countries.

## INVOLVEMENT IN POLITICAL LIFE AND DECISION-MAKING

Equal access to political representation and higher levels of government for women and men is a fundamental prerequisite to the achievement of gender equality in society, as the participation of women in decision-making is essential for the formation of state policy. Other opportunities for their participation in society depend on access to political representation and higher levels of government as well. Ukraine especially faces challenges in terms of gender equality in political involvement and decision-making. In terms of gender parity in parliament, the country is markedly behind not only developed democracies, but also

the average world index (globally, 23.8% of women parliamentarians are women as of April 2018)<sup>36</sup>. Despite the fact that gender quotas are stated in the national election legislation to be no less than 30% of representatives of either gender (2013),<sup>37</sup> the number of women in government did not increase significantly. Correspondingly, as of April 2018, women composed only 12.3% of people's representatives (52 women among 423 deputies). According to gender monitoring data from the 2014 elections, 20 out of 29 political parties failed to comply with this legislation requirement.<sup>38</sup> The slow progress is linked not only to a lack of political will to implement gender reforms, but also to a lack of any sanctions on political parties for non-compliance to the gender quotas.

Two-thirds of the NDI survey respondents in 2017 agreed that political parties are more likely to nominate men than women

<sup>35</sup> Sida (2015). Gender and Corruption: Brief, Gender Tool Box, March 2015: 4.

<sup>36</sup> Inter-Parliament Union (01.04.18): <http://archive.ipu.org/wmn-e/world.htm>

<sup>37</sup> Art. 8 of the Law of Ukraine "On Political Parties in Ukraine" and Art. 4 Law of Ukraine "On Local Elections".

<sup>38</sup> Women's Consortium of Ukraine (2014). Gender monitoring in the 2014 parliamentary elections: Analytical report, Kyiv: 60.

among electoral candidates, while half of the respondents admitted **women have less access to resources in support of their own electoral campaigns**.<sup>39</sup> As such, the importance of gender stereotypes in determining the skeptical attitude of Ukrainians towards women in politics should not be neglected: more than half (53%) of survey respondents agreed that Ukrainians are less likely to vote for women, 42% believe women were less interested in politics than men, and 55% were convinced that family commitments prevent women from having time to participate in politics.

There is also a disproportionately low representation of women among senior government officials. At the time of survey, there were only three women among the twenty-four total government ministers (Vice Prime Minister for European and Euro-Atlantic Integration, Minister of Education, Acting Minister of Health, and Acting Minister of Finances). Women constituted nearly 28% of deputy prime ministers and ministers (18 women among 68 officials), 2 out of 19 state secretaries in ministries, and the CMU secretariat (almost 11%).

Although the low proportion of women in representative bodies

is clearly contrary to gender equality guidelines, there is no reliable research data that can provide evidence of the impact of gender parity in parliament on the reduction of political corruption. Current analytical reviews emphasize that the gender factor in politics is influenced by institutional norms, including the state system, distribution of the political forces in powers, gender stereotypes, and the culture of decision-making.<sup>40</sup>

The assumption that women are less inclined than men to participate in corrupt actions at the state administration level is dispelled by the findings of a survey conducted in 2014 among Ukrainian civil servants.<sup>41</sup> In an assessment of the gender aspects of corruption in the civil service system, respondents unanimously agreed that **corruption at the state level is more related to men, but solely because they quantitatively prevail among officials in management positions**. As noted by the participants of the focus group discussions held as part of the study, *"if there were more women in leadership positions, they would be involved in corrupt practices as well."*

However, the issue of women's unequal access to senior

management positions and political representation is best seen in the context of artificially created barriers, the impact of which is generalized under the notion of the "glass ceiling" and "sticky floor." While the "glass ceiling" characterizes the invisible and officially unstated conditional barriers limiting women's advancements in the workplace, the "sticky floor" reflects the tendency for women to lag behind in their initial positions in the career hierarchy, while men move faster towards managerial status in the early stages of their careers.<sup>42</sup>

Unequal conditions for women's promotion in the civil service system may be caused by abuses of power spanning both the personal prejudices of managers and the tradition of excluding women from "male" corporate networks. Only two-thirds of civil servants polled in 2014 agreed that women and men are treated equally in terms of promotions. Moreover, according to every fifth respondent, unequal opportunities for men and women in the civil service system are formed in the process of training and professional development.<sup>43</sup>

The urgency of studying the gender dimension of corruption increases in the context of the local self-government reform in

<sup>39</sup> NDI Ukraine (2017). Opportunities and Challenges Facing Ukraine's Democratic Transition, Nationwide Survey, July 2017.

<sup>40</sup> UNDP (2008). Primer on Corruption and Development: Anti-Corruption Interventions for Poverty Reduction, Realization of the MDGs and Promoting Sustainable Development. New York: Democratic Governance Group, Bureau for Development Policy, December.

<sup>41</sup> Halustyan Yu., Kovalchuk N. (2014). Analysis of Corruption Risks in Civil Service Related to Gender Equality / UNDP, Kyiv: 31.

<sup>42</sup> Glossary of gender terms / Compiled by Z. V. Shevchenko – Access mode: <http://a-z-gender.net/ua/sklyana-stelya.html>.

<sup>43</sup> Halustyan Yu., Kovalchuk N. (2014). Analysis of Corruption Risks in Civil Service Related to Gender Equality / UNDP, Kyiv: 31.

Ukraine, which is accompanied by the decentralization of governance and local delegation. Traditionally, compared to the national level, women have enjoyed much greater representation in local authorities, especially at lower administrative levels. Based on the findings of gender monitoring in the 2015 local elections, women accounted for 15% of regional council deputies, 18% of city council deputies, 56% of village council deputies and 46% of settlement councils.<sup>44</sup>

According to the Word and Business analytical portal, women composed 6% of heads of cities with an oblast significance, 10% of heads of cities with a district significance, 19% of chairpersons of village councils, and 32% of heads of village councils elected in 2015–2017 (not including heads of councils that joined amalgamated territorial communities). The key factors that determined the accessibility of these elected positions for women were lower financial costs for local election campaigns, a narrower scope of authority, and the limited resources administered by local government bodies.

Decentralization processes and the creation of new united territorial communities (ATC) entail the empowerment of local self-government bodies and their

provision with adequate financial resources. As a result, **new corruption challenges emerge that impede on women's access to decision-making at the local level.**

According to the Ministry of Regional Development, Construction and Housing and Communal Services of Ukraine, comparative gender monitoring of ATC elections in 2015–2017 has already recorded a gradual reduction in the proportion of women among the elected heads of ATCs: 19% in 2015, 15% in 2016 and 14% in 2017. The Ministry's officials have confirmed the trend that the more economically capable an ATC is (in regard to income, production capacity, private business, farms, etc.), the fiercer the pre-election struggle is in this territory, and the smaller the percentage of female candidates who run for election to local councils and for the Head position of an ATC.<sup>45</sup>

In fact, the findings of the GfK survey in 2017 also provide grounds to conclude that women are less inclined to accept remuneration from unscrupulous candidates in support of their candidature for elections, at least at the local level. About 4% of polled voters as part of the study were offered monetary compensation and 5% were offered gifts or charitable assistance for voting or joining

a party, while the proportion of women who eventually voted for a candidate who offered a reward was substantially less than the corresponding share of men (19% and 28% respectively).

## ACCESS TO BASIC PUBLIC SERVICES

The findings of the Global Corruption Barometer survey provide data to compare public attitudes towards corruption with personal experiences of informal practices when using services provided by public institutions. International comparisons show that Ukraine stands out unfavourably among other countries in the region, as more than one third of respondents of this 2016 study admitted they had encountered demands for bribes from officials over the last year (Figure 3.1).

Furthermore, no significant gender differences were identified: 38% of women and 37% of men reported that at least once during this time they, or their household members, were forced to make unofficial payments or give gifts to officials who provided certain services.

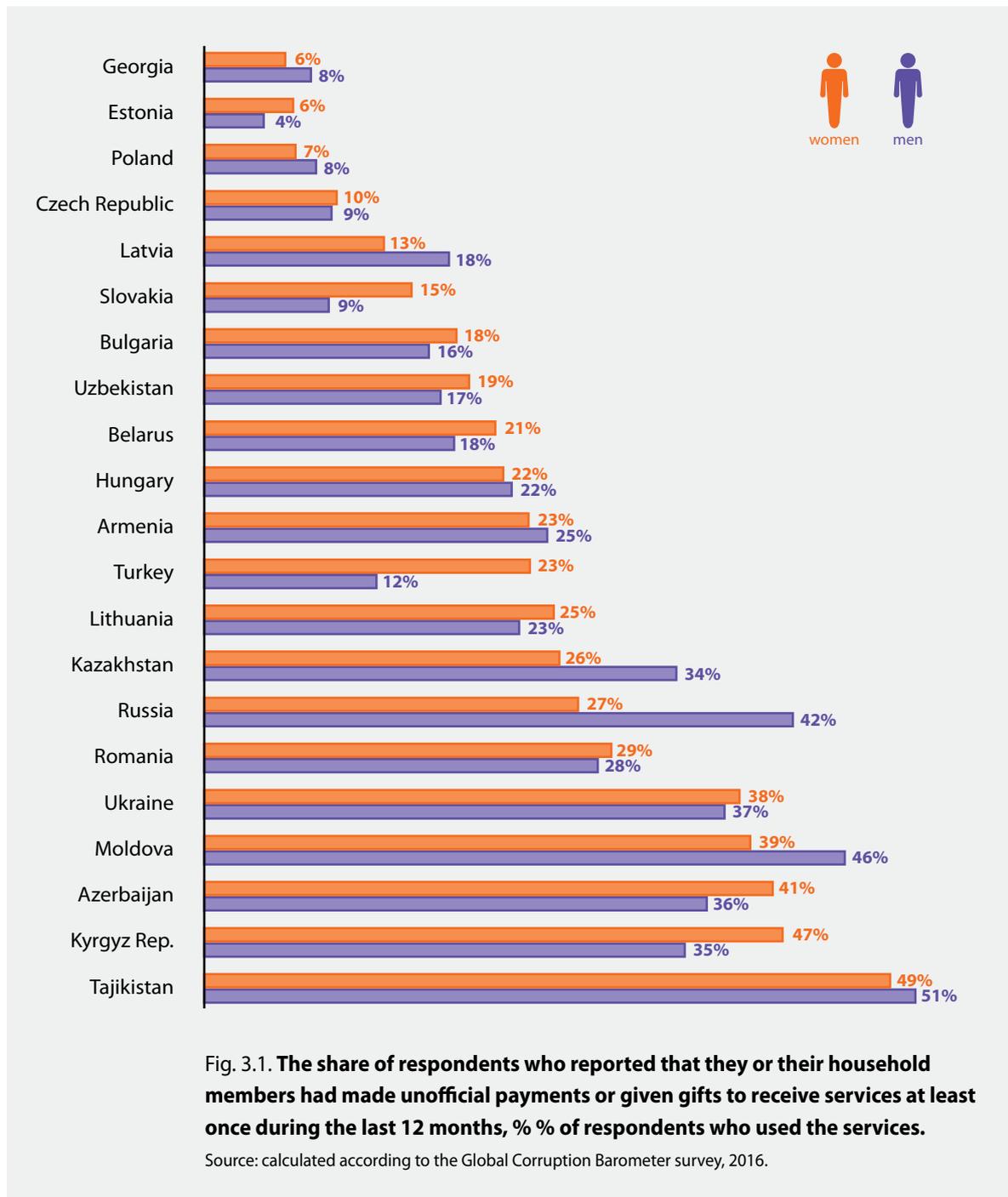
<sup>44</sup> Final Report on the Findings of Gender Monitoring in the Local Elections of 2015 in Ukraine, the Committee of Voters of Ukraine. <http://cvu.org.ua/nodes/view/type:news/slug:finalnyi-zvit-za-rezultatamy-gendernogo-monitoryngu-2015>.

<sup>45</sup> <http://www.unn.com.ua/uk/news/1718114-sered-goliv-otg-v-ukrayini-ye-lishe-15-4-zhinok>.

