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OSCE PA Gender Balance Report July 2010

Presented by Tone Tingsgard, Special
Representative on Gender Issues of the OSCE PA



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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 including an analysis of a special topic as well as a study of the OSCE's gender disaggregated statistics. The topic chosen for the 2010 Gender Report is quota, and special emphasis has been put on the Norwegian model for enhancing gender equality. These issues will also be discussed at the annual gender lunch which will take place during the OSCE PA Annual Session in Oslo.

The 2010 Gender Report concludes that the OSCE Gender Action Plan from 2004 has had little discernible success so far in increasing the number of women in top management positions. Although the number of female professionals in management positions increased by five per cent during the last year (from 19 per cent to 24 per cent), the top leadership is still dominated by men. Most notably, all but one Head of OSCE Institutions and all but one Head of Field Missions are men. Actually, this represents some progress since the Winter Meeting, because in March 2010, a woman was appointed as the OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media.

II. Analyses of Gender Quotas

Introduction

Women comprise nearly half of the global population. However, they constitute just under 19 per cent of Members of Parliaments around the world.¹ While this figure falls far short of gender parity, this global average masks enormous variations across different countries. For example, Sweden and the Netherlands have nearly equal proportions of women and men in Parliament, while Italy and France have approximately 20 per cent female members of Parliament. Given the slow rate at which women's participation in politics is increasing around the world, various methods, such as gender quotas, have been proposed or implemented to address the present gender imbalance in decision-making bodies. While many argue that the introduction of quota systems for women represents a qualitative jump into a policy of exact goals and means, others raise questions and even resistance to quota policies.

¹ Situation as of 10 March 2010, www.ipu.org, (accessed 20 May 2010).

What are Quotas?

Gender quotas are quantitative tools aimed at increasing the political participation of women. The quota system places the burden of recruitment not on the individual woman, but on those who control the recruitment process.

The fundamental idea behind the quota system is that women should constitute a critical minority of at least 30 per cent² or in the best case ensure a true balance of 50 per cent for each gender. However, some quota systems are constructed as *gender-neutral*, which means that they aim to correct the under-representation of both women and men. In this case, the requirement may be that neither gender should occupy more than 60 per cent and not less than 40 per cent of the seats.

Gender quotas may be introduced at any level of the political system. Federal, national, regional or local levels are all open to gender quota schemes. An example of a strong quota system at the local level is the 50 per cent quota at the local level in France. Legal gender quotas are mandated either by constitution (such as in France and Greece) or by electoral law (as is the case in Belgium, Bosnia–Herzegovina and Serbia). However, quota systems may be adopted voluntarily by political parties. These types of quotas are referred to as voluntary party quotas. 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; among those are Albania, Armenia, Portugal, Serbia and Uzbekistan. In some countries, including Germany, Italy, Norway and Sweden, a number of political parties have some type of quota. However, in many other countries, only one or two parties have opted to use quota systems. Nevertheless, the vast majority of the world's political parties do not employ any kind of quota requirement at all.³

With regard to the electoral process, quota requirements normally aim at changing the pool of candidates who stand for election. As legislated quotas are not common, one challenge is getting women to be nominated by political parties. Furthermore, in order to prevent female candidates from being placed at the bottom of the electoral lists with little or no chance of winning, the *double quota* requirement may be used. This can either be introduced as *reserved seats*, where a

² R. A Kandawasvika-Nhundur: "Expert Opinion: Strategies and Legislation that call for the 30% Quota", www.iknowpolitics.org/en/node/9289, (accessed 8 June 2010).

³ www.quotaproject.org

certain number or percentage of the seats is set aside for women, or simply by sharing the slots at the top of the electoral list between male and female candidates.

It is worth mentioning that quotas work differently within different electoral systems. Gender quotas are most widespread and effective in electoral systems based on proportional representation.⁴ Small parties and parties in small constituencies experience difficulties in implementing quotas without interference from the central party organizations in setting rules for selecting candidates. In majoritarian systems, effective quotas most often take the form of reserved seats.⁵

In some countries quotas are applied as a temporary measure, that is to say, until the informal barriers for women's entry into politics are removed, but most countries with quotas have not yet limited their use of the practice.

Pros and Cons

The debate on gender quotas is complex and multi-dimensional. It is embedded in local and national levels as well as in an international context and refers to several applicable fields. Moreover, electoral gender quotas are recent phenomena, and as a result, there is not much existing empirical research on the subject. This is the reason why a considerable amount of arguments take the form of prediction and do not always reflect the extent to which the introduction of gender quotas adhere to its stated goals.⁶

Various analytical arguments have been made both in favor of and against the introduction of quotas as a mean to increase the political presence of women. Advocates and opponents' arguments are founded on different basic assumptions regarding the political participation of

⁴ R. Matland: "Explaining Women's Representation: The Role of Legislative Recruitment & Electoral Systems", 12 December 2005, http://www.iknowpolitics.org/files/EP.4_Matland.pdf, (accessed 4 June 2010).

⁵ D. Dahlerup: 'What are the Effects of Electoral Gender Quotas?', paper presented at the International Science Association's World Congress in Fukuoka, July 2006, www.ipsa-rc19.anu.edu.au/Dahlerup.ipsa06.pdf, (accessed 20 May 2010).

⁶ Ibid.

women. They show the simultaneous existence of different understandings of gender quotas, gender equality policies and social justice.⁷

Arguments in favor of gender quotas are based on the concept that equal opportunity does not exist simply 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.⁸ From this perspective, quotas compensate for structural barriers that women confront during the electoral process, which disregard or downgrade women's qualifications. From this perspective, quotas are not seen as discrimination against men, rather as an attempt to increase the number of women in politics to enforce merit and democratic criteria.

