

GENDER BALANCE REPORT

OSCE PARLIAMENTARY ASSEMBLY

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*Women as National, Ethnic, Linguistic, Racial and
Religious Minorities*

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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 2012 Gender Report is women as national, ethnic, linguistic, racial and religious minorities. The topic is all the more fitting in light of the 20th anniversary in 2012 of the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities.

The 2012 Gender Report concludes that, despite continuing efforts, the OSCE Gender Action Plan from 2004 has had little discernible success so far in increasing the number of women in top management positions. The top leadership is still dominated by men, with the number of female professionals in management positions increasing from 30 per cent in 2010 to 31 per cent in 2011. All but one Head of OSCE Institutions and all but two Heads of Field Operations are men.

II. Women Minorities

a. Framing the Issue¹

In order to formulate appropriate legislation and policies to address the challenges and concerns related to gender equality and the protection and promotion of women's rights, it is important to appreciate the diversity of women and the multiple and intersecting barriers and sources of discrimination they face that prevent them from fully enjoying their rights and from enhancing their political, economic and social participation.

¹ Material in this section was drawn primarily from the following sources: Report of the Independent Expert on Minority Issues, United Nations Human Rights Council, 3 January 2012; Recommendations of the Forum on Minority Issues: Guaranteeing the Rights of Minority Women and Girls, United Nations Human Rights Council, 3 January 2012; Note by the Independent Expert on Minority Issues on Guaranteeing the Rights of Minority Women, United Nations Human Rights Council, 13 September 2011; Minority Rights: International Standards and Guidance for Implementation, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner on Human Rights, 2010; Democratic Citizenship, Languages, Diversity and Human Rights: Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe from Linguistic Diversity to Plurilingual Education, 2002.

In this respect, women minorities, i.e. women with a national or ethnic, linguistic, racial, cultural or religious identity that differs from that of the majority population and who are in a non-dominant position,² are double-burdened in that they face barriers as women and as members of a minority group.³ Their life experiences differ from those of men, from majority women, and from minority men.

For decision-makers and legislators, addressing the challenges that emerge from this intersection of women's and minority concerns is complex, requiring both a gendering of minority rights and the valuing of the diversity of women. Adding to the complexity is the diversity among minorities and the varying types and degrees of disadvantages faced depending on the visibility of their identity; their knowledge of the local language; if they are an indigenous people, native born, migrants, or first, second or third generation; their socio-economic status; and the traditional gender roles in their community and culture. The experience of members of minority groups vary in relationship to their geographic concentration, sense and strength of identity, and the characteristics that constitute that identity. Thus, a one-size fits all approach to enhancing gender equality and addressing minority concerns is unlikely to be effective.

Moreover, an internationally agreed definition of minority does not exist nor does agreement as to which groups constitute minorities, although there is a general understanding that membership in a minority group comprises objective and subjective factors and members are motivated by a concern to preserve together that which constitutes their common identity. In this respect, some individuals are assigned minority status without identifying as such, and some states deny the existence of a minority on their territory despite members of the group seeing themselves as such.⁴

² Minority Rights: International Standards and Guidance for Implementation, United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, 2010.

³ In many instances, religious, racial, linguistic, ethnic, cultural or national identities overlap, compounding the discrimination.

⁴ Report on the Integration of women belonging to ethnic minority groups, Committee on Women's Rights and Gender Equality, European Parliament, 30 June 2010; Mandate of the OSCE High Commissioner on National Minorities, <http://www.osce.org/hcnm/43201>

Many women minorities remain vulnerable to many disadvantages, despite their rights as women, minorities, and indigenous peoples being enshrined *inter alia* in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant of Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Declaration, the Declaration on the Rights of Persons Belonging to National or Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, and the Universal Declaration of the Rights of Indigenous Peoples.⁵ The most prominent and impacting disadvantages include inadequate access to quality education, the labour market and employment (including pay equity, promotions, hiring), justice and legal protection, housing and basic services, health services, and financial services. Many have limited if any knowledge of the local language and of information and support services.

Many women minorities are vulnerable to poor socio-economic conditions due to a lack of economic independence, resulting in higher levels of impoverishment for them and their families relative to the majority population. They are more likely to live in segregated low-income and overcrowded housing and neighbourhoods, often with limited access to basic services. Their health risks are higher and outcomes are worse. They are also more vulnerable to trafficking and domestic violence. Some women minorities are stateless, unable to obtain documentation because of the barriers they face, and are thereby deprived of citizenship and the legal rights contained therein. Other disadvantages include barriers concerning the use of their own language in private and public, as well as the practice of their religion in private and public.

Ultimately, many women minorities are politically, economically and socially alienated. Their isolation and marginalization from the majority population is compounded by society's intolerance and negative treatment of them, systemic discrimination, and prejudice and misinformation concerning their differences and values. They are frequently victims of

⁵ Twelve OSCE participating States did not vote, abstained or voted against the Universal Declaration on the Rights of Indigenous People: Azerbaijan, Georgia, Canada, the United States, Russia, Ukraine, Romania, Kyrgyzstan, Uzbekistan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, and Montenegro.

extremism and targets of hate crimes. Under difficult economic conditions and political uncertainty, they also become scapegoats. Without knowledge of the local language or culture, or access to support services, they are unable to negotiate their interests and demand respect for their rights.

Their alienation and access to political, economic and social life is complicated further as these women may also face discrimination within their communities. Because of the persistence of traditional domestic and gendered roles, they may face internal cultural, traditional, and religious barriers from within their group to their participation in decision-making, their economic empowerment and mobility, thereby resulting in lack of social and economic contact, lack of access to child care, health services, education, and inability to own property. Women in marginalized groups are often unable to access justice when they are victims of domestic violence if such incidents are not recognised as a crime within their community; they may also be unaware of what protection and legal services are available to them. Moreover, as women belonging to a minority group, their gendered concerns frequently receive a lower priority than those related to the rights of the group in general.

Ultimately, women minorities are caught in a vicious circle whereby the discrimination and prejudice they face leads to their political, economic, and social alienation within and outside their communities, and limits their ability to participate in decision-making bodies, whether in formally elected offices or informal bodies of their community, on issues that concern them as women and as members of a minority. This in turn renders them unable to affect meaningful change and to enjoy their human rights.

b. Women Minorities in the OSCE Region⁶

Women minorities within the participating States of the OSCE have made great strides in terms of their political, economic and social achievements and contributions to their own

⁶ The material in this section was drawn primarily from Data in Focus Report: Multiple Discrimination, European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2010; Ethnic Minority and Roma Women in Europe: A Case for Gender Equality? European Commission, 2010. For additional information, see Democratic Citizenship, Languages, Diversity and Human Rights: Guide for the Development of Language Education Policies in Europe from Linguistic Diversity to Plurilingual Education.

communities as well as society at large. However, such achievements vary widely and many women in marginalized groups face disadvantages and discrimination as described in the preceding pages, with some facing considerably more than others. Given that an adequate and comprehensive presentation of these experiences is beyond the scope of this report, the disadvantages and vulnerabilities of four groups in the region will be highlighted as particularly noteworthy for parliamentarians and decision-makers alike: racial minority women; migrant women; indigenous women; and Roma and Sinti women.

It bears noting that a proper evaluation of the state of women minorities in the OSCE region is made significantly more difficult because of the absence of consistent and standardized sex-disaggregated data of minorities across the participating States. Law enforcement agencies are noted to be especially weak in collecting data on women in marginalized groups. Indeed, data collection is central to identifying, comparing and taking steps to remedy forms of discrimination against women in general and women minorities in particular that otherwise might go unnoticed.

i. Racial Minorities⁷

Racial minority women in the OSCE region are diverse in their life experiences and the extent to which they face disadvantages and discrimination. They include women of African descent, Latinas, Asians, and South Asians. They are diverse not only in terms of race, but also in terms of status in the country as native-born or migrants, country of origin and the number of generations established in the country, level of education, age, language skills, religious identity and ethnicity, their demographic proportion relative to members of the dominant racial group and the pace at which the proportion is changing, socio-economic status, level of political participation, access to affirmative action or positive measures to

⁷ Material for this section was drawn primarily from Visible Minority Women, Statistics Canada, 2011; The Persistence of Racial and Ethnic Profiling in the United States: A Follow-Up Report to the U.N. Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, American Civil Liberties Union, 2009; Singled Out: Exploratory study on ethnic profiling in Ireland and its impact on migrant workers and their families, Migrant Rights Centre Ireland, March 2011.

remedy their disadvantages, urban or rural settlement, life expectancy, health risks, and their rate of employment and in what sectors.

However, as a group they are more vulnerable to discrimination and the violation of their rights than racial majority women because of the visibly identifiable characteristic of their race. Accordingly, throughout the OSCE region, they are more likely than racial majority women to face prejudice, intolerance or unfair treatment in the workplace, particularly concerning applications, hiring, or promotion; in education, health care, social services and welfare, and financial institutions; in public transportation and at border crossings. They also face greater risk of being victims of hate crimes.

Many racial minority women throughout the OSCE region face particular disadvantages in the form of racial profiling by state institutions such as law enforcement and border security. While there are many dimensions and manifestations of racial profiling, one particular concern related to its violation of human rights is its tendency to investigate and question a person of interest or potential suspect of a crime – committed or planned - based on subjective characteristics rather than on evidence. Such investigations rely on race as a proxy for presumption of a crime committed.⁸ They are profiled under a range of circumstances, including as commercial sex trade workers, drug traffickers or drug users, and alcoholics. As a result, racial minority women have encounters with law enforcement disproportionate to their share of the general population and are also over represented in the criminal justice system. According to one report, they are more likely to be victims of police misconduct and brutality, including rape, sexual harassment, assault, overly invasive and abusive and humiliating searches, which often go unreported by the women.⁹

Racial minority women are frequently profiled as illegal migrants or are targeted for unwarranted arrests in order to uncover evidence of not being documented. In some cases, there is also a disproportionate number of arrests of racial minority women for documentation

⁸ The Persistence of Racial and Ethnic Profiling in the United States: A Follow-Up Report to the U.N. Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, American Civil Liberties Union, 2009.

⁹ The Persistence of Racial and Ethnic Profiling in the United States: A Follow-Up Report to the U.N. Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination, American Civil Liberties Union, 2009.

reasons during the course of domestic violence investigations, creating a disincentive for reporting domestic violence.

