

2022

**The Annual Report of the
OSCE PA Special Representative
on Gender Issues**

**ENSURING A GENDER-INCLUSIVE
ECONOMIC RECOVERY FROM THE
COVID-19 PANDEMIC**



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Recovery from the COVID-19 Pandemic**

**Presented by
the Honourable Dr. Hedy Fry,
OSCE PA Special Representative on Gender Issues**

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PREFACE: MAINTAINING A GENDER FOCUS DURING A TIME OF CRISIS

On 24 February 2022, Russia launched an unprovoked and illegal military invasion of Ukraine, the consequences of which have been devastating. Since the invasion, nearly a third of Ukraine's pre-war population has been displaced, including more than 7.5 million people who have fled to neighbouring countries and another 7.1 million who have been displaced internally.¹ Russia's aggression has caused a humanitarian crisis, forcing millions to rely upon international assistance for their basic needs. Roads, schools, and hospitals have been demolished, and Ukrainians nationwide have seen their businesses and livelihoods destroyed. By mid-May 2022, the war had caused an estimated US\$94 billion in direct infrastructure damage; total economic losses, when accounting for indirect losses due to a decline in gross domestic product and other factors, are estimated at upwards of US\$600 billion.² Thousands of Ukrainian civilians have been killed and injured. The massacres in Bucha, Mariupol and other parts of the country have displayed unequivocally the brutality of the war.

At the time of Russia's invasion, the world was emerging from yet another wave of COVID-19. That wave was driven largely by the highly transmissible Omicron variant, which once again stretched the capacity of exhausted care workers and overburdened health systems. While accelerating the economic recovery to COVID-19 has remained an ongoing priority, global attention has also shifted – necessarily – to addressing the crisis in Ukraine.

Russia's aggression in Ukraine has dramatically affected regional security dynamics. Members of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) have announced their intention to significantly increase their defence budgets and to procure new military capabilities. As a whole, NATO has agreed to invest more, and more quickly, in its collective defence.³ Meanwhile, Finland and Sweden, which have been non-aligned militarily since the Second World War, have decided to seek NATO membership.

Russia's aggression in Ukraine has added another layer of challenges to the post-COVID-19 economic recovery in Organization for the Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) region. The consequences of the war in Ukraine have been gendered. The war is likely to exacerbate pre-existing economic inequalities in Ukraine, including by pushing more women into informal and less protected

¹ As of 14 June 2022, more than 7.5 million refugee movements had been recorded out of Ukraine. At the same time, authorities have reported more than 2.4 million movements back into the country. The United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) notes that movements “back to Ukraine may be pendular, and do not necessarily indicate sustainable returns as the situation across Ukraine remains highly volatile and unpredictable.” See: UNHCR, Operational Data Portal, Refugee Situations. Ukraine, database accessed 15 June 2022. United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), [Ukraine](#), Situation Report, 19 May 2022.

² As defined by the Kyiv School of Economics, indirect losses also include those incurred due to investment cessation, the outflow of labour, and additional defence and social support costs. See: Kyiv School of Economics, “[Total economic losses since the beginning of the war are estimated at \\$564-600 billion or above](#),” 19 May 2022.

³ North Atlantic Treaty Organization, [Press conference by NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg on the release of his Annual Report 2021](#), 31 March 2022.

sectors of the economy. Of those who have fled Ukraine, 90% are women and children.⁴ Moreover, women and children, people with disabilities, older people and minority groups are over-represented among those who have been displaced internally.⁵ History has shown that humanitarian crises and population displacement correlates with increased threats to personal safety. In those contexts, there is a heightened risk of sexual- and gender-based violence, conflict-related violence and human trafficking – all of which disproportionately affect women and girls.

During this time of crisis and shifting budgetary priorities, it is critical that the international community not lose sight of gender as a cross-cutting issue. As this report will discuss in the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, gender considerations must be an integral part of emergency responses. I urge OSCE participating States to ensure that gender considerations are mainstreamed across all policy responses to the war in the Ukraine, including in the design and implementation of security, humanitarian, and economic measures. I also call on participating States, as well as the OSCE as an institution, to ensure the meaningful participation of women in all decision-making processes. This includes ensuring that women play a meaningful role in all relevant peace and security initiatives in line with the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 and subsequent resolutions on Women, Peace and Security. Together, as an OSCE community, we must all play a role in ensuring gender responsiveness to the war in Ukraine.

⁴ UN News, [One month of war leaves more than half of Ukraine's children displaced](#), 24 March 2022.

⁵ CARE International and UN Women, [Rapid Gender Analysis of Ukraine: Secondary Data Review](#), 29 March 2022.

INTRODUCTION

In June 2020, in my capacity as the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe Parliamentary Assembly's (OSCE PA) Special Representative on Gender Issues, I presented a report entitled *The Gendered Impacts of COVID-19*.⁶ At the time I presented that report, the COVID-19 pandemic was in its infancy and we – as a global community – could not have predicted how significantly it would affect all of our lives. Now, two and a half years after the World Health Organization (WHO) declared COVID-19 a pandemic, the impact that the virus has had on people across the world is only too apparent. According to the Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, as of 17 June 2022, COVID-19 had infected more than 538 million people worldwide. Tragically, on a global scale, more than 6.3 million deaths can be directly attributed to COVID-19.⁷ Another 9.5 million deaths have been reported from indirect causes associated with the pandemic, including its wider impact on health systems and society.⁸

Some things were already clear in those first few months of the pandemic. As the 2020 gender report detailed, early evidence indicated that the pandemic was exacerbating existing inequalities for women and girls, as well as for other vulnerable and marginalized groups. The report underscored the broad-based gendered effects of COVID-19, including on women's health, livelihoods, and representation in political bodies and in other decision-making roles. Apart from the risk that COVID-19 posed for the security of women and girls – including with respect to gender-based violence – the report noted that the pandemic also posed a threat to the collective stability of all OSCE participating States.

The economic impacts of the pandemic have been dramatic. According to the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the global economy contracted by 3.1% in 2020, the sharpest decline since the Great Depression. The United Nations (UN) estimated that approximately 120 million people were driven back into extreme poverty in that year, reversing decades of progress. While the global economy has stabilized and begun to rebound, economic recovery has been uneven both across regions and within countries. Moreover, there is concern that women, vulnerable populations and marginalized groups will be left behind.

Many international organizations and institutions have outlined the importance of applying a gender lens to COVID-19 economic recovery plans. The 2021 G20 Leaders' Declaration, for example, states: "We commit to put women and girls, who have been disproportionately affected by the pandemic, at the core of our efforts to build forward better."⁹ The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and

⁶ Dr. Hedy Fry, OSCE PA Special Representative on Gender Issues, [The Gendered Impacts of COVID-19](#), OSCE PA, 2020.

⁷ Johns Hopkins University of Medicine, [COVID-19 Dashboard](#), database, accessed 17 June 2022.

⁸ According to the World Health Organization (WHO), between 1 January 2020 and 31 December 2021, the global excess mortality associated with COVID-19 in 2021 was 14.91 million. That figure includes deaths directly attributed to COVID-19 that were counted and reported to the WHO, along with those indirectly associated with the pandemic. Excess mortality is defined as the difference between the total number of deaths that have occurred and the number of deaths that would have been expected in the absence of the COVID-19 pandemic. WHO, [Global excess deaths associated with COVID-19, January 2020-December 2021](#), May 2022.

⁹ [G20 Rome Leaders' Declaration](#), 31 October 2021.

SECTION I

PART I: THE GENDERED ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF THE PANDEMIC

The COVID-19 pandemic has had far-reaching economic consequences in the OSCE region and beyond. Many stakeholders have characterized the resulting recession as a “she-cession” due to its disproportionately negative consequences for women.¹⁰ While the socioeconomic causes of the “she-cession” vary, two factors have particularly aggravated the economic consequences of the pandemic for women. The first of these factors is the disproportionate increase in unpaid care work that women have taken on during the pandemic; the second factor is that women are over-represented in many of the economic sectors most affected by the pandemic. Part one of this report will examine these two factors in more detail.

A. Disparities in Unpaid Care Work

In all societies, care and domestic work – such as cooking, cleaning and caring for children or dependant adults – is largely done on an unpaid basis within families and communities, most often by women. As explained by UN Women, “[a]lthough this unpaid care and domestic work is not counted as ‘economic activity’ in labour-force surveys, nor incorporated in calculations of gross domestic product (GDP), it has enormous economic value: it contributes to human well-being, builds stronger social ties, and enables economic dynamism and growth.”¹¹

In many countries, public health responses to the pandemic have included periodic closures of schools, daycare centres, recreational facilities, and other health and social services, dramatically increasing unpaid care work for families with children. Women all over the world, including in the OSCE region, already carried out a higher proportion of unpaid care work than men prior to the pandemic, in many cases limiting their paid employment opportunities. These long-standing disparities were exacerbated by the pandemic, resulting in many women reducing their paid work hours, forgoing career opportunities, or leaving the workforce altogether. These economic shifts have reversed progress on gender equality in many OSCE participating States; unfortunately, without gender-inclusive recovery policies, this backsliding may become permanent.

Gender disparity in unpaid care work is a longstanding form of gender inequality that is rooted in socioeconomic conditions and cultural assumptions. It continues to be one of the most significant barriers to women’s full and equal participation in the workforce. Unpaid care work often includes the care of children and dependent adults, including preparing meals, cleaning, and other domestic

¹⁰ Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), [“Caregiving in Crisis: Gender inequality in paid and unpaid work during COVID-19,”](#) 13 December 2021; Titan Alon et al., [“From Mancession to Shecession: Women’s Employment in Regular and Pandemic Recessions,”](#) July 2021.

¹¹ UN Women, [Redistributing Unpaid Care and Sustaining Quality Care Services: A Prerequisite for Gender Equality](#), 2016.

tasks. All parts of the economy and of society depend upon this work being performed, and yet too often it is invisible, undervalued, and marginalized.

Research by the International Labour Organization (ILO) indicates that before the pandemic, women performed 76.2% of the total hours of unpaid care work provided globally. Without exception, the ILO found that there was no country in the world in which men and women do an equal share of unpaid care work.¹² This disparity has long acted as a barrier to employment, with 42% of working age women unable to perform paid work because of unpaid care work responsibilities prior to the pandemic, compared to just 6% of men.¹³ Further, although women were already disproportionately responsible for unpaid care work prior to the pandemic, women nevertheless took on most of the additional unpaid care work caused by school closures and other pandemic-related challenges.