Those who argue against gender quotas primarily assume that women choose not to participate in politics and that gender quotas are an unnatural intervention in the political process. In addition, the argument assumes that gender quotas will be ineffective, because it will not be possible to find a sufficient number of qualified women to recruit. Therefore, quotas would lead to the election of unqualified candidates, demeaning women and undermining the principle of merit. This reasoning infers that gender quotas discriminate against men, since they are then deprived of equal opportunity. Further, some argue that democracy will be also affected in that voters would not be able to decide freely who is elected.

With regard to the effect on party organization, opponents to gender quotas state that the quota system would create significant conflicts, and therefore affect the party's stability. On the other hand, advocates for gender quotas consider possible conflicts within the party organization as temporary and beneficial and that by changing the gendered power between women and men, the gender problems which political parties are now facing would be solved.

A further criticism raised regarding the use of gender quotas is that women are elected simply because they are women. The stigmatization of women elected or appointed by a quota system

⁷ I. Guldvik, 'Gender quota discourses – the Norwegian case', Paper presented at the annual meeting of the MPSA Annual National Conference, Palmer House Hotel, Hilton, Chicago, IL, 3 April 2008, www.allacademic.com/meta/p266716_index.html (accessed 20 May 2010).

⁸ www.quotaproject.org/aboutQuotas.cfm

may imply that such candidates will have limited influence on issues other than so-called women's issues.

The discourses set forth for and against gender quotas are not reconcilable by reference to their basic assumption.

The Norwegian Model

*Empowerment is a prerequisite for development. If we neglect the need to empower women, and disregard the rights of women and girls, we pay for that neglect by weakening our countries' economic performance. We may be unequal in our development, but the solution for all of us lies in greater equality.*⁹

Behind this statement is the core idea of the Norwegian model of gender balance and equality, namely that women's empowerment benefits democracy, a fairer society, wealth and economy. It streamlines equality between the sexes, redistribution of power, and the recognition of ingrained cultural injustices that need to be removed.

The United Nations Human Development Report 2009 has ranked Norway second out of 109 countries in the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), with a value of 0.906. According to the World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report 2009, Norway ranks third on its Gender Gap Index (GGI).¹⁰

⁹ Extracts from the speech 'Equal rights, equal opportunities; Progress for all', held by the Norwegian Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion, Mr. Audun Lysbakken, during the UN Commission on the Status of Women, 1 - 12 March 2010, www.regjeringen.no/en/dep/bld/aktuelt/taler_artikler/ministerer/taler-og-artikler-av-barne--likestilling/2010/Equal-rights-equal-opportunities-Progress-for-all.html?id=598257, (accessed 26 May 2010).

¹⁰ The gender empowerment measure (GEM) reveals whether women take an active part in economic and political life. It tracks the share of seats in parliament held by women; of female legislators, senior officials and managers; and of female professional and technical workers- and the gender disparity in earned income, reflecting economic independence. The GGI measures whether disparities exist between men and women in the areas of economy, politics, education, and healthcare.

See UNDP: 'Human Development Report – Norway'

www.hdrstats.undp.org/en/countries/country_fact_sheets/cty_fs_NOR.html (accessed 25 May 2010); WEF: 'The Global Gender Gap Report 2009', www.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap/report2009.pdf (accessed 25 May 2010).

The Norwegian Model of Gender Equality builds on a combination of a gradual legal development requiring gender balance and the progressive implementation of an effective gender quota system.

In 1960, only 23 per cent of Norwegian women worked outside of the home. In Norway, the traditional image of women as caregivers remained stronger during the 1970s and 1980s than in any of its Scandinavian neighbors.¹¹ While women joined the working force in increasing numbers during the labor shortage of the 1970s, many of them faced difficulties balancing work and family life, and had problems with discrimination and harassment in their new working environments.

The Norwegian Constitution is gender-neutral in its formulation; many of the economic and political reforms that occurred during the 1970s and beyond happened thanks to the efforts of the Norwegian feminist movement, which demanded greater representation on political party lists. In these years, representation in the Norwegian Parliament jumped from 15.5 per cent in 1973 to 25.8 per cent in 1981. Quota provisions were first introduced when women occupied 20-30 per cent of the seats in parliament.¹²

In the 1971 local elections, women's representation in several large city councils rose from approximately 15 – 20 per cent to constituting majorities.¹³

It is interesting to note that five out of seven Norwegian political parties have adopted gender quotas for party positions without legal quota prescriptions. The *Liberal Party* (Venstre) was the first to adopt quotas in 1974.¹⁴ The *Socialist Left Party* (Sosialistisk Venstreparti) introduced a 40 per cent quota for both sexes on electoral lists in 1975. The general debate on women's role in society clearly had an effect on these parties and taking a policy stand on this issue was important to both parties with respect to their broader public image. The adoption of gender quotas was also seen as an effective way of attracting leftist women away from the Labour Party.

¹¹ K. T. Geraghty: 'Taming the Paper Tiger: A Comparative Approach to Reforming Japanese Gender Equality Laws', Cornell International Law Journal, 25 September 2008, vol. 41, <http://organizations.lawschool.cornell.edu/ilj/issues/41.2/CIN206.pdf> (accessed 20 May 2010).

¹² IDEA: "The Implementation of Quotas: European Experiences", 2005.

¹³ However, there was a counter-reaction in following elections and the number of women elected has diminished. See R. Matland: "Explaining Women's Representation: The Role of Legislative Recruitment & Electoral Systems", 12 December 2005, http://www.iknowpolitics.org/files/EP.4_Matland.pdf, (accessed 4 June 2010).