For women minorities, racial profiling undermines their trust in state institutions and police enforcement, as well as their sense of equal protection under the law. Such conditions can be particularly dangerous for victims of domestic violence who stay in a violent situation because of a sense of having no choice or recourse to justice. Racial profiling compounds the sense of alienation, exacerbates racism and xenophobia, and deepens their social, political, and economic marginalisation.

ii. Migrant Women¹⁰

The conflation of belonging to a national, ethnic, religious, racial or linguistic minority and being a migrant renders a woman particularly vulnerable to multiple discriminations and to political, economic and social alienation. Migrant women in the OSCE region, however, are not a monolithic group and vary according to numerous distinctions in addition to their minority identity or identities, such as their motivation for migration, country of origin, level of education, employability in their profession, and whether migration was voluntary or involuntary, temporary or permanent, legal or illegal. They also differ in terms of their access to training and education and to support for integration and language skills development. Their experiences with respect to the violation of their human rights will vary accordingly.

¹⁰ Maria Kontos, “Between Integration and Exclusion: Migrant Women in European Labour Markets,” *Migration Information Source*, Migration Policy Institute, 23 March 2011; “Care to Care? Addressing the challenges of integrating migrant women into Europe’s labour force,” RAND Europe, 2009; Kathleen Ferrier, Special Representative on Migration OSCE PA, Remarks on Peace and Confidence-Building Through Economic and Environmental Co-operation, OSCE Parliamentary Assembly Economic Conference – *Fostering Economic Co-operation and Stability in the OSCE region*, Batumi, Georgia, 12 May 2012; Kathleen Ferrier, Special Representative on Migration OSCE PA, Remarks at the Trans-Asian Parliamentary Forum, Almaty, Kazakhstan, 15 May 2010; Kathleen Ferrier, Special Representative on Migration, OSCE PA, Winter Meeting, Vienna, Austria, 24 February 2011; Hedy Fry, Special Representative on Gender issues, OSCE PA, Gender Balance Report, 2011.

Women minorities who migrated for economic or employment reasons are less well integrated into the labour market than native-born or majority women and migrant men. They are commonly employed in marginal, gendered positions and in irregular sectors. These include domestic work, caregiving, health care, agriculture and food processing, the hospitality and restaurant industry, as well as the sex trade. Some of these sectors are especially sensitive to economic downturns as is any support for training or social programs, making many of these women additionally vulnerable.

Women migrants belonging to a minority group and who are undocumented; lack a legitimate residency status; have limited access to reliable information, support, and legal protection; and are without knowledge of the local language are particularly vulnerable. If they were trafficked, they are completely dependent on those who exploited them and are more vulnerable to conditions of enslavement because of the apparent absence of any viable options.

While the predominant image of the minority migrant woman in the OSCE region is of an economic migrant, it is important to note the different life experience of those minority migrant women who are refugees or internally displaced persons. Some of these women are displaced because of long-standing and unsettled conflicts in the OSCE region. Many more seek resettlement and asylum from conflicts outside the region. According to the United Nations High Commission on Refugees, there are some 4.8 million persons falling under its mandate in the OSCE region. They include some 2.5 million refugees and asylum-seekers, 1.4 million internally displaced persons, and some 880,000 returnees, stateless and other persons of concern.¹¹

Accordingly, migrant women minorities are more likely to be economically disadvantaged, in low-paying, unskilled, part-time, unprotected, informal positions, regardless of their education or qualifications, and to lack access to access to child care, training and education. Coupled with their marginalization because of limited knowledge of the local language and access to information services, they are more vulnerable to danger, exploitation and abuse,

¹¹ <http://www.osce.org/home/71530>.

sexual harassment, lack of access to justice and protection, and victimisation. Their potential political, economic and social contribution is thereby seriously constrained.

It is important to note that the OSCE participating States vary significantly in terms of migration management measures and the impact of these measures on migrant women, including the regulation of many of these sectors, the administration of work permits for migrant workers, support and protection services, recognition of foreign credentials and education, criminalization of traffickers, management of the commercial sex trade, and the enforcement of these measures.

iii. Indigenous Women¹²

While no internationally agreed definition of indigenous peoples exists, they are generally considered a non-dominant group with a distinct identity who inhabited lands before colonialism and the establishment of state borders and who have a strong and long term attachment to those ancestral lands and the natural resources contained therein. The rights of indigenous peoples are protected as minority rights under international law as well as mechanisms and mandates relating to them directly.

In the OSCE region, indigenous peoples live in particular in Canada and the United States, and the circumpolar states of Denmark (Greenland), Sweden, Norway, Finland and Russia. The diversity among these indigenous populations is evident particularly in terms of language and culture, but also in location. Whether residing in southern, central or northern regions, or located in urban centres, indigenous peoples face challenges and threats to their way of life through the degree of control, ownership and development of natural resources, access to and

¹² Material in this section was primarily drawn from Arctic Human Development Report: Gender Issues, Stefansson Arctic Institute, Iceland, 2004; Tonina Simeone, "The Arctic: Northern Aboriginal peoples," Library of Parliament, Parliament of Canada, October 2008; Clara Morgan, "The Arctic: Gender Issues," Library of Parliament, Parliament of Canada, October 2008; Briefing Note 1: Gender and Indigenous Peoples, Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, United Nations, 2010; Briefing Note 2: Gender and Indigenous Peoples' Economic and Social Development, Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, United Nations, 2010; Briefing Note 3: Gender and Indigenous Peoples' Education, Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, United Nations, 2010; Briefing Note 4: Gender and Indigenous Peoples' Environment, Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, United Nations, 2010; Briefing Note 5: Gender and Indigenous Peoples' Human Rights, Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues, United Nations, 2010;

level of education, and employment rates. Accordingly, they differ across and within the participating States in terms of the disadvantages and discrimination experienced.

Indigenous women in the OSCE region share many concerns about disadvantages and discrimination with minority women relating to their cultural, racial and linguistic distinctions from the majority female population, but also have many specific considerations stemming from their history with colonialism and attachment to their ancestral lands and their natural resources.¹³ In this respect, it is important to note that some indigenous cultures were genderless, having developed a distinct form of gender relations that were considered complementary before contact with non-indigenous populations and their hierarchical view of gender roles transformed these structures. Accordingly, the disadvantages and discriminations indigenous women face stem in large part from being placed in a non-dominant position vis à vis indigenous men by outside forces and from being politically, economically, and socially subordinate to the men in their communities.¹⁴

Disregard for their human rights as women, as minorities, and as indigenous people has come in many forms. In many instances, they and their communities were forcibly removed from their traditional lands to remote areas with little connection to their lifestyle or little to offer in terms of sustenance and sustainability, deliberately excluded from mainstream political, economic and social spheres, and, according to some analysts, experienced genocide.¹⁵ The forced physical dislocation was particularly traumatic for indigenous children who were uprooted from their families in order to receive formal education in a foreign language and according to a foreign culture and values, with the deliberate intent of diminishing their identity and language, and alienating them from their culture and way of life. Many were physically and sexually abused, which in later years led to social marginalisation, lack of self-esteem and value, substance abuse, and domestic violence. In part because of limited access

¹³ Minority Rights: International Standards and Guidance for Implementation, United Nations Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner, 2010.

¹⁴ Arctic Human Development Report: Gender Issues, 2004.

¹⁵ Robert A. Williams, "Encounters on the Frontiers of International Human Rights Law: Redefining the Terms of Indigenous Peoples' Survival in the World," Duke Law Journal, Vol. 1990, No. 4, Frontiers of Legal Thought III (Sep., 1990), pp.660-704. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/1372721>.

by many indigenous communities to resources and health care services to address these situations, the survivors of such abuse have perpetuated these activities.

Among the most disadvantaged indigenous peoples, their marginalisation has been most obvious in its physical form because of the remoteness and isolation of their communities and whereby they are required to reside apart from mainstream society on designated land where housing, education and basic services are in extremely short supply. The situation is compounded by poor health; high infant mortality rates; low life expectancy; high unemployment; high suicide and attempted suicide rates; limited education; poverty; and in some cases high rates of fetal alcohol syndrome.

For many of the most disadvantaged indigenous women, these life experiences have resulted in sexual exploitation, human trafficking, and violence. They experience higher rates of unemployment and limited access to education than the majority population. Due to the prejudice and indifference they experience from law enforcement institutions, many of the crimes of which they are victims, including rape, domestic violence, and murder, are not investigated or taken to trial.¹⁶ In many cases, law enforcement does not respond effectively to indigenous women because they pre-judge the reliability and credibility of these women as witnesses due to the fact they are indigenous, often discounting legitimate reports of violence and other crimes. As well, their over-representation in the criminal justice system and their high levels of interactions with law enforcement generate indifference within the criminal justice system.

While indigenous women are severely disadvantaged by the development of the natural resource economy that favours jobs traditionally occupied by men, many of the additional vulnerabilities faced by indigenous women, particularly in the circumpolar north, relate to the effects of climate change and environmental contamination on their traditional lifestyle and culture and in light of their strong bond with the environment and their natural surroundings.

¹⁶ See *Stolen Sisters: Discrimination and Violence Against Indigenous Women in Canada*, Amnesty International, 2009.

It is noteworthy that some indigenous women play significant decision-making roles and can have tremendous authority in their societies and local communities. This influence has transferred into the formation of their representative organisations such as the Pauktuutit Inuit Women's Association and their leadership in international indigenous organisations, such as the Inuit Circumpolar Conference, and in international fora more generally in order to raise awareness of indigenous women's issues and concerns, including environmental stewardship and climate change. However, their influence has not transferred to strong representation in formal and higher levels of institutional structures of decision-making, including elected office. Neither have they had significant representation on priority issues facing their communities, such as natural resource development and management.

iv. Roma and Sinti Women¹⁷

The condition of Roma and Sinti women is another high profile dimension of minority women in the OSCE region. As with other categories of minority women, the Roma and Sinti are a heterogeneous group with wide-ranging differences among them depending in particular on where they reside. While the majority are sedentary, they will differentiate according to the duration of settlement and in which country, the legal status of their residency, their language, socio-economic status, and whether they are asylum seekers or refugees.