As shown by the gender-disaggregated data of this poll (Annex C), almost twice as many women reported that they or members of their households

had to deal with cases of bribery when initiating legal action in civil cases (31% of women versus 15% of men), interacting with the road police (38% of women versus 28%

of men) and receiving benefits on unemployment (13% of women versus 6% of men). On the other hand, a higher percentage of men reported they had experienced

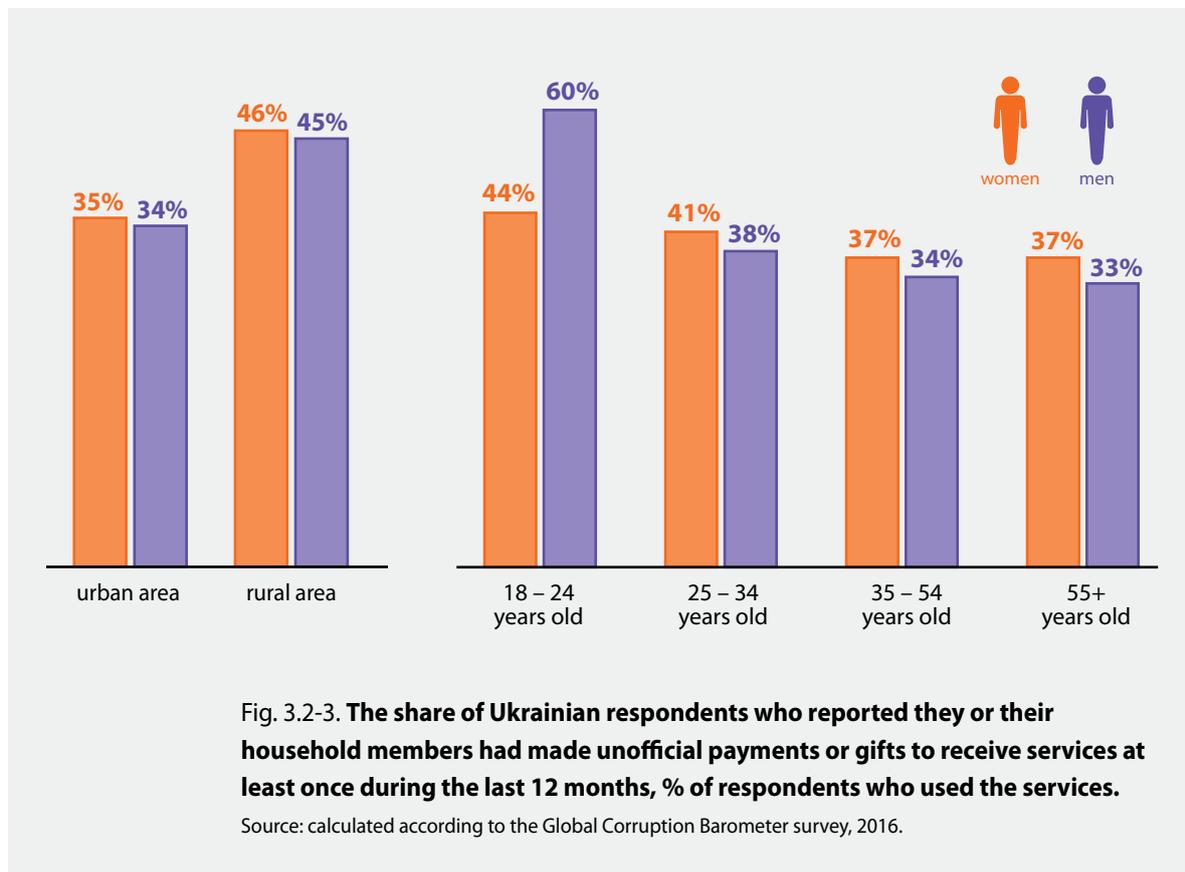


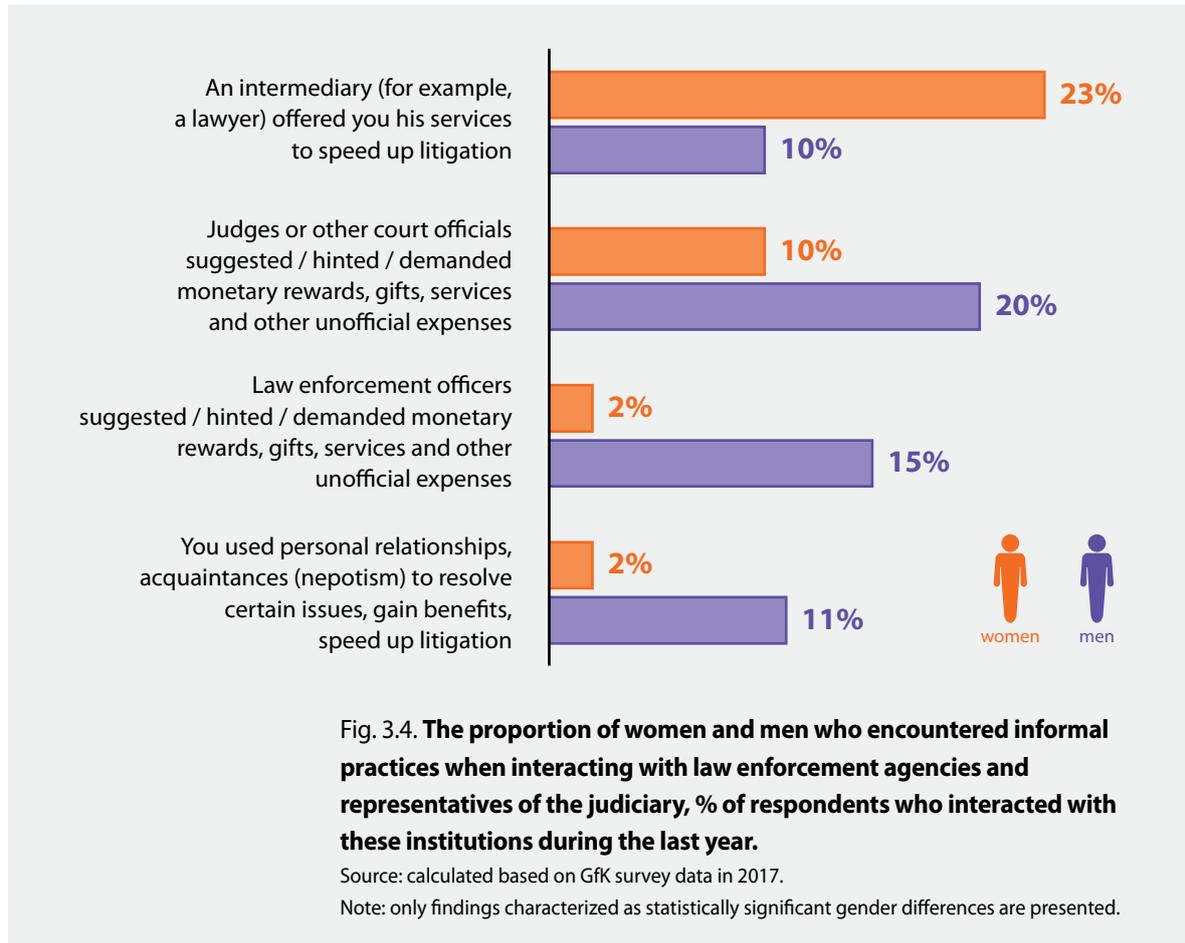
bribery in educational institutions (41% of men and 34% of women made unofficial payments in primary and secondary education, while 33% of men and 27% of women made unofficial payments in vocational institutions). Yet, the limitations of using this data for gender analysis should also be considered, as the questions asked concerned not only the experience of respondents, but also other members of their family (i.e. entire households).

The socio-demographic characteristics of respondents who reported that they or their household members made unofficial payments or

gave gifts when receiving services are also characterized by notable differences. In particular, **the proportion of women and men involved in these corrupt practices was significantly higher in rural areas and among representatives of younger age groups** (Figure 3.2-3). The gender-disaggregated data analysis shows a particularly high level of unofficial payments among young men, where 60% of respondents aged 18-24 reported that they made such payments over the last year. Primarily, this concerns unofficial payments in the education sector (primary and secondary) and healthcare (two-thirds of men aged 18-24).

GfK survey findings in 2017 also provide data on the experience of engaging women and men in informal practices. Although gender analysis does not provide reliable enough data to make unambiguous conclusions about the inclination of a particular gender to corruption in obtaining services, some gender differences are nonetheless evident. In particular, significantly more polled men reported that they had to deal with corrupt practices when interacting with law enforcement agencies (except patrol police) and judges. On the other hand, twice as many women reported that they had encountered





mediation proposals to accelerate the resolution of court cases (Figure 3.4).

The proportion of men who participated in informal practices in higher education institutions involving significant additional informal expenses, compulsory charitable contributions, gifts to teachers to facilitate learning, and the use of personal ties to address various issues or benefits in training, was also slightly larger (Annex D). A larger proportion of women reported they were involved in informal practices

when attending post-graduate courses, which is an indirect indication of inequality in respect to opportunities for further training necessary for women's professional development and career growth.

Although differences in the personal experience of informal practices among women and men in using services may be ambiguous, there are grounds to argue that **the negative effects of domestic corruption have a greater impact on women's lives**. They can also exacerbate

gender inequality that already exists within society, which creates additional obstacles for women's access to resources, services and opportunities. This is linked to several factors which are becoming particularly important in Ukraine.

## FACTOR 1

In most societies, **gender rules dictate women's overwhelming responsibility for family duties related to caring for children, the ill and senior citizens**. In Ukraine, strong expectations about the

division of roles in marital relations are the norm: while a husband is assigned the role of the family "breadwinner", the prerogative of a woman is recognized as caring for family members, housework, etc. Almost two-thirds of respondents in the UNFPA 2012 survey stated that caring for children and family members who need constant attention is the responsibility of women.<sup>46</sup> Most women polled also claimed they were responsible for making decisions about running the household. Therefore, they often had to interact with providers of various services, such as educational, medical, and social services. Therefore, any barriers to accessing services necessary for a family member, due to the abuse of power by officials, primarily affects women who act as caregivers.

As the findings of international studies show, **the lack of necessary services or low quality of such services are also perceived by women as a form of corruption**, as they relate this to the abuse of power and non-fulfillment of responsibilities by community leaders who are authorized to maintain public welfare and infrastructure at a proper level in the areas entrusted to them.<sup>47</sup> In this context, the rural population is particularly vulnerable. Only 25% of female rural residents polled in

a special survey on the experience of rural women did not complain about the availability of medical services.<sup>48</sup>

The remaining respondents complained about the remoteness of medical institutions and financial inaccessibility of treatment or the purchase of medicine (48% of women surveyed), and the lack of equipment and specialists of a certain profile (30% of respondents could not access a dentist, 27% were without access to a gynecologist or obstetrician, and 23% had no therapist or family physician). According to the same survey, women living in rural areas also encountered difficulties in accessing social services, including employment and the provision of social assistance.

Almost half of polled women reported they did not believe in the ability of employment centres to help them find a job, and 14% faced obstacles from employment centres in receiving unemployment benefits. Other issues were observed in women's access in rural areas to their pension, as 4% of all women aged 55 and over believed their pension is calculated incorrectly, and 2% of women of this age did not receive any pension at all due to a lack of information on the conditions for

obtaining a pension or for reasons beyond their control.

## FACTOR 2

In certain periods of their lives, **women have significantly greater needs for medical services based on reproductive activities**. Women need specific health services during pregnancy planning, the pregnancy period, childbirth and the postpartum period. In this context, they may become particularly vulnerable to corruption, including subject to demands for bribes by medical personnel or abuses from other service suppliers.

Unofficial payments to receive healthcare during pregnancy and childbirth are not just widespread in Ukraine, but among the highest recorded. The findings of the "Assessing the impact of policies and methods of paying for medical services and their economic efficiency, fairness and quality in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe (based on the example of Ukraine, Poland, Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria and Lithuania)" study are presented in the article by Stepurko and other authors (2013). The results showed that three quarters of respondents paid for childbirth services and 57% made unofficial payments.<sup>49</sup> In addition, 65% of patients paid

<sup>46</sup> Gerasymenko G., Libanova E. et al. (2012). Analytical Research on Women's Participation in the Labor Force of Ukraine, UNFP, UCSR, Kyiv: 212.

<sup>47</sup> Sida (2015). Gender and Corruption: Brief, Gender Tool Box, March 2015: 4.

<sup>48</sup> Comprehensive Study on the Status of Rights of Women Living in Rural Areas of Ukraine, UNDP and the Office of the Ukrainian Parliament Commissioner for Human Rights, 2015: 88.

<sup>49</sup> Stepurko T., Pavlova M. et al. (2013). Informal Payments by Patients to Medical Institutions in Ukraine and Bulgaria // Academic Writings Journal of NaUKMA. Sociological sciences, Vol. 148: 83-93.

for gynecologist services (almost 40% unofficially) and they referred to these services as among the most expensive. Among the main reasons named by respondents for making unofficial payments were receiving "more attention" from a specialist (45%), improvement of care (25%), increasing the availability of services (30%), and others. It is worth noting that the vast majority of patients were negatively affected by such practices and about 41% of payers reported that an informal payment was made because of a request by the service provider.<sup>50</sup>

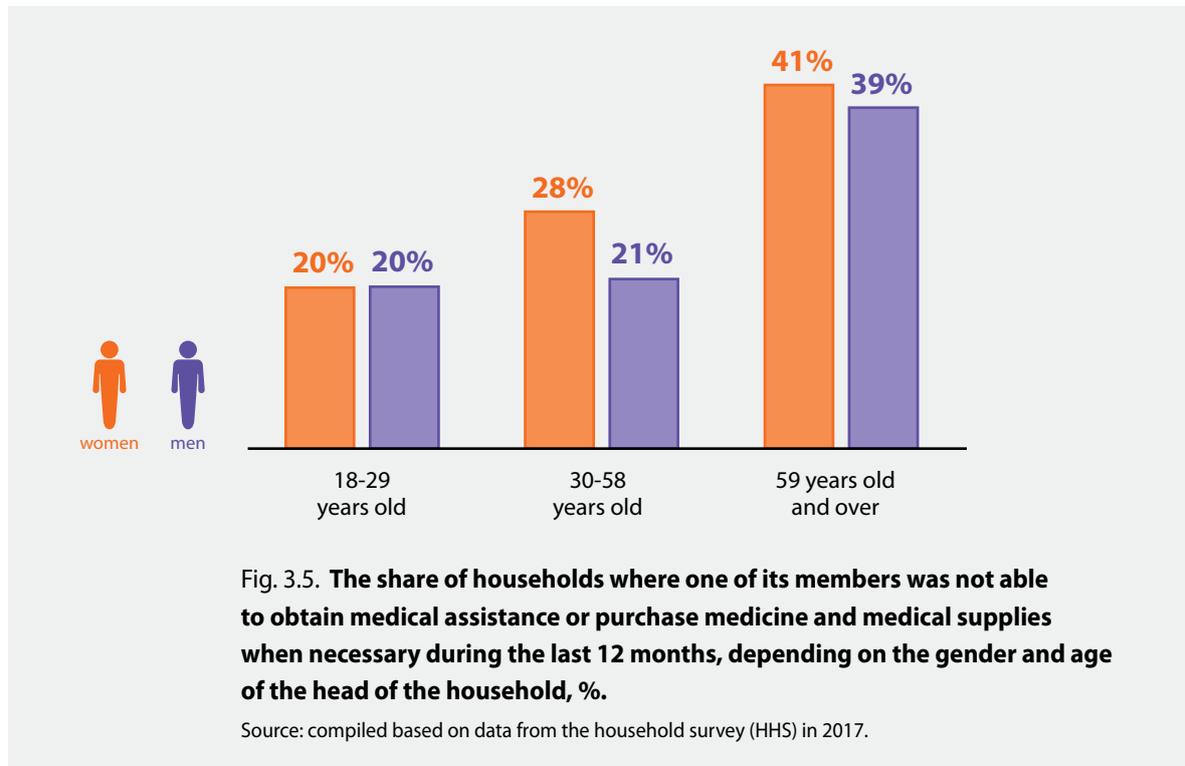
The issue of informal payments in the domestic healthcare system is widely recognized, as almost 46% of all healthcare expenditures in Ukraine are paid directly by patients from their own pockets when receiving medical services or purchasing medicine.<sup>51</sup> As a result, about 4% of households in Ukraine suffer from "catastrophic" medical expenses and 92% of citizens fear financial difficulties in the event of an illness. Data from the household survey (HHS) conducted by the State Statistics Service show that the availability of medical services is much

lower for households headed by women.<sup>52</sup> In particular, 28% of households headed by women, versus 21% of male-headed households, reported they were unable to obtain necessary medical care during the previous year (Figure 3.5).