Data collected by UN Women between March 2020 and March 2021 indicates that in Europe and Central Asia, 73% of women reported an increase in at least one domestic activity (such as cooking, shopping for groceries and cleaning), compared to 58% of men. This disparity was even more pronounced in some of the assessed countries, including in Armenia (53% of women; 35% of men) and in Turkey (86% of women; 66% of men).¹⁴ Moreover, 31% of women respondents in Europe and Central Asia reported an increase in three or more domestic activities, compared to 19% of men. This disparity was especially evident in countries such as Armenia (23% of women; 8% of men), Georgia (22% of women; 7% of men), North Macedonia (38% of women; 21% of men), and Turkey (39% of women; 25% of men).¹⁵

Research also shows that the gender gap is significant and growing with regard to childcare. Before the pandemic, research by UN Women showed that across 16 countries, women spent an average of 26 hours per week caring for children, compared to 20 hours per week spent on childcare by men. This amount increased by 5.2 hours per week for women during the first year of the pandemic, compared to 3.5 hours for men, resulting in the average woman performing the equivalent of a full-time job doing unpaid childcare.¹⁶

This trend was particularly pronounced in several OSCE participating States. According to data collected by UN Women between March 2020 and March 2021, 64% of female and 59% of male respondents in Europe and Central Asia reporting taking on at least one additional childcare activity, with a more pronounced gender disparity in countries such as Albania (81% of women; 69% of men), Armenia (65% of women; 55% of men), Belarus (53% of women; 40% of men), Georgia (71% of

¹² International Labour Organization (ILO), [Care Work and Care Jobs For the Future of Decent Work](#), 2018. Note that Sweden, Norway and Denmark came closest to gender parity, with men performing between 43% and 45% of unpaid care work.

¹³ OXFAM, [Care in the Time of Coronavirus: Why care work needs to be at the centre of a post-COVID-19 feminist future](#), June 2020.

¹⁴ UN Women, "[Rapid Gender Assessments on the socioeconomic impacts of COVID-19: Proportion of people who reported increase in at least one domestic activity, by sex \(%\)](#)."

¹⁵ Ibid.

¹⁶ World Economic Forum, [COVID-19: How women are bearing the burden of unpaid work](#), 18 December 2020.

women; 65% of men), and North Macedonia (54% of women, 42% of men).¹⁷ Moreover, 33% of women in Europe and Central Asia reported taking on at least three additional childcare activities, compared to 28% of men. This disparity was more apparent in Albania (42% of women; 32% of men), Armenia (44% of women; 33% of men), Belarus (20% of women; 12% of men), Georgia (51% of women; 28% of men), and Moldova (41% of women; 35% of men).¹⁸

These increased responsibilities have made it even more difficult for women to enter and remain in the workforce. While these longstanding disparities affect all women with dependent children to varying degrees, it is clear that certain groups of women are more affected than others. For example, research by the OECD has shown that mothers with children under the age of 12 were nearly three times as likely as fathers to report taking on a majority – or in some cases the entirety – of unpaid care work relating to school and childcare facility closures.¹⁹ Among OSCE participating States surveyed, this gap existed in all countries and was particularly pronounced in Austria (74% of women; 23% of men), Poland (66% of women; 16% of men), Portugal (69% of women; 14% of men), Spain (68% of women; 18% of men), and Turkey (77% of women; 22% of men).²⁰ Concerningly, these gaps in unpaid caregiving persisted even when both parents were employed.²¹

The gender gap in unpaid care work is longstanding and has only grown during the pandemic. High childcare costs and inadequate early education programs work to discourage the full participation of women in the workforce. Fortunately, solutions have been identified that can reduce and ultimately eliminate the gender gap in caregiving. Research by the OECD indicates that gender gaps in caregiving are smaller in countries that spend more public money per capita on family supports such as parental leave, childcare benefits and services, and child benefits.²² This shows that gender inequalities in care work and in the workforce are not inevitable. They are, at least in part, a policy choice that can be corrected. As the world economy recovers and rebuilds from the pandemic, an intersectional gender lens must be central to policy responses.

B. Impacts in Female-Dominated Economic Sectors

At the same time as women were taking on an increasing share of unpaid care work, they were being disproportionately affected by pandemic-related economic shocks. The economic effects were particularly pronounced for workers in the healthcare and social assistance sector, the education sector, and the accommodation and food services sector, all of which have a high rate of female workforce participation. While all women in these sectors – and women in other sectors – were

¹⁷ UN Women, [“Rapid Gender Assessments on the socioeconomic impacts of COVID-19: Proportion of people who reported increase in at least one childcare activity, by sex \(%\)”](#).

¹⁸ Ibid.

¹⁹ OECD, [Caregiving in crisis: Gender inequality in paid and unpaid work during COVID-19](#), Figure 3, p. 8, 13 December 2021.

²⁰ Ibid, [Figures and data](#).

²¹ OECD, [Caregiving in crisis: Gender inequality in paid and unpaid work during COVID-19](#), 13 December 2021.

²² Ibid.

affected by the economic impacts of the pandemic in various ways, certain groups were more likely to be severely impacted, including immigrants, women in poverty, and women from minority ethnic backgrounds.²³

Globally, women have long participated in the paid workforce at lower rates than men. This ongoing gender gap exists in all OSCE participating States but is particularly apparent in countries such as Kyrgyzstan (29.6%), North Macedonia (21%) and Turkey (37.6%).²⁴ Despite their lower participation in the overall workforce, women participate at equal or higher rates in particular sectors of the economy. These include the healthcare and social assistance sector, where women make up approximately 75% of the workforce; the education sector, where women make up approximately 65% of the workforce; and the accommodation and food services sector, where women make up approximately 49% of the workforce.²⁵ Unlike previous recessions, these economic sectors saw some of the most significant repercussions from the pandemic. For example, the ILO reports that the hotel and restaurant sectors suffered the largest sectoral decline in 2020 (-9.4%), jeopardizing the economic security of employees whose jobs were often already precarious. In contrast, the financial and insurance sectors – which primarily employ men – registered positive growth of 1.5% in 2020.²⁶

Further, educators and healthcare workers – who are predominantly women – have experienced unique and unprecedented challenges during the pandemic, often leading to burnout and reduced work hours. Healthcare workers have had to deal with enormous mental and physical pressures caused by the pandemic, and a higher risk of exposure to COVID-19. Multiple Canadian studies found that more than 60% of healthcare workers were reporting severe emotional exhaustion by the fall of 2020 and beyond, with even higher rates among nurses – who are disproportionately women.²⁷

Similarly, school closures and the shift to online learning also created new challenges for teachers and other educators, who reported high levels of stress and burnout resulting from the pandemic. In a recent poll of 3,621 educators in the United States, 90% of respondents stated that feeling burned out was a serious problem for them.²⁸ Further, 55% of educators indicated that they are more likely to leave the profession earlier than planned because of the pandemic, with even higher rates for Black and Hispanic/Latino educators.²⁹

Burnout is a vicious cycle, as it often leads to staffing shortages that cause ripple effects throughout the workforce. Moreover, at the individual level, burnout from paid employment can be closely tied to burnout from unpaid care work. For many women, the combination of increased unpaid care work

²³ Luisa S. Flor et al, [Quantifying the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on gender equality on health, social, and economic indicators: a comprehensive review of data from March, 2020, to September, 2021](#), *The Lancet*, 2 March 2022.

²⁴ ILO, [Gender gap in labour force participation rates](#), November 2021.

²⁵ World Economic Forum, [Global Gender Gap Report 2021](#), March 2021.

²⁶ ILO, [ILO Monitor: COVID-19 and the world of work](#), Updated estimates and analysis, 8th edition, 27 October 2021.

²⁷ Robert G. Maunder et al, [Burnout in Hospital-Based Healthcare Workers during COVID-19](#), 7 October 2021.

²⁸ GBAO, [Poll Results: Stress And Burnout Pose Threat Of Educator Shortages](#), 31 January 2022.

²⁹ Ibid.

and increased stress relating to their paid employment has been devastating and unsustainable. Due to the combination of paid and unpaid responsibilities, young women and mothers have been particularly vulnerable to economic insecurity.³⁰ The overall result is that women were disproportionately affected by the economic impacts of the pandemic, including having a higher rate of employment losses compared to men in 2020.³¹

For women, the economic impacts of the pandemic are far from over. Based on the experience of previous recessions, experts have warned that without the application of a gender lens to recovery policies, women will have longer periods of unemployment and suffer long-term impacts to their income and career progression, potentially leading to a US\$1 trillion reduction in global gross domestic product by 2030.³² In short, a failure to adequately include women in the economic recovery will continue to negatively affect economic outcomes and have devastating impacts on families and communities. OSCE participating States must ensure that women are not left behind, including by implementing policies that reduce the burden of unpaid care work and provide support for women experiencing burnout or precarious employment.

PART II: BEST PRACTICES FOR A GENDER-INCLUSIVE ECONOMIC RECOVERY

The COVID-19 pandemic has underscored the urgency of addressing the structural and systemic gender inequalities that pervade the global economic system and other parts of society. In particular, women's equal participation in the labour force must be addressed if we are to tackle widespread financial insecurity and poverty as we emerge from the pandemic. The second part of this report focuses on measures that can be taken to ensure that the post-pandemic economic recovery is gender-inclusive and highlights the economic benefits of implementing such measures.

A. Gender Equality and the Workforce

As described in the 2020 Gender Report, the COVID-19 pandemic has exacerbated existing gender economic inequality. More than two years after the pandemic began, the economic recovery remains uncertain and fragile and is not being felt equally across the workforce. Women and those with intersectional identity factors such as race, sexuality, disability continue to face disproportionate economic challenges.

³⁰ UN Women, [Women and Girls Left Behind: Glaring Gaps in Pandemic Responses](#), 2021.

³¹ ILO, [ILO Monitor: COVID-19 and the world of work](#). Updated estimates and analysis, 8th edition, 27 October 2021.

³² Luisa S. Flor et al, [Quantifying the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on gender equality on health, social, and economic indicators: a comprehensive review of data from March, 2020, to September, 2021](#), *The Lancet*, 2 March 2022.

The ILO describes the state of the labour market recovery from the COVID-19 pandemic as “incomplete,” “uneven and gender-unequal.”³³ The global labour force participation rate has fallen by close to 2 percentage points during the pandemic and has yet to return to its 2019 level. Currently, the global labour participation rate stands at 47% for women and 72% for men. This represents a difference in women and men’s participation in the labour force of 25 percentage points globally, with some OSCE participating States facing a difference of more than 35 percentage points.³⁴

Since the beginning of the pandemic, employment loss rates worldwide have been high, and significantly higher among women than men.³⁵ In September 2021, 26% of women, compared to 20% of men, had reported employment loss during the pandemic.³⁶ While women’s employment rates in some OSCE participating States – such as France and Spain – have reached pre-pandemic levels, they have yet to return to the levels seen in 2019 for others.³⁷ For instance, while men in the United States have recouped all of their labour force losses, there were one million fewer women in the American labour force in January 2022 as compared to February 2020. Moreover, racialized women accounted for a disproportionate share of these labour force losses.³⁸

While the setback in economic gender equality has evident consequences for women and societal progress, it also has negative impacts on the economy. The OSCE acknowledges that gender equality is essential to economic development.³⁹ Women make essential contributions to the economy, accounting for 39% of the global paid workforce and a majority of the unpaid workforce.⁴⁰

There is a growing body of literature suggesting that gender equality has important implications for economic growth.⁴¹ According to the IMF, women’s economic empowerment boosts productivity,

³³ ILO, [World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends 2022](#), 2022; and ILO, [An uneven and gender-unequal COVID-19 recovery: Update on gender and employment trends 2021](#), ILO Brief, October 2021.