¹⁷ See Council of Europe, Roma and Travellers Glossary (2006) for an outline of the terms used to refer to Roma and Sinti, and their distinctions. Material in this section is drawn primarily from Ethnic minority and Roma Women in Europe: A Case for Gender Equality? European Commission, 2010; World Bank, Roma Inclusion: An Economic Opportunity for Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Romania and Serbia, September 2010; Parallel Report to the Human Rights Council, European Roma Rights Centre, Life Together and the Group of Women Harmed by Forced Sterilization concerning the Czech Republic, 2012; European Roma Rights Centre; Breaking the Barriers: Romani Women and Access to Public Health Care, European Centre on Racism and Xenophobia, Council of Europe, 2003; Political Participation of Roma with Emphasis on Political Participation of Roma Women in the Countries of the Region, K-factor Ltd., Croatia, 2011; Implementation of the Action Plan on Improving the Situation of Roma and Sinti within the OSCE Area, Status Report 2008, OSCE/ODIHR; Review of EU Framework National Roma Integration Strategies (NRIS), Open society Foundations, 2012; Action Plan on Improving the Situation of Roma and Sinti within the OSCE Area, OSCE, 2003; HCNM's Report on Roma in the CSCE Region, HCNM, 1993; The ODIHR Contact Point for Roma and Sinti Issues: An Overview, OSCE/ODIHR.

Because of their cultural differences and the misunderstandings surrounding them, as members of the Roma and Sinti minority the women experience high levels of prejudice and intolerance by the majority population and even state institutions, such as law enforcement. As a result, they are politically, economically and socially segregated and marginalised. They are at higher risk of being victims of violence and hate crimes by the majority population, and are vulnerable to being scapegoats for political and electoral purposes.

Accordingly, they are severely disadvantaged in terms of their access to housing and tend to live in shanty camps. Under such poor living conditions, which includes severe overcrowding, lack of basic facilities such as running water and electricity, the Roma are particularly vulnerable to poor health. These risks are compounded by limited access to adequate health services and reduced access to information in general. The health concerns for Roma women are further aggravated by the high rate of early and multiple pregnancies, which in some countries where they reside has led to cases of state-imposed forced sterilization. Moreover, efforts to offer compensation and redress and to safeguard against future such action have been inadequate. Their life expectancy is significantly lower than that of majority women.

Roma women are more likely to be unemployed or inactive in the labour market than Roma men. Those that are employed are more likely to be so in the informal economy. The lack of documentation is a particular barrier faced by many Roma women to obtain formal employment or even to access social benefits. Nevertheless, the generally high rates of unemployment among the Roma population are associated with the high levels of poverty; according to one source, as many as 90% of Roma in Europe live below the poverty line.¹⁸

Another significant barrier faced by Roma women are the traditional gender roles within their community that enforce a patriarchal system and a view of women as subordinate. This results in more limited access to employment, health, education, property and social services than Roma men. Indeed, education of Roma women is undervalued, and girls and young women are more likely to leave school because of family responsibilities and early

¹⁸ Data in Focus Report: Multiple Discrimination, European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2010.

marriages.¹⁹ What education they might receive is taught at segregated or special schools for Roma and is of poor quality compared to non-Roma schools. Divorce is not common and many women endure violent marriages as a result.

Accordingly, the socio-economic status of Roma women is significantly lower than majority women and Roma men. With limited access to employment and education, many resort to begging and are at higher risk of carrying out criminal activities, prostitution and delinquency, and trafficking.

c. OSCE Initiatives

A brief review of OSCE initiatives concerning the situation of women minorities in the OSCE region reveals that it has well-established mechanisms and institutions by which to act on its mandate regarding promoting human rights, including women's rights and minority rights. These include the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR - which includes programs on tolerance and non-discrimination; combating racism, xenophobia and discrimination; freedom of religion or belief; hate crime; migration; gender equality; and a contact point for Roma and Sinti issues), the Gender Advisor, the Special Representative of the Chairperson in Office (CIO) on Gender issues, the High Commissioner on National Minorities (HCNM), the Personal Representative of the CIO on Combating Racism, Xenophobia and Discrimination, also focusing on Intolerance and Discrimination against Christians and Members of Other Religions, and the Personal Representative of the CIO on Combating Anti-Semitism. For its part, the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly has such mechanisms as the Special Representative on Migration and the Special Representative on Gender Issues.

Their activities and mandates are based in large part on the commitments made by the participating States in the *Final Act* of the Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe, the OSCE participating States committed themselves to respect "human rights and fundamental freedoms ... for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion."

¹⁹ Ethnic minority and Roma Women in Europe: A Case for Gender Equality? European Commission, 2010.

Other notable documents related to women's rights, national minorities, cultural, linguistic and religious identity, and race include the 1990 Document of the Copenhagen Meeting of the Conference on the Human Dimension of the CSCE, the 1990 Charter of Paris for a New Europe, the 1991 Report of the CSCE Meeting of Experts on National Minorities, the 1992 CSCE Helsinki Document: The Challenges of Change, among other subsequent documents. More recently, Ministerial Council decisions including 10/11, 08/09, 9/09, 10/09, 06/08, 10/07, 13/06, 10/05, 14/05, 15/05, list commitments related to gender equality, national minorities, and ethnic, religious, racial, and cultural groups, as well as tolerance, non-discrimination, the promotion of mutual respect, and combating hate crimes.²⁰

For its part, the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly's Edinburgh Declaration, Kyiv Declaration and Oslo Declaration, and the Belgrade Declaration also highlight the importance of commitments in these areas and urge participating States and their parliaments to continue to increase their efforts to safeguard and promote equal opportunities for women and minorities.

With respect to women minorities specifically, the *2004 OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality* specifically calls on the HCNM to “address specific issues relating to the participation in public and private life of women belonging to national minorities and, in policies and projects developed by his/her office, take steps necessary to counter the double discrimination suffered by these women, as appropriate within the context of his/her conflict prevention mandate.”²¹

The *2011 Annual Evaluation on the Implementation of the 2004 Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality* notes several overlapping initiatives concerning gender equality and minorities and which highlight efforts to improve the situation of the most disadvantaged. In particular, ODIHR continued to mainstream issues related to gender-based discrimination into its Tolerance and Non-Discrimination Information System (TANDIS), which also provides links to reports from non-governmental organizations pertaining to

²⁰ For a complete list of these commitments organized according to themes, please refer to OSCE Human Dimension Commitments, Volume 1, Thematic Compilation, 3rd Edition (2011), <http://www.osce.org/odihr/76894?download=true> .

²¹ 2004 Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality, OSCE.

gender-based violence or discrimination. The report also highlighted the work of the Advisory Council of the OSCE/ODIHR Advisory Panel of Experts on Freedom of Religion or Belief in applying a gender perspective to its review of draft legislation on freedom of religion or belief and in the preparation of the second edition of the *Guidelines for Review of Legislation Pertaining to Religion or Belief*. ODIHR also assisted the Personal Representatives of the Chairperson-in-Office on tolerance and non-discrimination issues by identifying key NGOs addressing gender mainstreaming or women rights in relation to hate crimes and other forms of intolerance, and providing input concerning minority women who may experience aggravated discrimination. The 2010 OSCE Review Conference held in advance of the 2010 Astana Summit highlighted various forms of gender discrimination; the plight of refugee women and children in conflict areas; efforts to strengthen gender-sensitive outreach initiatives in relation to hate-motivated crimes and incidents; and the development of gender-sensitive, rights-based educational methodologies which take into account specific forms of intolerance faced by migrant women.²²

The mandate of the HCNM is specific to national minorities and early warning and early action regarding immediate tensions involving national minority issues and their long-term root causes. While he works on the basis of confidentiality in order to build confidence with stakeholders, many of his activities have focused on issues directly related to minority language rights and citizenship. While he is not mandated to implement projects specifically aimed at promoting gender equality and resolving various gender-related issues, recent HCNM projects have highlighted themes relating to gender relations in society. When the HCNM makes country visits, he regularly meets with different NGOs and minority representatives, including women's groups and male and female minority representatives, in order to exchange information as well as to encourage interethnic dialogue within a State.²³

Notwithstanding these initiatives, OSCE efforts to address the specific yet diverse disadvantages and vulnerabilities experienced by women minorities in the region are

²² 2011 Annual Evaluation Report on the Implementation of the 2004 Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality.

²³ 2011 Annual Evaluation Report on the Implementation of the 2004 Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality.

undermined by three areas of weakness in particular. First, women and minorities are underrepresented in the leadership and management positions at the OSCE. Second, the plight of indigenous peoples is explicitly referred to only in the 1992 Helsinki Document: Challenges of Change, i.e. “The participating States (29) Noting that persons belonging to indigenous populations may have special problems in exercising their rights, agree that their CSCE commitments regarding human rights and fundamental freedoms apply fully and without discrimination to such persons,” and otherwise not included in the mandate of the OSCE’s mechanisms and institutions, notwithstanding the distinct challenges that indigenous peoples experience.

Third, collaboration across the various mechanisms and institutions on issues concerning women minorities could be strengthened in order to reinforce the multidimensional issues at play. In other words, because of the cross-cutting nature of and multiple discriminations faced by women minorities, greater effort is required to consider gender equality and minorities as overlapping issues.

Nevertheless, some of the more prominent recent initiatives carried out by these mechanisms and institutions warrant reference, particularly regarding migrants and Roma/Sinti.

I. Migrants

While not specifically addressing the issue of women minorities as migrants, among the most recent initiatives undertaken by OSCE bodies concerning women migrants, the Office of the Co-ordinator of Economic and Environmental Affairs, in co-operation with the OSCE Centre in Astana, the Government of Kazakhstan, IOM, ILO and UNWomen promoted gender-sensitive labour migration policies through a regional training event in Astana in September 2010. A total of 60 government officials and policymakers from Central Asian countries took part in the training designed to raise awareness of the main challenges faced by female labour

migrants, highlight some of the gender gaps in migration policies, and provide possible solutions.²⁴

In addition, the OSCE published in 2009 a Guide on Gender-Sensitive Labour Migration Policies in order to raise awareness about good practices and to provide tools on how to shape gender-sensitive labour migration processes in accordance with OSCE commitments.²⁵

The 2009 Ministerial Council in Athens adopted a decision which encouraged the participating States to work on migration management by, in part, respecting the rights of migrants and increasing efforts to combat discrimination, intolerance and xenophobia towards migrants and their families, and to continue working on gender aspects of migration.

II. Roma and Sinti

Since being the first international organization to recognize the particular problems of the Roma, the OSCE and its bodies have worked continuously to raise awareness of the discriminations they face and to promote initiatives that would improve their situation. Among others areas of recent activities undertaken by OSCE bodies, the HCNM recently warned against the rise of anti-Roma violence in the region.²⁶ In addition, the ODIHR recently launched with the European Union a two year, EUR 3.3 million project entitled “Best Practices for Roma Integration” in the Western Balkans to promote their social inclusion and combat the discrimination they face.²⁷

²⁴ 2011 Annual Evaluation Report on the Implementation of the 2004 Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality.