The vulnerability of such families increases with the age of the head of the household.

### FACTOR 3

The increased vulnerability of women to the negative effects



<sup>50</sup> Ibid.

<sup>51</sup> The Concept of Financing Healthcare Reform, approved by CMU Decree No. 1013-p dated November 30, 2006.

<sup>52</sup> Self-Assessment of Health and the Availability of Certain Types of Medical Care in 2017 (according to a sample household survey in October 2017). Statistical collection of the State Statistics Service of Ukraine, Kyiv, 2018: 75.

of corruption is also conditioned by material factors. **With lower incomes compared to men, women predominate among the poor and are at a higher risk of poverty.**

As a result, their welfare depends much more on state social guarantees (the volume of social payments, pensions, subsidies) and unhindered access to services provided by public institutions. The abuse of authority in the provision of these services increases the vulnerability of certain citizens, while corrupt practices at the macro level associated with the misuse of budgetary resources for social purposes reduces the social well-being of the entire nation.

The average salary of women in Ukraine is traditionally less than the average earnings among men. This is due to gender-based "vertical" employment segregation, where men predominate in managerial positions in all sectors of the economy, and the "horizontal" segregation of the labour market, where women work in less prestigious and lower paid jobs (for example, in civil sectors such as education, healthcare, and social assistance provision). According to the State Statistics Service,

the average wage of women was equivalent to only 79% of average male earnings in 2017.

These gender differences are further reflected in lower pensions for women. The latter issue is of particular significance in the context of women's vulnerability, as with a longer life span, they are quantitatively more prevalent among older age groups, who are the main users of social services for the elderly.<sup>53</sup>

With lower incomes, women also make up the majority of recipients of subsidies for housing and communal services, benefit recipients, and recipients of social assistance.<sup>54</sup>

The gender factor determines the specifics of Ukrainian poverty "profiles", which includes single elderly women, unemployed women and women raising children on their own. Finally, in a society where corruption and informal payments are considered a common practice when receiving services, poor women do not always have the ability to pay extra fees, and, as a result, lose access to these services.<sup>55</sup>

## ACCESS TO THE LABOUR MARKET AND RESOURCES

Gender can also be a factor in business corruption, which affects business opportunities, the access of companies to markets and resources, and cooperation with the regulatory authorities. There are numerous indications that female entrepreneurs face barriers when accessing business development loans and that it can be more difficult for them to obtain permits and licenses to start their own business.<sup>56</sup>

In general, access to opportunities in the labour market among Ukrainians is characterized by certain gender differences. Data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS) conducted by the State Statistics Service show that **in the process of finding a job, women are more inclined to use public employment services than men.**<sup>57</sup> **Accordingly, women are more vulnerable to possible abuses in this sphere.**

In particular, 34% of women looking for a job or trying to open their own business sought the services of employment centres (vs. 23% of men). On the other hand, a

<sup>53</sup> According to demographic statistics, women make up almost three quarters of the population of Ukraine ages 80 and older.

<sup>54</sup> Gerasymenko G., Maksymenko K. (2016). Ukraine Country Gender Assessment – 2016. Document of the World Bank, Washington, D.C.: World Bank Group.

<sup>55</sup> U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Center. Expert Answer. State of Research on Gender and Corruption: 7.

<sup>56</sup> U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Center (2006). 'Gender and Corruption'. Helpdesk query. Bergen: Chr. Michelsen Institute (CMI) : <http://www.u4.no/helpdesk/helpdesk/queries/query98.cfm>

<sup>57</sup> Economic activity of the population of Ukraine – 2016 : Stat. Collection / State Statistics Service of Ukraine: 2017: 205.

significantly higher proportion of unemployed men (40% vs. 28% of women) tried to get a job using personal connections.

Another area where the consequences of corrupt practices can be particularly negative is informal employment, which functions outside the control of state regulators. Unable to defend their rights, informally employed workers may lose a significant portion of their earnings or resources due to corruption. At the global level, employees in the informal economy are predominantly women, and thus face a higher risk of vulnerable employment where workers do not have social protection guarantees. In Ukraine, about a quarter of the total employed population (almost 4 million in 2016) is informally employed.<sup>58</sup> Yet, the gender structure of informal employment in Ukraine is somewhat different from the global structure. The proportion of informally employed citizens has been dominated by men for a long time (58% in 2016), which is most likely associated with more widespread employment of women in the public sector.

***Due to widespread employment at enterprises in the informal sector, men are often confronted***

***with corruption in interactions with regulatory authorities.***

Ukrainian companies note that among the biggest obstacles to doing business are corruption and access to financing.<sup>59</sup> According to the World Bank Survey of 2013, ***corruption was identified as the main obstacle to doing business by 40% of companies with male top managers and 28% of companies with female top managers.***<sup>60</sup> This data was significantly higher than the average perception of corruption in companies in Europe and Central Asia, where similar studies were conducted (Annex F). Moreover, about 99% of polled companies with male top managers expressed they feel expected to give "gifts" to authorized persons to secure government contracts.<sup>61</sup>

Almost twice the percentage of companies with male top managers expect they have to make informal payments/give gifts to get an import license (44% versus 23% of companies headed by women) (Figure 3.6). On the other hand, a relatively higher percentage of companies with female top managers expect to give a bribe when obtaining an operating license (44% versus 32% respectively) or "get things done" (88% versus 70%).<sup>62</sup>

Findings of the GfK entrepreneurs survey in 2017 also confirm that ***men are more likely to face corrupt practices in business than women.*** In particular, 28% of male entrepreneurs and 15% of female entrepreneurs polled said that they have experienced situations where a gift or bribe could help solve business issues. At the same time, reflecting on the reasons for not resorting to corruption to solve issues, almost twice the percentage of women noted they simply did not have enough money (19% of women versus 10% of men), did not know how to perform a corrupt activity, or lacked experience (10% of women versus 6% of men).

***Female entrepreneurs consider their own level of knowledge of corruption, and the outcomes of the efforts of authorities empowered to deal with it, to be lower than men's*** (Figure 3.7). Compared to male entrepreneurs, a significantly smaller proportion of female entrepreneurs consider corruption a very common phenomenon in domestic business (58% vs. 65%, respectively).

Similar gender features also characterize entrepreneurs' perceptions of corruption or informal practices in doing business (Figure 3.8). Compared to women, more

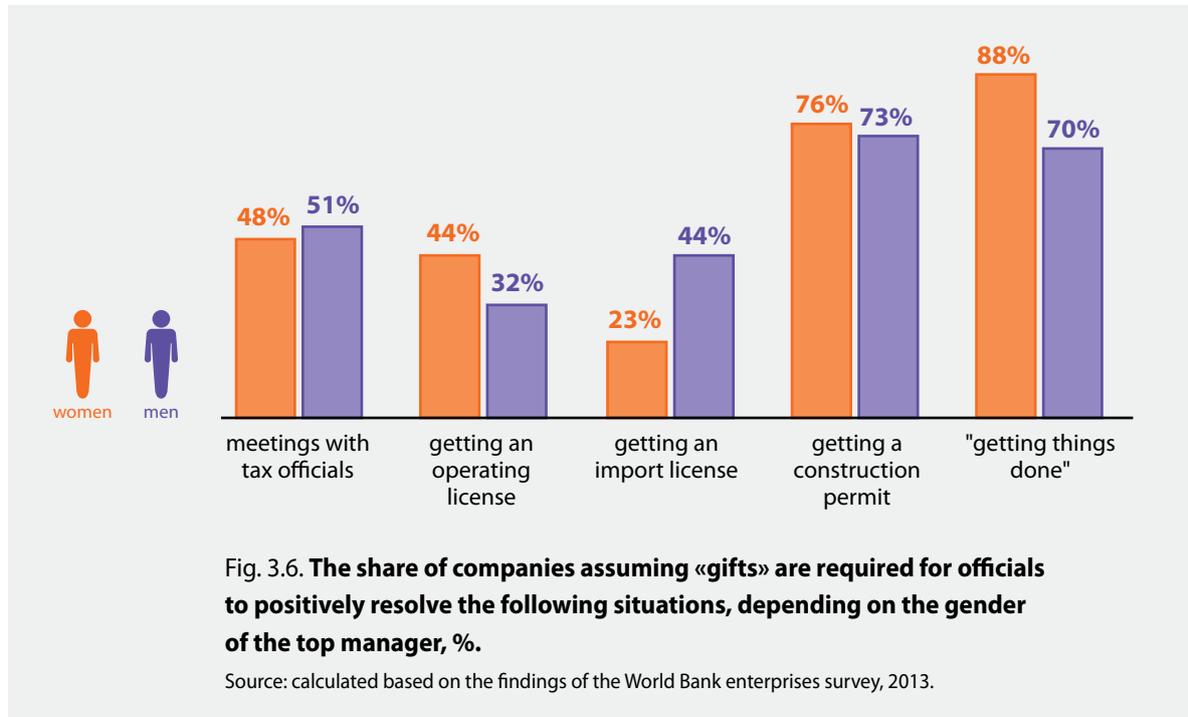
<sup>58</sup> Ibid

<sup>59</sup> Enterprise Surveys, World Bank: <http://www.enterprisesurveys.org>.

<sup>60</sup> Ibid.

<sup>61</sup> A small number of companies with female top managers also answered this question, so the findings of their survey are not taken into account in the analysis.

<sup>62</sup> As part of the survey, the owners and top managers of 1,200 enterprises were surveyed, 19% of which were headed by women top managers.



male entrepreneurs agree that among domestic enterprises the practices of paying salaries in envelopes (33% of men vs. 23% of women), and "double" bookkeeping and informal cash payments (27% of men vs. 17% women), are more widespread. The same has been determined regarding giving money to politicians, deputies and political parties to receive benefits and promote business activities (24% of men vs. 17% of women). The smallest gender gap was noted in the perception of such practices as "protection" from law enforcement bodies, and the use of fictitious companies to minimize taxes or obtain bank loans, through motivating the corrupt interests of bank employees.

In summary, it can be stated that corruption is perceived less by women as a barrier to doing business, but not only because they are less likely to face bribes. **Women entrepreneurs in Ukraine face challenges that are no less significant due to the impact of gender stereotypes** underestimating their business qualities and business prospects.

Thus, 82% of the men polled in the UNFP study in 2018 agreed there are certain "male" and "female" professions in Ukraine, while 40% of respondents considered men to be better businessmen than women.<sup>63</sup>

## COMMITMENT TO HUMAN RIGHTS

Corrupt institutions, especially law enforcement agencies and the justice system, also constitute threats in the context of protecting civil rights, especially among vulnerable groups of the population who may encounter prejudiced attitudes and discrimination in society.

At the same time, civil rights can be violated in the political (e.g., right to vote or representation), economic (employment opportunities, equal pay, professional training and advancement, ownership and inheritance of property, etc.),

<sup>63</sup> UNFPA (2018). Masculinity Today: Men's Attitude to Gender Stereotypes and Violence against Women / UNFPA, UCSR, Ministry of Social Policy of Ukraine, Kyiv: 128.