³⁴ ILO, [World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends 2022](#), 2022. ILO defines the labour force as the sum of the number of persons of working age who are employed and the number of persons of working age who are unemployed.

³⁵ Ibid.

³⁶ Luisa S. Flor et al, [Quantifying the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic on gender equality on health, social, and economic indicators: a comprehensive review of data from March, 2020, to September, 2021](#), *The Lancet*, 2 March 2022.

³⁷ Akru Barua, [“Gender equality, dealt a blow by COVID-19, still has much ground to cover: At the brink of squandering past gains,”](#) *Deloitte Insights*, 21 January 2022; and European Union, [Eurostat, Employment - quarterly statistics](#), March 2022.

³⁸ Jasmine Tucker, [Men Have Now Recouped Their Pandemic-Related Labor Force Losses While Women Lag Behind](#), Fact sheet, National Women’s Law Center, February 2022; and United States, Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, [The Employment Situation — March 2022](#), News release, 1 April 2022.

³⁹ OSCE, Ministerial Council, [Decision No. 14/04 - 2004 OSCE Action Plan for the Promotion of Gender Equality](#), Decision taken at the 14th Ministerial Council in Sofia, 7 December 2004.

⁴⁰ World Bank, [Labor force, female \(% of total labor force\)](#).

⁴¹ See Raquel Fernández et al., [Gender Equality and Inclusive Growth](#), Working Paper 21/59, International Monetary Fund (IMF), 4 March 2021; David Cuberes and Marc Teignier, [“Aggregate Effects of Gender Gaps in the Labor Market: A Quantitative Estimate,”](#) *Journal of Human Capital*, Vol. 10, No. 1, 2016; Christian Gonzales et al., [Catalyst for Change: Empowering Women and Tackling Income Inequality](#), IMF Staff Discussion Note 15/20, IMF, October 2015; World Bank, [World Development Report 2012: Gender Equality and Development](#), 2012; and OECD, [Closing the Gender Gap: Act Now](#), 2012.

economic diversification and income equality, among other positive development outcomes.⁴² For instance, the OECD estimates that on average, across the OECD region, a 50% reduction in the gender gap in labour force participation would lead to an average annual GDP increase of 0.3 percentage points.⁴³ In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, research found that the speed at which countries and businesses take action to advance gender equality has impacts on the economy. Estimates suggest that between US\$6 trillion to US\$13 trillion could be added to global GDP in 2030 depending on the speed at which actions to improve gender parity in employment are implemented.⁴⁴

A 2022 report by the United States House Committee on the Budget illustrates the economic importance of a gender-sensitive recovery:

Working women provide for their families and they have an enormous impact on our GDP: one reason for the sustained economic growth over the last 50 years is because of women's steadily increasing participation in the paid labor force. In short, America will never achieve a full recovery if working women are left behind. Failing to support working parents – especially mothers – will impact our productivity and curb economic growth for decades to come.⁴⁵

In previous recessions, labour force and employment recovery were generally slower for women than men.⁴⁶ In the context of the recovery from the 2008 financial crisis, some observers have pointed out that policymakers responded by implementing measures focused on the needs of specific industries, without applying a gender perspective. According to some, this failure to implement a gender-sensitive recovery had a long-term negative impact on gender economic equality.⁴⁷

Women's participation in the economy is also negatively affected in times of conflict and war. Adopted in 2000, UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security (WPS) was the first of a series of resolutions recognizing the importance of including women in decision-making processes relating to the prevention, management and resolution of conflict, as well as acknowledging the unique and disproportionate effects of armed conflict on women and girls. One of the four "pillars" of the WPS agenda is to ensure that post-conflict relief and recovery efforts are gender-sensitive. This approach empowers women and girls economically, politically and socially to ensure their participation in

⁴² IMF, [Pursuing Women's Economic Empowerment](#), Policy Paper, 31 May 2018.

⁴³ OECD, [Closing the Gender Gap: Act Now](#), 2012.

⁴⁴ McKinsey Global Institute, [COVID-19 and gender equality: Countering the regressive effects](#), 15 July 2020.

⁴⁵ United States, House Committee on the Budget, [Ensuring Women Can Thrive in a Post-Pandemic Economy](#), Report, 7 March 2022.

⁴⁶ Betsey Stevenson, [Women, Work, and Families: Recovering from the Pandemic-Induced Recession](#), Economic Analysis, The Hamilton Project, September 2021.

⁴⁷ Shanu S.P. Hinduja, "[Women Must Not Be Excluded From Economic Recovery](#)," *US News*, 1 June 2020; Don Lee, "[Newly created jobs go mostly to men](#)," *Los Angeles Times*, 15 July 2012.

peacebuilding processes and economic recovery.⁴⁸ An April 2022 gender analysis of the situation in Ukraine noted that, while Ukraine has a National Action Plan on WPS, there is little evidence that the inclusion of women in peacebuilding processes is being prioritized. The absence of women in such processes is likely to have negative impacts on the inclusion of gender perspectives in both peacebuilding efforts and the eventual process of national reconstruction.⁴⁹

Recognizing that women are disproportionately affected by crises, from health emergencies – such as the COVID-19 pandemic – to armed conflicts and wars – such as the situation in Ukraine, OSCE participating States should increase their efforts to promote the involvement of women in decision-making processes in the OSCE region and around the world.

B. Ways Forward

As this report has discussed, the pandemic has exacerbated pre-existing gender inequalities within the workforce and reinforced socio-cultural norms that see women assume the overwhelming responsibility for unpaid care work. In so doing, the pandemic has threatened and – in some cases – reversed years of progress on women’s economic empowerment.

In April 2020, the OECD conducted a survey on the gender equality-related measures adopted by its member countries in response to the pandemic, including the tools they used to incorporate gender-inclusive considerations into emergency responses. That survey was completed by 24 OECD member countries, as well as by Egypt and Tunisia.⁵⁰ The survey revealed an unevenness in the degree to which respondents systematically mainstreamed policies promoting gender equality into their emergency responses. Only 11 of the 26 countries that responded to the survey indicated that they explicitly used assessments of the differential impacts of policies on women and men to inform the design or delivery of their pandemic policy responses and measures.

The need for swift government action in the early stages of the pandemic appears to have affected the ability of some governments to apply a gender lens to their policy responses. According to the OECD, about half of the respondent countries reported that the need to act quickly, coupled with a lack of readily available gender-disaggregated data, hampered the ability of decision makers to propose gender-sensitive policies. Respondents also highlighted limited resources dedicated to promoting gender equality and women’s economic empowerment as another challenge to incorporating gender impact assessment tools into emergency responses.

⁴⁸ United Nations Development Programme, *Parliaments as Partners Supporting the Women Peace and Security Agenda: A Global Handbook*, 2019; and Peace Women, *Ukraine*.

⁴⁹ Working Group on Women, Peace and Security, *Gender Analysis of the Situation in Ukraine*, 4 April 2022.

⁵⁰ The 24 OECD member countries that responded to the survey were: Austria, Canada, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Finland, France, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Japan, Korea, Latvia, Lithuania, Mexico, Norway, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, the United Kingdom, and the United States. The OECD has supported Tunisia and Egypt through country-specific programmes. See: OECD, *Towards gender-inclusive recovery*, OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19), 19 May 2021.

Notwithstanding these challenges, several OSCE participating States have employed tools and practices to mainstream gender considerations into their pandemic responses. This section highlights selected best practices, along with recommendations from international organizations and civil society organizations regarding the integration of gender equality measures into post-pandemic economic recovery plans.

1. Gender-Disaggregated Data

Underlying all good public policy is good data. In order to integrate gender considerations into COVID-19 economic recovery strategies, governments must have access to data that reflects the gender diverse make-up of their societies. Collecting and using data disaggregated by sex, as well as by intersectional factors such as sexuality, age, disability, ethnicity, and socioeconomic status, provides the best way to ensure that COVID-19 policy responses are informed by the best available evidence.⁵¹ A 2021 report published by UN Women framed the value of gender-disaggregated data as follows:

The collection and use of timely, quality gender data by all data sources, official or non-official, is critical to recognizing and addressing gender inequalities. More and better data is needed to identify the most urgent needs of populations that have been most harmed by the pandemic and to formulate gender-responsive policies to effectively spur an equitable recovery. By committing to increased gender data collection and use now, we can build a foundation that is better prepared for future shocks.⁵²

By contrast, a lack of gender-disaggregated data impedes the ability of governments to target assistance to those most vulnerable and in need of support, and to pre-empt future crises. Despite decades of effort to promote gender equality, a lack of gender-disaggregated data continues to affect the ability of governments to craft gender-inclusive policies and to monitor their effectiveness. According to the UN's 2021 Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) report, fewer than 50% of countries had the necessary data available to effectively monitor SDG 5 on achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls.⁵³ A lack of financial support for national statistics agencies is

⁵¹ For more information on international efforts to support the collection and use of gender-disaggregated data, see: [Transforming the Data Landscape: Solutions to Close Gender Data Gaps](#), Data2X, 2022; and [State of Gender Data Financing 2021](#), Open Data Watch and Data2X.

⁵² [Strengthening Gender Measures and Data in the COVID-19 Era: An Urgent Need for Change](#), UN Women, 2021.

⁵³ The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are the core of the UN's 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The 17 SDGs, and their 169 associated targets, address a range of global challenges, including hunger, poverty, climate change, and gender inequality. UN, [The Sustainable Development Goals Report 2021](#), p. 5.

one factor limiting the collection of gender-disaggregated data. A 2021 report by Data2x, a gender data alliance, found that gender data systems globally have been underfunded by almost US\$450 million every year since 2015.⁵⁴ Gathering gender-disaggregated data is also affected by the fact that many statistical instruments collect information at the household rather than the individual level, limiting the data granularity that can be generated.

The COVID-19 pandemic has underscored the urgency of generating more and better gender-disaggregated data. Such data is vital to understanding the gender differentiated impacts of COVID-19. It is also critical to ensuring that women are not neglected in economic recovery efforts. Gender-disaggregated data can be used to support a number of policy tools, including gender impact assessments that analyse the intended outcomes of recovery packages and gender budget audits that review prospective expenditures and assess their likely gender impacts. As UN Women and others have argued, governments should help build the capacity of national statistics agencies to collect gender-disaggregated data, and should ensure that the gendered impacts of COVID-19 economic relief efforts are being monitored on an ongoing basis.⁵⁵

2. Support to Women and Others with Caring Responsibilities

The COVID-19 pandemic has underscored the need to develop and strengthen measures aimed at helping parents, and especially working mothers, to reconcile their work and family responsibilities. In my 2020 gender report, I urged OSCE participating States to enact policies to support women and others with care responsibilities, including by providing public childcare options for essential workers and supporting flexible working arrangements for families. I also encouraged participating States to pay special attention to the needs of single-parent households, which are predominantly led by women.

There are a wide range of measures that could be used to support women and others with care responsibilities. According to Esuna Dugarova, Policy Specialist at the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), care measures in response to the COVID-19 pandemic are normally based on four key components: time, services, resources, and infrastructure. Time includes parental leave policies and flexible work arrangements that help parents reconcile work and family obligations. Services include early childhood care and education policies, as well as care services to support the elderly, people with disabilities, and those in need of psychosocial support. Resources entails measures such as family allowances and benefits to support the cost of childcare, as well as income support to parents affected by COVID-19-related work closures. Finally, infrastructure refers to social infrastructure such as the availability of care, health and education facilities.⁵⁶

⁵⁴ [State of Gender Data Financing 2021](#), Open Data Watch and Data2X.