¹⁴ I. Guldvik

The *Norwegian Labour Party* (Det Norske Arbeiderparti) adopted gender quotas in 1983. However, even before the adoption of quotas, the Labour Party markedly increased the number of women that it nominated in all districts, where either the Socialist Left or the Liberal Party placed a woman in the number one slot.¹⁵ Today, in all election lists the party has a 50 per cent quota for both sexes, and in addition, both sexes shall be represented in the first two positions on the lists. The *Centre Party* (Senterpartiet) and the *Christian's People's Party* (Kristelig Folkeparti) have each respectively had a 40 percent quota for either sex since 1989 and 1993.¹⁶

The first affirmative action for gender equality in Norway was marked by the *Act relating to Gender Equality*. The Act came into force in 1979 and has subsequently been amended several times, most recently in 2005. It imposes a duty on public authorities and employers to make active efforts to promote gender equality within their enterprises and prohibits direct and indirect differential treatment of both men and women, gender-based and sexual harassment, and ensures that men and women have an equal right to education.

With regard to childbearing, Norway's gender equality laws include maternity and paternity benefits. Mothers can receive their full salary and take leave for nearly one year, or they can opt for a 54-week maternity leave option and accept 80 per cent of wages paid. Since 1993, one month of the maternity benefit period has been strictly reserved for fathers. Additionally, under the *Working Environment Act* (WEA), each parent is entitled to a one year leave of absence from work without pay. In order to give mothers time to breastfeed and recover without pressure from their employer, the WEA prohibits new mothers from returning to work during the first six weeks immediately following the birth of their child.

The establishment of the *Equality and Anti-Discrimination Ombud Institution* (Likestillings- og diskrimineringsombudet) in 2006 aimed to enforce the legislation on Gender Equality. The Ombud Institution has the duty to monitor compliance with *the Act relating to Gender Equality*, decide on discrimination cases, or bring such cases before the *Equal and Anti-Discrimination Tribunal* (Likestillings- og diskrimineringsnemda). The Ombud Institution and the Tribunal are state-funded, but they are independent of governmental instruction in their work. In this sense, they are free to make recommendations and pass rulings over incidents which involve the

¹⁵ IDEA: "The Implementation of Quotas: European Experiences", 2005.

¹⁶ QuotaProject.org: www.quotaproject.org/uid/countryview.cfm?id=165#additional, (accessed 28 May 2010).

government and state institutions. In addition, the Ombud Institution shall look after the implementation of the UN Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).¹⁷

The Norwegian approach to the challenges of gender equality is multi-level and inter-ministerial. Each ministry is responsible for matters relating to gender equality in its own area of responsibility, as affirmed in the recommendation of the Fourth World Conference on Women of 1995.

Within this affirmative framework, gender quotas have been progressively implemented on national and local levels, as well as on boards of private sector companies. At the end of 2008, the Norwegian Ministry of Children and Equality published a report¹⁸ which described the current situation and the steps taken toward a more equal gendered power.

Beginning in 1988, both genders were required to be represented at the national level by at least 40 per cent of the members of all official committees, boards, councils etc.¹⁹ Today, several committees appointed by the Ministries of Defense, Environment, and Petroleum and Energy, Agriculture and Food, Justice and Police are failing to fulfill the 40 per cent quota requirement. This is the primary reason that the Minister of Fisheries and Coastal Affairs has appointed two new woman director generals, the Norwegian Coastal Administration and the Directorate of Fisheries, respectively.

At the local level, the *Local Government Act* came into force in 1993. It promotes a better gender balance in local government by encouraging party groups to incorporate a larger number of women on their lists of candidates and to place more women at the top of these lists. In addition, this Act focuses upon elections to municipal standing committees and executive boards where it

¹⁷ Ministry of children Equality and social inclusion: A joint machinery against all forms of discrimination, <http://www.regjeringen.no/en/dep/bld/Topics/equality/gender-equality-in-norway.html?id=445721>, (accessed 26 May 2010).

¹⁸ Ministry of Children and Equality: "Gender Equality 2009? Objectives, strategy and measures for ensuring gender equality", 18 December 2008, http://www.regjeringen.no/upload/BLD/Rapporter/2008/BLD_likestillingsrapport_eng_.pdf (accessed 25 May 2010).

¹⁹ Government.no: 'The Act relating to Gender Equality', www.regjeringen.no/en/doc/Laws/Acts/The-Act-relating-to-Gender-Equality-the-.html?id=454568# (accessed 27 May 2010).

imposes a 40 per cent minimum quota for each sex.²⁰ Moreover, if members of one sex would obtain less than 40 per cent to be allocated, candidates from the under-represented sex are moved as high up the list as necessary in order to achieve gender balance.²¹

Currently, the percentage of male members of municipal councils has declined and is close to 60 per cent overall. Most political parties enter women and men alternately on their list of candidates. However, there has been little change with regard to the chairs of municipal councils. For these reasons, the Government has granted 2.5 million EUR beginning in 2009 and intended to continue over the next four years to a project designed to increase the proportion of women in political positions in local government.

In recent years, Norway, as the first country in the world, has taken steps to ensure that women are represented on company boards in the public as well as in the private sector. This development was initiated on the basis of the recognition that the number of women on such company boards remained small due to structural barriers hindering women from achieving leading positions in the economic sector, despite the fact that an increasing number of women complete higher education.

Recent legislation which outlines a framework for gender equality on company boards in the public as well as in the private sector states that each gender must make up at least 40 per cent of the board representatives.²²

For state-owned companies, these rules entered into force on 1 January 2004. For private companies, a special agreement between the previous Government and the private business

²⁰ “The members of the standing committees are elected mainly from among the members of the local council, but other candidates are elected as well. For example, if the proportion of women on the local council is low, female committee members can be elected from outside council. However, members of the executive board can only be elected from among council members”. I. Guldvik, ‘Gender quota discourses – the Norwegian case’, Paper presented at the annual meeting of the MPSA Annual National Conference, Palmer House Hotel, Hilton, Chicago, IL, 3 April 2008, www.allacademic.com/meta/p266716_index.html (accessed 20 May 2010).

