Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe PARLIAMENTARY ASSEMBLY

## OSCE PA

# Gender Balance Report June-July 2009 

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## I. Introduction

Since 2001, the Special Representative on Gender Issues of the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly (OSCE PA) has issued an annual report on the gender balance situation in the OSCE region, which includes an analysis of the OSCE Gender Disaggregated Statistics, as well as the situation within the OSCE PA.

This year, the Special Representative on Gender Issues, Vice-President Tone Tingsgaard of Sweden, decided to focus on the gender implications of the Global Economic Crisis. The ways in which the crisis is impacting on women will be analyzed, with an emphasis on "creative solutions" to address the gender gap. Next, the impact of the financial crisis on female labour migration and the gender dimension of remittances are examined in closer detail, as well as measures that have been taken by the OSCE to address this social challenge.

The third chapter is devoted to Women's Participation in Decision-Making and Leadership, and related trends within the OSCE area. The advancement of gender equality within the OSCE PA will also be explored, with particular attention to the Amendment of the Rules of Procedure proposed by Ms. Tingsgaard during the OSCE PA Winter Meetings 2009.

The fourth section of this report will focus on the gender balance situation in the various Structures, Institutions, and Field Missions of the OSCE, by means of the Gender Disaggregated Statistics. Although the Gender Action Plan can be a useful tool, it has had little discernible success so far in increasing the number of women in management positions. While it addresses the issue of recruitment, it neglects to offer an alteration of the internal regulations that would allow women more complete access to opportunities within the OSCE. The Staff Rules have been amended several times in recent years, but without any tangible improvements in regards to gender issues.

The last section focuses on gender within the bodies of the OSCE PA (Bureau, General Committees), considering also the general participation at OSCE PA meetings and election observation activities and statistics on the Secretariat.

## II. Special Issue: The Global Economic Crisis and its Gender Implications

While the economic crisis is detrimental for both women and men, women who are often trapped in insecure employment situations with low productivity and low earnings may be disproportionately affected. This is particularly true for women in the agricultural sector, which in many developing economies is still the predominant source of employment. In wage and salaried employment across all sectors, women face persistent earnings gaps that cannot always be explained by differences in skills, experience, or tenure. ${ }^{1}$

Economic recession is characterized by growing unemployment, lower real income of households and subsequent problems aggravated by the challenges following unemployment. These problems are particularly visible among women, which, though legally prohibited, are stronger discriminated while recruiting and dismissing employees and often get lower salaries as they have to combine family responsibilities with their work.

Sustainable responses to the crisis require identifying the factors underlying the crisis and its rapid spread around the world. It is imperative, in this respect, to understand the crisis in all its dimensions and have the concerted effort of all the different players to be able to ease the effects and protect the most vulnerable groups.

## a. Gender perspective on the Global Economic Crisis

Access to full and productive employment is crucial for all, both women and men. Women are employed in greater numbers and more women complete higher education degrees, even overtaking men. However, women are hit by termination of employment in greater numbers, earn on average 15 per cent less

[^0]than men $^{2}$ and continue to be under-represented in political and economic decision-making processes.

The economic crisis is expected to increase the number of unemployed women by as many as 22 million in 2009, the International Labour Office (ILO) said in its annual Global Employment Trends for Women report ${ }^{3}$. Women suffer many disadvantages in terms of access to labour markets, and often do not have the same level of freedom as men to choose to work. Gender differences in labour force participation rates and unemployment rates are a persistent feature of global labour markets.

However, a distinction should be made between the continued disadvantaged position of women in global labour markets, and the immediate impact of the current economic crisis. The depth and extent of the crisis is difficult to predict and the impact of the crisis is likely to vary according to country, geographic region and employment sector, but it is expected that women and girls in both developed and developing countries will be particularly affected. Evidence from past crises show that economic recessions put a disproportionate burden on women as they tend to have lower unemployment and social security benefits. A systematic gender analysis of the current global economic crisis is critical for developing viable solutions and upholding human rights standards ${ }^{4}$. There are also legal frameworks that could be considered during this critical period.

## b. The impact of the financial crisis on female labour migration

In recent years the number female migrants has increased significantly in response to changing labour markets globally, particularly the massive demand

[^1]for cheap female labour from poor countries to fill the growing demand for caregivers in rich countries. In 2005 it was estimated that one of every 35 people lived outside of the country where he or she was born. Nearly 49.6 per cent of the 190 million migrants were women ${ }^{5}$.

Unfortunately, the migratory process presents new modalities of exclusion, invisibility and inequalities in the lives of many women. Perhaps the most notable feature of female migration is the extent to which it is founded upon the continued reproduction and exploitation of gender inequalities by global capitalism. For the most part, female labour migrants perform 'women's work' as nannies, maids and sex workers -the worst possible occupational niches in terms of remuneration, working conditions, legal protections and social recognition.

Gender inequality in the source countries also plays an important role in the migratory decision, in a number of ways: for instance, women are often selected to migrate by their families based on the expectation that they will sacrifice themselves to a greater degree than men for the welfare of their families, remit a higher proportion of their earnings and endure worse living conditions ${ }^{6}$.

Besides the structural demand for migrant workers, wages are likely to fall and work conditions might worsen as companies and employers seek to cut down expenses. Likewise, social services provisions are likely to be reduced, impacting on migrants' quality of life and health. The wage cuts can especially affect female migrants who often work in informal or unregulated sectors.

In times of crises, women also take on additional responsibilities to provide non-market substitutes for goods that their families can no longer afford, and they assume increased responsibility for household care giving. The impact of

[^2]the current crisis is likely to result in increased activity in the informal economy and will reverse gains in women's empowerment, gender equality and poverty reduction.

The scale and impact of the current crisis is still largely unknown, however, migrant workers are often the first to lose their jobs. Women migrants, especially those in irregular situations, are particularly vulnerable to harassment, intimidation or threats to themselves and their families, economic and sexual exploitation, racial discrimination, poor working conditions, increased health risks and various forms of abuse, including trafficking into forced labour, debt bondage, involuntary servitude and situations of captivity. Thus, female migrants are multi-affected by the crisis: as women on the one hand and as migrants on the other hand.

Moreover, due to the crisis many countries are adopting or planning to adopt more restrictive immigration policies. Even before the crisis, many policies that aimed to manage immigration incorporated a gendered bias based on the breadwinner role. More restrictive policies will therefore have a direct impact on women. A reduction in the number of migrants to be admitted for employment has already been announced in some countries or is under discussion in others.

When unemployed migrants return to their countries of origin (or regions of origin in the case of internal migration) they are likely to face inferior economic conditions. For women, return could mean losing the economic independence obtained through migration and could also impact on potential changes in gender roles that happened during migration ${ }^{7}$.