⁵⁵ UN Women, *Gender Data: Understanding impacts and gauging results*, 31 March 2022; and Gender Equality Advisory Council 2021, *Building Back Better for Women and Girls*, 28 October 2021.

⁵⁶ For more examples of measures outlined within this policy framework, see: Esuna Dugarova, *Unpaid care work in times of the COVID-19 crisis: Gendered impacts, emerging evidence and promising policy responses*, 18 June 2020.

Over the past two and a half years, many OSCE participating States have enacted measures to support women and others with care responsibilities and to address the disproportionate burden that women bear for unpaid care work. Greece, for example, established a special form of leave that could be taken by working parents of children aged 15 and under who were enrolled at schools that were closed.⁵⁷ Greece also introduced measures to allow for an additional 14 days of leave for parents with children who became infected with COVID-19. Various participating States also developed resources to support parents who were simultaneously working while managing their children's remote learning. For instance, Slovakia, France and Ireland established helplines and websites that provided advice and resources for parents balancing telework and parenting duties during the pandemic.⁵⁸

Despite the wide array of measures employed to support working families, women continued to shoulder the disproportionate burden of care work during the pandemic. As OSCE participating States recover from COVID-19, governments, parliamentarians, and members of civil society should work together to examine best practices and lessons learned in terms of care support. This should include an assessment not only of measures related to childcare, but also of those related to other forms of care, including elder care and care for those with disabilities. Participating States should also assess whether further changes to existing family leave policies, such as additional sick leave or paid leave for parents affected by school and other health emergency-related closures, are required.

3. Gender Budgeting

As a central tool of economic planning and delivery, budgets are an important mechanism for addressing gender inequality and integrating gender perspectives into policy priorities. The Council of Europe defines gender budgeting as “a gender-based assessment of budgets, incorporating a gender perspective at all levels of the budgetary process and restructuring revenues and expenditures in order to promote gender equality.”⁵⁹ While the definition of gender budgeting may vary in different jurisdictions, the OECD explains that what is shared is the “deliberate intention of anchoring equality (gender and for other groups) into existing budgetary and policy-making frameworks.”⁶⁰

Several OSCE participating States have used gender budgeting as a tool to formulate their pandemic responses. For example, Iceland – where gender budgeting has been mandatory at the national level since 2016 – conducted a gender impact assessment of its 2020 COVID-19 relief and response packages.⁶¹ In developing those packages, all Icelandic ministries had to estimate the number of jobs

⁵⁷ Natalie Picken et al, [Juggling work and childcare during COVID-19: How EU Member States supported working families in 2020, European Platform for Investing in Children: fourth annual thematic report](#), European Commission, June 2021, p. 24.

⁵⁸ Ibid.

⁵⁹ Council of Europe, [Gender Budgeting, Final Report of the Group of Specialists on Gender Budgeting](#), 2005.

⁶⁰ OECD, [Towards gender-inclusive recovery](#), OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19), 19 May 2021.

⁶¹ For more information on gender budgeting in Iceland, see: Government of Iceland, Ministry of Finance and Economic Affairs, [Gender budgeting](#).

expected to be created for women and men. The government then conducted a gender impact analysis of those packages which it used to inform the design of subsequent COVID-19 response measures.⁶² In Canada, the gender and diversity impacts of COVID-19 were taken into consideration in the development of the federal government's 2020 COVID-19 Economic Response Plan. As part of that plan, the government conducted a gender-based analysis of the impacts of COVID-19 on diverse groups of Canadians and discussed how the proposed measures were designed to address those impacts.⁶³ Canada's 2018 *Gender Budgeting Act* requires that the government conduct an annual analysis of the impacts of existing Government of Canada expenditure programs on gender and diversity.⁶⁴

There are a range of other approaches for integrating gender considerations in budgets. Among these are gender budget statements, which are targeted policy documents that summarize how a government intends to pursue gender equality goals. A joint paper by the IMF, UN Women and the UNDP notes that, as governments prepare budgets for the next year, "anchoring gender-responsive goals" through these types of documents can help to ensure that sufficient resources are channelled to these objectives.⁶⁵ The Government of Albania, for example, produced a summary of its 2021 budget in which it explained how it would respond to COVID-19 and the specific needs of women and men across 11 sectors, including health, social protection, education and agriculture.⁶⁶ For its part, the Parliamentary Budget Office of Georgia introduced a framework for determining the gender relevance of budgetary expenditures. The framework assesses expenditures against various gender considerations, including the possible effects of spending on the capacity of men and women to participate equally in the social, economic and political spheres.⁶⁷

Budget call circulars are another tool for integrating gender considerations into public financial management. Budget call circulars are official notices normally issued by ministries of finance at the beginning of a budget cycle to inform government agencies or departments of the guidelines for submitting their budget proposals. These budget call circulars can be made gender-responsive by explicitly stating that gender should be reflected in the submissions and used as a criterion during budget considerations. For instance, France employs a budget call circular that provides guidance to ministries in how to prepare performance information related to gender objectives and construct

⁶² Alfrun Tryggvadottir, *Gender and Capital Budgeting*, Public Governance Directorate Committee of Senior Budget Officials, OECD, GOV/SBO (2021)3, 16 June 2021; G7 Gender Equality Advisory Council, *Report of the G7 Gender Equality Advisory Council 2021 – Building Back Better for Women and Girls*.

⁶³ Government of Canada, *Economic and Fiscal Snapshot 2020*.

⁶⁴ For more information on gender-based analysis plus in Government of Canada federal programs, see: Government of Canada, *Gender and diversity: Impacts of programs*.

⁶⁵ Vincent Tang et al, *Gender Equality and COVID-19: Policies and Institutions for Mitigating the Crisis*, Special Series on COVID-19, 28 July 2021.

⁶⁶ UN Women, *COVID-19 and Fiscal Policy: Applying Gender-Responsive Budgeting in Support and Recovery Measures*, Policy Brief No. 21, 14 May 2021.

⁶⁷ OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR), *Realizing Gender Equality in Parliament: A Guide for Parliaments in the OSCE Region*, 2021, p. 46; and Parliamentary Budget Office of Georgia, *Gender Budgeting*.

gender impact assessments. France also produces a specific annex to its budget law that assesses the impact of fiscal policies on gender equality.⁶⁸

4. Supporting Female Workers and Women-Led Businesses

In my 2020 gender report, I urged participating States to ensure that their economic recovery and social assistance plans accounted for the fact that women represent the majority of workers in industries most affected by COVID-19 lockdowns. I also called on participating States to provide specific protections for informal workers, most of whom are women, as well as women-led businesses.

There are indications of an increasing awareness of the link between women’s economic empowerment and sustainable economic recovery from the pandemic. In September 2021, the OSCE met for the 29th Economic and Environmental Forum, which focused on the theme of promoting comprehensive security, stability and sustainable development in the OSCE area through women’s economic empowerment. During the forum, participating States discussed the need to mainstream gender within economic recovery plans and to design policies in a way that ensures the equal rights of women in the economic sphere, including through labour laws and better access to education and training. Reflecting on the need to create a more just and sustainable OSCE region where both women and men can prosper, OSCE Secretary General Helga Maria Schmid encouraged governments across the region to design and implement post-COVID-19 recovery plans in a way that signalled “our staunch determination to leave no one behind.”⁶⁹

From financial assistance, including loans, grants, subsidies and tax incentives, to support for training and the adoption of new technologies, there are multiple approaches to supporting and empowering women-led businesses and workers in female-dominated sectors. The evidence suggests, however, that such measures remain underutilized. A 2021 policy paper by the OECD explained, for example, that only a small number of EU Member States and governments outside of the EU had implemented COVID-19 support schemes for women entrepreneurs.⁷⁰ Among the countries to adopt such measures was Italy, which provided subsidies and other financial support to self-employed women and women-led small- and medium-sized enterprises during the pandemic.⁷¹

There is significant untapped potential in terms of job creation, economic growth and innovation among current and potential women entrepreneurs. As the OECD has noted, research indicates that

⁶⁸ IMF, *Gender Budgeting in G20 Countries*, IMF Working Paper, WP/21/269, November 2021.

⁶⁹ Secretary General Helga Maria Schmid, *Promoting comprehensive security, stability and sustainable development in the OSCE area through women’s economic empowerment (29th)*, Prague, 8–10 September 2021, EEF/GAL/12/21, 9 September 2021.

⁷⁰ OECD and the European Commission *The Missing Entrepreneurs 2021: Policies for Inclusive Entrepreneurship and Self Employment*, 2021, p. 70.

⁷¹ ILO and OECD, *Women at Work in G20 countries: Policy action since 2020*, Paper prepared for the 2nd Meeting of the G20 Employment Working Group under Italy’s Presidency 2021, April 2021, p. 29.

GDP increases when the gender gap in entrepreneurship closes.⁷² Since women have borne a disproportionate economic cost during the pandemic, measures designed to support women workers will be critical as they seek to re-enter the labour market. All OSCE participating States should make investments in measures that support the re-integration of women into the work force, empower female entrepreneurs and address gendered economic inequalities, including in terms of the pay gap. It is also important to provide targeted support to women in sectors experiencing high rates of employee burnout, as efforts to train, recruit and retain employees can help prevent burnout from rippling through the workforce.

5. Efforts Specific to Parliaments

It bears repeating that women must be equally and meaningfully represented in all COVID-19 economic relief and recovery planning efforts. As I said in my 2020 gender report, given the gender-differentiated impacts of COVID-19, any response to the pandemic must be gender-sensitive and developed in consultation with a diverse range of stakeholders, including women’s organizations and marginalized groups. This is true not only in terms of the health response – where women have been on the front lines of the crisis – but also in relation to economic recovery policy responses.

A lack of women’s representation in decision-making at the political level can limit the inclusion of gender-sensitive perspectives in COVID-19 economic recovery strategies. A 2020 study by CARE International that was based on a survey of 30 countries globally, found that most national-level committees established to respond to COVID-19 did not have equal female-male representation; in fact, in nearly three quarters of the countries surveyed, women’s membership was less than one-third of the total. According to CARE’s report, governments with lower levels of women’s participation are at risk of creating COVID-19 response plans that “do not consider the disproportionate impact of the pandemic and women and girls, and of failing to implement policies that support them.”⁷³

The lack of women’s representation in key decision-making roles stands in contrast to the clear value of their perspectives and leadership during the crisis. Several respondents to the OECD survey discussed earlier highlighted how women’s leadership at the ministerial level was pivotal to ensuring rapid recognition of the differentiated needs of women during the pandemic. The OECD has explained that such findings echo its other work showing “women’s participation in decision making can lead to more inclusive policies and service delivery (e.g. through drawing attention to issues such as gender-based violence, family-friendly policies and responsiveness to citizen needs).”⁷⁴

⁷² OECD and the European Commission [The Missing Entrepreneurs 2021: Policies for Inclusive Entrepreneurship and Self Employment](#), 2021, p. 99.