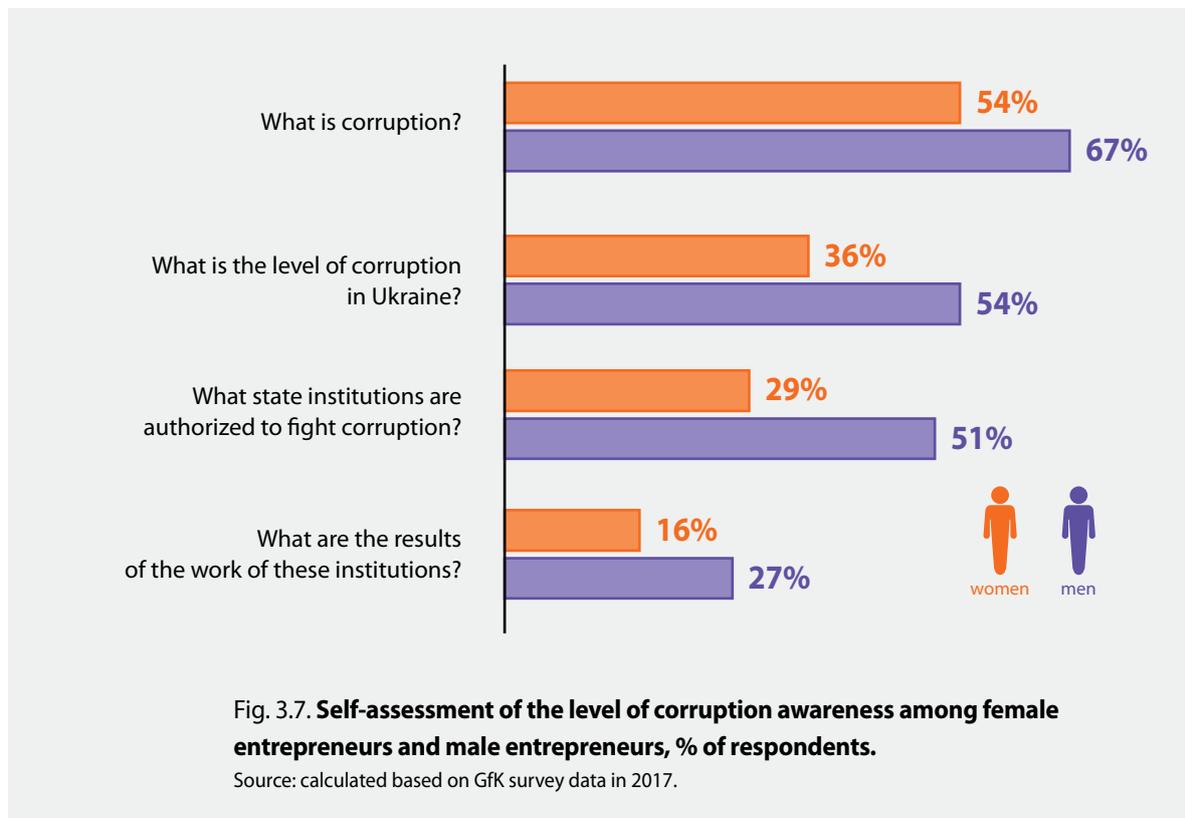
and social spheres (marital and family relations, guardianship over children, protection from domestic violence, etc.).

Gender-based discrimination is quite common in Ukraine and its distribution is recognized by one of five survey respondents of the "Rating" Sociological Group in 2015.<sup>64</sup> Depending on the form of biased attitude, **2 to 14% of respondents of the UNFPA and GfK survey in 2014 reported that they have personally encountered some form of gender discrimination, or know**

**friends or relatives that have encountered it.**<sup>65</sup>

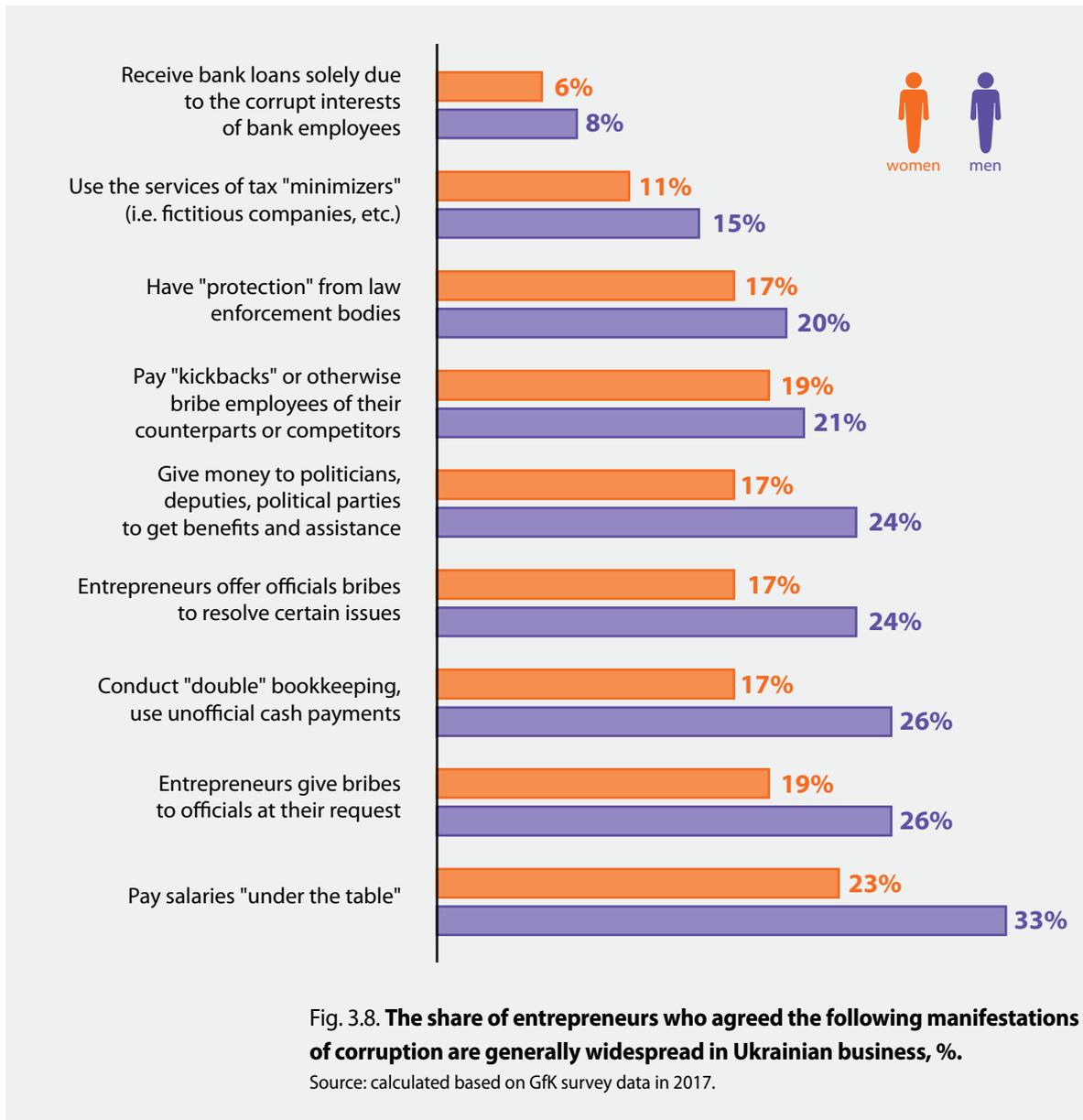
The most common manifestations of discrimination mentioned are a prejudiced attitude towards women in employment (14% of respondents), lower salaries for women than men doing similar work, and insufficient representation of women in businesses (10% of respondents). However, in practice, the depth of discrimination can be significantly greater because of the taboo nature of the topic and the inability of the public to recognize it.

The situation is exacerbated by low public awareness of rights, domestic legislation, the national mechanism for combating discrimination, and distrust towards organizations protecting civil rights. The level of awareness among the adult population of Ukraine regarding domestic legislation on gender equality remains relatively low: from 14% in relation to the prohibition of lower wages for women compared to men when performing work of equal value, to 44% on anti-trafficking legislation. Women living in rural areas and women with disabilities



<sup>64</sup> [http://ratingpro.org/research/gendernye\\_rol\\_i\\_stereotipy\\_v\\_ukraine.html#&gid=1&pid=6](http://ratingpro.org/research/gendernye_rol_i_stereotipy_v_ukraine.html#&gid=1&pid=6).

<sup>65</sup> UNFPA and GfK (2014). Assessment of Awareness of the Existence of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and its Related Laws, July 2014 / GfK, UNFPA: [http://www.mlsp.gov.ua/labour/control/uk/publish/category?cat\\_id=166710](http://www.mlsp.gov.ua/labour/control/uk/publish/category?cat_id=166710)



and other vulnerable populations also lack awareness of their rights and legislation that protects their rights.<sup>66</sup> In addition, Ukrainian women are more likely than men to have their social security rights violated (26% vs. 21%) and com-

plain more often about violations of respect for their private and family life (5% vs. 1%).<sup>67</sup>

In a corrupt society, the inability of the judicial system to protect the rights of vulnerable groups of

the population contributes to the exacerbation of a biased attitude and increased vulnerability to discrimination. Women are not always able to afford qualified lawyer services because of limited access to resources or defend

<sup>66</sup> Ibid

<sup>67</sup> What Ukrainians Know and Think about Human Rights: Nationwide Research / I. Bekeshkina, T. Pechonchik, V. Yavorsky and others; edited by T. Pechonchik, Kyiv, 2017: 308.

themselves in court against individuals who use corrupt connections for their own benefit. Therefore, corruption not only limits the ability to protect civil rights in the face of discrimination or prejudice, but also restricts general progress in the promotion of gender equality.

## THE CONSEQUENCES OF INEFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN UNSTABLE STATES

The negative impact of corruption on the lives of ordinary citizens increases in the context of political instability and humanitarian crises caused by armed conflicts or large-scale natural disasters. Unstable states are characterized by the weak adherence of the government to the rule of law, and the ineffective use of resources and protection of human rights.

In the context of limited access to public services, the prevalence of corrupt practices and the scale of abuses increases, while the search for justice for those encountering abuses of power is compromised

by the lack, or weakness, of the justice system.<sup>68</sup>

Violations of human rights in the context of humanitarian crises may also have different effects on women and men. In countries affected by armed conflicts or natural disasters, women constitute the majority of refugees and displaced persons, and thus encounter specific risks and vulnerabilities. In situations where humanitarian mission personnel or emergency response personnel are mostly men, opportunities for the abuse of entrusted power, risks of gender-based violence and other forms of exploitation of women and girls increase. The rise in poverty due to a lack of income and decent living conditions can lead to the prevalence of survival strategies that are not practiced by people under normal circumstances. In particular, there are reports of cases where refugees and other vulnerable women or children are forced to provide sexual favours in exchange for food, safety or essential goods. Therefore, the United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 "Women, Peace and Security" recommends measures be taken to respond to the whole spectrum of violations of women's rights in conflict situations, including, but not limited to, health, education, food, water, land, livelihood,

citizenship, and access to justice and legal protection.<sup>69</sup>

The development of the armed conflict in eastern Ukraine, and the formation of large-scale processes involving the displacement of the internal population, determine the particular urgency of these issues in Ukraine. For example, in June 2018, almost 1.5 million displaced people from Donbas and Crimea were registered by social protection units in other regions of the country.<sup>70</sup> According to the national situation monitoring system for internally displaced persons (IDPs), women constitute 58% of IDP households with the following age breakdown: 20% of those younger than 18 years old, 22% of 18-34 years old, 38% of 35-39 years old, and 20% of those 60 years and older.<sup>71</sup>

Displaced women remain more vulnerable regarding access to employment and income, according to the State Employment Service, as they account for two-thirds of all unemployed IDPs. For such women, it is much more difficult to adapt to new living conditions than for men, as in the midst of family separation and lack of external support, they become responsible for disabled family members. According to the findings of the gender analysis on respecting IDP rights, displaced

<sup>68</sup> Baranyi S. and Powell K. (2005). *Fragile States, Gender Equality and Aid Effectiveness: A Review of Donor Perspectives*.

<sup>69</sup> United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000), adopted by the Security Council at its 4213th meeting, on 31 October 2000 (S/RES/1325 (2000))

<sup>70</sup> 1 515 128 IDPs recorded / Ministry of Social Policy. - Access mode: <https://www.msp.gov.ua/news/15569.html>

<sup>71</sup> Report of the National System for Monitoring the Situation with IDPs / IOM, The Ministry of Social Policy, The Ministry of Temporarily Occupied Territories and IDPs. September 2017: 40.

women are additionally burdened with raising children (27% of men versus 42% of women among IDPs live with children under 18), and the number of women reporting they lack income and are forced to economize is significantly greater than the number of men.<sup>72</sup> The survey showed that IDP women contact the authorities and local service providers, human rights organizations, migration services, courts and law enforcement agencies more often than men. A noticeably higher percentage of displaced women also encounter issues dealing with social institutions, including requirements for additional documents, lack of clarification by officials, lack of information on procedures for processing

documents, etc. Although this survey did not include questions about experiences regarding corruption among IDPs, based on the evidence, it can be deduced that women are more vulnerable to such practices when dealing with officials.

The findings of a study on the prevalence of gender-based violence in the regions of eastern Ukraine affected by the conflict also confirmed the increased vulnerability of women living in, or near, various forms of violence. The proportion of IDP women who reported at least one case of violence by strangers was three times higher than that of local women who did not change their place of residence (15% of IDP

women compared to 5% of local women).<sup>73</sup> It is notable that polled women named their abusers not only as strangers or representatives of military groups, but also service providers; respondents reported isolated cases of violence by law enforcement officials, social, medical and even educational workers. The survey also recognized that several women polled reported that they had to provide sexual favours in exchange for food, goods or services. Such misuse of power by the authorities is an unmistakable manifestation of corruption. Moreover, they prove that corruption practices can acquire specific gender-based forms.

<sup>72</sup> Chumalo M. (2017). Report on the Gender Analysis of the Results of the All-Ukrainian Survey on Observing the Rights of IDPs compiled with the support of UNDP: 24.

<sup>73</sup> UNFPA and UCSR (2015). Gender-Based Violence in the Conflict-Affected Regions of Ukraine: Analytical Report, November 2015, Kyiv: 66.



# GENDER-SPECIFIC FORMS OF CORRUPTION

Although women and men mostly encounter the same forms of corruption, the negative effects of such abuses can have a greater impact on women, as they are combined with various manifestations of gender inequality and discrimination in society. At the same time, there are also specific forms of corruption caused by gender factors. ***Sexual favours demanded from women or girls in exchange for services or some preferences when providing services may become an informal "currency" of bribery.*** Unfortunately, such cases go unreported, as well as a significant number of cases of sexual harassment and violence, since the victims experience shame, guilt, or fear the offender. As a result of the widespread and community-based attitudes and stigmatization of the victims of violence, women do not seek help, expecting public condemnation or accusations of

their own provocative behaviour. Due to women's reluctance in seeking help, the collection and monitoring of data on such abuses remains a challenge.