²⁵ <http://www.osce.org/eea/37228>

²⁶ “OSCE High Commissioner on National Minorities warns against rise of anti-Roma violence and extreme nationalism in Europe,” 10 October 2011. The HCNM identified as early as 1993 concerns about the challenges and disadvantages the Roma and Roma women in particular face.

²⁷ <http://www.osce.org/odihr/91077>

The OSCE and its bodies have also taken action specifically regarding Roma women and girls. For instance, the 2003 *OSCE Action Plan on Improving the Situation of Roma and Sinti* is explicit in its recommendations on initiatives regarding Roma women and girls. In the context of efforts by participating States and relevant OSCE institutions to develop policies and implementation strategies, it recommends that “the particular situation of Roma and Sinti women should be taken into account in the design and implementation of all policies and programmes. Where consultative and other mechanisms exist to facilitate Roma and Sinti people’s participation in such policy-making processes, women should be able to participate on an equal basis with men. Roma women’s issues should be systematically mainstreamed in all relevant policies designed for the population as a whole.” In order to counter prejudice against Roma and Sinti and to effectively elaborate and implement policies to combat discrimination and racial violence, the report also recommends that, in the context of legislation and law enforcement, participating States “take into account in all measures and programmes, the situation of Roma and Sinti women, who are often victims of discrimination on the basis of both ethnicity and sex.” In the context of unemployment and economic problems, it recommends that participating States “develop policies and programmes, including vocational training, to improve the marketable skills and employability of Roma and Sinti people, particularly young people and women.” In the area of health care, it recommends that participating States pay special attention to the health of Roma women and girls, particularly regarding the provision of health care information and improving access to gynecological, maternal and natal health care. In other respects, it calls on participating States to guarantee the equal voting rights of Roma women and to promote Roma women’s participation in public and political life.

In light of the multiple forms of discrimination faced by Roma women, ODIHR takes care to ensure that Roma women are represented in human dimension meetings. In this context, Roma women presented their views during the High Level Conference on Tolerance and Non-Discrimination in Astana in June 2010. In addition, Roma women actively contributed to a Working Session of the OSCE Review Conference in Warsaw in October 2010 and a corresponding side event on migration and freedom of movement coorganized by ODIHR, the European Roma Rights Centre and Amnesty International. ODIHR has provided small grants to Roma organizations to raise awareness in Roma communities and among Roma women of the importance of the voting process and voting procedures. ODIHR supports

activities organized by partner institutions and civil society actors that have a gender-specific focus. For example, in April 2011 ODIHR participated in the conference “Roma Women in Focus – Roma Women in Central and Eastern Europe”, organized by the European Women’s Lobby in Budapest. On International Women’s Day, 8 March 2011, ODIHR staff gave a presentation on the situation of Roma women in Europe at a meeting of the Austrian Women’s Council in Vienna.

Furthermore, ODIHR promotes the adoption of a gender-sensitive approach within the broader human rights discourse among Roma and Sinti civil society, including with traditional community leaders. In this regard, ODIHR works closely with local authorities and civil society organizations to ensure that attention is paid to the issues of non-participation in education and the high drop-out rate of Roma girls from schools and their particular vulnerability with regard to the right to education, connected to the practice of early marriage.²⁸ Particular attention is paid to address the disadvantages Roma and Sinti girls face in accessing education

The 2010 manual *Police and Roma and Sinti: Good Practices in Building Trust and Understanding* includes several references to the particular impact of police misconduct on Roma women and the role that Roma women can play in enhancing trust. In this respect, it suggests policies and programmes that increase recruitment of Roma women into police forces and that create a culturally sensitive environment in order to strengthen their retention.

Moreover, on International Women’s Day 8 March 2012, the head of the OSCE Contact Point for Roma and Sinti Issues highlighted the vulnerability of Roma women regarding access to health care, education, segregation, poverty, and the multiple forms of discrimination they experience.²⁹ He also adopted a special mentor programme that focuses on the empowerment of Roma women.³⁰

²⁸ 2011 Annual Evaluation Report on the Implementation of the 2004 Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality.

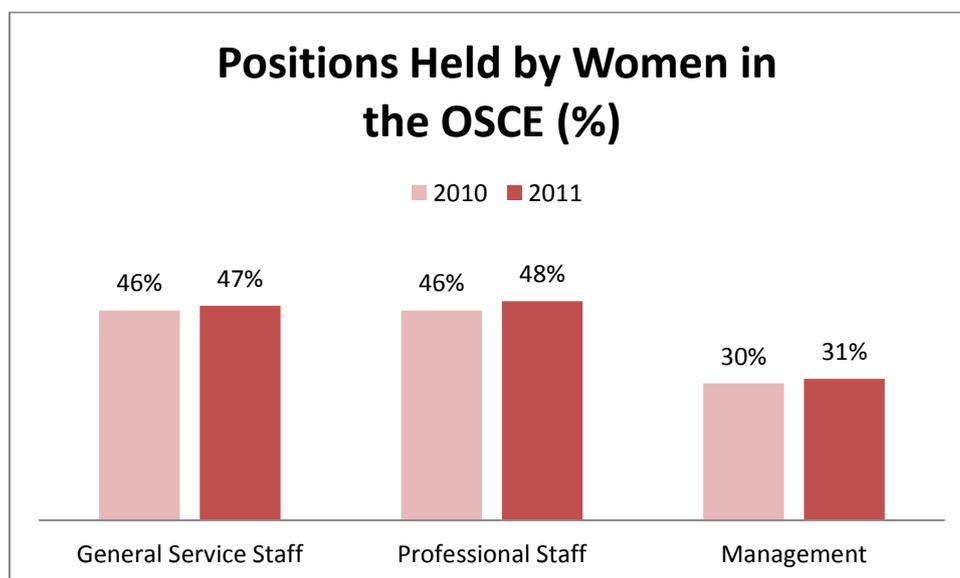
²⁹ <http://www.osce.org/odihr/88848>

³⁰ <http://www.osce.org/odihr/13996>

III. Gender in the OSCE Governmental Institutions

The progress of gender balance throughout the OSCE governmental structures—discussed in the following pages—is measured by statistics published in the September 2011 Secretary General’s Annual Evaluation Report on the Implementation of the 2004 OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality.

As of 1 May 2011, the OSCE maintains a staff of 2,639, with women representing 46 per cent of the total workforce. During the reporting period, the number of women holding professional staff positions increased by two per cent. Women continue to be under-represented in management positions compared to the overall representation of women within the general service and professional staff sector.³¹



Gender balance within the Heads of Missions and Heads of Institutions has shifted since the publication of the 2011 Secretary General’s Annual Evaluation Report with the appointment of Ambassador Natalia Zarudna as Head of the OSCE Center in Astana in December 2011 and Jennifer Leigh Brush as Head of the OSCE Mission to Moldova in April 2012.

³¹ See Table 1

Within the Secretariat and Institutions female representation among professional posts has grown from the reported 38 per cent in 2010 to 44 per cent in 2011. The Secretariat and Institutions have also seen an increase in women holding management positions, with 15 out of a total of 38 positions are now held by women.³²

Field operations have seen a slight increase in the percentage of female representation within the ranks of international professional staff. However, this increase is not due to a rise in women hired for vacancies within international professional positions, but rather because of a decrease in overall staffing. At the time of reporting, 50 per cent of international professional positions held within field operations are occupied by women.

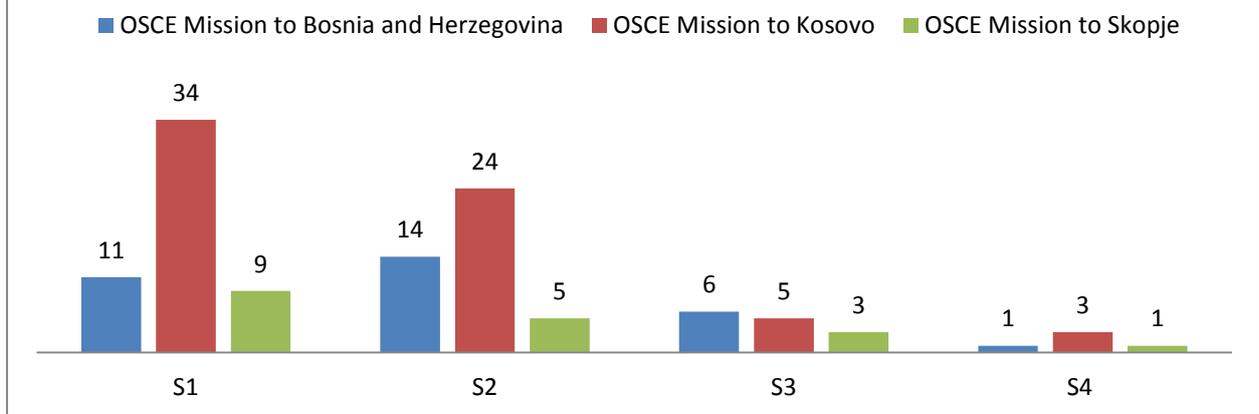
Female representation in management positions within field operations has seen a slight decline. Representation slid from 29 per cent in 2010 to 28 per cent in 2011, due to one fewer woman holding a management position than in 2010.