On the other hand, there is still a demand for a migrant labour force and there are still people who want to migrate. This leads to an increase in irregular migration and the strengthening of the informal labour market as unemployed

[^3]migrants in destination countries seek to work informally and as opportunities for regular labour migration decline. In addition, reduced wages and poorer work conditions are likely to result in more women falling victim to the sex industry or human trafficking. The patterns of this migration are shaped by gender and, in turn, affect gender dynamics.

Thus, migration may also be a positive force in alleviating various aspects of the financial crisis and potentially make an important contribution towards overcoming the economic downturn. Trying to combat the financial crisis by simply cutting immigration may make the situation worse. Therefore, flexible, coherent and comprehensive migration management policies are needed to maximize the benefits of migration, protect migrants and take their needs into account in measures addressing the crisis. Nevertheless, if this opportunity is to be used in an effective and sustainable way, the understanding of these contextspecific dynamics must take into account the way in which each and every one of these components influences and is influenced by gender roles and relations.

## c. The gendered nature of remittance

International migration motivated by economic reasons is a phenomenon that affects increasing numbers of people, households and communities worldwide. Although female migration is not a new phenomenon, what is new is that women no longer migrate in their capacity as wives dependent on their husbands, but are increasingly migrating independently, often as breadwinners of their households.

In order to maintain contact with their families and communities of origins, migrants expand their relationships across geographical, political, economic, and cultural boundaries, creating transnational families and communities. Within these social fields of interaction there is a constant flow of resources and discourses that question and transform traditional ideas of identity and belonging: Remittances - money earned by migrants working abroad that is
sent back home - constitute the monetary, as well as the most visible aspect of this constant circulation between migrants and their countries of origin.

Remittances are not only a direct product of migration, they are also one of the most highly gendered social processes: whether women are being left behind with the children, making decisions on how to spend the money that men (or children or other family members) send from abroad, or whether they leave behind children with extended family members in the hopes that they can create better lives for themselves and their families from a distance, women are at the maelstrom of this movement ${ }^{8}$.

With the economic crisis becoming increasingly global, the environment for remittance flows to developing countries in 2009-10 appears uncertain because of the economic slowdown in the high-income destination countries including the United States and Western Europe as well as the impact of the financial crisis on developing countries and the uncertainty about exchange rates ${ }^{9}$.

Nevertheless, the nature of remittance remains strongly gendered. First of all, gender norms and sex-segregated labour markets have traditionally promoted and prioritized women's migration which has been propelled by a care crisis in developed countries. At the same time, rural areas in developing countries are encountering growing difficulties for survival, principally linked to the impact of global capitalism on the agrarian sector.

Over the years, the paid employment opportunities that international migration offers has converted rural migrant women into important actors. Not only have their remittances served to finance the migration of other men and women, but

[^4]without them, many households would not have been able to meet their most basic subsistence needs, nor would they have accessed the necessary capital to make investments- either in land or education for their children- in order to ensure their progress and social mobility ${ }^{10}$.

Secondly, women are the primary senders of remittances. The testimonies collected in the projects on Gender, Remittances and Development conducted by UN-INSTRAW since 2004 demonstrate that women fundamentally conceive their migratory project in terms of their own self-sacrifice for the well-being of future generations, whereas men will often reserve their money for their own personal expenses and interests ${ }^{11}$.

In sum, these findings indicate that women migrants are more altruistic in their remitting behavior than men. And surely, these behaviors also imply that women are a greater resource during times of crisis and for distributing remittances across the sending community. Women are increasingly involved in international migration and in the sending, receiving and managing of remittances.

Integrating a gender perspective in addressing migration and the sending and utilization of remittances is particularly important in understanding the complex ties between migration and development and could also increase the sustainability and effectiveness of developing programmes and projects.

It is evident that the world is facing a dramatic and unprecedented crisis that calls for creative solutions to address the negative social consequences of globalization, in particular for women. The crisis has raised attention for the

[^5]need for a dramatic shift to an improved globalization that includes sustainable and quality jobs, broader social protection, and social dialogue. Social dialogue, which includes explicit representation of women on solutions to the economic crisis matters now more than ever.

## d. OSCE Initiatives

The Office of the Coordinator of OSCE Economic and Environmental Activities, the Office of the Special Representative/Co-ordinator for Combating Trafficking in Human Beings and the OSCE Secretariat Gender Section jointly produced a Guide on Gender-Sensitive Labour Migration Policies ${ }^{12}$ that was published at the end of May 2009. The Guide aims at encouraging States, particularly those in the OSCE area, to include gender-sensitive measures in their labour migration policies. The intention is to inspire further dialogue among policymakers, raise awareness of national authorities, and stimulate exchange of information and good practices.

Held under the auspices of the Slovenian Foreign Ministry and the OSCE Secretariat, the Seminar on Gender-Sensitive Labour Migration Policies took place from 16 to 17 February, 2009 in Brdo, Slovenia. The event aimed to raise awareness of the relevance of including a gender aspect in migration policy, and looked at how labour migration policies can be made more gendersensitive.

Participants in many OSCE meetings have pointed out the need for developing stronger institutional capacity among governments, social partners and other relevant stakeholders to formulate labour migration and development policies that ensure safer, more humane and orderly labour movements as well as decent work conditions for migrant workers. Migration was also one of the main topics of the Expert Meeting to Develop Training Modules for Labour Migration that was held in Vienna on April 21, 2009.

[^6]Moreover, during the First Part of the $17^{\text {th }}$ OSCE Economic and Environmental Forum of January 2009, participating States discussed the benefits of migration for countries of origin and destination, intra- and interregional co-operation and managing legal migration channels, as well as combating criminal activities related to illegal migration.

A Conference on the international financial crisis took place on March 6, 2009 in Yerevan, Armenia to discuss the challenges of state policies in overcoming the consequences of the global financial crisis.

Finally, the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly organized an Economic Conference on "The World Financial Crisis" in Dublin, from 27 to 29 May 2009. In the inaugural session, the discussion focused on the effects of the crisis throughout the OSCE area, while in the third session, the social consequences of the crisis and the case of migration were emphasized.

## III. Women's Participation in Decision-Making and Leadership

"Women's empowerment and their full participation on the basis of equality in all spheres of society, including participation in the decision-making process and access to power, are fundamental for the achievement of equality, development and peace." (United Nations: The Beijing Declaration 1995)

Democracy requires that all people - both men and women - be represented in decision-making structures. Nevertheless, despite some progress, women continue to be under-represented in all spheres of power.