²¹ Ibid.

²² It applies to the election of alternates. For employee representatives this rule will be not applicable in companies where one of the genders represents less than twenty per cent of the total number of employees on the date of the election. In order to ensure independent election processes the rules must be applied separately to employee-elected and shareholder-elected representatives.

See Ministry of Children, Equality and Social Inclusion: Representation of both sexes on company boards. http://www.regjeringen.no/en/dep/bld/Topics/equality/kjonn_og_makt/Balanced-gender-representation-on-compan.html?id=1250 (accessed 21 May 2010).

sector had determined that these rules should not come into effect if the desired gender representation was achieved voluntarily by 1 July 2005. By that time, 13.1 per cent of private companies fulfilled all the demands laid down by the law. This is the reason why rules regarding privately owned companies entered into force on 1 January 2006 with a two-year transitional period for companies registered prior to that date. In 2008 the goal of 40 per cent gender parity on privately-owned company boards was achieved. However, there have been no changes in the areas that are not explicitly covered by the Act.

From 1 January 2008, co-operatives with more than 1000 members are obligated to represent both sexes on their boards. Furthermore, according to an amendment to the *Local Government Act*, rules on representation of both sexes is applied to limited private companies, where municipalities own 2/3 or more of the shares by 1 January 2010.

The Brønnøysund Register Centre oversees the enforcement of the statutory requirements. It will refuse to register a company board if its composition does not meet these requirements.²³

Conclusions

Norway has used gender quotas to create or preserve a more equitable distribution of political power between men and women. Its purpose of the quota system has been to create a balanced *procedure* for achieving an equitable distribution of power between women and men, particularly in the field of politics and the economy. At the same time, Norway has also adopted affirmative action aimed at complementing the effect of quotas on gender equality and balance.

²³ A company which does not have a board that fulfills the statutory requirements may be dissolved by order of the court. It is unlikely that any companies will be dissolved by the court on account of the gender representation rule. The Ministry of Trade and Industry may decide that a forced dissolution shall not be executed because of substantial public interests. In such cases, the company will have to pay a compulsory fine until gender conditions within the company are in compliance with the law. Ibid.

III. 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 2009 Secretary's General Annual Evaluation Report on the Implementation of the 2004 OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality.

As of 1 May 2009, the OSCE had a total staff of 2,745, with women representing 44 per cent. Even though the number of women in management positions²⁴ within all OSCE structures has increased from 19 per cent in May 2008 to 24 per cent in May 2009, this number remains low compared to the number of women in professional or support positions²⁵ (see table 1).

It is also notable that in June 2010, all but one of the OSCE Institutions are headed by men and only one Head of Mission is a woman.

Since the approval of the Gender Action Plan in 2004, the proportion of women in **professional positions**²⁶ overall has increased on average by two per cent per year from 35 to 45 per cent.

Table 1: Post Distribution by Category of Staff in the OSCE

Category	Men	Women	Total	% Women
Support Staff	915	773	1688	46%
Professional Staff	512	411	923	45%
Management	102	32	134	24%
Total	1529	1216	2745	44%

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2009

In the Secretariat and Institutions combined, the percentage of women holding professional posts has increased from 33 to 35 per cent, while the number of women in management positions has increased slightly from seven to nine of a total of 39 management posts (23 per cent) (see table 2).

²⁴ Management including S3, S4, P5, D1, D2, heads and deputy heads of field operations and institutions.

²⁵ For OSCE employment grades see Annex 1

²⁶ Including national professionals and P1 to P4 levels and S2 levels.

This trend continues in the Field Operations, where the number of international female professionals has reached 48 per cent, which is close to equal representation of men and women.

Also, the number of women in management positions in the Field Operations increased significantly.²⁷ Women now occupy 24 per cent of all management positions in the Field Operations, against 20 per cent in the last reporting period. However, significant differences by Field Operations remain: for example, in the Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina, there are only two female managers out of 13 management positions.

Unfortunately, the low number of female Heads and Deputy Heads of Field Operations changed little in the reporting period (May 2008 - May 2009). Out of 21 Field Operations and Institutions, only one was headed by a woman (Mission to Montenegro). Out of 14 Deputy Heads of Field Operations, four were women (specifically in the Centre in Astana, Office in Minsk, Presence in Albania, and the Spillover Monitor Mission to Skopje).

Thus, even with a woman as Special Representative on the Media, the number of female Heads of Institutions and Field Operations remains alarmingly low.

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	74	172	246	70%
Professional Staff	144	77	221	35%
Management	30	9	39	23%
Total	248	258	506	51%

²⁷ However, on 1 May 2009, there were still a number of field operations where all contracted and seconded senior management positions were occupied by men: the Centre in Ashgabat, the Mission to Moldova, the Mission to Serbia, the Project Co-ordinator in Ukraine, the Project Co-ordinator in Uzbekistan, the Office in Yerevan, and the Office of the Personal Representative of the CiO on the Conflict dealt with by the OSCE Minsk Conference.

Filed Operations Staff				
Category	Men	Women	Total	% Women
Support Staff	841	601	1442	42%
Professional Staff	368	334	702	48%
Management	72	23	95	24%
Total	1281	958	2239	43%
Grand TOTAL	1529	1216	2745	44%

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2009

a. OSCE Secretariat

In total, in the Secretariat in Vienna, women hold 33 per cent of all professional posts (increase by two per cent since the last reporting period). There is a continuing clear predominance of men in P-level and women in G-level positions as shown in table 3. It is noteworthy that two out of eight high level positions (D+) on the Director and Secretary General are held by women. In 2007, those positions were solely 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	117	65%	8	26%	40	0	2	0	33%	167	49%
Men	64	35%	23	74%	81	1	4	1	67%	174	51%
Total	181	100%	31	100%	121	1	6	1	100%	341	100%

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2009

b. Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR)

The total of ODIHR's staff amounts to 114 persons, of which 69 are women (61%). Despite the high number of women, their representation in the professional staff category has increased only slightly from 35 to 36 per cent since the last reporting period, and there are only two women holding a P5+ leadership position, out of seven.