⁷³ CARE International, [Where are the Women: The Conspicuous Absence of the Women in COVID-19 Response Teams and Plans, and Why We Need Them](#), June 2020.

⁷⁴ OECD, [Towards gender-inclusive recovery](#), OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19), 19 May 2021.

I strongly believe that leadership by women parliamentarians is critical to ensuring a gender-inclusive post-pandemic recovery. Studies have found that countries that have a higher share of women in parliament are more likely to pass gender-sensitive laws.⁷⁵ Regrettably, women continue to be underrepresented in political life. As of 1 May 2022, women held 26.1% of all seats in parliaments worldwide. While the average is higher in the OSCE region – 30.4%⁷⁶ – it is still a long way from 50%.

All OSCE participating States should examine the structural, cultural, and socioeconomic barriers that may be preventing women from entering politics. However, simply “adding” women is not sufficient to ensuring that gender considerations are mainstreamed in economic recovery policy responses. Male politicians must also leverage their influence to support more gender-sensitive legislation. More broadly, all politicians should work together to combat the narrative of gender as a niche, special interest topic, rather than a critical component of any truly inclusive and sustainable policy response to the COVID-19 pandemic.

⁷⁵ See, for example, Elizabeth Asiedu et al, [*The Effect of Women’s Representation in Parliament and the Passing of Gender Sensitive Policies*](#), 2016.

⁷⁶ OSCE PA, *Realizing Gender Equality in Parliament: Transforming Institutions, Delivering for all Women and Men*, concept note provided to OSCE PA delegations, 7 March 2022.

CONCLUSION

The gendered economic impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic are ongoing and continue to jeopardize the economic security and well-being of women throughout the OSCE region. At the same time, Russia's invasion of Ukraine has added another layer of crisis that is having profound effects on women's safety and wellbeing, while also dividing the attention of policymakers. Despite these challenges, OSCE participating States have an opportunity to ensure that no one is left behind as we collectively move toward economic recovery. Amid intersecting crises affecting the OSCE region, I believe that we must not lose sight of the importance of gender equality and gender-based analysis. I urge all participating states to ensure that their policy approaches to pandemic recovery incorporate an intersectional gender lens and take into account the perspectives of diverse groups.

COVID-19 will not be the last emergency, public health or otherwise, that will result in a global economic crisis. It is critical that the steps we take today to usher in an economic recovery from COVID-19 are proactive ones. By adopting more gender-inclusive policies and frameworks – ones that address specific challenges faced by women in the workforce and meaningfully convert gender considerations into concrete action – the economic recovery from COVID-19 can be a transformative moment.

SECTION II

Section II of the report assesses the gender balance within the OSCE PA's structures, including the OSCE PA and the OSCE PA International Secretariat, as well as the gender breakdown in OSCE participating States' parliaments. In addition, it also provides an overview of balance among the Vienna-based Ambassadors and Permanent Representatives to the OSCE Permanent Council.⁷⁷

GENDER BALANCE IN THE OSCE PA

During the Vilnius Annual Session in 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.*"⁷⁸ In 2011, the OSCE PA adopted a Resolution on Women's representation at the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly⁷⁹ urging national parliaments to enhance the representation of women in the national delegations to the OSCE PA. The Resolution noted with concern that, in February 2011, 17 of the 57 national delegations to the OSCE PA were comprised of men only. In addition, it also indicated that, at the time, only 10 delegations were headed by women. Moreover, out of 307 delegates, only 73 (23.7%) of them were women.

Since the adoption of the above-mentioned resolution, progress has been achieved by the national delegations to improve the gender balance within the OSCE PA. Furthermore, the OSCE PA has been particularly engaged in reinforcing and expanding dialogue on gender-related topics while promoting the consideration of gender perspectives in all parliamentary and legislative work of OSCE participating States. During the Annual Session held in Luxembourg in 2019, gender-related resolutions accounted for 2 out of the 15 adopted in total by OSCE PA members.⁸⁰ They reflected topics such as those related to the advantages of the digitalization process on gender policies and on gender and youth-related considerations in climate change policy agendas.

In 2020, in the context of the COVID-19 health crisis and rising incidents of domestic violence across the region, the OSCE PA, together with the OSCE Secretariat and ODIHR, urged governments to consider specific measures to ensure the protection of women and children.⁸¹ In parallel, as part of its series of Parliamentary Web Dialogues (PWDs) initiated in 2020 in response to the COVID-19 pandemic, the OSCE PA held events specifically on the topics of "Gendered impacts of the health crisis", "Parliamentarians and journalists: partners against corruption" and "Evidence-based law-making in combating violence against women". In addition, a Parliamentary Web Dialogue on

⁷⁷ The reporting period of the data contained in the Section II of the report is 1 July 2021 to 1 June 2022.

⁷⁸ Also present in OSCE PA Rules of Procedure, 21 March 2020. Available at <https://www.oscepa.org/ru/dokumenty/rules-of-procedure/1832-rules-of-procedure-english/file>.

⁷⁹ OSCE PA Resolution on Women's Representation at the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly, 20th Annual Session, 6-10 July 2011. Available at <https://www.oscepa.org/en/documents/annual-sessions/2011-belgrade/declaration-4/3030-belgrade-resolutions-eng/file>.

⁸⁰ See [OSCE PA 2019 Luxembourg Declaration](#).

⁸¹ See OSCE PA [Press Release](#), April 2, 2020.

“Violence Against Women Journalists and Politicians: A Growing Crisis”⁸² took place on 10 November 2021. In 2022, OSCE PA organized two joint PWDs that focused on gender equality-related matters. The first was an OSCE PA - ODIHR Joint Web Dialogue on “Realizing Gender Equality in Parliament: Transforming Institutions, Delivering for all Women and Men”⁸³ which took place on 30 March 2022. The second, organized jointly with the OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media (RFoM), focused on the “Safety of Female Journalists Online: The Role of Parliamentary Action”⁸⁴ and occurred on 20 April 2022. Dr. Hedy Fry, the OSCE PA Special Representative on Gender Issues, actively took part in the above-mentioned PWDs, including by co-hosting events and reporting on gender-related developments amid the COVID-19 pandemic.

A. Member Directory Statistics

The membership of the OSCE PA continues to be dominated by men as it was in previous years. Since last year’s report, the gender balance among the Members of the OSCE PA regressed to greater male representation. More than two-thirds of OSCE PA Members (including Heads of Delegations, Alternate Members and Secretaries of Delegation) are men – holding 395 out of 589 positions (67.06%).

However, since the adoption of the Resolution on Women’s representation at the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly in 2011, the number of women representatives among Members has increased. As seen in **Figure 1**, female representation (including HoD, DHoD, Members and Alternate Members) to the Assembly as of June 2022 accounts for 29.2% which is more than 5% lower than reported last year. Currently, out of 518 Members - 151 are female Members (including Heads of Delegations and Alternate Members), while 12 national delegations are headed by women.⁸⁵

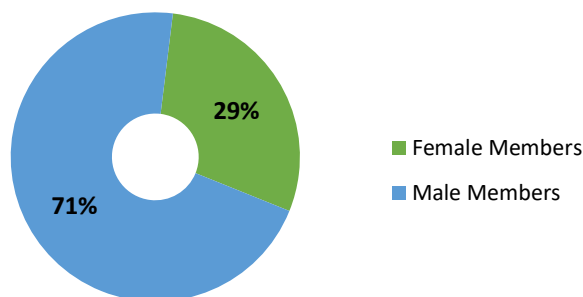


Figure 1 - Gender Balance of the OSCE PA Members (including HoD, DHoD, Members, Alternate Members) as of June 2022

⁸² OSCE PA Press Release is available at <https://www.oscepa.org/en/news-a-media/press-releases/press-2021/parliamentarians-exchange-experiences-of-tackling-gender-based-violence-in-journalism-and-politics-across-the-osce-region>.

⁸³ OSCE PA Press Release is available at: <https://www.oscepa.org/en/news-a-media/press-releases/2022/parliamentarians-discuss-steps-towards-realizing-gender-equality-in-osce-parliaments>.

⁸⁴ OSCE PA Press Release is available at: <https://www.oscepa.org/en/news-a-media/press-releases/2022/joint-web-dialogue-on-the-safety-of-female-journalists-online-the-role-of-parliamentary-action>.

⁸⁵ See Table A.1 in Appendix I.

B. Initiative to Boost Women’s Participation

Since 2011, national delegations to the OSCE PA have taken up efforts to increase their Memberships’ compliance with Article 1.4 of the OSCE PA Rules of Procedure.⁸⁶ This has led to a significant decrease in the number of delegations with no female representation. As visible in **Figure 2**, the number of male-only delegations decreased from 17 in 2011 to 10 in 2012 and 2013, and further to 9 in 2014, before rising again to 10 in 2015. This number shrunk to 6 in 2016 and 2017. As illustrated in Figure 3, the number of male-only delegations dropped from 17 in 2011 to a low of 2 in 2018 and 2019. As of June 2022, 4 delegations are composed of male Members only: Croatia, Latvia, Malta and Turkey.⁸⁷

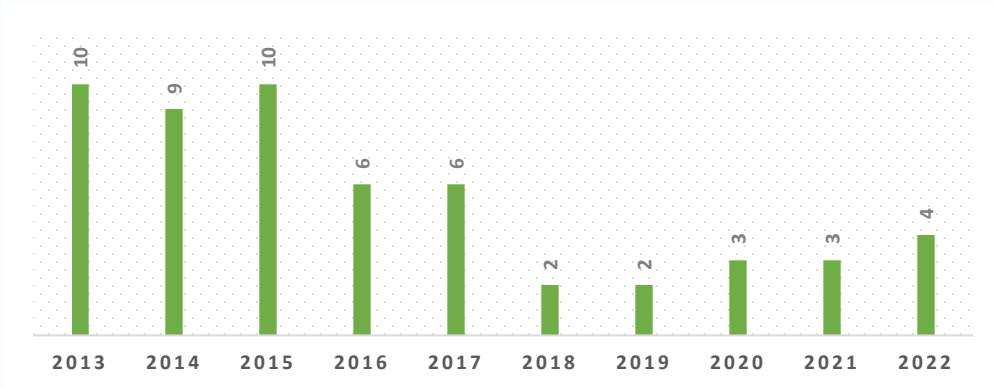


Figure 2 - Number of delegations with no female members (2011–2022) as of June 2022

Figure 3 below presents sex disaggregated data of the Assembly including Members, Alternate Members, Secretaries of Delegations and the OSCE PA Staff.⁸⁸

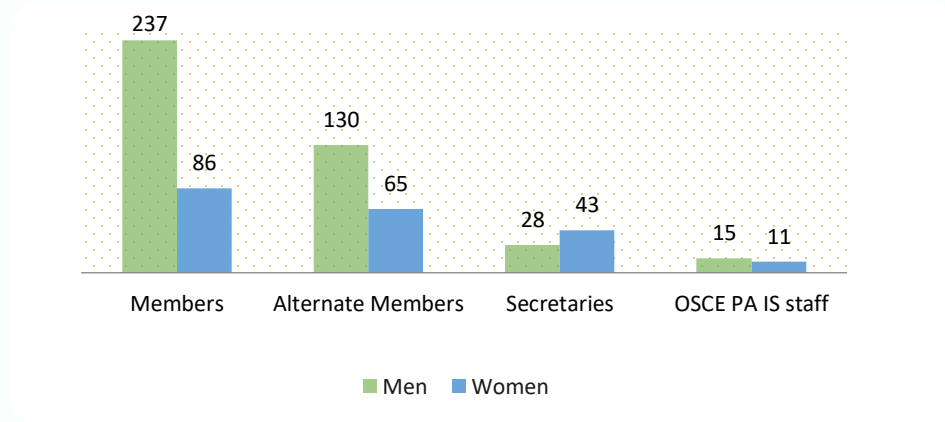


Figure 3 - OSCE PA sex-disaggregated as of June 2022

⁸⁶ OSCE PA Rules of Procedure. Available at <https://www.oscepa.org/en/documents/rules-of-procedure/1832-rules-of-procedure-english/file>.