Better gender balance in decision-making is necessary not only to improve policy and democracy, but also to allow organizations to achieve a tighter fit with the concerns of a changing society. Society can gain from the use of women's talents in confronting the complexity of a globalizing world. It is already evident from studies on the increase of women in politics that the presence of women leads to new focuses and issues on the public agenda. In an ever more complex global context, an increase of participation by a significant section of the public can help societal decision-makers to better keep up with rapid change ${ }^{13}$.

This is not only important from a moral perspective, but also in terms of policy legitimacy. These arguments focus on the difference that gender balance can make for policy. The quality of public policy delivery, and its effectiveness and efficiency is an important concern in many European countries. This argument points to the profit that full participation and real democracy provide.

The speed of change in achieving various milestones on the way to improve gender balance varies drastically both between countries and between sectors. Sometimes a very specific event such as the democratization of a regime can

[^7]lead to rapid progress in some issues of gender representation ${ }^{14}$. But the national historical context is not the only contextual element of importance. Every sector in social decision-making has sector-specific thresholds and dilemmas. Gender is just one element in an organizational culture.

While governments and political parties can play a key role in actions to promote the role of women in politics, the advantage of international cooperation is that it can help men and women better 'see' their own cultures and the problems they face. This is an appropriate time to increase the ratification and improve the application of international instruments regarding gender discrimination.

A main element that must be considered is structure and timing: the historical and structural points of departure. Culturally, the acceptability of the use of legislation and strict quotas to address balance also differs strikingly. Similarly, the procedures in electoral systems are also important for strategies and results in politics.

To look at gender balance in decision-making among the governmental and non-governmental organizations highlights serious problems of discrimination and segregation of power and contributes to the search for possible solutions.

## a. Analysis of the situation and trends

Until quite recently, a history of cultural subjugation limited the number of women willing to put themselves forward to participate in the political process, with politics seen as a male domain. The key decisions that affect the daily lives of roughly equal numbers of male and female citizens are taken by politicians that number three men for every one woman.

Providing the voters with an equal number of suitable male and female candidates and a similar balance amongst the elected representatives is

[^8]fundamental to democracy. However, the reality is different and there are a number of factors that override the candidate balance and which have so far limited the election of women. In other words, ensuring a better balance amongst candidates is only a start.

The electoral system in itself does not favor any one person or gender, but some systems are more open to the promotion of candidates preferred by the party faithful. When the incumbents and other favored candidates are mostly men, the chances of women being elected are much reduced, even when present in equal numbers amongst candidates.

Nevertheless, without equal representation amongst candidates it would be unrealistic to expect equality in the elected assembly so, despite the additional barriers ahead, the first step in promoting female representation must be to promote more women candidates.

Indeed, extrapolation of the trend implies that an election with 50 per cent women candidates would result in just 39 per cent women members or, putting it another way, there would need to be 63 per cent women candidates before equality was achieved in the final assembly.

## b. Affirmative action and quotas

Women form slightly more than fifty per cent of the population, but constitute only 18 per cent of the members of parliaments around the world. ${ }^{15}$ While far short of gender parity, this global average masks enormous variations across countries: Sweden and Denmark have nearly equal proportions of women and men in Parliament, while Italy and France have only 18 per cent of women. Given the slow rate at which the representation of women is increasing, various methods -- such as electoral quotas -- have been proposed or implemented to address the present gender imbalance in decision-making. Consequently,

[^9]governments and political parties have experimented with different types of quotas.

Quotas for women aim to ensure that women must constitute a certain number or percentage of the members of a body, whether it is a candidate list, a parliamentary assembly, a committee, or a government. The quota system places the burden of recruitment not on the individual woman, but on those who control the recruitment process. The core idea behind this system is to recruit women into political positions and to ensure that women are not isolated in political life.

Today, quota systems aim to ensure that women constitute at least a "critical minority" of 20,30 or 40 per cent, or even to ensure true gender balance of 5050 per cent. In some countries quotas are applied as a temporary measure, that is to say, until the barriers for women's entry into politics are removed, but most countries with quotas have not limited their use of quotas in time.

When legally obligatory, gender quotas are mandated either by the constitution (as in France and Greece), or by the electoral law (as for example, in Belgium, Bosnia-Herzegovina and Serbia). But quotas may also be decided voluntarily by political parties themselves. In some countries, including Germany, Italy, Norway and Sweden, a number of political parties have some type of quota. In others, though, only one or two parties have opted to use quotas. However, if the leading party in a country uses a quota, this may have a significant impact on the overall rate of female representation. Yet most of the world's political parties do not employ any kind of quota at all. ${ }^{16}$

Concerning the selection process, the stage of finding aspirants, gender quotas at this stage are rules that demand a certain number or percentage of women be represented in the pool of candidates that are up for discussion. This has been used in countries with plurality-majority electoral systems, like the

[^10]controversial 'women's short lists' in Great Britain. In general, it is rather complicated to construct a gender quota system that matches a majority system.

Even if constitutional amendments and new electoral laws providing gender quotas may seem efficient it all depends on the actual rules and the possible sanctions for non-compliance, as well as on the general opportunities that exist for quotas within the country. Concerning rules for political party quotas, a crucial issue is whether there are any rules concerning the rank order on the list of the candidates of the party. A requirement of 40 per cent for example may not result in any women elected, if all women candidates are placed at the bottom of the list. The crucial question is whether the nominated women are placed in a position with a real chance of election.

Gender quotas may be introduced at any level of the political system, whether federal, national, regional or local. Eleven countries across the OSCE area have laws that require all political parties to nominate a minimum percentage of women as candidates for national legislative office, for example in Albania, Armenia, Portugal, Serbia and Uzbekistan. The level of the quota ranges from 20 per cent to 50 per cent. In France there is a 50 per cent quota for women at the local level.

Quotas work differently under different electoral systems and are most easily introduced in proportional representation systems. However, quotas have also been implemented in some majority systems. But even in proportional representation systems, some political parties and parties in some constituencies may object to implementing quotas because the quota may be viewed as interference in the usual prerogatives of the local party organization to select their own candidates.

Since the Beijing "Platform for Action" of 1995, a second concept of equality is gaining increasing relevance and support: the notion of "equality of result". The argument is that real equal opportunity does not exist just because formal
barriers are removed. Direct discrimination and a complex pattern of hidden barriers prevent women from getting their share of political influence. Quotas and other forms of positive measures are thus a means towards equality of result. The argument is based on the experience that equality as a goal cannot be reached by formal equal treatment as a means. If barriers exist, it is argued, compensatory measures must be introduced as a means to reach equality of result. From this perspective, quotas are not discrimination (against men), but compensation for structural barriers that women meet in the electoral process.