Unfortunately, power abuse cases related to sexual harassment by government officials are found not only in the midst of conflict or post-conflict reconstruction, but also in the lives of ordinary citizens and even state officials. In particular, 15% of respondents from the 2014 UNDP study on gender aspects of corruption among civil servants indicated there was harassment, including that of a sexual nature, in the civil service.<sup>74</sup>

Vulnerable categories of women who do not always have the opportunity to seek justice to protect their rights are in a much worse position. In particular, women sex workers often report cases of abuse by law enforcement

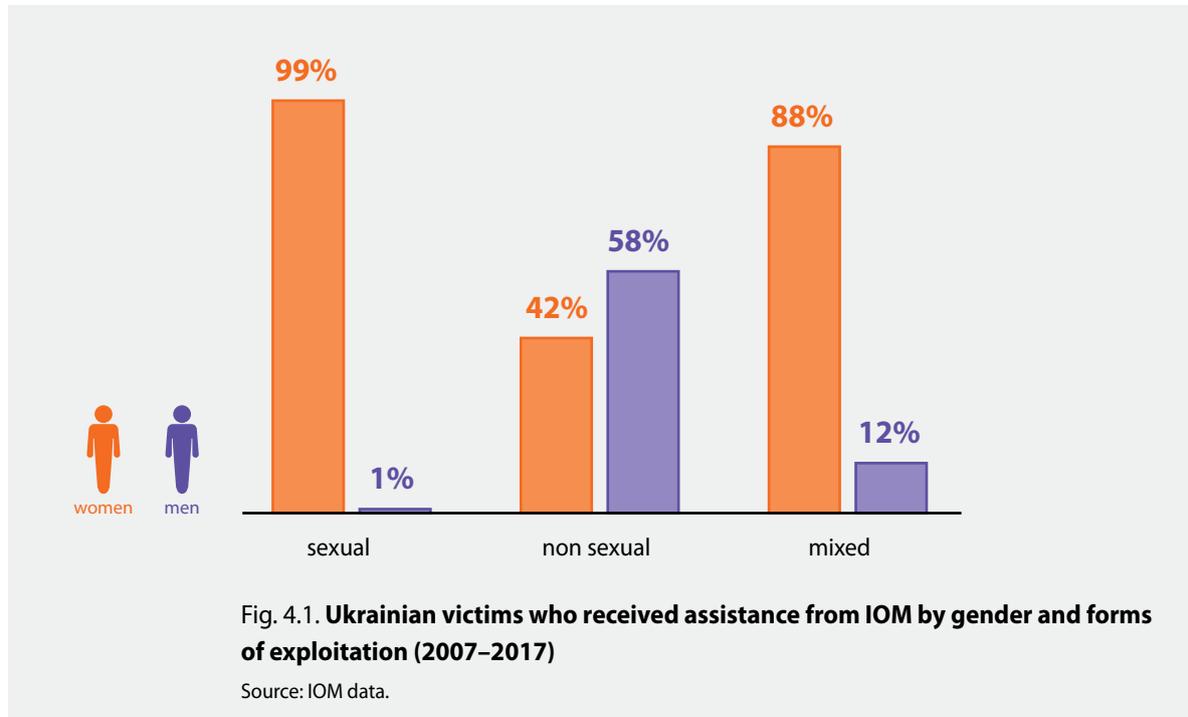
officials, who demand not only monetary incentives, but also sexual favours in exchange for a tolerant attitude. According to a survey of female sex workers conducted in 2016, almost every tenth female sex worker was subjected to physical abuse by law enforcement officials, while they also identified other violations of their rights, such as threats, blackmail, psychological pressure, humiliation and illegal detention.<sup>75</sup> Trafficking remains an equally important gender-sensitive issue. It is highlighted in international reports that ***organized human trafficking networks could not function without the existence of corrupt practices between officials and criminal organizations.***<sup>76</sup>

Corruption plays an important part at all stages of the trafficking process, including during recruitment of potential victims and the

<sup>74</sup> Halustyan Yu., Kovalchuk N. (2014). Analysis of Corruption Risks in Civil Service Related to Gender Equality / UNDP, Kyiv: 31.

<sup>75</sup> The Observance of the Rights of Vulnerable Groups (Drug Users and Sex Workers) in the Work of Law Enforcement Bodies: [analytical report on the results of the study] / Multiple authors. Yu. Bielousov, Z. Shvets, V. Semenyuk, V. Chuprov, S. Shvec, Kyiv, Palyvoda, 2016: 96.

<sup>76</sup> UNODC (2011). The Role of Corruption in Trafficking in Persons, UNODC, Issue Paper: 36; OECD (2016). Trafficking in Persons and Corruption: Breaking the Chain, OECD Public Governance Reviews, OECD Publishing, Paris.



production of fake documents, the facilitation of transportation and border crossings for victims, labour or sexual exploitation, the prevention of criminal investigations or protection for victims, and the imposition of biased court judgments. Such corrupt practices contribute to the "invisibility" of human trafficking crimes for society and state structures, the impunity of criminals, and the victimization of trafficking victims, even in cases where victims are identified and receive assistance. There are particularly favourable conditions for recruiting and controlling potential victims of trafficking in countries with high corruption rates, as people do not trust gov-

ernment institutions and do not expect any help from them.

According to estimates, the number of Ukrainian human trafficking victims ranges from 7 to 20 thousand people per year.<sup>77</sup> Together with a network of partner NGOs, from January 2000 to December 2017, the International Organization for Migration (IOM) provided comprehensive assistance for the reintegration of more than 14,000 victims of trafficking. Interestingly, before 2009 women (77-86%) were the main recipients of assistance, but in the following years the share of men began to increase in connection with an increase in the share of labour exploitation. While

women predominated among victims of sexual exploitation, men accounted for about 60% of labour exploitation (Fig. 4.1). In general, since 2012 men have accounted for more than half of the recipients of IOM assistance, and according to 2017 data, 1.6 times more men received assistance than women.<sup>78</sup>

Empirical evidence suggests that **gender-based forms of corruption are widespread among migrants, especially illegal migrants.** Women who travel alone face a particular risk of corruption and sexual exploitation, especially in societies where patriarchal gender rules prevail. Moreover, there is evidence that "women's bodies

<sup>77</sup> State Report on the Implementation of State Policy in Combating Human Trafficking in 2015 – the First Half of 2016, Kyiv, Institute for Demography and Social Studies NANU, 2016: 60.

<sup>78</sup> Combating Human Trafficking in Ukraine. IOM statistics as of December 31, 2017, [http://iom.org.ua/sites/default/files/iom\\_vot\\_statistics\\_ukrdec2017.pdf](http://iom.org.ua/sites/default/files/iom_vot_statistics_ukrdec2017.pdf)

*are used as currency not only in individual corrupt transactions for the purpose of crossing borders illegally, but also as an exchange commodity for entire migrant groups.*<sup>79</sup>

Gender-related forms of corruption remain an objective reality of the present, which must

be expressly recognized and dealt with appropriately through anti-corruption programs and policies. Today, such manifestations of corrupt practices are generalized in the context of the term *sextortion* in exchange for certain preferences or necessary services. Researchers and activists call for the concept to be considered in the context of

other forms of sexual harassment or sexual exploitation because of the impact of the corruption component: *"The perpetrator has to be in a position of power and abuse their authority, demanding sexual favours in exchange for the use of powers entrusted to them"*.<sup>80</sup>

<sup>79</sup> Merkle O., Reinold J., Siegel M. (2018). Corruption, Gender and Migration, Paper presented at the 2018 JECD Anti-Corruption and Integrity Forum: 18, <https://www.oecd.org/corruption/integrity-forum/academic-papers/Merkle.pdf>.

<sup>80</sup> IAWJ (2012). Stopping the Abuse of Power Through Sexual Exploitation: Naming, Shaming and Ending Sextortion. International Association of Women Judges.



# THE GENDER ASPECT OF ANTI-CORRUPTION ACTIVITIES

The existence of varying impacts of corruption on gender and of gender-specific forms of corruption, justifies the need to introduce a gender perspective into the formation of anti-corruption policies. Taking into account the different experiences of corruption, it can be assumed that women and men have differing ideas and methods on how to prevent abuses of power and to increase the effectiveness of anti-corruption activities. On the other hand, women and men professionally engaged in anti-corruption activities might consider different priorities, formulate different strategies for their implementation, and identify different enforcement actions.

For example, there are certain differences in how men and women understand the reasons for citizens not reporting the corrupt practices they encounter in their everyday lives (Figure 5.1). Slightly more Ukrainian men than women

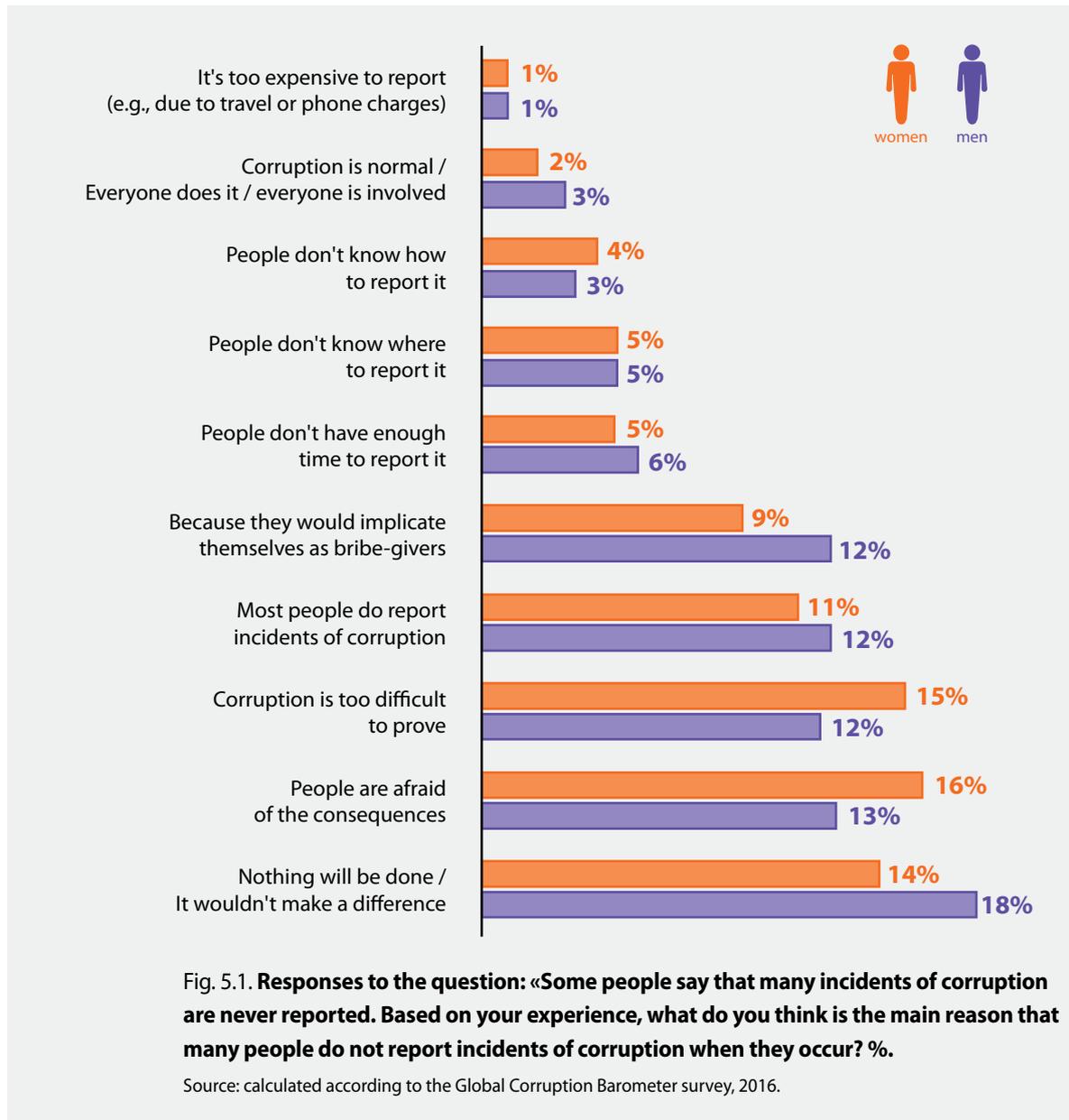
polled in the Global Corruption Barometer survey (2016) consider that individuals do not report corruption to the authorities because they believe nothing will change (18% of men and 14% of women). On the contrary, women are more likely to be uncertain and worried about the negative consequences of reporting corruption. In particular, 15% of women (compared with 12% of men) agreed that corruption goes unreported because it is too difficult to prove, and 16% of women (opposed to 13% of men) associate the causes of not reporting corruption with the anticipation of possible negative consequences. The experts from anti-corruption associations and organizations polled in this study share these views, emphasizing in their own comments that "*women typically hold back because of their family and children.*"

Certain differences can also be observed in the perceptions of wom-

en and men towards measures to increase the effectiveness of combating corruption (Figure 5.2). ***The men polled, especially entrepreneurs who typically represent the most active population groups, demonstrate much more decisive attitudes than women on how to increase the accountability of corrupt officials.*** In particular, the need to make punishments for corruption more severe was emphasized by every fourth man polled by GfK in 2017, compared to only 16% of women.<sup>81</sup>

Even greater differences in regard to increasing responsibility for corruption were observed among entrepreneurs surveyed in this study (25% of male entrepreneurs vs. 16% of female entrepreneurs). However, ***more women than men believe it is important to change the mentality of society, form a sense of responsibility among citizens, and to educate the next generation about corresponding values*** (19% of

<sup>81</sup> Corruption in Ukraine: 2017. Analysis of findings under the pilot application of the Methodology for the Assessment of the Corruption Level in Ukraine, Kyiv, GfK Ukraine.



female entrepreneurs vs. 10% of male entrepreneurs).