Among the field operations with the highest number of seconded staff, the OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina remains the most consistently gender-balanced presence with women representing 52 per cent of the overall seconded positions. The OSCE Missions to Kosovo and Skopje are not far behind with 46 per cent and 44 per cent of positions held by women, respectively.³³

³² See Table 2

³³ See Table 3

Women Represented in the OSCE Field Operations by Seconded Positions



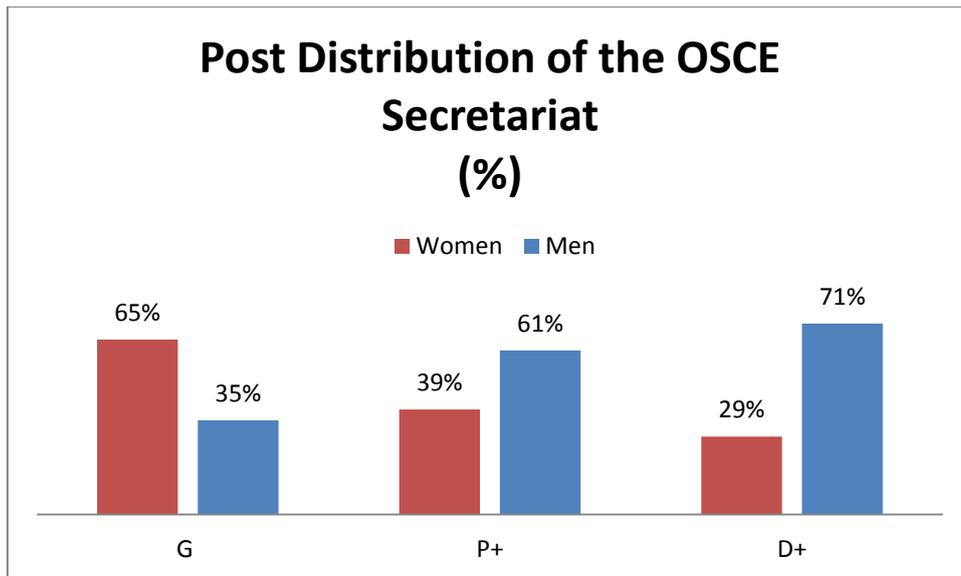
The number of female Deputy Heads of Mission has increased to four with the appointment of Nina Soumalainen, Deputy Head of OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina on 12 May 2012. The Deputy Head of Mission at the OSCE Centre in Astana, the OSCE Office in Baku and the OSCE Mission in Skopje are all female.

On the other end of the gender balance spectrum, the OSCE field presences in Bishkek and Serbia are lagging far behind, with 23 per cent and 25 per cent of positions held by women.

a. OSCE Secretariat

In total, women represent 53 per cent of the OSCE Secretariat workforce in Vienna. This is an increase of two per cent since last reporting. However, further analysis reveals that the increase in female representation is due to a shift in overall staffing numbers. As detailed in last year's report, men remain in that majority among P-level positions with a representation of 61 per cent, while women make-up over 66 per cent of the G-level workforce. Women occupy of 2 out of the 7 high level (D+) positions.³⁴

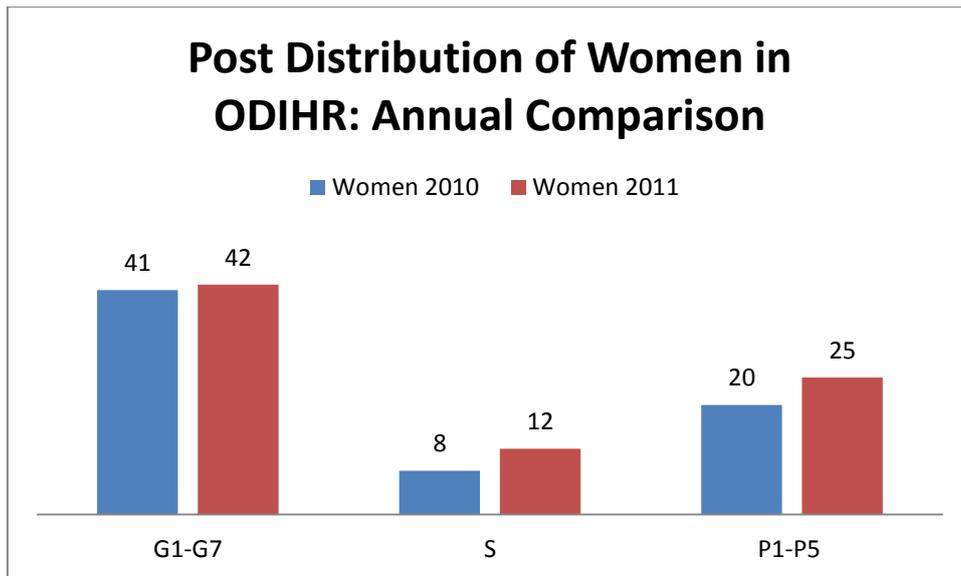
³⁴ See Table 4



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

The Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR) has seen a growth in jobs within the past year resulting in the addition of 13 positions. The most significant shift in representation is the number of seconded women within ODIHR which has jumped from eight in 2010 to 12 in 2011. This has resulted in a two per cent reallocation in favour of women.³⁵

³⁵ See Table 5



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

The Office of the High Commissioner on National Minorities has tipped the scales in favor of the overall percentage of women working within the commission. 63 per cent of the workforce is represented by female employees. However, when breaking down the numbers by position, men continue to dominate the upper echelons of the P-level positions holding 13 out of 17 positions. On the other hand, ten out of ten positions within the G-level pay-grade are occupied by women. This further emphasizes the gender inequality among high-ranking positions within HCNM and on a larger scale with in the OSCE in its entirety.³⁶

d. Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media

The Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media (ROFM) has been highlighted as the most gender-aware Institution within the OSCE and the only Institution of the OSCE headed by a woman. While relatively small with only 12 posts, two fewer than the previous year, the majority of the posts are filled by women. However, the recent shift in the overall percentage of female representation is slightly altered by the vacancy of two posts, which

³⁶ See Table 6

brought the percentage up from 64 per cent to 75 per cent without actually increasing the number of women occupying posts within the ROFM.³⁷

e. Seconded Posts in the Secretariat, Institutions and Field Operations

As denoted in the Secretary General's Annual Report, the seconded staff positions within the Secretariat and Institutions are not classified and therefore not included in the standard system of grading. In 2011, 455 staff members were seconded by 44 participating States of the OSCE. Azerbaijan and Switzerland are not currently sponsoring seconded positions and thus the number of participating States has dropped from last year's 46 to 44.

Surprisingly, when evaluating the gender balance of seconded positions by country, Denmark falls in the same category as Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Malta, the Republic of Moldova and Serbia with zero female representation among seconded staff. This is in stark contrast to countries such as Finland, Latvia and Uzbekistan, whose representatives are entirely female.

France, the former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Czech Republic, Georgia, Portugal, Slovenia, Estonia, Belgium and Montenegro have an equal 50/50 gender representation among seconded positions. The United States of America stretches the gender balance with 52 per cent of its seconded positions occupied by women.

Overall, there is a 42 per cent female representation within the seconded staff of the OSCE. This is an increase of three per cent from the previous reporting year. However, it is also important to note that there has been an overall decrease in seconded positions, the majority of which have been from positions held by men. The results are a change in gender distribution through a decrease in male representation by 18 posts; women gained 11 positions with a total loss of seven positions.³⁸

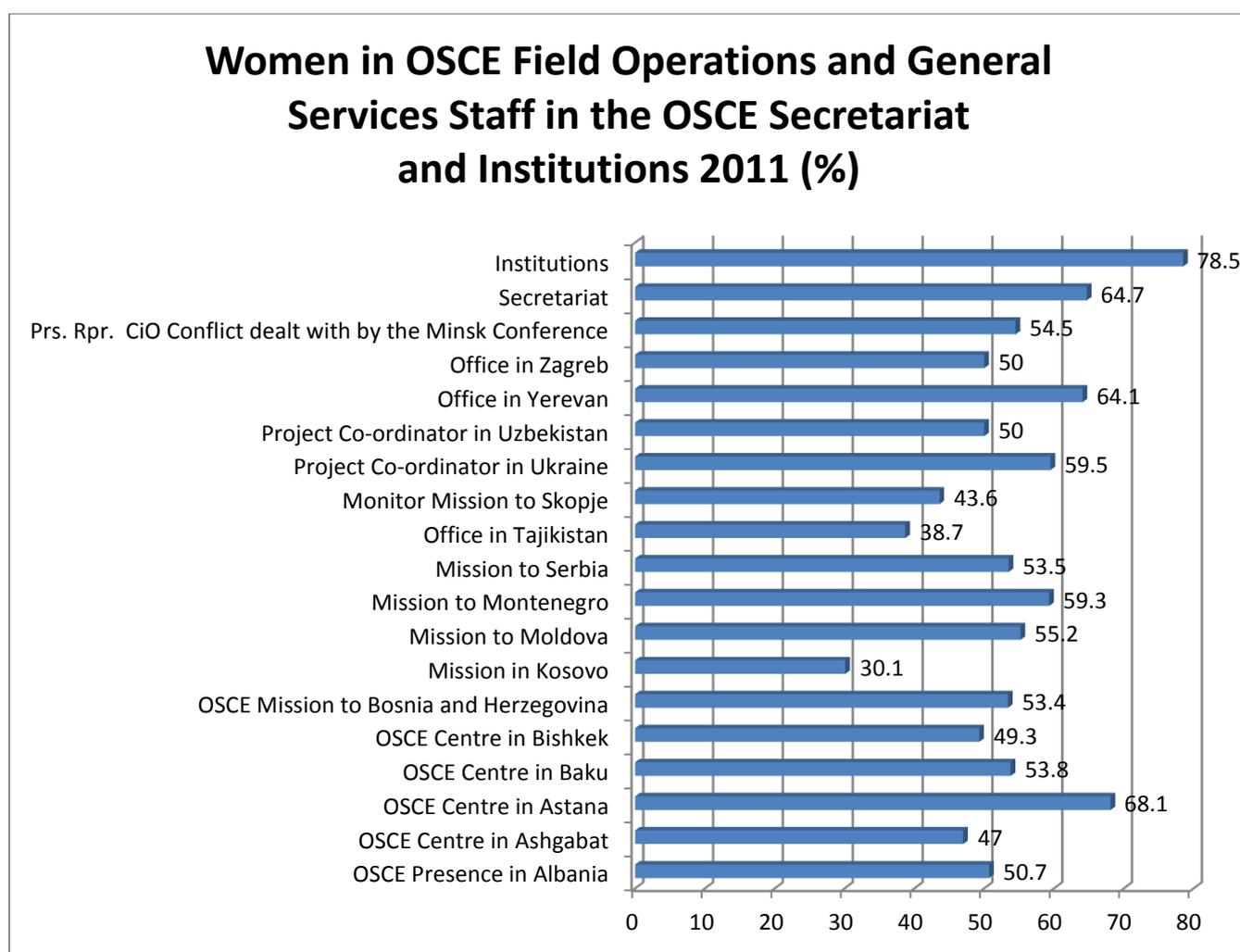
³⁷ See Table 7

³⁸ See Table 8

d. Field Operations: Gender Balance of Local Staff

The number of locals staffing field operations varies according to the size of the operation and its mandate. The OSCE Mission to Kosovo continues to be the largest staffed field operation within the OSCE with 474 local staff. Thirty per cent of the overall workforce of the OSCE Mission to Kosovo is female. This is the lowest percentage of local female staff within a field operation. The OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina, the second largest field operation with 432 local staff, 231 of which are women thus, occupying 53 per cent of the local staff positions within the mission.