## IV. Gender in the OSCE Governmental Institutions

Most of the statistics on gender balance in the OSCE governmental structures on the following pages have been taken from the September 2008 Annual Evaluation Report on the Implementation of the 2004 Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality.

On 1 May 2008 the OSCE had a total staff of $2,861{ }^{17}$ people, with women representing 44 per cent. This number does not show significant change in time: in December 2006, the overall representation of women in the Organization was 43 per cent. However, significant change can be seen within any of three staff categories ${ }^{18}$. Even though the number of women in management positions ${ }^{19}$ within all OSCE structures has increased from 15 percent in December 2007 to 19 percent in May 2008, this number remains low compared with the number of women in professional or support positions (see table 1). Since the approval of the Gender Action Plan in 2004, the proportion of women in professional positions ${ }^{20}$ has increased on average by two per cent per year from 35 to 43 per cent.

Between January 2007 and May 2008, there were seven vacancies for posts of Deputy Head of Field Office/Institution. Out of 38 nominations, only three were women. In the same period, there were twelve vacancies for Head of Field Operation. 31 nominations were received, including only two women. As a result, eleven men and one woman were appointed. It is to be noted that if the picture is to be changed significantly, both the hiring units and participating States must question in quantitative and qualitative terms the current nomination and secondment systems.

[^11]Table 1: Post Distribution by Category of Staff in the OSCE

| Category | Men | Women | Total | \% Women |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Support Staff | 951 | 811 | 1762 | $46.0 \%$ |
| Professional Staff | 546 | 418 | 964 | $43.4 \%$ |
| Management | 109 | 26 | 135 | $19.3 \%$ |
| Total | 1606 | 1255 | 2861 | $43.9 \%$ |

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2008
At first glance, the gender distribution of posts within the Institutions appears more equitable than in the Field Operations ${ }^{21}$ (see table 2). However, in the Secretariat and Institutions, the percentage of women holding professional posts has decreased from 35 to 33 per cent, while the percentage of women in management positions has increased slightly from five to seven women.

This positive trend continues in the Field Operations where the number of international female professionals has increased significantly. Women now occupy 19 per cent of all management positions in the Field Operations, against 18 per cent in the last reporting period.

Table 2: Post Distribution by Category of Staff in the OSCE Secretariat, Institutions and Field Operations (contracted and seconded against post table)

| Secretariat and Institutions Staff |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Category | Men | Women | Total | \% Women |
| Support Staff | 73 | 166 | 239 | $69.5 \%$ |
| Professional Staff | 146 | 71 | 217 | $32.7 \%$ |
| Management $^{22}$ | 28 | 7 | 35 | $20.0 \%$ |
| Total | 247 | 244 | 491 | $49.7 \%$ |

[^12]| Field Operations Staff |  |  |  |  |  | Men |  |  |  |  | Women | Total | \% Women |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Category | 878 | 645 | 1523 | $42.4 \%$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Support Staff | 400 | 347 | 747 | $46.5 \%$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Professional Staff $_{\text {Management }}{ }^{23}$ | 81 | 19 | 100 | $19.0 \%$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Man $^{\text {Total }}$ | 1359 | 1011 | 2370 | $42.7 \%$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |


| Grand TOTAL | 1606 | 1255 | 2861 | $43.9 \%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2008

## a. OSCE Secretariat

In the Secretariat in Vienna, women hold 31 per cent of all professional posts, but only 18 per cent of all management posts (P5+). There is a continuing clear predominance of men in P-level and women in G-level positions as shown in table 3. It should be noted that two out of eight high level positions (D1+) on the Director and Secretary General level are held by women. In 2007, all those positions were held by men.

Table 3: Post Distribution in the OSCE Secretariat

|  | G1-G7 | G in $\%$ | S | S in $\%$ | P1-P5 | D1 | D2 | SG | P+ in \% | Total | Total in \% |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Women | 115 | $64.6 \%$ | 12 | $25.0 \%$ | 36 | 0 | 2 | 0 | $31.1 \%$ | 165 | $47.4 \%$ |
| Men | 63 | $35.4 \%$ | 36 | $75.0 \%$ | 78 | 1 | 4 | 1 | $68.9 \%$ | 183 | $52.6 \%$ |
| Total | 178 | $100.0 \%$ | 48 | $100.0 \%$ | 114 | 1 | 6 | 1 | $100.0 \%$ | 348 | $100.0 \%$ |

Including the Prague Office (one seconded and four $G$ staff members)
Note: numbers as of 1 May 2008

[^13]
## b. Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR)

The total of ODIHR's staff amounts 107 persons, of which 61 employees are women. Despite the high number of women, their representation in the professional staff category has decreased from 44 to 35 per cent. Out of eight management positions (P5+), only two are held by women.

Table 4: Post Distribution in the Office of Democratic Institutions and Human Rights

|  | G1-G7 | G in \% | S | S in \% | P1-P5 | D1 | D2 | SG | P+ in $\%$ | Total | Total in \% |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Women | 39 | $79.6 \%$ | 6 | $50.0 \%$ | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | $34.8 \%$ | 61 | $57.0 \%$ |
| Men | 10 | $20.4 \%$ | 6 | $50.0 \%$ | 28 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $65.2 \%$ | 46 | $43.0 \%$ |
| Total | 49 | $100.0 \%$ | 12 | $100.0 \%$ | 44 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $100.0 \%$ | 107 | $100.0 \%$ |

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2008
In comparison to last year the gender distribution on the G-level got even more asymmetric; almost 80 per cent of the G-positions are held by women.

## c. Office of the High Commissioner on National Minorities (HCNM)

At first glance, the Office of the High Commissioner on National Minorities seems to have a quite gender balanced staff situation. However, just two out of $13 \mathrm{P}+$ positions are held by women whereas, the G-level exclusively consists of female employees.

Table 5: Post Distribution in the Office of the High Commissioner on National Minorities

|  | G1-G7 | G in \% | S | S in $\%$ | P1-P5 | D1 | D2 | SG | P+ in \% | Total | Total in \% |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Women | 9 | $100.0 \%$ | 3 | $60.0 \%$ | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | $15.4 \%$ | 14 | $51.9 \%$ |
| Men | 0 | $0.0 \%$ | 2 | $40.0 \%$ | 9 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $84.6 \%$ | 13 | $48.1 \%$ |
| Total | 9 | $100.0 \%$ | 5 | $100.0 \%$ | 11 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $100.0 \%$ | 27 | $100.0 \%$ |

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2008

## d. Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media

The same pattern is found in the staff in the Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media which overall has an equal number of men and women. However, two out of six professional staff members are women and none of the general service staff members are men. Again, the management is male dominated.