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

	G1-G7	G in %	S	S in %	P1-P5	D1	D2	Head inst.	P+ in %	Total	Total in %
Women	43	81%	7	88%	19	0	0	0	36%	69	61%
Men	10	19%	1	13%	32	1		1	64%	45	39%
Total	53	100%	8	100%	51	1	0	1	100%	114	100%

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2009

In comparison to last year, the gender distribution at the G-level became even more asymmetrical; 81 per cent of the G-positions are held by women.

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

On the surface, the Office of the High Commissioner on National Minorities seems to have a quite balanced staff situation. However, it is important to stress that in comparison with the last reporting period number of women decreased by three per cent in the total number. Out of 13 P+ positions, only two are held by women, whereas the G-level positions consist of exclusively 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	Head inst.	P+ in %	Total	Total in %
Women	7	100%	4	67%	2	0	0	0	14%	13	48%
Men	0	0%	2	33%	10	1	0	1	86%	14	52%
Total	7	100%	6	100%	12	1	0	1	100%	27	100%

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2009

d. Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media

Since last year, the overall gender balance in the Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media has changed. Women and men are equally represented at professional level (P+). However, in May 2009, only men occupied senior management posts, and all of the general service staff members were women. As a positive development, a woman was appointed OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media on 11 March 2010.

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	Head inst.	P+ in %	Total	Total in %
Women	3	100%	1	50%	3				50%	7	64%
Men		0%	1	50%	1	1		1	50%	4	36%
Total	3	100%	2	100%	4	1	0	1	100%	11	100%

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2009- please note that Dunja Mijatovic was appointed OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media on 11 March 2010

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 465 staff members seconded by 47 participating States of the OSCE, 38 per cent were women, which is a significant increase compared to last year's 31 per cent. The number of women among the secondees varies between the different participating States. Some countries have an even higher number of women in seconded positions than the gender parity, for example Finland (66 per cent of secondees were women), Croatia (62 per cent) and the Czech Republic (53 per cent). However, some countries did not nominate any women to seconded positions (for example, Armenia, Bosnia and Herzegovina), or nominated a small number of women, such as the Netherlands (17 per cent), Italy (21 per cent) and Spain (22 per cent).

It is interesting to note that although more women are nominated for secondment in the Secretariat and Institutions, only 32 per cent of the hired seconded personnel are women.

Table 7: Average of Nominations and Secondments

Nominations			
Secretariat and Institutions		Field Operations	
Women	Men	Women	Men
54%	46%	29%	71%
Effectively Seconded			
Secretariat and Institutions		Field Operations	
Women	Men	Women	Men
32%	68%	31%	69%

Note: period from 2005 to 1 May 2009

f. Field Operations

The situation in the Field Operations varies depending on size of the Operation and the mandate. The distribution ranges from 31 per cent female staff in the Mission of Kosovo, the largest OSCE Field mission, up to 74 per cent in the OSCE Office in Yerevan.

As in previous years, there are expertise areas in which men and women are equally represented in the Field Operations, such as Human Rights (57 per cent), Media Affairs (55 per cent), Democratization (51 per cent), and Rule of Law (50 per cent). On the other hand, women are not represented in Military Affairs, and they are underrepresented in Civilian Police (12 per cent), and Political Affairs (28 per cent).

Field Operation	Women	In %	Men	In %	Total
OSCE Presence in Albania	39	53%	35	47%	74
OSCE Centre in Ashgabad	8	44%	10	56%	18
OSCE Centre in Astana	15	71%	6	29%	21
OSCE Centre in Baku	10	53%	9	47%	19
OSCE Centre in Bishkek	28	42%	39	58%	67
OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina	231	53%	204	47%	435
OSCE Mission in Kosovo	181	31%	408	69%	589
OSCE Office in Minsk	7	88%	1	13%	8
OSCE Mission to Moldova	20	57%	15	43%	35
OSCE Mission to Montenegro	17	55%	14	45%	31
OSCE Mission to Serbia	65	52%	60	48%	125
OSCE Office in Tajikistan	40	41%	58	59%	98
OSCE Spillover Monitor Mission to Skopje	58	40%	87	60%	145
OSCE Project Co-ordinator in Ukraine	22	63%	13	37%	35
OSCE Project Co-ordinator in Uzbekistan	5	36%	9	64%	14
OSCE Office in Yerevan	23	74%	8	26%	31
OSCE Office in Zagreb	13	54%	11	46%	24
Personal Repr. of the CiO on the Conflict dealt with by the Minsk Conference	6	55%	5	45%	11
Secretariat	117	65%	64	35%	181
Institutions	55	85%	10	15%	65
Grand Total	960	47%	1066	53%	2026

Note: numbers as of 1 May 2009

g. Gender in OSCE Documents

Despite the fact that in 2005 the Ministerial Council declared a determination “*to make an effective gender mainstreaming an integral part of all policies, activities and programmes in the OSCE*”²⁸ the 2006 meeting of the Ministers merely acknowledged “*the need to promote gender balance of personnel ... at the various levels*”²⁹ 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 all³⁰. Moreover, none of the thirteen 2008 Ministerial Council’s Decisions mentioned gender relations. There was only one out of 19 Ministerial Council Decisions in 2009 which focused on gender issues: ‘Women’s Participation in Political and Public Life’.³¹

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 was the progress in promoting women’s economic empowerment. The reports provided by the OSCE Missions in 2009 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.