Overall, the field operations tend to be on an even keel with regards to gender distribution among local staff. The OSCE Presence in Albania boasts a 51 per cent gender balance with a total of 71 local positions whereas the OSCE Office in Zagreb and the OSCE Project Co-ordination in Uzbekistan maintain an equal 50/50 gender distribution.



a. Gender in OSCE Documents

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. The reports provided by the OSCE field operations in 2011 show that efforts continue to be taken to mainstream gender perspectives in projects across all three dimensions. However, as in previous years, the initiatives to integrate a gender perspective in projects were observed primarily in the human dimension of the OSCE's work. Nonetheless, a growing number of field operations have focused on integrating a gender perspective in the second and first dimensions.

Most of the results achieved in countries hosting field operations are linked to the adoption of legislative frameworks on gender equality, implementation of existing frameworks, promotion of participation of women as candidates for elective office and support for prevention of violence against women.

IV. Gender in the OSCE PA

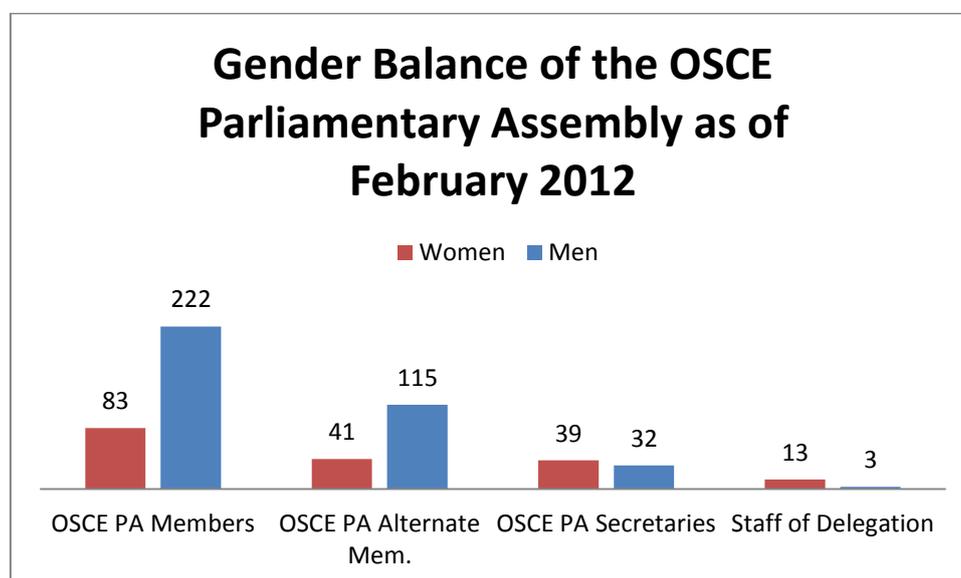
During the Vilnius Annual Session 2009, the Standing Committee amended the OSCE PA's Rules of Procedure, agreeing to introduce a new sub-clause to Rule 1 stating that, "*Each national Delegation should have both genders represented.*" Over the past two years there have been significant changes by States in efforts to meet this goal, though not all countries are in compliance.

a. Member Directory Statistics³⁹

There is an overall male majority within the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly, with 222 men and 83 women. Women outnumber men, however, within the Secretaries and Staff sectors. Among the OSCE PA Secretaries of Delegations, 39 out of 71 are women; representing a 55

³⁹ The OSCE PA Member Directory is available on request from the International Secretariat.

to 45 per cent gender distribution among Secretaries of the OSCE PA. Women also dominate the staff sector, holding 13 out of 16 posts.⁴⁰



In contrast, the majority (73 per cent) of regular Members of the OSCE PA and 74 per cent of Alternate Members are men, holding a combined number of 337 out of 460 positions. There is an encouraging improvement among women occupying regular Member positions, with an increase from 75 positions to 83 delegates this year.

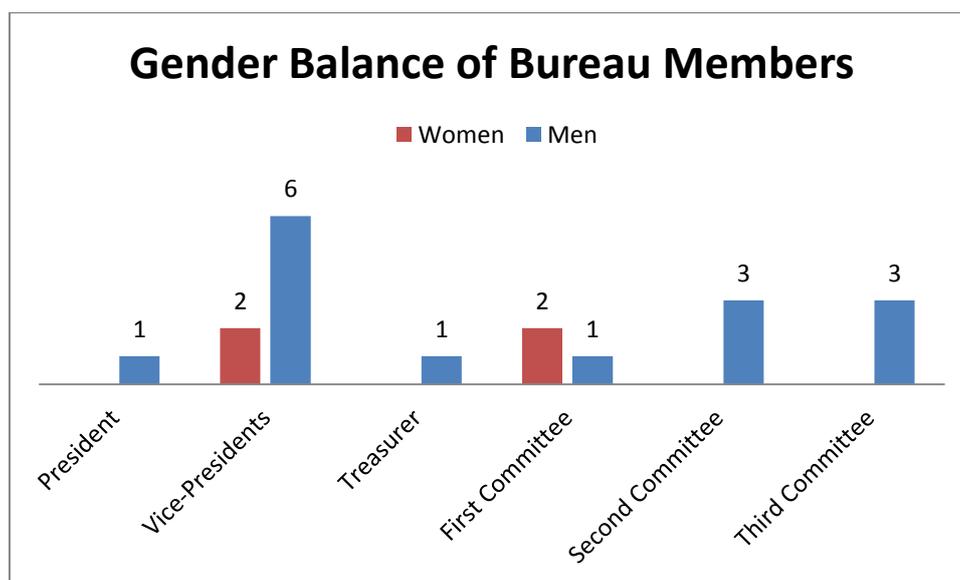
b. Initiative to Boost Women’s Participation

Equal gender representation among national delegations has increased over the year. In 2011, 15 OSCE PA delegations consisted exclusively of men. In 2012, 10 delegations are in this position.

⁴⁰ See Table 10

c. Gender in the Assembly Bureau

The Bureau is composed of the President, nine Vice-Presidents, the Treasurer and the President Emeritus, as well as three Officers of each of the General Committees. The Bureau is currently comprised of 20 members— 4 of whom are female— providing for an 80 per cent to 20 per cent ratio in favor of men. This falls short of the targeted goal of 30 per cent established by the OSCE PA’s Special Representative on Gender Issues, Dr. Hedy Fry.⁴¹



d. Female Presidents and Vice-Presidents in the OSCE PA

The statistics regarding female Presidents and Vice-Presidents remains unaltered from the previous reporting year. There are currently two female Vice-Presidents, Isabel Pozuelo (Spain) and Walburga Habsburg Douglas (Sweden).⁴²

⁴¹ See Address by Dr. Hedy Fry, Special Representative on Gender Issues to the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly, 10th Winter Meeting, 24-25 February 2011. Vienna, Austria

⁴² See Table 11

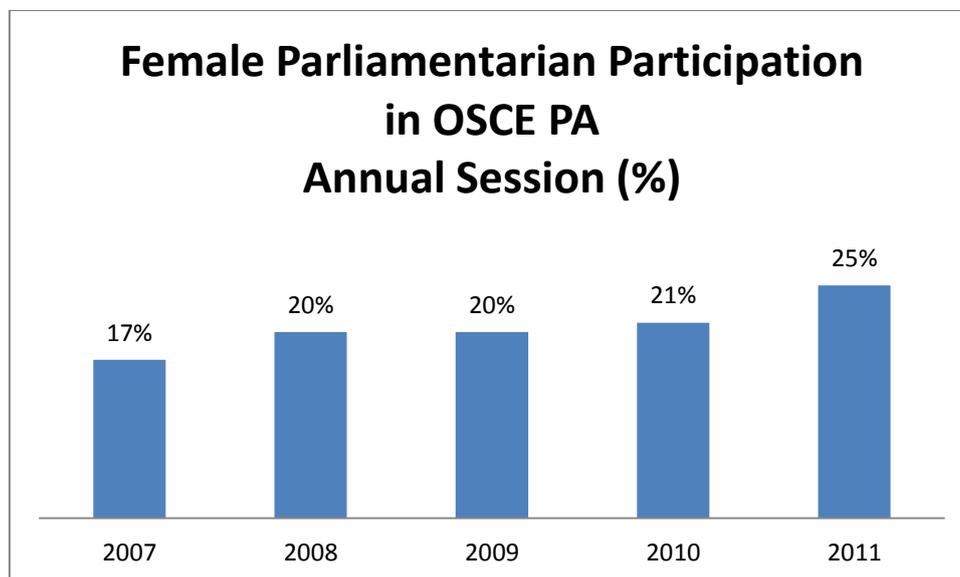
e. Officers of the OSCE PA General Committees

The overall gender balance of the General Committees has remained unchanged since 2011; there remain two women among seven men. In contrast to previous years, however, the General Committee on Political Affairs and Security is comprised of two women, with a female Vice-Chair and a female Rapporteur. Both the General Committee on Economic Affairs, Science, Technology and Environment and the General Committee on Democracy, Human Rights and Humanitarian Questions are entirely male.

f. Participation in OSCE PA Meetings

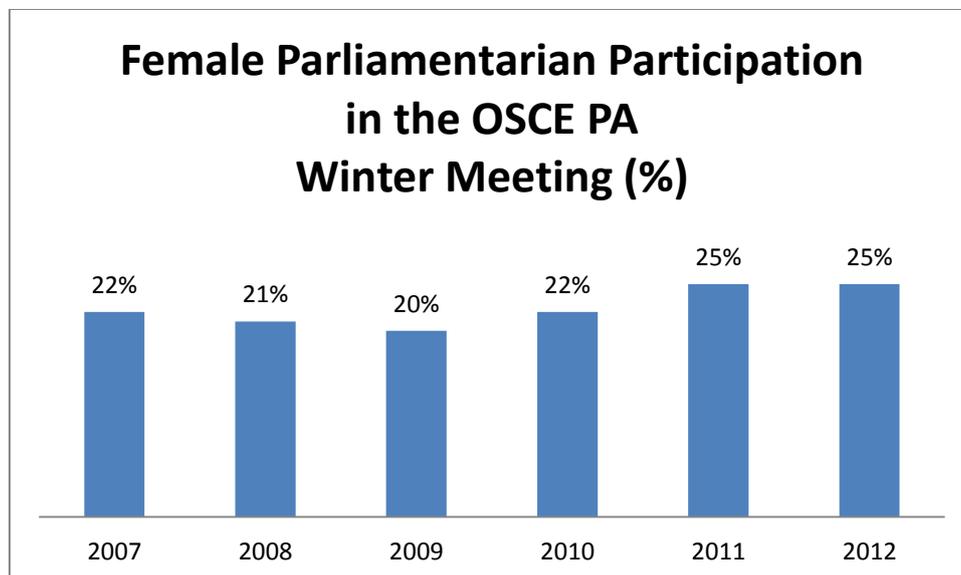
The following charts show the general attendance at the OSCE PA's Meetings and the percentage of female Members of Parliament who participated.