Table 6: Post Distribution in the Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media

|  | G1-G7 | G in \% | S | S in \% | P1-P5 | D1 | D2 | SG | P+ in $\%$ | Total | Total in $\%$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| Women | 9 | $100.0 \%$ | 3 | $60.0 \%$ | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | $15.4 \%$ | 14 | $51.9 \%$ |
| Men | 0 | $0.0 \%$ | 2 | $40.0 \%$ | 9 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $84.6 \%$ | 13 | $48.1 \%$ |
| Total | 9 | $100.0 \%$ | 5 | $100.0 \%$ | 11 | 1 | 0 | 1 | $100.0 \%$ | 27 | $100.0 \%$ |

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2008

## e. Seconded Posts in the Institutions

The Seconded Posts in the OSCE Institutions are not graded in the staff classification table (see annex 1). From a total of 526 staff members seconded by 44 participating States of the OSCE, 31 per cent were women.

Table 7: Distribution of Seconded Posts in the Institutions

| Field Operations |  | Secretariat and Institutions |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Women | Men | Women | Men |
| $30 \%$ | $70 \%$ | $32 \%$ | $68 \%$ |

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2008

## f. Field Operations

The situation in the Field Operations varies depending on size of the Operation and the mandate. The distribution ranges from 27 per cent female staff in the Office of the OSCE Project Coordinator in Uzbekistan, which is one of the smallest missions, up to almost 74 per cent in the OSCE Office in Yerevan. In the OSCE Mission to Kosovo, there are only 203 women out of staff of 612 members.

The number of female Heads of Institutions and Field Operations remains alarmingly low. On 1 May 2008, of a total of 20 heads of Field Operations and Institutions, only two were women. In addition, out of 13 Deputy Heads only one was a woman. The representation of women in the Field Operations continues to be high in the traditionally female-dominated fields, such as Democratization ( 54 per cent) and Human Rights ( 55 per cent). On the other hand, the representation of women in Civilian Police is only 10 per cent, and posts within Military Affairs continue to be held exclusively by men.

| Field Operation | Women | In \% | Men | In \% | Total |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| OSCE Centre in Ashgabad | 8 | 50.0\% | 8 | 50.0\% | 16 |
| OSCE Centre in Astana | 12 | 66.7\% | 6 | 33.3\% | 18 |
| OSCE Centre in Bishkek | 26 | 45.6\% | 31 | 54.4\% | 57 |
| OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina | 228 | 54.7\% | 189 | 45.3\% | 417 |
| OSCE Mission to Georgia | 46 | 37.1\% | 78 | 62.9\% | 124 |
| OSCE Mission in Kosovo | 203 | 33.2\% | 409 | 66.8\% | 612 |
| OSCE Mission to Moldova | 19 | 59.4\% | 13 | 40.6\% | 32 |
| OSCE Mission to Montenegro | 16 | 55.2\% | 13 | 44.8\% | 29 |
| OSCE Mission to Serbia | 66 | 52.0\% | 61 | 48.0\% | 127 |
| OSCE Office in Baku | 10 | 55.6\% | 8 | 44.4\% | 18 |
| OSCE Office in Minsk | 7 | 87.5\% | 1 | 12.5\% | 8 |
| OSCE Office in Tajikistan | 27 | 44.3\% | 34 | 55.7\% | 61 |
| OSCE Office in Yerevan | 20 | 74.1\% | 7 | 25.9\% | 27 |
| OSCE Office in Zagreb | 13 | 54.2\% | 11 | 45.8\% | 24 |
| OSCE Presence in Albania | 38 | 52.8\% | 34 | 47.2\% | 72 |
| OSCE Project Co-ordinator in Ukraine | 16 | 57.1\% | 12 | 42.9\% | 28 |
| OSCE Project Co-ordinator in Uzbekistan | 4 | 26.7\% | 11 | 73.3\% | 15 |
| OSCE Repr. on the Estonian Commission on Military Pensioners | 0 | 0.0\% | 1 | 100.0\% | 1 |
| OSCE Spillover Monitor Mission to Skopje | 62 | 38.3\% | 100 | 61.7\% | 162 |
| Personal Repr. of the CiO on the Conflict dealt with by the Minsk Conference | 6 | 54.5\% | 5 | 45.5\% | 11 |
| Secretariat | 115 | 64.6\% | 63 | 35.4\% | 178 |
| Institutions | 51 | 83.6\% | 10 | 16.4\% | 61 |
| Grand Total | 993 | 47.3\% | 1105 | 52.7\% | 2098 |

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2008

## g. Gender in OSCE Documents

Despite the fact that in 2005 the Ministerial Council expressed a determination "to make an effective gender mainstreaming an integral part of all policies, activities and programmes in the OSCE ${ }^{, 24}$ the 2006 meeting of the Ministers merely acknowledged "the need to promote gender balance of personnel (...) at the various levels" ${ }^{25}$ in the relevant decision, 'Strengthening the Effectiveness of the OSCE'. The 2007 Ministerial Council's Decision on 'Tolerance and Non-Discrimination, Promoting Mutual Respect and Understanding' did not refer to gender issues at all ${ }^{26}$. Moreover, none of the thirteen 2008 Ministerial Council Decisions mentioned gender relations.

Annually, the Secretary General of the OSCE presents the Evaluation Report on the Implementation of the 2004 OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality. A particularly positive development during the reporting period is the progress in promoting women's economic empowerment. The reports provided by the OSCE Missions in 2008 show that field operations are increasingly implementing projects in the priority area "promoting equal opportunity in the economic sphere". The majority of the projects aim at enhancing entrepreneurial skills among women.

[^14]
## V. Gender in the OSCE PA

## a. Gender in Documents of the OSCE PA

The OSCE Parliamentary Assembly has kept the issue of gender equality on its agenda since its first meeting in 1993, calling for the OSCE to improve gender equality in its hierarchy and mainstream its activities and documents. The Assembly has condemned violence against women and systematic rapes that occur in armed conflicts. It has promoted the UN resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security and passed numerous resolutions against trafficking in women and children and prostitution.