⁸⁷ See Table A.2 in Appendix I.

⁸⁸ See Table A.3 in Appendix I.

C. Gender Balance in the OSCE PA Bureau

The Bureau of the OSCE PA is composed of the President, 9 Vice-Presidents, the Treasurer, as well as the three Officers of each of the General Committees. As of June 2022, the Bureau consists of 19 members – 5 of whom are female – providing for a 73.68% to 26.32% ratio in favour of male members. One position for Vice-President remains vacant. Compared to the 2021 sex disaggregated data of the Bureau members, there has been a decrease by 1.46% in the female representation due to the election of new members of the Assembly. Nonetheless, as seen in **Figure 4**, the gender composition of the Bureau of 2022 remains below the targeted goal of 30% suggested in 2011.⁸⁹

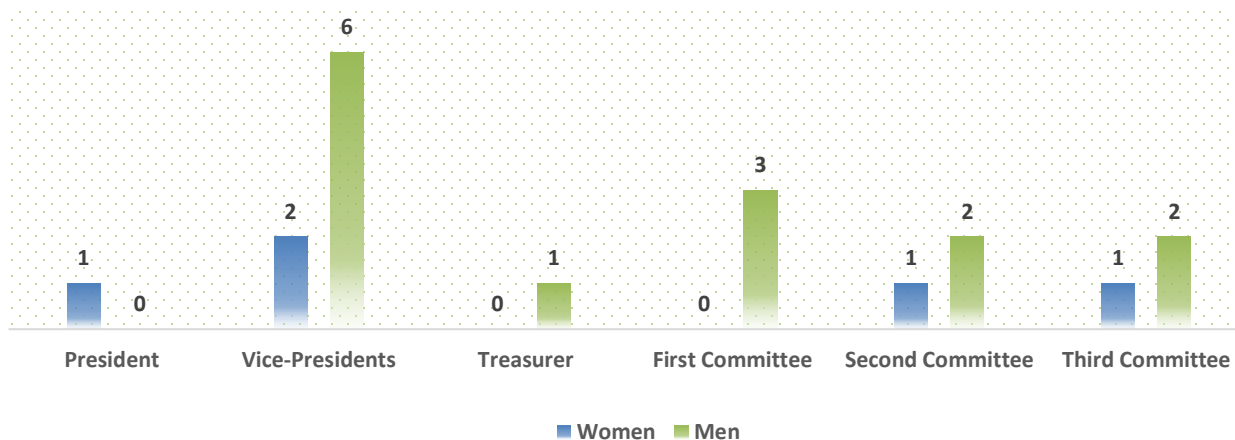


Figure 4 - Gender Balance of OSCE PA Bureau Members as of June 2022

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

The gender balance among the positions of OSCE PA Presidents and Vice-Presidents have varied in recent years. In May 2017, the President of the OSCE PA was Ms. Christine Muttonen (Austria). Under her leadership only one Vice-President was female. “Between November 2017 and December 2022, the OSCE PA President was Mr. George Tsereteli (Georgia). Mr. Peter Lord Bowness (United Kingdom) led the OSCE PA as President from December 2020 until July 2021.” At the Annual Session in 2021, Ms. Margareta Cederfelt (Sweden) was elected President – becoming the third woman⁹⁰ to hold that post. Under her leadership two of the Vice-Presidents are female delegates.

⁸⁹ See Table A.4 in Appendix I.

⁹⁰ Following Ms. Helle Degn (Denmark) and Ms. Christine Muttonen (Austria).

2. Officers of the OSCE PA General Committees

The composition of the Officers of the General Committees changed since the last reporting period. After the Annual Session in 2021, gender representation among the Officers of the Assembly remained male dominated – 7 Officers are men and 2 are women. One of the Officers, Ms. Sereine Mauborgne, is holding the position of Chair of the Committee on Democracy, Human Rights and Humanitarian Questions. For comparison, in June 2021, female members held 3 out of the total 9 Committee Officer posts, whereas they held 4 positions in 2019 and 2 positions in 2018.

3. OSCE PA Special Representatives

According to the OSCE PA Rules of Procedure, the President may appoint special representatives to act on his or her behalf particularly in undertaking dialogue and participating in fora to promote the aims of the Assembly. Each year, the number of Special Representatives varies depending on the needs of the Assembly to address certain topics. As of June 2022, 7 of the 16 Special Representatives are women, for a total of 44% (see **Figure 5**).⁹¹ Their term is envisaged for one year with a possibility of extension.

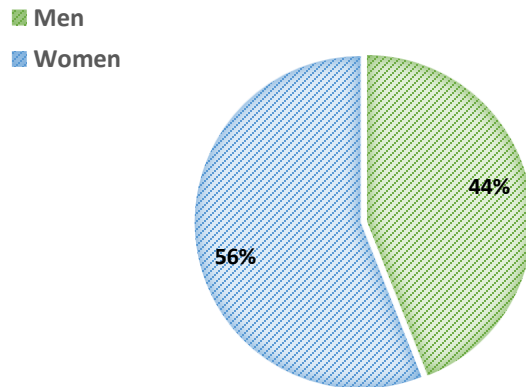


Figure 5 - Gender Balance of OSCE PA Special Representatives as of June 2022

D. FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN THE STATUTORY MEETINGS

1. 2021 ANNUAL SESSION

The 2021 OSCE PA Annual Session was held in a remote format, due to the restrictions caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. Most of the Members participated virtually (online), while Bureau Members and Standing Committee were invited to participate in person. As seen in **Figure 6**, 340 Members

⁹¹ See Table A.5 in Appendix I.

participated, out of which 100 were women and 240 were men.⁹² With regards to the gender breakdown of those Members who participated in person, out of 79 Members, there were 22 women and 57 men.⁹³

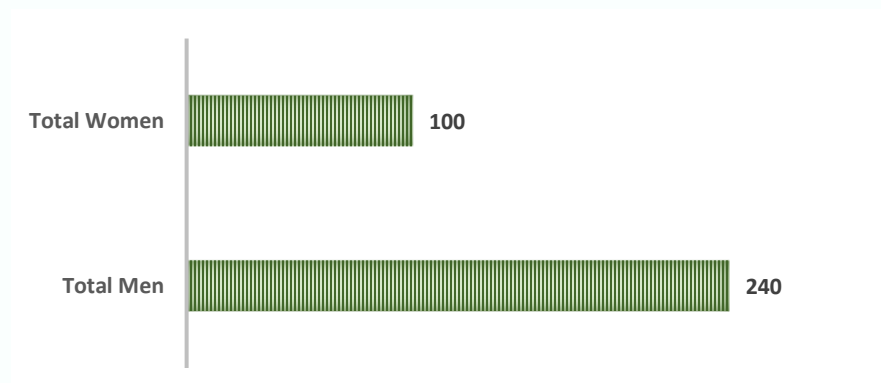


Figure 6 - Gender Breakdown of Parliamentary Participation in the OSCE PA 2021 Remote Annual Session

2. 2021 AUTUMN MEETING

The 2021 Autumn Meeting was held fully in an online format, due to the restrictions caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. In total, 242 Members participated, out of which 73 (30.10%) were women. As seen in **Figure 7**, a total of 62 female and 143 male Members, as well as 11 female and 26 male Alternate Members, participated.⁹⁴

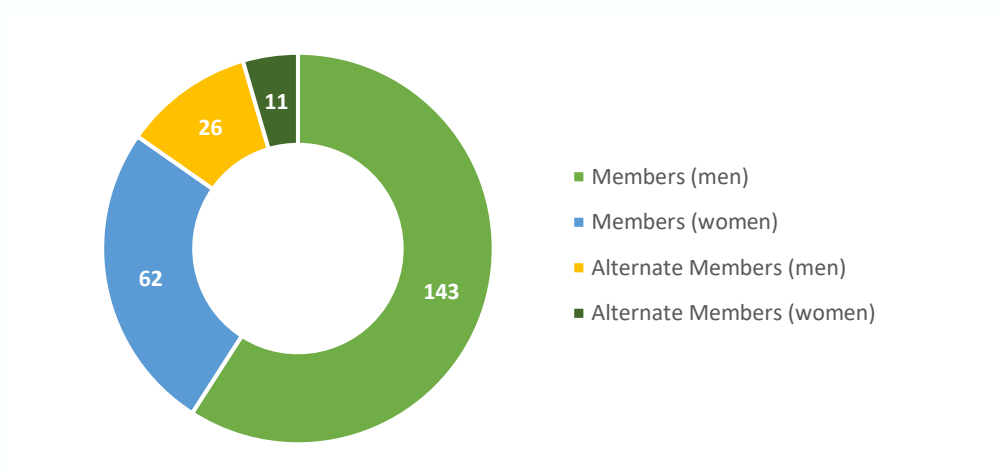


Figure 7 - Gender Breakdown of Parliamentary Participation in the OSCE PA 2021 Autumn Meeting

⁹² See Tables A.6 , A.6 (1) and A.6 (2) in Appendix A.

⁹³ See Table A.6 (3) in Appendix A.

⁹⁴ See Table A.7 in Appendix A.