The 2011 Annual Session observed an increase in female participation by four per cent from the previous year. As demonstrated by the figures below, there is an encouraging rise in female participation. The numbers have leaped from 17 per cent in 2007 to 25 per cent in 2011.⁴³



⁴³ See Table 12

The overall percentage of female participation remains at 25 per cent.⁴⁴ This indicates a slowing of momentum, as last year's Winter Meeting boasted the highest number of female participants in nine years.⁴⁵



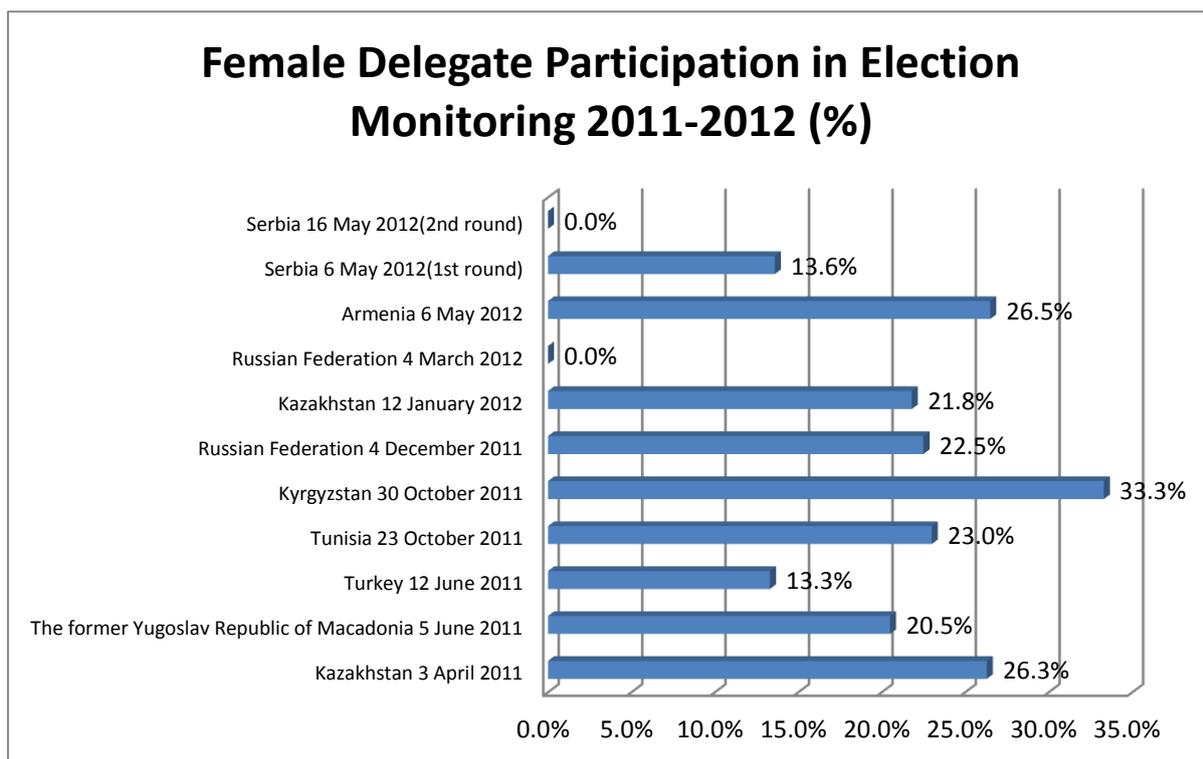
g. Participation in OSCE PA Election Monitoring 2010-2012

The graph below shows the Assembly's female Members' participation in election observations missions over the 2011-2012 period:

⁴⁴ See Table 13

⁴⁵ See OSCE PA Gender Balance Report; July 2011

Female Delegate Participation in Election Monitoring 2011-2012 (%)



46

The figures concerning female participation in OSCE PA election monitoring show that over the 2011-2012 period the highest number of female participants occurred within Central Asian elections—Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan. Out of the 11 observations listed, 2 were led by female Heads of Delegations, Turkey and Kyrgyzstan. The calculations exclude Staff of Delegation and Secretariat personnel thus, diminishing the female participation levels in Serbia and Russia to zero. The average for the period is 20 per cent.

Interesting to note that in recent EOMs, there have been more women participating in election monitoring than in the OSCE PA meetings.

h. Permanent Staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat

The permanent staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat, including the Vienna Liaison Office, is comprised of 18 individuals of whom 8 are women. The two appointed Deputy

⁴⁶ Calculations for female participation were done excluding staff of delegations.

Secretaries General represent an equal gender balance with one woman and one man. The current office of the OSCE PA Secretary General is held by a man.

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 three in the Vienna Liaison Office— four women and four men— showing an equal gender distribution among the research fellows.

j. Female Representation in National Parliaments of OSCE Countries

Within the OSCE participating States, those with the least amount of female representation within national parliaments are Georgia with only 6.6 per cent of female representation within the “Lower or single House”, as well as Ukraine, Armenia, Malta, and Hungary which maintain a ratio of between 8.0-8.80 per cent.⁴⁷ It is important to note that the results of the 6 May elections in Armenia brought about an increase in female representation by two per cent from previous years. This amounts to a total female representation of 10.69 per cent.

Collectively, female representation among national Parliaments within the OSCE region is 22.4 per cent, combining Upper House or Senate and Single or Lower House parliamentarians. This is higher than the national average in Europe.⁴⁸

⁴⁷ See Table 14

⁴⁸ See Table 15

V. Annexes

Table 1

Post Distribution of Staff in the OSCE 2011				
Category	Men	Women	Total	% Women
General Service Staff	843	740	1583	47%
Professional Staff	470	436	906	48%
Management	103	46	149	31%
Total	1416	1222	2638	46%
Post Distribution of Staff in the OSCE 2010				
Category	Men	Women	Total	% Women
General Service Staff	874	754	1626	46%
Professional Staff	500	419	919	46%
Management	105	44	149	30%
Total	1477	1217	2694	45%

Note: figures as of May 2011 and May 2010 respectively

Table 2

Post Distribution of the OSCE Staff, in OSCE Secretariat, Institutions and field operations 2011				
Secretariat and Institutions Staff				
Category	Men	Women	Total	% Women
General Service Staff	81	176	257	68%
Professional Staff	130	101	231	44%
Higher Management	23	15	38	39%
Total	234	292	526	56%
Field Operations Staff				
Category	Men	Women	Total	% Women
General Service Staff	762	564	1326	43%
Professional Staff	340	335	675	50%
Higher Management	80	31	111	28%
Total	1182	930	2112	44%
Grand Total	1416	1222	2638	46%

Note: figures as of 1 May 2011

Table 3

Post Distribution of Seconded Staff in the OSCE Field Operations 2011				
Category	S1	S2	S3	S4
OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina	11	14	6	1
OSCE Mission to Kosovo	34	24	5	3
OSCE Mission to Skopje	9	5	3	1
Grand Total	54	43	14	5

Note: figures as of 1 May 2011

Table 4

Post Distribution in the OSCE Secretariat 2011											
Category	G1-G7	G in %	S	S in %	P1-P5	D1	D2	SG	P+ in%	Total	Total in %
Women	121	65%	15	38%	47	0	2	0	39%	185	53%
Men	66	35%	24	62%	72	1	3	1	61%	167	47%
Total	187	100%	39	100%	119	1	5	1	100%	352	100%

Note: figures as of 1 May 2011

Table 5

Post Distribution in the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights 2010											
Category	G1-G7	G in %	S	S in %	P1-P5	D1	D2	Head of Inst.	P+ in%	Total	Total in %
Women	41	72%	8	89%	20	0	0	0	38%	69	58%
Men	16	28%	1	11%	31	1	0	1	62%	50	42%
Total	57	100%	9	100%	51	1	0	1	100%	119	100%
Post Distribution on the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights 2011											
Category	G1-G7	G in %	S	S in %	P1-P5	D1	D2	Head of Inst.	P+ in%	Total	Total in %
Women	42	74%	12	86%	25	0	0	0	41%	79	60%
Men	15	26%	2	14%	34	1	0	1	59%	53	40%
Total	57	100%	14	100%	59	1	0	1	100%	132	100%

Note: figures as of 1 May 2010 and 1 May 2011 respectively

Table 6

Post Distribution in the Office of the High Commissioner on National Minorities 2011											
Category	G1-G7	G in %	S	S in %	P1-P5	D1	D2	Head of Inst.	P+ in%	Total	Total in %
Women	10	100%	4	80%	4	1	0	0	33%	19	63%
Men	0	0%	1	20%	13	0	0	1	67%	11	37%
Total	10	100%	5	100%	17	1	0	1	100%	30	100%

Note: figures as of 1 May 2011

Table 7

Post Distribution in the Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media 2011											
Category	G1-G7	G in %	S	S in %	P1-P5	D1	D2	Head of Inst.	P+ in%	Total	Total in %
Women	3	100%	2	67%	3	0	0	1	67%	9	75%
Men	0	0%	1	33%	2	0	0	0	33%	3	25%
Total	3	100%	3	100%	5	0	0	1	100%	12	100%

Note: figures as of 1 May 2011

Table 8

Seconded Staff in the OSCE Secretariat, Institutions and Field Operations by Seconding Country and Sex 2011					
Seconded Authority	% Women		Men	Women	Total Seconded Staff
United State of America	52%		28	30	58
Italy	47%		20	18	38
Spain	65%		9	17	26
Germany	38%		23	14	37
France	50%		11	11	22
Austria	33%		16	8	24
Canada	64%		4	7	11
United Kingdom	32%		15	7	22