One of the key resolutions was adopted at the 2005 Annual Session in Washington. In this resolution, the PA called on the OSCE to ensure gender equality in all stages of decision-making processes. The Assembly welcomed the Gender Action Plan adopted at the 2004 Ministerial Council and called upon participating States and the OSCE Secretary General to promote the recruitment of female candidates within the OSCE, especially at higher levels ${ }^{27}$. The Declaration also urges parliaments to obtain gender balance in the national delegations to the OSCE PA. Furthermore, the Washington Declaration calls upon the OSCE participating States to combat the causes of trafficking in human beings and to ensure that International Peacekeeping Forces do not engage in or facilitate trafficking in human beings, sexual exploitation or abuse. In this respect, the Ministerial Council was urged to adopt a decision on guidelines and codes of conduct that forbid these crimes and which can be enforced on mission members who violate them. ${ }^{28}$

[^15]
## b. Gender in the Assembly Bureau

After a change of the Rules of Procedure in 2007, the Bureau no longer only includes the President, Vice-Presidents, Treasurer and President Emeritus, but also the Officers of the General Committees. This means that the presentation of the statistics for the Bureau members is slightly different from previous years. For 2008, the statistics for all Bureau members is as follows: presently the Bureau has a total Membership of 19, out of which four are women. Two seats in the Bureau are vacant after two women which caused the percentage decrease of women from 28.6 per cent last year to 21.1 per cent this year.

## c. Female Presidents and Vice-Presidents in the OSCE PA

Since 1992, only one out of nine presidents (11.1 per cent) of the OSCE PA has been a woman: Helle Degn from 1998-2000. From 1992-2009 the Assembly had 48 Vice-Presidents, of which 12 have been female, which makes 25 per cent. Of the current eight Vice-Presidents two are female, which also equals 25 per cent (one Vice-President's seat is vacant after a woman left the Assembly).

## d. Officers of the OSCE PA General Committees

In 2009, two out of eight Committee Officers were women, which is 25 per cent. This represents an increase from 22.2 per cent from the previous year. The increase would have been greater, but one female Officer resigned from the Assembly leaving one seat empty. The difference in composition of the Committees is notable in that women have been consistently underrepresented in the leadership of the General Committee on Political Affairs and Security. Since 1992 there has been only one woman Officer in the First General Committee, Tarja Halonen in 1994. Currently, only the Third General Committee has female Officers, in fact all three positions were filled by women before one resigned.

## e. Participation in OSCE PA Meetings

The following charts show the general attendance at the OSCE PA's Meetings and the ratio between male and female Members of Parliament who participated.

## i Annual Sessions



In 2008 the number of women attending the Annual Meeting slightly increased from 41 to 45 women in comparison to 2007 which was the year with the lowest number of women at Annual Meetings since 1999. Although 45 women were present during the Annual Session in Astana in 2008, this number did not reach the 10 years average of 49 women attending the Annual Meetings.


The gender statistics on the Assembly's Winter Meetings show that the 2007 Winter Meeting witnessed the highest number of female participants in eight years with 51 women attending the meeting. In 2009 the level dropped again with 48 women attending.

## f. Participation in OSCE PA Election Monitoring 2007/2008



The figures concerning female participation in OSCE PA election monitoring shows that in the year 2008/2009 the number of female Members of Parliament remains low with an average of 19 percent.

## g. Initiative to boost women's participation

During the Eighth Winter Meeting of the OSCE PA that took place in Vienna from the 19-20 February 2009, the Special Representative on Gender Issues and OSCE PA Vice-President Tone Tingsgaard proposed an amendment to the Rules of Procedures that seeks to ensure that all national delegations include representatives of both genders. This proposal has been dealt with by the SubCommittee on Rules of Procedure and will be voted on in the Standing Committee at the Annual Session in Vilnius.

If this proposal passes, the OSCE PA will join other Parliamentary Assemblies that have already imposed rules on the gender related composition of their national Delegations. The Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) ${ }^{29}$ and the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe (PACE) have provisions for the limit in voting rights of Delegations who do not include both men and women. Moreover, since 2008, Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe (PACE) has required that all Delegations include representatives of both genders with a minimum participation of at least 30 per cent of the underrepresented gender ${ }^{30}$. The Assembly also decided to investigate at national and European levels what obstacles currently exist to the nomination of women candidates, what measures could be taken to encourage female applicants, and to consider setting targets for achieving greater gender equality.

[^16]
## h. Permanent Staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat

Among the Permanent Staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat six out of fifteen staff members ( 40 percent) are women. The Secretary General and one of the Deputy Secretaries General are men; the other Deputy Secretary General is a woman.

## i. The International Research-Fellowship Programme

The International Secretariat of the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly has a Research Fellowship Programme in which it engages graduate students for a period of six-months each to gain practical experience in the field of international affairs.

There are currently five research fellows working at the International Secretariat in Copenhagen, and two in the Vienna Liaison Office - five women and two men. During the last fourteen years 84 male and 92 female research fellows have participated in the Programme, which totals 52.3 per cent female representation.

## j. Female Representation in National Parliaments in OSCE Countries

Female representation at OSCE PA Meetings has to be seen in the light of the general representation of women in national parliaments within OSCE countries. The table in the Appendix II shows the disaggregated data for each OSCE participating State.

Two OSCE countries show a remarkable improvement regarding the numbers of women in Parliament. After the most recent elections, the number of female Parliamentarians rose from zero to 23 in Kyrgyzstan, and from 24 to 50 in Turkey. Female representation in the national Parliaments within the OSCE region, 20.2 percent, is slightly above the world-wide average of 17.7 per cent.
iii Women in Parliament across the OSCE Region

|  | Single House or Lower <br> House | Upper House or <br> Senate | Both Houses <br> Combined |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Europe - OSCE member <br> countries | $21.20 \%$ | $19.50 \%$ | $20.90 \%$ |
| Including Nordic countries | $19.30 \%$ | $19.50 \%$ | $19.30 \%$ |
| Europe - OSCE member <br> countries <br> Excluding Nordic countries |  |  |  |

## VI. Conclusions

Today, there are more resources than ever to help people understand the context of gender inequality, its history and its specificities. The range of instruments and pathways is considerable. There is no lack of good ideas, smart practices and enthusiastic experienced people to provide advice. The OSCE participating States have stated their will to support equal opportunities for women and ensure their quality of life; the reality in practice is less positive.

Despite some progress, to increase the number of women in all spheres of power remains a major challenge for OSCE participating States. If the values of democracy are based on the representation and participation of all citizens, half of the population cannot be left outside the structures of power. Still discrimination and a complex pattern of hidden barriers prevent women from political influence. Based on the experience, in order to reach equality compensatory measures must be introduced. From this perspective, quotas are not discrimination (against men), but compensation for structural barriers that women meet in the electoral process. Moreover, gender equality has proven to be also an asset in times of crisis. The issue of female migrants who are affected by the crisis, as women on the one hand and as migrants on the other hand, needs to be addressed.

Unfortunately, the findings of this report indicate an almost unchanged situation in regards to gender balance within the OSCE, in comparison with last year. Progress to increase the representation of women in decision-making positions is generally slow and limited and a much more concerted effort is needed to address the persistent imbalance. There is some evidence that legislative gender quotas can help to bring about real and rapid change ${ }^{31}$, though the use of such positive actions remains controversial.