²⁸ MC.DEC/17/05, Strengthening the Effectiveness of the OSCE

²⁹ MC.DEC/19/06, Strengthening the Effectiveness of the OSCE, Section 1, 4

³⁰ MC.DEC/10/07

³¹ MC.DD/0005/09

IV. Gender in the OSCE PA

a. Member Directory Statistics

From the Membership Directory of the OSCE PA (see table below and annex II), it is clear that 66 women (21.5 per cent) serve as regular Members of the OSCE PA, and an additional 44 women serve as Alternate Members. This largely reflects the level of participation of women in the Assembly's meetings; the 2009 Annual Session had 20.2 per cent female participation, and the 2010 Winter Meeting had 21.9 per cent women participants. However, less of the Assembly's female Members participate in election observation missions, where the Assembly has an average of only 18.2 per cent female participation.

	Women	In %	Men	In %	Total
OSCE PA Members	66	21.5%	241	78.5%	307
OSCE PA Alternate Members	44	30.6%	100	69.4%	144
OSCE PA Secretaries	37	55.2%	30	44.8%	67
OSCE PA Staff	14	82.4%	3	17.7%	17

The OSCE PA members data cover situation as of 14 June 2010 (representatives of the Holy See are not included in the statistics).

b. Initiative to Boost Women's Participation

During the Eighth Winter Meeting of the OSCE PA that took place in Vienna on 19-20 February 2009, the Special Representative on Gender Issues Tone Tingsgaard proposed an amendment to the Rules of Procedure in order to ensure that all national delegations include representatives of both genders. During its meeting at the Vilnius Annual Session, the Standing Committee agreed to introduce a new sub-section to Rule 1 stating that “*Each national Delegation should have both genders represented.*” From Annex II it is clear that 17 Parliaments have yet to nominate women as full OSCE PA Members within their national OSCE PA Delegations.

c. Gender in the Assembly Bureau

After a change to the Rules of Procedure in 2007, the Bureau includes the President, the nine Vice-Presidents, the Treasurer and the President Emeritus, as well as the three Officers of each

of the General Committees. This means that the presentation of the statistics for the Bureau members is slightly different from previous years. Presently, the Bureau has a total Membership of 21, out of whom four are women – equivalent to 19 per cent.

d. 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 female: Helle Degn (from 1998-2000). From 1992 to 2010 the Assembly had 51 Vice-Presidents, of which 13 have been female, which makes 25.5 per cent. Of the current nine Vice-Presidents, two are female (22 per cent).

e. Officers of the OSCE PA General Committees

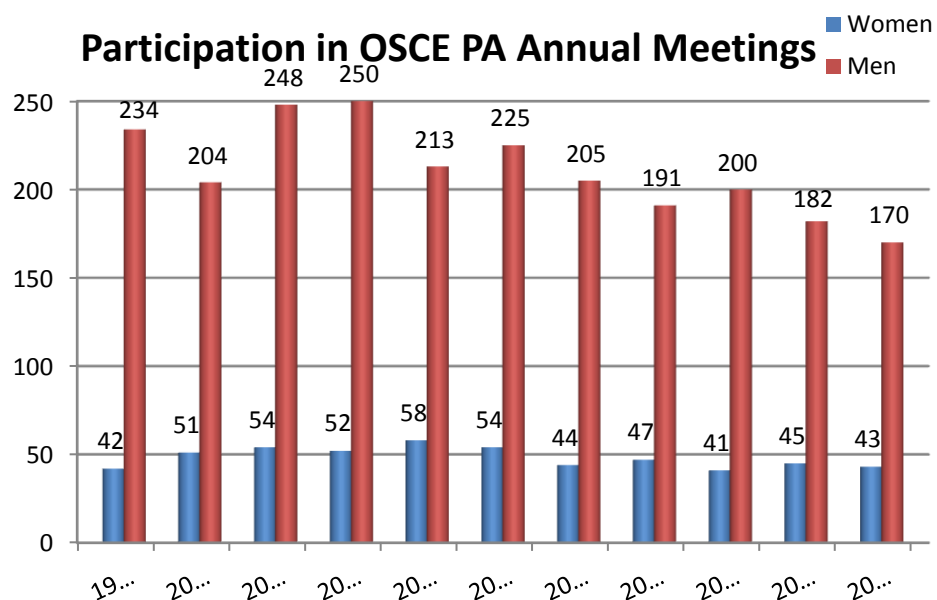
In 2009/2010, two out of nine Committee Officers were women, which is 22 per cent. This represents a slight decrease from 25 per cent last year. The difference in composition of the Committees is notable in that women are strongly underrepresented in the General Committee on Economic Affairs, Science, Technology and Environment. This Committee has not had a female Officer in the past five years.

However, in 2009 the situation changed in the General Committee on Political Affairs and Security. Canan Kalsin from Turkey was elected as Vice-Chair of the Committee as the second woman working in this Committee's leadership since 1992.