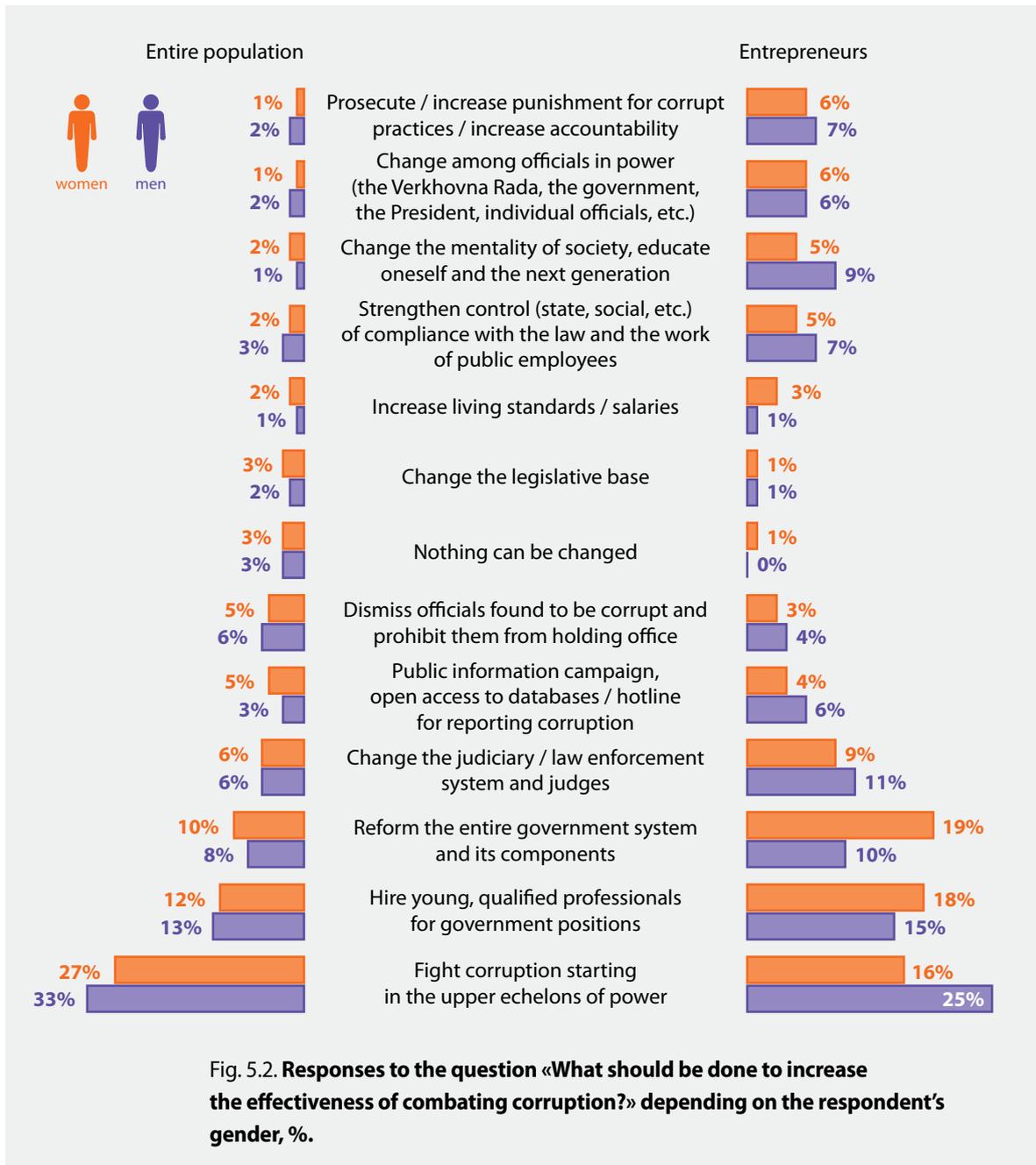
Unfortunately, the level of willingness of Ukrainians to personally combat corruption remains significantly lower than in other countries in Eastern Europe

and Central Asia, with the exception of Russia and Belarus (Annex E).

According to the Global Corruption Barometer survey of 2016, only 18% of men and 13% of women said they would feel personally responsible to report corruption if

they witness it, while 16% of men and 14% of women stated they would report corruption even if they had to spend the whole day in court testifying.

The KIIS survey in 2015 also confirms **the relatively high**



**willingness of men to take action to counter corruption.**<sup>82</sup>

A slightly higher proportion of men polled reported their willingness to

report known cases of corruption (48% of men and 44% of women) and join collective protests (48% of men and 42% of women) against local corrupt officials, if needed.

Nevertheless, data shows that the willingness to combat corruption also depends on age, as citizens in older age groups were considerably less prepared to actively combat

<sup>82</sup> KIIS (2015). The state of corruption in Ukraine. Comparative analysis of nationwide studies: 2007, 2009, 2011 and 2015: Kyiv International Institute of Sociology. – 68 p.

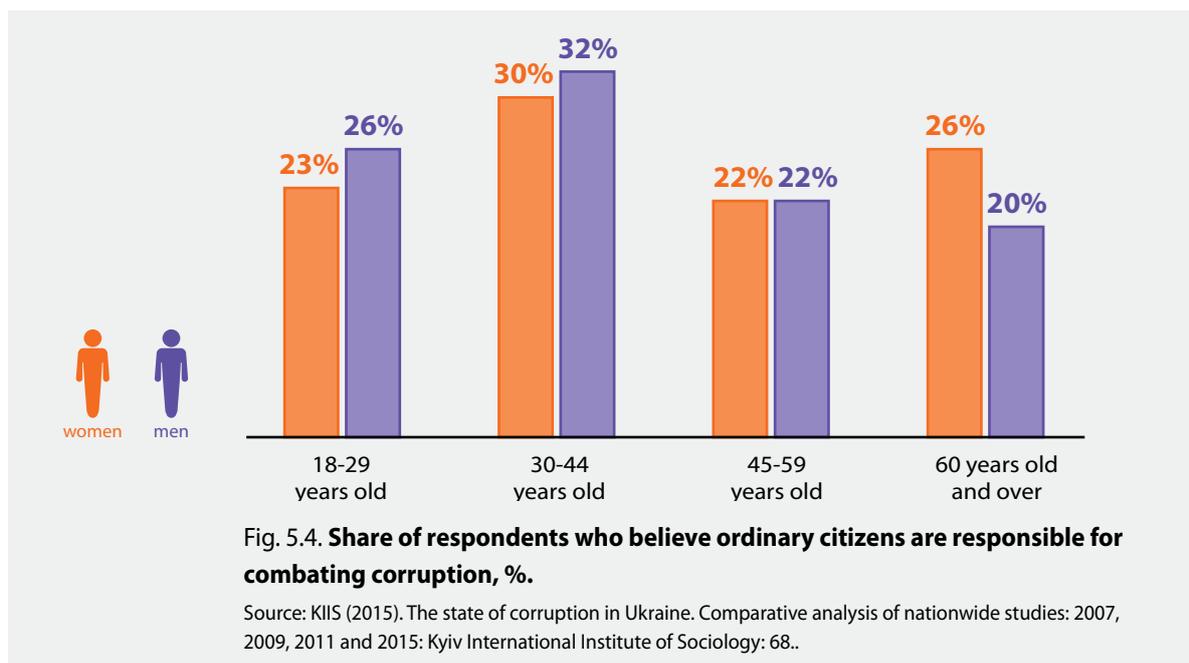


corruption than younger people (Figure 5.3).

In general, **middle-aged people demonstrated a higher level of**

**civic consciousness**, as almost one-third of respondents aged 30-44 agreed that ordinary citizens are also responsible for combating corruption. In the context of

gender analysis, it is noteworthy that among younger respondents there is a slightly higher proportion of men who take responsibility, while older men are more likely



to shift responsibility to someone else (Figure 5.4).

The use of gender analysis to assess anti-corruption activities at the national level reveals certain disproportions among the staff of anti-corruption bodies, including the National Anti-Corruption Bureau of Ukraine (NABU), the Specialized Anti-Corruption Prosecutor's Office (SAPO) and the National Agency on Corruption Prevention (NACP). As of May 2018, all three institutions were headed by men, and men also predominated in the top management of these institutions. Out of the three NABU deputy directors, only one was a woman, but among the heads of the 23 structural units of the Bureau and their deputies, fifteen were women. It is striking that women predominantly work as heads of structural units whose activities are related to support activities, such as document processing, accounting and finance, public relations and communications.<sup>83</sup>

When SAPO was established, the head of the program and two of his deputies were men. Men also dominated among the heads of the NACP, as only one woman was represented among the five NACP members. Although the gender structure of the Agency staff was close to parity (52% of women and 48% of men), there were significantly more men in managerial positions (58%), while specialists were predominately women (Figure 5.5).

In this context, a positive step forward for increasing attention to gender issues in the process of reforming the civil service in Ukraine is the introduction an authorized person (coordinator) within NACP in July 2018, tasked with ensuring equal rights and opportunities for women and men, and prevention and counteraction to gender-based violence.

In contrast, **public organizations and anti-corruption movements**

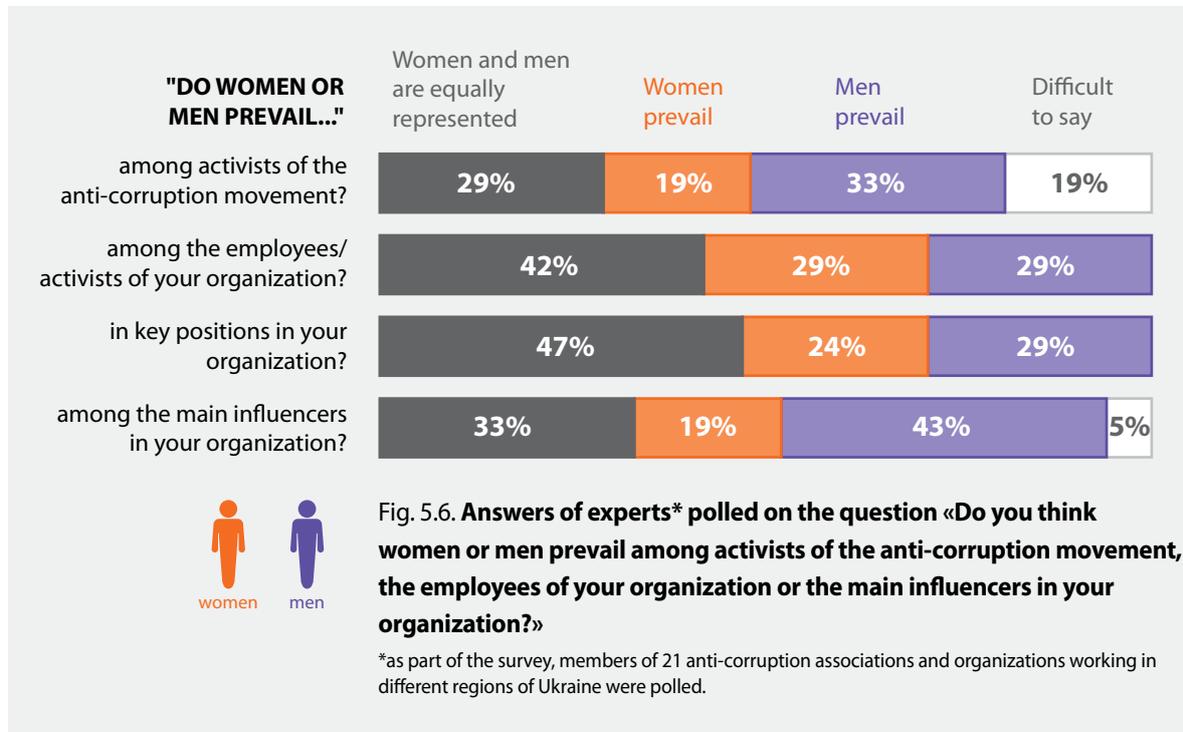
**operating locally are increasingly characterized by a gender-balanced staff and by gender parity in leadership positions.** These findings are based on a survey conducted among 21 anti-corruption associations and organizations. In particular, about half of all respondents reported women and men were equally represented among employees or activists of their organizations, as well as in key positions (Figure 5.6). One third of respondents said that women and men are equally represented within their organization's main influencers and in general within activists of the anti-corruption movements.

A large portion of experts agreed that **certain gender differences can be observed in the personal motives leading citizens to engage in anti-corruption activities.** Most activists polled supported the idea that men are more likely to be involved in anti-corruption activities because of their interest



Fig. 5.5. Number of National Agency employees in 2017, broken down by professional qualification and gender.

<sup>83</sup> <https://nabu.gov.ua/leadership>.



in the political and socio-economic processes taking place within the government, and in the allocation of resources, including public finances. One-third of activists polled believed that when pursuing higher education, men are more likely to choose majors needed for anti-corruption activities.

However, many experts agreed that women are more likely to engage in combating corruption because of their sensitivity to injustices in society, widespread experience of domestic corruption, and vulnerability to the negative effects of corruption. Interestingly, even activists hold gender-biased views. Some believed that women simply have more free time and men are involved in anti-corruption

activities because they consider this employment profitable and prestigious (Annex G).

According to polled activists, women and men may prefer different anti-corruption strategies: men are more likely to participate in organized campaigns, protests and demonstrations, and are also more likely to participate directly in litigation. On the other hand, women prefer "word of mouth," informing people around them about known cases of corruption. The experts agreed that women and men are equally involved in signing petitions, collective demands, appeals of citizens, reporting corruption cases to regulatory bodies, and exposing corruption in the media and social media.