[^17]Based on the OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality of 2004, the OSCE is committed to undertaking positive action to promote and appoint women candidates ${ }^{32}$. However, as the statistics of this report shows, the higher up the in the OSCE hierarchy you look, the fewer women you find.

The Parliamentary Assembly has consistently kept on its agenda the issue of equal opportunities for men and women in national Parliaments as well as within the OSCE and the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly. The issue has a central place on the agenda of the Assembly's Plenary Meetings and at the same time, informal discussions take place in side meetings. But words alone do not make a difference, it takes political will. To increase the number of women in senior positions so that the OSCE becomes a gender-balanced workplace has to be a priority. More women have to be nominated and appointed to the higher staff levels in the OSCE Secretariat, the Institutions and within Field Operations.

Only by keeping gender equality high on the political agenda will the problem of the underrepresentation of women within the OSCE be solved so that the OSCE reflects the values and principles it promotes.
intervention by the government through legislation enforcing parity amongst candidates and equal visibility on ballot papers. http://ec.europa.eu/social/home.jsp?langId=en
${ }^{32} 2004$ OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality.

## VII. Annexes

Annex I- OSCE Employment Grades ${ }^{33}$


[^18]
## Annex II - Women in Parliament in OSCE Countries

| Women in Parliament in OSCE Countries |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Rank | Country | Lower or Single House |  |  | Upper House or Senate |  |  |
|  |  | Seats | Women | \% | Seats | Women | \% |
| 1 | Sweden | 349 | 164 | 47.0 | --- | -- | --- |
| 2 | Iceland | 63 | 27 | 42.9 | --- | --- | --- |
| 3 | Finland | 200 | 83 | 41.5 | --- | --- | --- |
| 4 | Netherlands | 150 | 62 | 41.3 | 75 | 26 | 34.7 |
| 5 | Denmark | 179 | 68 | 38.0 | --- | --- | --- |
| 6 | Spain | 350 | 127 | 36.3 | 263 | 79 | 30.0 |
| 7 | Norway | 169 | 61 | 36.1 | --- | --- | --- |
| 8 | Belgium | 150 | 53 | 35.3 | 71 | 27 | 38.0 |
| 9 | Germany | 612 | 197 | 32.2 | 69 | 15 | 21.7 |
| 10 | Andorra | 28 | 9 | 32.1 | --- | --- | --- |
| 11 | Belarus | 110 | 35 | 31.8 | 56 | 19 | 33.9 |
| 12 | Switzerland | 200 | 57 | 28.5 | 46 | 10 | 21.7 |
| 13 | Portugal | 230 | 65 | 28.3 | --- | --- | --- |
| 14 | Former Yugoslav Republic of | 120 | 34 | 28.3 | --- | --- | --- |
| 15 | Austria | 183 | 51 | 27.9 | 61 | 15 | 24.6 |
| 16 | Kyrgyzstan | 90 | 23 | 25.6 | --- | --- | --- |
| 17 | Monaco | 24 | 6 | 25.0 | --- | --- | --- |
| 18 | Liechtenstein | 25 | 6 | 24.0 | --- | --- | --- |
| 19 | Republic of Moldova | 101 | 24 | 23.8 | --- | --- | --- |
| 20 | Luxembourg | 60 | 14 | 23.3 | --- | --- | --- |
| 21 | Canada | 308 | 68 | 22.1 | 93 | 32 | 34.4 |
| 22 | Bulgaria | 240 | 52 | 21.7 | --- | --- | --- |
| 23 | Serbia | 250 | 54 | 21.6 | --- | --- | --- |
| 24 | Italy | 630 | 134 | 21.3 | 322 | 58 | 18.0 |
| 25 | Croatia | 153 | 32 | 20.9 | --- | --- | --- |
| 26 | Estonia | 101 | 21 | 20.8 | --- | --- | --- |
| 28 | Poland | 460 | 93 | 20.2 | 100 | 8 | 8.0 |
| 29 | Latvia | 100 | 20 | 20.0 | --- | --- | --- |
| 30 | United Kingdom | 646 | 126 | 19.5 | 746 | 147 | 19.7 |
| 31 | Slovakia | 150 | 29 | 19.3 | --- | --- | --- |
| 32 | France | 577 | 105 | 18.2 | 343 | 75 | 21.9 |
| 33 | Lithuania | 141 | 25 | 17.7 | --- | --- | --- |
| 34 | Tajikistan | 63 | 11 | 17.5 | 34 | 8 | 23.5 |
| 35 | Uzbekistan | 120 | 21 | 17.5 | 100 | 15 | 15.0 |
| 36 | Turkmenistan | 125 | 21 | 16.8 | --- | --- | --- |
| 37 | United States of America | 435 | 73 | 16.8 | 98 | 15 | 15.3 |
| 38 | Kazakhstan | 107 | 17 | 15.9 | 47 | 2 | 4.3 |
| 39 | Czech Republic | 200 | 31 | 15.5 | 81 | 14 | 17.3 |


| 40 | San Marino | 60 | 9 | 15.0 | --- | --- | --- |
| :---: | :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 41 | Greece | 300 | 44 | 14.7 | --- | --- | --- |
| 42 | Cyprus | 56 | 8 | 14.3 | --- | --- | --- |
| 43 | Russian Federation | 450 | 63 | 14.0 | 169 | 8 | 4.7 |
| 44 | Ireland | 166 | 22 | 13.3 | 60 | 13 | 21.7 |
| 45 | Slovenia | 90 | 12 | 13.3 | 40 | 1 | 2.5 |
| 46 | Bosnia and Herzegovina | 42 | 5 | 11.9 | 15 | 2 | 13.3 |
| 47 | Azerbaijan | 123 | 14 | 11.4 | --- | --- | --- |
| 48 | Romania | 334 | 38 | 11.4 | 137 | 8 | 5.8 |
| 49 | Hungary | 386 | 43 | 11.1 | --- | --- | --- |
| 50 | Turkey | 549 | 50 | 9.1 | --- | --- | --- |
| 51 | Malta | 69 | 6 | 8.7 | --- | --- | --- |
| 52 | Armenia | 131 | 11 | 8.4 | --- | --- | --- |
| 53 | Ukraine | 450 | 37 | 8.2 | --- | --- | --- |
| 54 | Albania | 140 | 10 | 7.1 | --- | --- | --- |
| 55 | Montenegro | 81 | 5 | 6.2 | --- | --- | --- |
| 56 | Georgia | 150 | 9 | 6.0 | --- | --- | --- |

These figures correspond to the number of seats currently filled in Parliament, Situation as of 31 May 2009.