3. 2022 WINTER SESSION

Due to COVID-19-related restrictions, the 2022 Winter Session was held in a hybrid format. In total, 283 Members and Alternate Members participated, out of which 86 (30.38%) were women. The gender balance among Members and Alternate Members is visible in **Figure 8**. In total, 246 Members participated (175 men and 71 women) and 37 Alternate Members (22 men and 15 women).⁹⁵

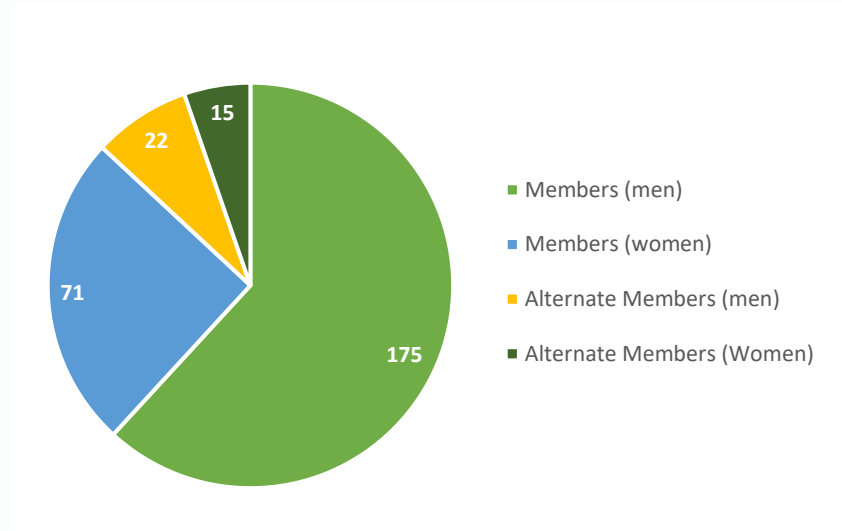


Figure 8 - Gender Breakdown of Parliamentary Participation in the OSCE PA 2022 Winter Meeting

E. FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN THE OSCE PA ELECTION MONITORING 2021-2022

The figures concerning female participation in OSCE PA election monitoring show that during the June 2021–June 2022 reporting period, the overall number of female observers was 83 (28.71%), representing approximately a third of the total number of observers deployed (289) during this period.

Figure 9 shows the gender breakdown of six Election Observation Missions which took place since July 2021 until May 2022.⁹⁶

⁹⁵ See Table A.8 in Appendix A.

⁹⁶ See Table A.9 in Appendix A.

OSCE PA Election Monitoring			
2021-2022			
Elections Observed	MPs	Women	% of Women
Parliamentary election, Moldova (11.07.2021)	44	11	25.00%
Parliamentary election, Bulgaria (11.07.2021)	10	3	30.00%
Presidential election, Uzbekistan (24.10.2021)	72	19	26.38%
Parliamentary election, Kyrgyzstan (28.11.2021)	41	11	26.82%
Presidential and early Parliamentary election, Serbia (03.04.2022)	52	15	28.84%
Parliamentary election, Hungary (03.04.2022)	70	24	34.28%
Total	289	83	28.71%

Figure 9 - Female Participation in the OSCE PA Election Monitoring 2020-2021 (%)

F. PARLIAMENTARY WEB DIALOGUES IN 2021 AND 2022

The OSCE PA, in an effort to promote inter-parliamentary dialogue on relevant security developments pertaining to the ongoing COVID-19 crisis, introduced in April 2020 a series of regularly conducted online meetings for members of the Assembly, covering a broad range of issues of all three general dimensions. The PWDs were initiated as an attempt to foster dialogue between Members as well as with experts, allowing for reflection on key policy challenges while promoting the exchange of good practices among lawmakers across the OSCE region.

In total seven PWDs and other online PA-wide events listed below were held from July 2021 to June 2022:

1. PWD on: “Transparency and Predictability in Military Affairs: The Role of the OSCE”, 14 June 2021;
2. Regional Policy Dialogue with Legislators from South-Eastern Europe on Foreign Terrorist Fighters, 14–15 October 2021;
3. PWD on “Violence Against Women Journalists and Politicians: A Growing Crisis”, 10 November 2021;
4. PWD on “The Clean Energy Revolution and its Implications for the OSCE Region”, 4 February 2022;
5. PWD on “Youth contribution to strengthening of rule of law, democracy, and human rights in the OSCE area”, 18 February 2022;
6. Joint Web Dialogue on “Realizing Gender Equality in Parliament: Transforming Institutions, Delivering for all Women and Men”, 30 March 2022, and
7. Joint Web Dialogue on the “Safety of Female Journalists Online: The Role of Parliamentary Action”, 20 April 2022.

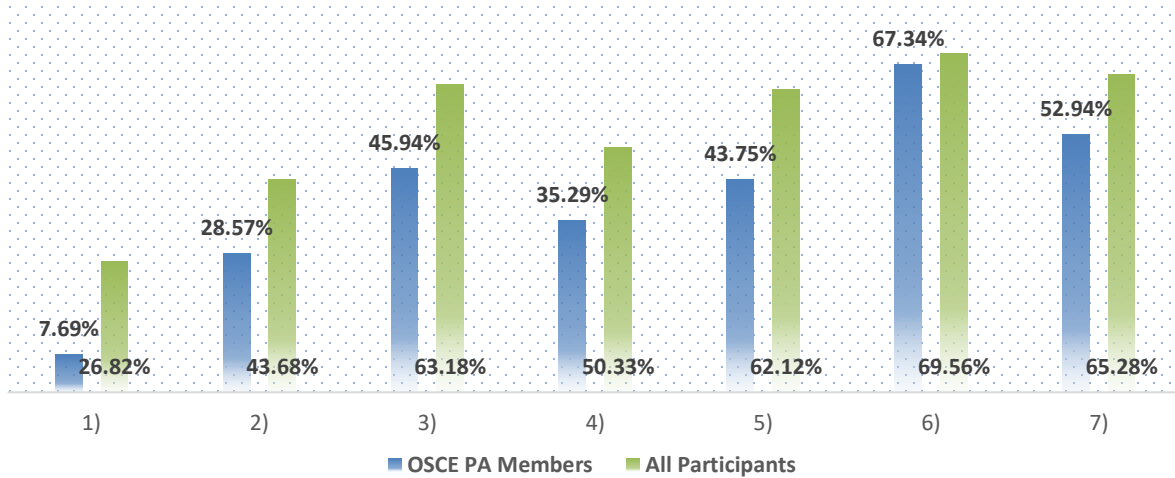


Figure 10 - Female Participation in the OSCE PA Parliamentary Web Dialogues and other PA-wide events 2021–2022 (%)

Figure 10 displays the percentage of female participation in the OSCE PA PWDs, including the percentage of OSCE PA Members, as well as of total number of all participants (including speakers, experts and other guests, etc.).⁹⁷

G. PARLIAMENTARY PARTICIPATION IN CALL FOR ACTION MEETINGS

In July 2020, after participating States could not reach consensus on the reappointment of OSCE Heads of Institution, it was acknowledged that while some of the challenges the Organization is facing are due to the overall crisis of multilateralism, others are of a political nature and particular to the OSCE. This is due to a complex interchange of factors which include wide divergences and misperceptions on the OSCE's nature, an increasing mistrust between participating States and an overarching lack of strategic political interest placed on it by governments.⁹⁸

To address this, the OSCE PA Bureau endorsed the Call for Action project with the intention of mobilizing national parliamentary delegations, including in their national Parliaments and vis-à-vis their governments, to underscore the relevance of the OSCE in the current international security framework and on the way towards the 50th Anniversary of the *Helsinki Final Act*. The project includes the Call for Action document⁹⁹ and a series of targeted meetings and events (Call for Action – Helsinki +50 Process).

On the basis of the Call for Action, a Non-Paper which lays out more in detail the main challenges the OSCE is facing was developed. After a first general meeting to discuss the essence of the process, held on 27 January 2021, a number of targeted meetings were scheduled to address each of the points

⁹⁷ See Table A.10 in Appendix A.

⁹⁸ OSCE PA One-Pager: Call for Action – Helsinki +50 Process: A Parliamentary Contribution to Restoring OSCE Effectiveness. Available at <https://www.oscepa.org/en/documents/osce-call-for-action/4141-one-pager-call-for-action-helsinki-50-process/file>.

⁹⁹ Available at: <https://www.oscepa.org/documents/osce-call-for-action>.

contained in the Non-Paper and discuss how the PA can contribute more specifically. Such events are being held mainly online, with the intention to also organize them in selected capitals when conditions will allow. Issues identified in the discussions among parliamentary delegations as priority include the following: managing the consensus rule; enhancing dialogue; strengthening implementation review mechanisms; promoting better gender mainstreaming; ensuring timely and sufficient resources for the organization; improving interaction with civil society; streamlining and reprioritizing the OSCE agenda.¹⁰⁰

In the reporting period (July 2021 - June 2022), the following six Call for Action meetings were organized:

1. CfA on "Enhancing the Implementation of UNSCR 1325 across the OSCE Region: Parliamentarians' Contribution to Women, Peace and Security", 8 September 2021;
2. CfA follow-up meeting with Young Political Leaders, 28 September 2021;
3. CfA: focus on the Human Dimension, 19 October 2021;
4. CfA on "Implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals in the OSCE region: a parliamentary perspective", 2 March 2022;
5. CfA on "The role of the OSCE in addressing the conflict in Ukraine and its consequences", 23 March 2022, and
6. CfA follow-up meeting on the role of the OSCE in addressing the war in Ukraine and its consequences, 11 May 2022.

Figure 11 displays the percentage of female participation in the Call for Action meetings, including among OSCE PA Members, as well as all participants (including speakers, experts and other guests, etc.).¹⁰¹

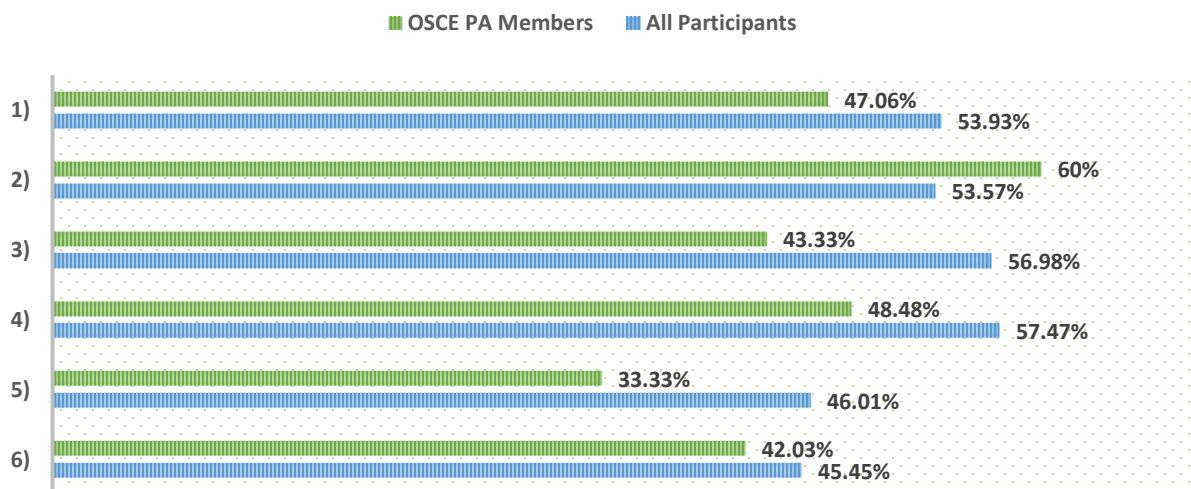


Figure 11 - Female Participation in the CfA meetings 2021–2022 (%)

¹⁰⁰ OSCE PA One-Pager: Call for Action – Helsinki +50 Process: A Parliamentary Contribution to Restoring OSCE Effectiveness. Available at <https://www.oscepa.org/en/documents/osce-call-for-action/4141-one-pager-call-for-action-helsinki-50-process/file>.

¹⁰¹ See also Table A.11 in Appendix A.