f. Participation in OSCE PA Meetings

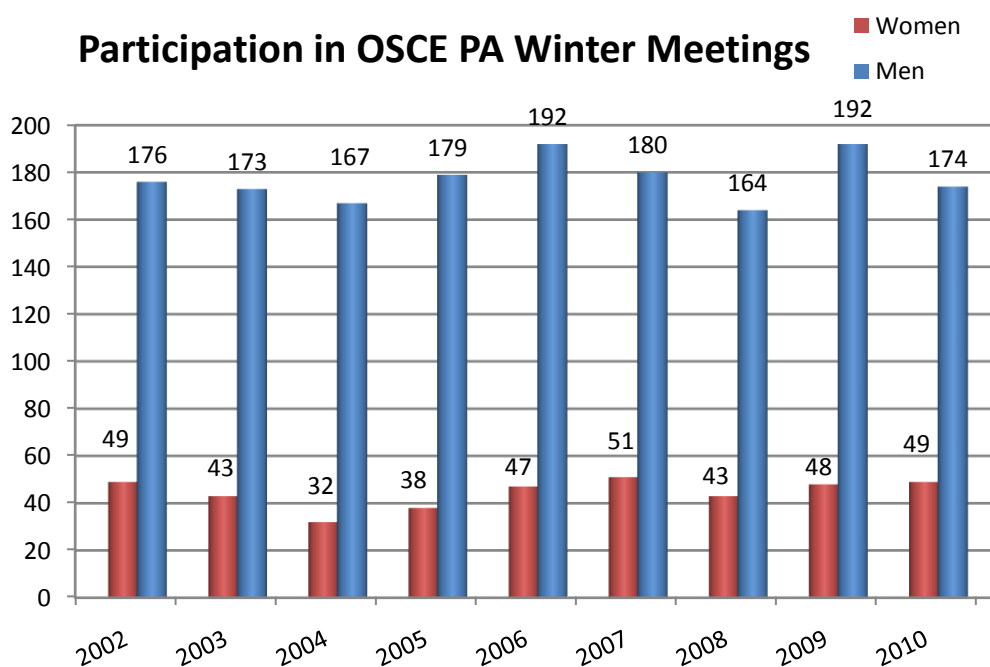
The following charts show the general attendance at the OSCE PA's Meetings and the ratio between male and female Members of Parliament who participated.

i Annual Sessions



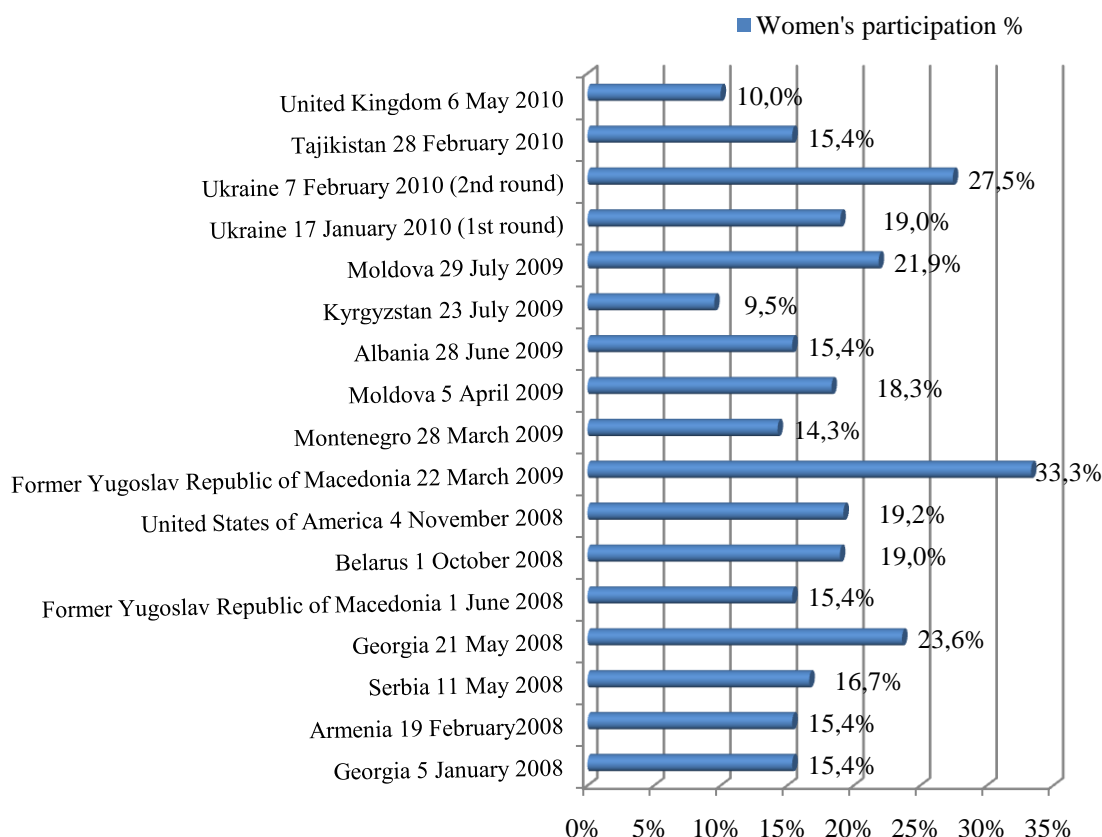
In 2009 the number of women attending the Annual Meeting slightly decreased from 45 to 43 in comparison to 2008, falling short of the average of 49 women attending over previous ten years.

ii Winter Meetings



The gender statistics on the Assembly's Winter Meetings show that the 2007 Winter Meeting witnessed the highest number of female participants in nine years with 51 women attending the meeting. In 2010 the level reached 49 women attending, above the average of 44 women attending previous OSCE PA Winter Meetings.

g. Participation in OSCE PA Election Monitoring 2008/2010



The figures concerning female participation in OSCE PA election monitoring show that in the years 2008/2010 the number of female Members of Parliament remains low, with an average of 18.2 per cent.

h. Permanent Staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat

Among the Permanent Staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat, seven out of eighteen staff members (39 per cent) 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 – four women and three men. During the last fifteen years 88 male and 96 female research fellows have participated in the Programme, which totals 52.2 percent female representation.

j. Female Representation in National Parliaments of OSCE Countries

The female representation at OSCE PA Meetings has to be seen in light of the general representation of women in national parliaments within OSCE countries. The table in 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 last 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 percent.