In general, the majority of polled activists supported the need to take account of gender differences in the experience of corruption when planning anti-corruption programs and strategies. Although women were more unanimous about the feasibility of integrating the gender perspective (80% of polled women), more than half of polled men still supported this idea. Among the specific tools and measures of gender policy that can enhance the effectiveness of anti-corruption activities, about two-thirds of the experts have identified the following:

- observance of gender quotas in the electoral process at the national level
- increasing citizen awareness

of anti-discrimination legislation and the protections of their rights, including in the event of discrimination on the basis of gender

- implementation of information campaigns to change traditional gender stereotypes and overcome sexism in the information space
- creating conditions for the harmonious combination of professional and family responsibilities among employees with children

Gender policy measures such as support for women's leadership development programs and the expansion of women's employment, including women's entrepreneurship and the observance of gender quotas in the local electoral process, were less supported by respondents (50%-60% of the experts surveyed).

The idea of supporting gender parity in leading positions in large companies and organizations was supported only by one-fourth of the respondents.

Fewer than half of the anti-corruption activists supported the suggestion that the effectiveness of the fight against corruption would increase with the introduction of gender-responsive

budgeting (GRB) at all levels of government, along with support for local women's initiatives, organizations and associations. This may indicate a lack of gender sensitivity of the polled activists, or a lack of awareness of modern "participation budgeting" tools, as GRB is considered the most effective tool for ensuring gender equality, and for improving accountability and transparency in the use of budget funds.

In other words, GRB is a budgeting method designed to increase the cost-effectiveness of budget expenditures by considering the needs of women and men from various social and demographic groups.

According to commonly accepted approaches, GRB's main components include gender budgeting, subsequent changes in programs and budgets, and the systematic integration of GRB in the budget process. Since 2014, in partnership with the Ministry of Finance of Ukraine, the "Gender Budgeting Project in Ukraine"<sup>84</sup> has been **implemented to raise awareness among anti-corruption activists about the opportunities and benefits of GRB at the local and national level as important areas in strengthening the capacity of their organizations and associations.**

In general, the integration of

gender issues into the programming of anti-corruption measures should include a number of transparent recommendations, which promise to bring about positive inter-sectoral results:

- 1) use of gender-disaggregated data in the planning of activities, determination of the system of basic indicators and target indicators of monitoring, and evaluation of the effectiveness of implemented activities
- 2) conducting targeted studies to fill the existing information gaps on gender aspects of corruption in Ukraine, use of gender analysis in the process of assessing the needs of the population and identifying problematic issues in anti-corruption policy
- 3) ensuring gender balance among members of anti-corruption bodies to better take into account the interests and needs of both women and men.

<sup>84</sup> <http://grbproject.org/>



# CONCLUSION

Corruption continues to be the main obstacle to development, which in turn reduces the efficiency of resource use, slows down economic growth and sets the stage for human rights violations. Although corruption has a negative impact on the population as a whole, empirical evidence suggests that men and women perceive its manifestations and outcomes differently. Similarly, they encounter different forms of corruption and demonstrate different attitudes towards combating corruption. At the global level, the importance of the simultaneous promotion of gender equality, empowerment of women, and implementation of anti-corruption programs as mutually reinforcing development strategies is recognized.

According to poll results, more than half of Ukrainian citizens perceive corruption as one of the most significant issues in the country that the government should be addressing. Women and men were unanimous in critically assessing the effectiveness of government attempts to combat corruption and shared a lack of confidence in the opportunities available to ordinary people to effect change in this area. Unfortunately, this gives grounds to conclude that corruption has become so deeply embedded in the daily lives of the public that there is a certain consensus on these issues in society that does not depend on the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Compared to men, women tend to consider themselves to be less aware of corruption, making them relatively less likely to identify its manifestations in everyday life. As a result, corruption is perceived by women to be a widespread phenomenon in Ukraine, and fewer women than men believe that corrupt practices take place in the operations of domestic social institutions. It can be concluded that these differences are due to the impact of widespread gender norms linking the social roles of women with private (family) life rather than social life. This can result in women taking less of an interest in the sociopolitical processes and phenomena taking place in the country, including issues of corruption. Therefore, the information campaigns targeted at population

awareness raising should address this gender variation and articulate the negative effects of corruption in public institutions for all dimensions of everyday life of individuals and their families.

Corruption can have different impacts on the lives of women and men, thereby reinforcing gender inequalities in access to power, resources and opportunities. The increased vulnerability of women to the negative effects of corruption in public institutions presents itself in the following ways:

## INVOLVEMENT IN POLITICAL LIFE AND DECISION- MAKING

Women can shy away from the electoral process or not be accepted for management positions in public administration as a result of the influence of informal barriers ("glass ceiling" and "sticky floor") or "male" corporate networks. The disproportionately low representation of women in the Verkhovna Rada of Ukraine (12.3% of all deputies) and at the highest levels of state government (four women out of twenty-four government ministers) not only contradicts gender equality directives, but also serves as a barrier to promoting gender transformation in other areas. Although local self-governance bodies have traditionally remained more open to women, in the context of the modern decentralization of authority and transfer of a significant volume of financial resources to the field, new corruption challenges are being created that can further impede on women's access to managerial positions at this level.

## ACCESS TO BASIC PUBLIC SERVICES

The gender aspect of the impact of domestic corruption on citizens is most obvious in this area. According to the findings of the survey, the negative effects of domestic corruption are more likely to affect women's welfare due to the following reasons: 1) social norms place the responsibility of caring for minors and disabled family members on women, so they are more dependent on access to public services; 2) the vulnerability of women to abuse by officials is conditioned by the need for specific medical services related to birth and childcare in the early years of their lives; 3) women prevail among the low-income and socially vulnerable groups of the population, whose standard of living is largely determined by targeted justice and generosity of the country's social policy. In this regard, the lack, or poor quality of necessary local services can be perceived by women as a component of corruption, as they are associated with the misuse of power by the authorities and failure to fulfil their duties as community leaders. Domestic surveys also show that women and men can have different experiences of corruption when interacting with various service providers, and the proportion of citizens who have experience making informal payments or giving gifts to receive certain services is increasing in rural areas and among young people.

## ACCESS TO THE LABOUR MARKET AND RESOURCES

The barriers and limitations faced by women in terms of employment and access to resources may be in part due to corruption. When seeking employment, women are more likely to use employment centres than men and may be more vulnerable to abuse by officials in these institutions. However, informal employment is more widespread among men, which makes them more vulnerable to corrupt practices by supervisors. Although the majority of domestic companies refer to corruption as one of the main obstacles to doing business, men tend to give more radical assessments: corruption was identified as the main obstacle for 40% of companies with male top managers, and 28% of companies with female top managers. It can also be deduced that corruption is perceived by female entrepreneurs as less of a barrier to doing business because they face other, equally important challenges related to the impact of gender inequality (limited access to loans, funding programs, business networks, etc.). Domestic polls show that women are less likely to face corrupt practices in business (15% of female entrepreneurs vs. 28% of male entrepreneurs). However, few associate moral or ethical guidelines as reasons for refraining from bribery - lack of funds or experience was deemed as a greater reason for avoiding corrupt practices. Similar to the rest of the country's population, women entrepreneurs judge their own self-awareness of forms of corruption significantly lower than men.

## HUMAN RIGHTS VIOLATIONS

Human rights violations are closely linked to corruption, as corrupt institutions and administrative bodies can hinder the ability of the public to seek justice. Discrimination and a biased attitude based on gender remain commonplace in Ukraine, as 4 to 14% of respondents from sociological surveys encountered various forms of human rights violations. Women, especially vulnerable women and women living in rural areas, have a significantly lower level of awareness of the opportunities available to them to protect their own rights, and they often have limited resources to employ the services of a qualified lawyer in order to seek justice. Therefore, corruption contributes to discrimination and human rights violations going unpunished, while the gender aspect curtails progress in promoting gender equality in society.

## THE CONSEQUENCES OF INEFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN UNSTABLE STATES

The consequences of ineffective governance in unstable states are particularly relevant in times of crisis, when weakness in, or absence of, the justice system makes it impossible for citizens to seek justice. Women are particularly vulnerable to the consequences of armed conflict and forced displacement, as the loss of their normal living conditions is compounded by manifestations of gender inequality when accessing employment and generating income. Women are considered responsible for the welfare of disabled members of households (children, the elderly, people with disabilities), which determines their dependence on public services, and hence the vulnerability to abuse by officials.

## GENDER-BASED FORMS OF CORRUPTION

In the context of a humanitarian crisis, women and girls encounter increased risks to gender-based violence and cases of abuse by authorities, as protection services or essential commodities are bartered in return for sexual favours.

Gender-based forms of corruption, summarized in international practice as part of the concept of "sextortion," manifest not only in times of crisis, but also in the everyday lives of citizens. Vulnerable groups of women—commercial sex workers, refugees and illegal migrants, victims of trafficking and others—encounter particular risks of corruption in the form of sexual favours as currency". Furthermore, about 15% of state officials polled in the Ukrainian surveys agreed that sexual harassment exists in the civil service system.

The existence of gender differences in the impact of corruption on the population determines the need to integrate gender issues in the development and implementation of anti-corruption strategies and programs. In light of the differences in the personal experience of corruption, women and men can propose and take measures to prevent abuse of power and increase the effectiveness of anti-corruption activities in different ways. In particular, men of younger and middle ages show relatively more readiness to pursue active anti-corruption measures than women. They also more often support decisive measures to fight corruption, such as increasing the responsibility of corrupt officials, while women are more inclined to emphasize the expediency of gradual approaches, changing the mentality of citizens, and the need to properly educate future generations. To better understand the factors that motivate men and women to get involved in anti-corruption activity and determine their preferences in terms of specific impact actions, additional population-based surveys are needed to provide qualitative and quantitative data. Based on these studies, efficient target communication strategies can be developed, as well as ways to promote men's and women's participation in anti-corruption activities.

The gender composition of the staff of state anti-corruption bodies shows certain imbalances, as men prevail in managerial positions. At the same time, anti-corruption civil society movements are characterized by greater gender balance among activists and circles of influence. Most representatives of the anti-corruption movement surveyed in this study recognized the need to integrate gender issues into the programming and implementation of anti-corruption measures. Polled activists also agreed that the measures proposed by modern gender policies could contribute to increasing the effectiveness of several initiatives. They can fight against corruption, especially in regard to observing gender quotas in the national election process, raising citizen awareness of anti-discrimination legislation and advocacy options for their own rights in the event of discrimination, and the implementation of information campaigns to change traditional gender stereotypes and combat sexism. Measures such as the introduction of gender quotas for leadership positions, the development of

women's leadership, support for grassroots initiatives of women's organizations, and the introduction of gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) at all levels received somewhat less support among activists. The low level of support of gender-responsive budgeting may indicate a lack of awareness of civil activists regarding the content and benefits of this concept, as in international practice GRB is considered the most effective tool for ensuring fair distribution of outcomes of economic development and participatory approaches to budget-planning. In turn, participatory budgeting addresses the interests of all social and demographic groups of the population and contributes to increasing the accountability and transparency of the use of budget funds. Under the support of international organizations, initiatives currently being implemented in Ukraine to introduce GRB and raise awareness among anti-corruption activists about its capabilities at the local and national level should be considered an important way to strengthen the capacity of their organizations and associations.

In general, the integration of gender issues in anti-corruption measures and policies involves implementing a series of transparent recommendations related to the use of gender-disaggregated data in the planning, monitoring and evaluation of programs, conducting case studies on the gender aspects of corruption to fill in current information gaps, and ensuring gender parity among members of the anti-corruption movement and officials of state bodies authorized to fight corruption. It is equally important to conduct a structural analysis of the issue of gender discrimination, as its manifestations are conditioned by institutional factors and aggravated by the impact of corruption. The proper conditions for the introduction of structural changes to reduce gender inequality in society are currently being formed in the midst of systemic reforms taking place in Ukraine. The issues of strengthening human rights protection, raising awareness among the population on interrelated instruments for combating discrimination, ensuring the rule of law, and combating corruption still remain unresolved. In the context of gender development, the gradual transformation of gender stereotypes and the formation of guidelines for the impartial and equal treatment of women and men in various spheres of society is of the utmost importance. The systematic implementation of these measures will increase the effectiveness of the fight against corruption and heed to the interests and needs of all members of the population, both women and men.



# ANNEXES

**ANNEX A.** PERCEPTION OF THE MOST IMPORTANT PROBLEMS IN UKRAINE TO BE ADDRESSED BY THE GOVERNMENT FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF RESPONDENTS OF THE GLOBAL CORRUPTION BAROMETER SURVEY, 2016.

| Problems                           | Men, % | Women, % |
|------------------------------------|--------|----------|
| Economics                          | 71     | 67       |
| Corruption / bribery               | 52     | 58       |
| Health                             | 45     | 50       |
| Political instability and security | 35     | 33       |
| Unemployment                       | 29     | 28       |
| Crime                              | 23     | 25       |
| Education                          | 23     | 23       |
| Environment                        | 10     | 8        |
| Transport, roads, infrastructure   | 9      | 7        |
| Immigration                        | 1      | 1        |

Source: calculated according to the Global Corruption Barometer survey, 2016

## ANNEX B. VALUES OF UKRAINIAN CITIZENS CONCERNING CORRUPTION: GENDER DIFFERENCES

| Statements   | Men, % | Women, % |
|--|--------|----------|
| If the salaries of public employees are increased substantially, they will not take bribes                                       | 36     | 39       |
| Bribery is an integral part of the Ukrainian mentality   | 68     | 66       |
| All people must follow laws, even those they consider unfair   | 69     | 70       |
| If an issue can be solved by paying off a public employee, most people in Ukraine will try to take advantage of this opportunity | 74     | 72       |
| I am willing to report cases of corruption I have become aware of  | 48     | 44       |
| Ordinary citizens can also refuse to abide by laws if high ranking officials also ignore them                                    | 32     | 32       |
| The salary of public workers is so low they simply have to accept unofficial payments for their services                         | 43     | 43       |
| People offering a bribe should be held equally accountable as people accepting a bribe   | 68     | 68       |
| I am willing to join a protest against local corrupt officials   | 48     | 42       |
| I will not receive any services, such as medical aid or higher education, unless I give bribes                                   | 60     | 60       |
| Corrupt officials should be removed from office  | 94     | 94       |

Source: KIIS (2015). The state of corruption in Ukraine. Comparative analysis of nationwide studies: 2007, 2009, 2011 and 2015: 68 p.