Annex III - Countries with Quotas for Women: Legislation ${ }^{34}$

| Country | Quota Type(s) |
| :---: | :---: |
| Albania | Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament |
| Armenia | Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament; Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Austria | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Belgium | Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament; Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Bosnia and Herzegovina | Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament; Constitutional or Legislative Quota, Sub-National Level; Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Canada | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Croatia | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Cyprus | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Czech Republic | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Denmark | Since 1996 all party quotas were abandoned. No quota regulation legislation. |
| Former Yugoslav <br> Republic of <br> Macedonia | Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament; Constitutional or Legislative Quota, Sub-National Level; Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| France | Constitutional Quota for National Parliaments; Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament; Constitutional or Legislative Quota, Sub-National Level; Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Germany | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Greece | Constitutional or Legislative Quota, Sub-National Level; Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Hungary | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Iceland | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Ireland | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |


| Italy | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| :---: | :---: |
| Kazakhstan | Quotas existed previously or quota legislation has been proposed |
| Kyrgyzstan | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Lithuania | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Luxembourg | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Malta | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Republic of Moldova | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Netherlands | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Norway | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Poland | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Portugal | Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament; Constitutional or Legislative Quota, Sub-National Level; Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Romania | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Serbia | Constitutional Quota for National Parliaments; Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament; Constitutional or Legislative Quota, Sub-National Level; Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Slovakia | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Slovenia | Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament; Constitutional or Legislative Quota, Sub-National Level; Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Spain | Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament; Constitutional or Legislative Quota, Sub-National Level; Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Sweden | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Switzerland | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| United Kingdom | Political Party Quota for Electoral Candidates |
| Uzbekistan | Election Law Quota Regulation, National Parliament |


[^0]:    1 "Global Employment Trends for Women", International Labour Office - Geneva: ILO, 2009. www.ilo.org/publns

[^1]:    2 "A Roadmap for equality between women and men - 2006-2010", European Commission, Manuscript completed in April 2006. www.ec.europa.eu/social
    ${ }^{3}$ "Global Employment Trends for Women", International Labour Office - Geneva: ILO, 2009. www.ilo.org/publns
    ${ }^{4}$ Statement by Ms. Yakin Ertürk, UN Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women, its Causes and Consequences on the occasion of International Women's Day, Geneva, 6 March 2009.

[^2]:    ${ }^{5}$ Font:UN INSTRAW http://www.un-instraw.org/en/grd/general/general-numbers-3.html
    ${ }^{6}$ Zlonik, Hania. 2003. The Global Dimensions of Female Migration.
    http://www.migrationinformation.org/Feature/display.cfm?ID=109

[^3]:    ${ }^{7}$ Amaia Pérez Orozco, Migration and Development, 2007
    http://www.un-instraw.org/en/publications/working-papers

[^4]:    ${ }^{8}$ Two Mexican women for example have mobilized women in their community to exploit the full potential of remittances by investing them in special development projects http://www.echoinggreen.org/fellows/gabriela-enrigue-and-leticia-jauregui
    ${ }^{9}$ D. Ratha, S. Mohapatra and Z. Xu, "Outlook for Remittance Flows 2008-2010", 11 November 2008, Migration and Development Brief No. 8, Migrant and Remittances Team, Development Prospects Group, The World Bank, http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTPROSPECTS/Resources/3349341110315015165/MD Brief8.pdf.

[^5]:    ${ }^{10}$ More information are available in the OSCE Guide on Gender-Sensitive Labour Migration Policies, www.osce.org
    ${ }^{11}$ In many countries, community development projects have been started with remittance money. INSTRAW, and others using a gender perspective, seeks to ensure that such money benefits both men and women, as well as is inclusive of issues specific to age, sexuality, race, ethnicity and religion. http://www.un-instraw.org/en/grd/general/remittances-anddevelopment.html

[^6]:    ${ }^{12}$ See http://www.osce.org/item/37689.html

[^7]:    ${ }^{13}$ As written in the Report of the Council of Europe Good Practices to achieve genderbalanced representation in political and social decision-making for Division Equality between Women and Men, 2001 www.coe.int

[^8]:    ${ }^{14}$ See also the European website on women and men in decision-making http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/women men_stats/index_en.htm

[^9]:    ${ }^{15}$ Situation as of 30 November 2008, www.ipu.org

[^10]:    ${ }^{16}$ More information on quotas can be found on www.quotaproject.org

[^11]:    ${ }^{17}$ The fall in the total number of employees from 3,257 in December 2006 was caused mainly by the downsizing of the Missions in Kosovo and Croatia.
    ${ }^{18}$ For OSCE employment grades see Annex 1
    ${ }^{19}$ Including S3, S4, P5, D1, D2, heads and deputy heads of field operations and institutions.
    ${ }^{20}$ Including national professionals and P1 to P4 levels and S2 levels.

[^12]:    ${ }^{21}$ On 1 May 2008, there were still a number of field operations where all international professional positions were occupied by men: The office of the Personal Representative of the CiO on the Conflict dealt with by the OSCE Minsk Conference, the Office in Minsk, and the Office of the Project Co-ordinator in Ukraine.
    ${ }^{22} \mathrm{P} 5+$ and Heads of Institutions

[^13]:    ${ }^{23}$ S3, S4, P5, D1, Heads and Deputy Heads of Field Operations

[^14]:    ${ }^{24}$ MC.DEC/17/05, Strengthening the Effectiveness of the OSCE.
    ${ }^{25}$ MC.DEC/19/06, Strengthening the Effectiveness of the OSCE, Section 1, 4
    ${ }^{26}$ MC.DEC/10/07

[^15]:    ${ }^{27}$ http://www.osce.org/documents/mcs/2004/12/3917_en.pdf. For further discussion of these recommendations and OSCE response, please see Chapter 5, above.
    ${ }^{28}$ OSCE PA Resolution on Improving Gender Equality in the OSCE, Washington Declaration, Par.6-11

[^16]:    ${ }^{29}$ Article 15 (c) of the IPU Statute "Any delegation that for three consecutive sessions is composed exclusively of parliamentarians of the same sex shall have a minimum of eight votes (instead of the ten for mixed delegations) at the Assembly of the Inter-Parliamentary Union. For delegations entitled to a certain number of additional votes, the overall calculation will be made on the basis of eight votes instead of ten."
    ${ }^{30}$ Article 2 (d) of the Statute of the Council of Europe.

[^17]:    ${ }^{31}$ The greatest improvement in the parliamentary gender balance over the last ten years was observed in Belgium (from $12 \%$ to $35 \%$ women) and this is a direct result of positive

[^18]:    ${ }^{33}$ This employment grading system in descending order based on seniority will be referred to throughout the analysis