Poland	60%	4	6	10
Sweden	38%	10	6	16
Croatia	63%	3	5	8
Bulgaria	42%	7	5	12
Greece	44%	5	4	9
Ireland	33%	8	4	12
Macedonia, former Yugoslav Republic of	50%	3	3	6
Czech Republic	50%	3	3	6
Georgia	50%	3	3	6
Portugal	50%	3	3	6
Slovenia	50%	3	3	6
Bosnia and Herzegovina	30%	7	3	10
Netherlands	30%	7	3	10
Hungary	25%	9	3	12
Turkey	14%	18	3	21
Finland	100%	0	2	2
Latvia	100%	0	2	2
Armenia	67%	1	2	3
Estonia	50%	2	2	4
Romania	40%	3	2	5
Slovakia	33%	4	2	6
Norway	22%	7	2	9
Russian Federation	18%	9	2	11
Uzbekistan	100%	0	1	1
Belgium	50%	1	1	2
Montenegro	50%	1	1	2
Belarus	25%	3	1	4
Lithuania	20%	4	1	5
Azerbaijan	0%	0	0	0
Denmark	0%	2	0	2
Kazakhstan	0%	1	0	1
Kyrgyzstan	0%	1	0	1
Malta	0%	1	0	1
Moldova, Republic of	0%	3	0	3
Serbia	0%	1	0	1
Switzerland	0%	0	0	0
Tajikistan	0%	1	0	1
Ukraine	0%	1	0	1
Grand Total	42%	265	190	455

Note: figures as of 1 May 2011

Table 9

Gender Balance of Local Staff in OSCE field operations and General Services Staff in the OSCE Secretariat and Institutions 2011					
Field Operation	Women	In %	Men	In %	Total
OSCE Presence in Albania	36	51%	35	49%	71
OSCE Centre in Ashgabat	8	47%	9	53%	17
OSCE Centre in Astana	15	68%	7	32%	22
OSCE Centre in Baku	14	54%	12	46%	26
OSCE Centre in Bishkek	36	49%	37	51%	73
OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina	231	53%	201	47%	432
OSCE Mission in Kosovo	143	30%	331	70%	474
OSCE Mission to Moldova	21	55%	17	45%	38
OSCE Mission to Montenegro	19	59%	13	41%	32
OSCE Mission to Serbia	68	54%	59	46%	127
OSCE Office in Tajikistan	48	39%	76	61%	124
OSCE Spillover Monitor Mission to Skopje	52	44%	67	56%	119
OSCE Project Co-ordinator in Ukraine	25	60%	17	40%	42
OSCE Project Co-ordinator in Uzbekistan	9	50%	9	50%	18
OSCE Office in Yerevan	25	64%	14	36%	39
OSCE Office in Zagreb	8	50%	8	50%	16
Personal Repr. Of the CiO on the Conflict dealt with by the Minsk Conference	6	55%	5	45%	11
Secretariat	121	65%	66	35%	187
Institutions	55	79%	15	21%	70
Grand Total	940	49%	998	51%	1938

Note: figures as of 1 May 2011

Table 10

OSCE Parliamentary Assembly as of February 2012					
Category	Women	In %	Men	In %	Total
OSCE PA Members	83	27%	222	73%	305
OSCE PA Alternate Members	41	26%	115	74%	156
OSCE PA Secretaries	39	55%	32	45%	71
OSCE PA Staff	13	81%	3	19%	16
Grand Total	176	32%	372	68%	548

Note: figures as of February 2012, representatives of the Holy See not included in the figures

Table 11

Gender Balance of Bureau Members			
Category	Women	Men	Total
President		1	1
Vice-Presidents	2	6	8
Treasurer		1	1
First Committee	2	1	3
Second Committee		3	3
Third Committee		3	3
Grand Total	4	15	19

Note: figures as of May 2012

Table 12

Parliamentarian Participation in the OSCE PA Annual Session					
Category	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Women	41	45	43	50	55
Men	200	182	170	186	169
% Women	17	20	20	21	25
Grand Total	241	227	213	236	224

Note: figures were calculated using only Members and Alternate members of country delegations, Staff of Delegations and the OSCE PA Staff, along with the OSCE Secretariat, Observers, Guests, International Parliamentary Organizations and Partners for Co-operation were excluded from these calculations

Table 13

Parliamentarian Participation in the OSCE PA Winter Meeting						
Category	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Women	51	43	48	49	58	60
Men	180	164	192	174	172	180
% Women	22	21	20	22	25	25
Grand Total	231	207	240	223	230	240

Note: figures were calculated using only Members and Alternate members of country delegations, Staff of Delegations and the OSCE PA Staff, along with the OSCE Secretariat, Observers, Guests, International Parliamentary Organizations and Partners for Co-operation were excluded from these calculations

Table 14

Women in Parliament in OSCE countries										
Rank	Country	Lower or single House			Upper House or Senate			Women OSCE PA Delegate Members		
		Seats	Women	%	Seats	Women	%	Members	Women	%
2	Andorra	28	14	50.00 %	---	---	---	2	2	100%
4	Sweden	349	156	44.70 %	---	---	---	8	5	62%
6	Finland	200	85	42.50 %	---	---	---	6	2	33%
8	Netherlands	150	61	40.70 %	5 20	75	27	8	3	37%
10	Iceland	63	25	39.70 %	---	---	---	3	0	0%
11	Norway	169	67	39.60 %	---	---	---	6	2	33%
13	Denmark	179	70	39.10 %	---	---	---	6	4	67%
16	Belgium	150	57	38.00 %	6 20	71	29	8	5	62%
18	Spain	350	126	36.00 %	11 2	263	88	10	1	10%
21	Germany	620	204	32.90 %	N.A.	69	19	13	5	38%
"	Slovenia	90	29	32.20 %	11 2	40	1	2	0	0%
24	Belarus	110	35	31.80 %	7 20	58	19	6	4	67%
26	The F.Y.R. of Macedonia	123	38	30.90 %	---	---	---	3	1	33%
28	Portugal	230	66	28.70 %	---	---	---	6	2	33%
30	Switzerland	200	57	28.50 %	10 2	46	9	6	3	50%
31	Austria	183	51	27.90 %	N.A.	61	19	5	4	80%
"	Luxembourg	60	15	25.00 %	---	---	---	5	1	20%
"	Canada	308	76	24.70 %	N.A.	103	39	7	1	14%
43	Kazakhstan	107	26	24.30 %	8 20	47	2	6	1	7%
45	Liechtenstein	25	6	24.00 %	---	---	---	2	1	50%
46	Croatia	151	36	23.80	---	---	---	3	1	33%

				%						
47	Poland	460	109	23.70 %	10 2	100	13	8	2	25%
49	Kyrgyzstan	120	28	23.30 %	---	---	---	3	0	0%
50	Latvia	100	23	23.00 %	---	---	---	3	1	33%
"	United Kingdom	650	145	22.30 %	N.A.	827	181	13	3	23%
56	Czech Republic	200	44	22.00 %	10 2	81	15	7	0	0%
"	Serbia	250	55	22.00 %	---	---	---	4	3	75%
"	Uzbekistan	150	33	22.00 %	1 20	100	15	0	0	0%
57	Italy	630	136	21.60 %	4 20	321	61	13	1	8%
59	Bosnia and Herzegovina	42	9	21.40 %	6 20	15	2	3	0	0%
61	Bulgaria	240	50	20.80 %	---	---	---	5	5	100%
64	Estonia	101	20	19.80 %	---	---	---	3	1	33%
"	Republic of Moldova	101	20	19.80 %	---	---	---	3	1	33%
67	Lithuania	141	27	19.10 %	---	---	---	3	1	33%
68	Monaco	21	4	19.00 %	---	---	---	3	1	33%
"	Tajikistan	63	12	19.00 %	3 20	34	5	3	0	0%
69	France	577	109	18.90 %	9 20	347	77	13	0	0%
71	Greece	300	56	18.70 %	---	---	---	6	1	17%
72	San Marino	60	11	18.30 %	---	---	---	2	0	0%
76	Slovakia	150	26	17.30 %	---	---	---	3	1	33%
78	United States of America	432	73	16.90 %	11 2	100	17	16	2	12%
81	Azerbaijan	125	20	16.00 %	---	---	---	3	2	67%
79	Turkmenistan	125	21	16.80 %	---	---	---	0	0	0%
83	Albania	140	22	15.70 %	---	---	---	3	2	67%
86	Ireland	166	25	15.10 %	4 20	60	18	6	2	33%
"	Turkey	550	78	14.20 %	---	---	---	8	1	12%

92	Russian Federation	450	61	13.60 %	N.A.	169	8	14	2	14%
99	Montenegro	81	10	12.30 %	---	---	---	3	0	0%
104	Romania	330	37	11.20 %	11 2	136	8	7	2	29%
108	Cyprus	56	6	10.70 %	---	---	---	3	0	0%
116	Hungary	386	34	8.80 %	---	---	---	6	1	17%
"	Malta	69	6	8.70 %	---	---	---	3	0	0%
120	Armenia	131	11	8.40 %	---	---	---	3	0	0%
"	Ukraine	450	36	8.00 %	---	---	---	8	0	0%
128	Georgia	137	9	6.60 %	---	---	---	3	0	0%

Note: figures obtained from <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm> (accessed 5 May 2012)

Table 15

Women in Parliament in OSCE Countries			
Category	Single House or lower House	Upper House or Senate	Both Houses combined
Europe - OSCE member countries including Nordic countries	22.70%	21.10%	22.40%
Europe - OSCE member countries excluding Nordic countries	20.90%	21.10%	20.90%

Note: figures obtained from <http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm> (accessed 5 May 2012)

Table 16

OSCE PA Election Monitoring 2010-2012	MPs	Women	% of women
Kazakhstan 3 April 2011	57	15	26.3%
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia 5 June 2011	34	7	20.5%
Turkey 12 June 2011	30	4	13.3%
Tunisia 23 October 2011	65	15	23.0%
Kyrgyzstan 30 October 2011	21	7	33.3%
Russian Federation 4 December 2011	71	16	22.5%
Kazakhstan 12 January 2012	32	7	21.8%
Russia 4 March 2012	5	0	0.0%
Armenia 6 May 2012	49	13	26.5%

Serbia 6 May 2012(1st round)	22	3	13.6%
Serbia 16 May 2012(2nd round)	5	0	0.0%

Note: figures as of 21 May 2012

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