**ANNEX C.** RESPONSES TO THE QUESTION “DID YOU OR ANY MEMBER OF YOUR HOUSEHOLD MAKE AN UNOFFICIAL PAYMENT OR GIFT WHEN USING THESE SERVICES OVER THE PAST 12 MONTHS?”,  
% of respondents who have used the respective services

| Countries      | Interaction with the road police |           | Request official documents |           | Go to court for a civil matter |           | Receive public education (primary or secondary) |           |
|----------------|----------------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------|-----------|---|-----------|
|                | men                              | women     | men                        | women     | men                            | women     | men   | women     |
| Armenia        | 22                               | 22        | 8                          | 5         | 0                              | 13        | 27  | 5         |
| Azerbaijan     | 34                               | 32        | 16                         | 15        | 28                             | 0         | 20  | 17        |
| Belarus        | 12                               | 28        | 5                          | 6         | 0                              | 7         | 14  | 22        |
| Bulgaria       | 11                               | 17        | 0                          | 4         | 0                              | 7         | 10  | 5         |
| Czech Republic | 3                                | 3         | 5                          | 4         | 0                              | 0         | 3   | 5         |
| Estonia        | 1                                | 0         | 1                          | 1         | 0                              | 0         | 4   | 3         |
| Georgia        | 2                                | 4         | 6                          | 8         | 0                              | 12        | 1   | 8         |
| Hungary        | 3                                | 4         | 0                          | 3         | 0                              | 14        | 6   | 7         |
| Kazakhstan     | 51                               | 41        | 16                         | 21        | 29                             | 34        | 16  | 17        |
| Kyrgyzstan     | 47                               | 48        | 25                         | 22        | 30                             | 41        | 11  | 14        |
| Latvia         | 12                               | 8         | 2                          | 0         | 0                              | 5         | 4   | 4         |
| Lithuania      | 7                                | 5         | 2                          | 0         | 6                              | 0         | 0   | 8         |
| Moldova        | 46                               | 28        | 20                         | 12        | 33                             | 8         | 23  | 23        |
| Poland         | 6                                | 3         | 0                          | 1         | 0                              | 5         | 3   | 2         |
| Romania        | 12                               | 6         | 3                          | 6         | 14                             | 0         | 20  | 27        |
| Russia         | 30                               | 17        | 18                         | 6         | 0                              | 14        | 36  | 23        |
| Slovakia       | 5                                | 5         | 5                          | 9         | 19                             | 8         | 1   | 2         |
| Tajikistan     | 62                               | 68        | 49                         | 45        | 55                             | 24        | 24  | 27        |
| Turkey         | 0                                | 17        | 10                         | 13        | 25                             | 19        | 12  | 20        |
| <b>Ukraine</b> | <b>28</b>                        | <b>38</b> | <b>20</b>                  | <b>24</b> | <b>15</b>                      | <b>31</b> | <b>41</b>                                       | <b>34</b> |
| Uzbekistan     | 13                               | 21        | 3                          | 4         | 0                              | 0         | 9   | 18        |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>16</b>                        | <b>15</b> | <b>8</b>                   | <b>7</b>  | <b>11</b>                      | <b>9</b>  | <b>9</b>  | <b>9</b>  |

| Countries      | Receive public education (vocation) |           | Receive medical treatment in the public health system |           | Request unemployment benefits |           | Request other social security benefits |          |
|----------------|-------------------------------------|-----------|---|-----------|-------------------------------|-----------|--|----------|
|                | men                                 | women     | men   | women     | men                           | women     | men                                    | women    |
| Armenia        | 0                                   | 0         | 19  | 21        | 4                             | 2         | 16                                     | 7        |
| Azerbaijan     | 24                                  | 26        | 25  | 40        | 38                            | 53        | 32                                     | 35       |
| Belarus        | 9                                   | 10        | 17  | 18        | 2                             | 4         | 3                                      | 4        |
| Bulgaria       | 20                                  | 12        | 16  | 16        | 0                             | 4         | 4                                      | 4        |
| Czech Republic | 0                                   | 5         | 8   | 9         | 3                             | 0         | 4                                      | 2        |
| Estonia        | 0                                   | 0         | 3   | 6         | 0                             | 0         | 2                                      | 3        |
| Georgia        | 13                                  | 21        | 4   | 3         | 26                            | 22        | 18                                     | 6        |
| Hungary        | 0                                   | 5         | 23  | 21        | 3                             | 2         | 6                                      | 3        |
| Kazakhstan     | 20                                  | 25        | 22  | 19        | 33                            | 32        | 23                                     | 18       |
| Kyrgyzstan     | 25                                  | 22        | 23  | 29        | 10                            | 20        | 13                                     | 19       |
| Latvia         | 0                                   | 0         | 14  | 11        | 4                             | 2         | 0                                      | 1        |
| Lithuania      | 15                                  | 6         | 22  | 25        | 2                             | 4         | 5                                      | 0        |
| Moldova        | 27                                  | 37        | 44  | 41        | 12                            | 3         | 14                                     | 3        |
| Poland         | 10                                  | 1         | 7   | 6         | 0                             | 0         | 0                                      | 8        |
| Romania        | 8                                   | 14        | 33  | 33        | 0                             | 11        | 0                                      | 0        |
| Russia         | 17                                  | 31        | 31  | 21        | 0                             | 10        | 0                                      | 8        |
| Slovakia       | 6                                   | 1         | 9   | 12        | 0                             | 5         | 0                                      | 5        |
| Tajikistan     | 49                                  | 39        | 46  | 46        | 44                            | 60        | 17                                     | 0        |
| Turkey         | 10                                  | 23        | 9   | 15        | 18                            | 24        | 5                                      | 18       |
| <b>Ukraine</b> | <b>33</b>                           | <b>27</b> | <b>31</b>   | <b>35</b> | <b>6</b>                      | <b>13</b> | <b>5</b>                               | <b>7</b> |
| Uzbekistan     | 6                                   | 21        | 17  | 16        | 16                            | 11        | 8                                      | 5        |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>11</b>                           | <b>11</b> | <b>15</b>   | <b>15</b> | <b>7</b>                      | <b>8</b>  | <b>7</b>                               | <b>6</b> |

Source: calculated according to the Global Corruption Barometer survey, 2016.

**ANNEX D.** SHARE OF RESPONDENTS WHO ENCOUNTERED INFORMAL PRACTICES IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS, DEPENDING ON GENDER, %

| Manifestations of corruption  | Kindergarten |       | Secondary education |       | Higher education |       | Educational courses |       |
|---|--------------|-------|---------------------|-------|------------------|-------|---------------------|-------|
|   | men          | women | men                 | women | men              | women | men                 | women |
| Significant additional non-official expenses (personally for employees, tutors or teachers for tuition, student accommodations, etc.) of UAH 300 and more | 10           | 8     | 13                  | 9     | 26               | 18    | 17                  | 8     |
| Obligatory charitable contributions (for repairing buildings, purchasing equipment, etc.)   | 72           | 65    | 73                  | 72    | 28               | 20    | 0                   | 18    |
| Forced acquisition of textbooks or other publications by teachers as a condition for obtaining a grade or passing an examination                          | 7            | 5     | 19                  | 19    | 28               | 27    | 0                   | 8     |
| Inexpensive gifts (up to UAH 300) for lecturers, teachers and educators in exchange for their services  | 44           | 43    | 39                  | 38    | 27               | 23    | 5                   | 17    |
| Use of personal ties, acquaintances (nepotism) to resolve certain issues, obtain benefits, get higher grades, etc.  | 6            | 4     | 3                   | 4     | 15               | 9     | 4                   | 0     |

Source: calculated based on GfK survey data in 2017.

## ANNEX E. SHARE OF RESPONDENTS WHO GENERALLY AGREE WITH STATEMENTS ABOUT THE WILLINGNESS OF CITIZENS TO FIGHT CORRUPTION, %

| Countries          | In our society it is generally acceptable for people to report a case of corruption they witness |           | If I would witness an act of corruption, I would feel personally obliged to report it |           | I would report a case of corruption even if I would have to spend a day in court to give evidence |           |
|--------------------|--|-----------|---|-----------|---|-----------|
|                    | men  | women     | men   | women     | men   | women     |
| Armenia            | 15   | 16        | 22  | 25        | 17  | 20        |
| Azerbaijan         | 37   | 39        | 44  | 41        | 43  | 34        |
| Belarus            | 10   | 12        | 9   | 11        | 7   | 7         |
| Bulgaria           | 16   | 14        | 31  | 27        | 23  | 21        |
| Czech Republic     | 38   | 33        | 42  | 36        | 31  | 27        |
| Estonia            | 34   | 32        | 49  | 48        | 42  | 38        |
| Georgia            | 40   | 49        | 34  | 42        | 30  | 32        |
| Hungary            | 14   | 12        | 21  | 22        | 18  | 20        |
| Kazakhstan         | 27   | 24        | 36  | 30        | 29  | 28        |
| Kyrgyzstan         | 49   | 49        | 45  | 46        | 44  | 44        |
| Latvia             | 39   | 41        | 51  | 47        | 39  | 35        |
| Lithuania          | 16   | 15        | 37  | 37        | 26  | 22        |
| Moldova            | 31   | 35        | 35  | 38        | 30  | 30        |
| Poland             | 23   | 24        | 39  | 33        | 30  | 28        |
| Romania            | 42   | 38        | 45  | 35        | 40  | 32        |
| Russian Federation | 14   | 18        | 18  | 19        | 12  | 14        |
| Slovakia           | 23   | 20        | 21  | 20        | 17  | 14        |
| Tajikistan         | 26   | 25        | 30  | 29        | 25  | 23        |
| Turkey             | 63   | 66        | 65  | 58        | 62  | 63        |
| <b>Ukraine</b>     | <b>11</b>  | <b>11</b> | <b>18</b>   | <b>13</b> | <b>16</b>   | <b>14</b> |
| <b>Total</b>       | <b>36</b>  | <b>35</b> | <b>41</b>   | <b>37</b> | <b>34</b>   | <b>31</b> |

Source: calculated according to the Global Corruption Barometer survey, 2016

## ANNEX F. CORRUPTION PRACTICES WHEN CONDUCTING BUSINESS DEPENDING ON THE GENDER OF THE TOP MANAGER OF THE COMPANY, %

| Indicator   | Ukraine               |                     | Europe and Central Asia |                     |
|---|-----------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|
|   | top manager is female | top manager is male | top manager is female   | top manager is male |
| Bribery incidence (percent of firms experiencing at least one bribe payment request)    | 51                    | 50                  | 14                      | 13                  |
| Bribery depth (% of public transactions where a gift or informal payment was requested) | 49                    | 44                  | 11                      | 10                  |
| Percent of firms expected to give gifts in meetings with tax officials                  | 48                    | 51                  | 11                      | 10                  |
| Percent of firms expected to give gifts to secure government contract                   | N/A                   | 99                  | 28                      | 22                  |
| Value of gift expected to secure a government contract (% of contract value)            | N/A                   | 15                  | 1                       | 2                   |
| Percent of firms expected to give gifts to get an operating license                     | 44                    | 32                  | 11                      | 12                  |
| Percent of firms expected to give gifts to get an import license                        | 23                    | 44                  | 11                      | 9                   |
| Percent of firms expected to give gifts to get a construction permit                    | 76                    | 73                  | 21                      | 19                  |
| Percent of firms expected to give gifts to get a water connection                       | 14                    | 17                  | 11                      | 8                   |
| Percent of firms expected to give gifts to public officials "to get things done"        | 88                    | 70                  | 21                      | 17                  |
| Percent of firms expected to give gifts to get an electrical connection                 | N/A                   | 28                  | 17                      | 12                  |
| Percent of firms identifying corruption as a major constraint to doing business         | 28                    | 40                  | 21                      | 20                  |
| Percent of firms identifying the courts system as a major constraint to doing business  | 3                     | 5                   | 6                       | 6                   |

Source: calculated based on the findings of the World Bank enterprises survey, 2013.

Note: statistics derived from less than or equal to five firms are displayed with an «N.A.» to maintain confidentiality of respondents. This data should be distinguished from missing values.

## ANNEX G. DISTRIBUTION OF ANSWERS OF POLLED EXPERTS\* ON REASONS AND MOTIVES ENCOURAGING WOMEN OR MEN TO GET INVOLVED IN ANTI-CORRUPTION ACTIVITIES, %

| Reasons behind anti-corruption activities   | Mainly women | Mainly men | Representatives of both sexes equally |
|---|--------------|------------|---------------------------------------|
| More sensitive to any manifestation of injustice in society   | 48           | 4          | 48                                    |
| More affected by the consequences of corruption   | 19           | 0          | 81                                    |
| More faced with manifestations of business corruption / corruption in the workplace   | 24           | 19         | 57                                    |
| More faced with manifestations of domestic corruption   | 43           | 0          | 57                                    |
| Feel more responsibility for the welfare of their families (are involved in the fight against corruption if it directly affects their families) | 24           | 24         | 52                                    |
| In general, they have a more active social position in society  | 29           | 5          | 67                                    |
| More interested in the political and socio-economic processes taking place in the country   | 10           | 57         | 33                                    |
| More interested in the allocation of resources, including public finances   | 5            | 43         | 52                                    |
| In higher education institutions, they are more likely to choose majors needed in anti-corruption activities                                    | 10           | 29         | 62                                    |
| Consider anti-corruption activities as a profitable and prestigious form of employment  | 0            | 24         | 76                                    |
| Have more free time   | 33           | 19         | 48                                    |

\* as part of the survey, members of 21 anti-corruption associations and organizations working in various regions of Ukraine were polled.





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