Women in Parliament across the OSCE Region

	Single House or Lower House	Upper House or Senate	Both Houses Combined
Europe - OSCE member countries Including Nordic countries	21.20%	19.50%	20.90%
Europe - OSCE member countries Excluding Nordic countries	19.30%	19.50%	19.30%

V. Annexes

Annex I - OSCE Employment Grades³²

Institutions			Field Operation				
Head of Institution			Head of Field Operation				
			Deputy Head of Field Operation				
Directing Staff	D2		Directing Staff		D2		
	D1				D1		
Professionally Qualified, P-Level (Substantive work)	P 5		Professionally Qualified, P-Level (Substantive work)		P 5	Seconded Posts	S4
							S3
Management Level							
	P 4	Seconded Posts (not classified)		P 4		S2	
	P 3			P 3		S 1	
	P 2			P 2			
	P 1			P 1			
			National Professionals	NP 3			
				NP 2			
				NP 1			
General Staff, G-Level (Administrative and technical work)	G 7		General Staff, G-Level (Administrative and technical work)	G 7			
	G 6			G 6			
	G 5			G 5			
	G 4			G 4			
	G 3			G 3			
	G 2			G 2			
	G 1			G 1			

³² This employment grading system in descending order based on seniority will be referred to throughout the analysis

Annex II - Women in National Parliaments in OSCE Countries and in OSCE PA Delegations

Women in Parliament in OSCE Countries								Women OSCE PA Delegation		
Rank	Country	Lower or Single House			Upper House or Senate			Members		
		Seats	Women	%	Seats	Women	%	Members	Women	%
1	Sweden	349	164	47.0	---	---	---	8	4	50
2	Iceland	63	27	42.9	---	---	---	3	0	0
3	Finland	200	83	41.5	---	---	---	6	1	16.7
4	Netherlands	150	62	41.3	75	26	34.7	8	2	25
5	Denmark	179	68	38.0	---	---	---	6	2	33.3
6	Spain	350	127	36.3	263	79	30.0	10	3	30
7	Norway	169	61	36.1	---	---	---	6	2	33.3
8	Belgium	150	53	35.3	71	27	38.0	8	1	12.5
9	Germany	612	197	32.2	69	15	21.7	13	4	30.8
10	Andorra	28	9	32.1	---	---	---	2	1	50
11	Belarus	110	35	31.8	56	19	33.9	6	4	66.7
12	Switzerland	200	57	28.5	46	10	21.7	6	1	16.7
13	Portugal	230	65	28.3	---	---	---	6	1	16.7
14	Former Yugoslav	120	34	28.3	---	---	---	3	0	0
15	Austria	183	51	27.9	61	15	24.6	6	1	16.7
16	Kyrgyzstan	90	23	25.6	---	---	---	3	0	0
17	Monaco	24	6	25.0	---	---	---	2	1	50
18	Liechtenstein	25	6	24.0	---	---	---	2	1	50
19	Republic of	101	24	23.8	---	---	---	3	1	33.3
20	Luxembourg	60	14	23.3	---	---	---	5	1	20
21	Canada	308	68	22.1	93	32	34.4	10	3	30
22	Bulgaria	240	52	21.7	---	---	---	5	0	0
23	Serbia	250	54	21.6	---	---	---	4	3	75
24	Italy	630	134	21.3	322	58	18.0	13	1	7.7
25	Croatia	153	32	20.9	---	---	---	3	1	33.3
26	Estonia	101	21	20.8	---	---	---	3	0	0
28	Poland	460	93	20.2	100	8	8.0	8	2	25
29	Latvia	100	20	20.0	---	---	---	3	0	0
30	United Kingdom	646	126	19.5	746	147	19.7	13	4	30.1
31	Slovakia	150	29	19.3	---	---	---	4	1	25
32	France	577	105	18.2	343	75	21.9	13	0	0
33	Lithuania	141	25	17.7	---	---	---	3	1	33.3
34	Tajikistan	63	11	17.5	34	8	23.5	3	0	0
35	Uzbekistan	120	21	17.5	100	15	15.0	No data		
36	Turkmenistan	125	21	16.8	---	---	---	No data		
37	United States of	435	73	16.8	98	15	15.3	14	3	21.4

Women in Parliament in OSCE Countries								Women OSCE PA Delegation		
Rank	Country	Lower or Single House			Upper House or Senate			Members		
		Seats	Women	%	Seats	Women	%	Members	Women	%
38	Kazakhstan	107	17	15.9	47	2	4.3	6	1	16.7
39	Czech Republic	200	31	15.5	81	14	17.3	6	1	16.7
40	San Marino	60	9	15.0	---	---	---	2	0	0
41	Greece	300	44	14.7	---	---	---	6	0	0
42	Cyprus	56	8	14.3	---	---	---	3	1	33.3
43	Russian Federation	450	63	14.0	169	8	4.7	15	4	26.7
44	Ireland	166	22	13.3	60	13	21.7	6	1	16.7
45	Slovenia	90	12	13.3	40	1	2.5	3	0	0
46	Bosnia and	42	5	11.9	15	2	13.3	3	0	0
47	Azerbaijan	123	14	11.4	---	---	---	3	2	66.7
48	Romania	334	38	11.4	137	8	5.8	7	2	28.6
49	Hungary	386	43	11.1	---	---	---	6	1	16.7
50	Turkey	549	50	9.1	---	---	---	8	2	25
51	Malta	69	6	8.7	---	---	---	3	0	0
52	Armenia	131	11	8.4	---	---	---	3	0	0
53	Ukraine	450	37	8.2	---	---	---	7	0	0
54	Albania	140	10	7.1	---	---	---	3	1	33.3
55	Montenegro	81	5	6.2	---	---	---	3	0	0
56	Georgia	150	9	6.0	---	---	---	3	0	0

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

The OSCE PA members data cover situation as of 14 June 2010 (representatives of the Holy See are not included in the statistics).