GENDER BALANCE IN THE OSCE PA INTERNATIONAL SECRETARIAT

A. Permanent Staff

As seen in **Figure 12**, the permanent staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat (IS), including in the Vienna Office, is currently composed of 24 individuals, of whom 11 are female. The posts of the OSCE PA Secretary General and Deputy Secretary General are held by men. Changes to Senior Management positions were introduced after the Annual Session in 2021 to provide for better gender balance at senior level of decision-making; - one third of the Senior Management positions are currently held by women (2/6). The OSCE PA Vienna Office is headed by a female staff member.

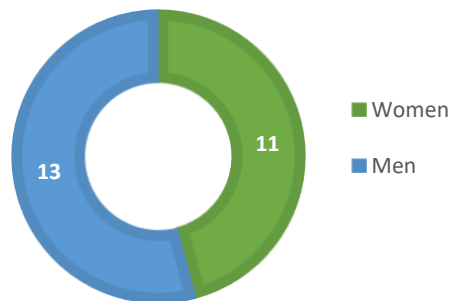


Figure 12 - Gender composition of the OSCE PA IS Permanent Staff as of June 2022

B. Junior Programme Officers

The OSCE PA launched the Junior Programme Officers (JPO) Programme back in 2019. The Programme allows young professionals to become familiarized with the OSCE and its structures and to become equipped with necessary skills for building a career in multilateral diplomacy. Since the launch of the programme, 9 JPOs have had an opportunity to take part. As of June 2022, there are 6 JPOs working in the Vienna Office of the OSCE PA: 4 women and 2 men.

C. Research Assistant Programme

The International Secretariat of the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly regularly organizes a Research Assistant Programme, through which it engages graduate students for a period of six months. Through this programme, Research Assistants gain practical experience in the field of international affairs, develop their knowledge of international politico-military, economic and environmental, and human rights affairs and build their professional skills in areas related to the work of the Parliamentary Assembly. In June 2022, there were 3 Research Assistants working at the International Secretariat in Copenhagen, and 5 in the Vienna Office – in total 3 male and 5 female.

FEMALE REPRESENTATION IN NATIONAL PARLIAMENTS OF OSCE PARTICIPATING STATES

As per the data provided by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), female representation in OSCE participating States' parliaments has fluctuated in recent years. Total female representation in the legislative bodies of OSCE participating States amounted to 29% in 2020 and 38% in 2021. As of June 2022, the figure was 30.75%.

Within the OSCE region, Hungary remains the country with the lowest percentage of female Members in its parliament (14.10%), followed by Cyprus (14.30%). By contrast, Iceland (47.60%), Andorra (46.43%), Sweden (46.10%) and Norway (45%) report the highest female representation in their respective legislative bodies.¹⁰²

GENDER BALANCE AMONG THE VIENNA-BASED AMBASSADORS AND PERMANENT REPRESENTATIVES TO THE OSCE PERMANENT COUNCIL

This final section demonstrates the gender composition among the Ambassadors/Permanent Representatives to the OSCE Permanent Council based in Vienna as of June 2022. It includes the Ambassadors/Permanent Representatives of the 57 participating States, the EU Ambassador, the Ambassadors of the 11 OSCE Partners for Co-Operation and the Ambassador of the OSCE PA to the Permanent Council.¹⁰³

As presented in **Figure 13**, more than 65% of the ambassadors are men, while around 34% are women. Compared to the figures noted in the 2021 gender report, the number of female representatives decreased by nearly 1.5 %.¹⁰⁴

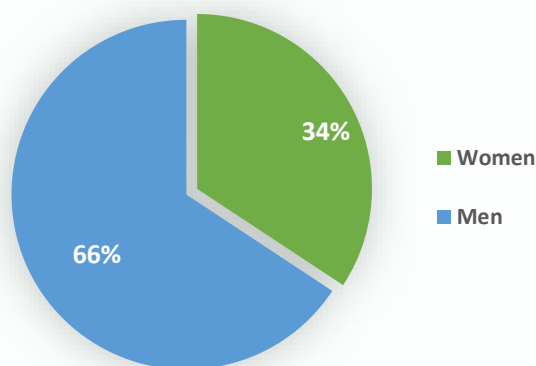


Figure 13 – Ambassadors/Permanent Representatives to the OSCE Permanent Council as of June 2022

¹⁰² See Table A.12 in Appendix A.

¹⁰³ See Table A.13 (1) in Appendix A.

¹⁰⁴ See Table A.13 in Appendix A.

APPENDIX A

Table A.1

A.1 OSCE Parliamentary Assembly					
as of 1 June 2022					
	Women	In %	Men	In %	Total
OSCE PA Members	86	26.63%	237	73.15%	323
OSCE PA Alternate Members	65	33.33%	130	66.67%	195
OSCE PA Secretaries	43	60.56%	28	39.44%	71
OSCE PA Staff	11	42.31%	15	57.69%	26
Grand Total	205	33.33%	410	66.67%	615

Table A.2

A.2 Number of delegations with no female members (2011-2022)	
as of 1 June 2022	
2013	10
2014	9
2015	10
2016	6
2017	6
2018	2
2019	2
2020	3
2021	3
2022	4

Table A.3

A.3 OSCE PA sex-disaggregated as of June 2022		
as of 1 June 2022		
	Men	Women
Members	237	86
Alternate Members	130	65
Secretaries	28	43
OSCE PA staff	15	11

Table A.4

A.4 Gender Balance of Bureau Members			
as of 1 June 2022			
	Women	Men	Total
President	1	0	1
Vice-Presidents	2	6	8
Treasurer	0	1	1
First Committee	0	3	3
Second Committee	1	2	3
Third Committee	1	2	3
Grand total	5	14	19

Table A.5

A.5 Gender Balance of OSCE PA Special Representatives		
as of June 2022		
	Men	Women
Special Representative on Anti-Semitism, Racism and Intolerance	1	
Special Representative on Arctic Issues		1
Special Representative on Central Asia		1
Special Representative on Civil Society Engagement	1	
Special Representative on Digital Agenda	1	
Special Rapporteur on Disinformation and Propaganda	1	
Special Representative on Elderly Issues		1
Special Representative on Fighting Corruption		1
Special Representative on Gender Issues		1
Special Representative on Human Trafficking Issues	1	
Special Representative on Mediterranean Affairs	1	
Special Representative for Parliamentary Dialogue on Ukraine	1	
Special Representative on South Caucasus		1
Special Representative on South East Europe	1	
Special Representative on Sustainable Development Goals	1	
Special Representative on Youth Engagement		1
Grand total	9	7

Table A.6

A.6 Gender Breakdown of Parliamentarian Participation in the OSCE PA 2021 Remote Annual Session	
Total Men	240
Total Women	100
Grand total	340

Table A.6 (1)

A.6(1) Parliamentary Participation in the OSCE PA Annual Sessions (2010–2021)													
	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020 cancelled	2021 Remote (in person)	2021 Remote (Total)
Women	50	55	61	67	74	63	75	60	79	70	-	22	100
Men	186	169	185	178	180	182	205	173	202	200	-	57	240
% Women	21%	24.50%	25%	27%	29%	25.70%	26.80%	25.70%	28%	26.00%	-	27.80%	29.40%
Grand Total	236	224	246	245	254	245	280	233	281	270	-	79	340

Table A.6 (2)

A.6 (2) Parliamentary Participation in the OSCE PA 2021 Remote Annual Session (total)	
Total men	240
Total women	100
Grand total	340

Table A.6 (3)

A.6(3) Parliamentary Participation in the OSCE PA 2021 Remote Annual Session (in person)	
Total men	57
Total women	22
Grand total	79

Table A.7

A.7 Parliamentary Participation in the OSCE PA Autumn Meeting (2021)	
Women	73
Men	169
% Women	30.10%
Grand total	242

Table A.8

A.8 Parliamentary Participation in the OSCE PA Winter Meeting (2022)						
	Members		Alternate Members		Total	% Women
	Men	Women	Men	Women		
Grand Total	175	71	22	15	283	30.38%

Table A.9

A.9 OSCE PA Election Monitoring			
1 July 2021-1 June 2022			
Elections Observed	MPs	Women	% of Women
Parliamentary election, Moldova (11.07.2021)	44	11	25.00%
Parliamentary election, Bulgaria (11.07.2021)	10	3	30.00%
Presidential election, Uzbekistan (24.10.2021)	72	19	26.38%
Parliamentary election, Kyrgyzstan (28.11.2021)	41	11	26.82%
Presidential and early Parliamentary election, Serbia (03.04.2022)	52	15	28.84%
Parliamentary election, Hungary (03.04.2022)	70	24	34.28%
Total	289	83	28.71%

Table A.10

A.10 Gender participation of OSCE PA Web Dialogues								
1 July 2021-1 June 2022								
	PA Members		Total	% Women	All Participants		Grand Total	% Women
	Men	Women			Men	Women		
2021								
Web Seminar on: "Transparency and Predictability in Military Affairs: The Role of the OSCE", 14 June 2021	14	2	16	7.69%	30	11	41	26.82%
CfA "Enhancing the Implementation of UNSCR 1325 across the OSCE Region: Parliamentarians' Contribution to Women, Peace and Security" 8 September 2021	18	16	34	47.06%	41	48	89	53.93%
CfA follow-up meeting with Young Political Leaders 28 September 2021	8	12	20	60.00%	26	30	56	53.57%
CfA: focus on the Human Dimension 19 October 2021	17	13	30	43.33%	37	49	86	56.98%
Regional Policy Dialogue with Legislators from South-Eastern Europe on Foreign Terrorist Fighters, 14-15 October 2022	20	8	28	28.57%	58	45	103	43.68%
Parliamentary Web Dialogue on "Violence Against Women Journalists and Politicians: A Growing Crisis", 10 November 2021	20	17	37	45.94%	35	75	110	68.18%
2022								
Parliamentary Web Dialogue "The Clean Energy Revolution and its Implications for the OSCE Region", 4 February 2022	44	24	68	35.29%	79	76	151	50.33%
Youth contribution to strengthening of rule of law, democracy, and human rights in the OSCE area 18 February 2022	18	14	32	43.75%	25	41	66	62.12%

CfA "Implementation of the Sustainable Development Goals in the OSCE region: a parliamentary perspective" 2 March 2022	17	16	33	48.48%	37	50	87	57.47%
CfA "The role of the OSCE in addressing the conflict in Ukraine and its consequences" 23 March 2022	46	23	69	33.33%	88	75	163	46.01%
Joint Web Dialogue on "Realizing Gender Equality in Parliament: Transforming Institutions, Delivering for all Women and Men", 30 March 2022	16	33	49	67.34%	42	96	138	69.56%
Joint Web Dialogue on the "Safety of Female Journalists Online: The Role of Parliamentary Action", 20 April 2022	16	18	34	52.94%	25	47	72	65.28%
CfA follow-up meeting on the role of the OSCE in addressing the war in Ukraine and its consequences 11 May 2022	40	29	69	42.03%	84	70	154	45.45%
Grand Total	294	225	519	30.00%	607	713	1316	47.98%

Table A.11

A.11 Gender composition of the OSCE PA IS Permanent Staff	
as of 1 June 2022	
Women	11
Men	13

