

KEEP THE PROMISE, ACCELERATE THE CHANGE

Taking stock of gender equality
in Europe and Central Asia
25 years after Beijing



UN WOMEN

UN Women is the UN organization dedicated to gender equality and the empowerment of women. A global champion for women and girls, UN Women was established to accelerate progress on meeting their needs worldwide. UN Women supports UN Member States as they set global standards for achieving gender equality, and works with governments and civil society to design laws, policies, programmes and services needed to implement these standards. It stands behind women's equal participation in all aspects of life, focusing on five priority areas: increasing women's leadership and participation; ending violence against women; engaging women in all aspects of peace and security processes; enhancing women's economic empowerment; and making gender equality central to national development planning and budgeting. UN Women also coordinates and promotes the UN system's work in advancing gender equality.

GENERATION EQUALITY

UN Women is bringing together the next generations of women's rights activists with the gender equality advocates and visionaries who were instrumental in creating the Beijing Platform for Action more than two decades ago. Collectively, these change makers of all ages and genders will tackle the unfinished business of empowering women through a new, groundbreaking, multigenerational campaign: "Generation Equality: Realizing women's rights for an equal future".

The views expressed in this publication are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views of UN Women, the United Nations or any of its affiliated organizations.

For a list of any errors or omissions found subsequent to printing please visit our website.

Produced by UN Women Regional Office for Europe and Central Asia, Regional Women Count Programme

Authors: Guillem Fortuny Fillo, Ala Negruta

Production, communication and outreach: Gizem Yarbil Gurol, Seda Karaca

Editor: Gretchen Luchsinger

Design: Oksana Iashchuk

© UN Women 2020

All rights reserved



Photo: UN DESA Public Institutions

WE ARE GENERATION EQUALITY: LET'S LIVE THE PROMISE OF BEIJING

It is a moment to take stock. In 2020, a confluence of anniversaries celebrating milestone commitments to gender equality provides a chance to evaluate what we have achieved and where we lag behind. It is a time to stiffen our resolve to guard against regression, and step up our demands for irreversible, transformative change.

Now 25 years old, the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, agreed at the Fourth World Conference on Women, is among the most important of the 2020 anniversaries for gender equality, as it is widely considered the blueprint for realizing women's rights. The women's activists who did so much to secure it, still today keep its aspirations and demands alive and moving forward, working now in alliance with a vibrant new Generation Equality.

In 2020, we also mark the 75th anniversary of the United Nations, the 20th anniversary of the landmark Security Council resolution 1325 on women, peace and security, and the 5th anniversary of the global Sustainable Development Goals.

UN Women itself commemorates its 10th anniversary. To both take stock and look forward, we will convene the 2021 global Generation Equality Forum, co-chaired by the governments of France and Mexico. Centred on civil society, it will bring together a world of people committed to realizing the promises that have been made, and challenging all forms of inequality, insecurity and injustice. It will inspire and inform, mobilize and organize behind the unfinished business of the Beijing Platform, for all women and girls, without exception.

As part of preparing for the forum, this publication takes a specific look at where we are in achieving the

bold vision of Beijing in Europe and Central Asia. Based on national reviews conducted by 53 countries, and rich in hard data, the report should serve as a useful snapshot and reference point for activists, policymakers and other proponents of transformative change.

The good news comes from signs of significant progress. Women and girls are more educated than ever, many more women are in politics, and women are living longer and healthier lives.

But the report also highlights how much more must be done. Women participate less than men in the labour force, get paid less and are more likely to be in vulnerable employment. Inequalities and discrimination in access to education, health care and pensions prevail. Millions of women and girls still experience violence and harmful practices, which are deeply rooted in gender-based discrimination and patriarchal norms. COVID-19 is now exacerbating many disparities and violations, threatening the progress that has been made.

We hope the data and findings on the following pages will be used to enrich advocacy, mobilize societies, raise aware and revitalize public debate. With Beijing still a guiding light, we know what must be done. If we come together, and make the right choices and investments, we can keep the promise and accelerate the change. Another 25 years must not go by before we get to gender equality.

Alia El-Yassir

UN Women Regional Director,
Europe and Central Asia

A REGION TAKES STOCK:

WHERE ARE WE NOW ON GENDER EQUALITY?

2020 marks the 25th anniversary of the United Nations Fourth World Conference on Women. This landmark gathering of nations led to the adoption of the **Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action**, a blueprint for gender equality and the empowerment of women. Over the past 25 years, countries have taken long strides towards gender parity and equality. More women are in school, the labour force and the corridors of political power than ever before. Women direct businesses and earn more income. Fewer are consigned to child and early marriages. Yet a long road still lies ahead in achieving the core commitments of the Beijing Platform and the more recent 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

In October 2019, a regional review of implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action took place, involving the 56 countries covered by the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe. Representatives of United Nations Member States, women's civil society organizations and activists, international development partners and other stakeholders came together to take stock of progress, and ongoing and emerging challenges that impede women's advancement.

Coinciding with the 5th anniversary of the 2030 Agenda and its 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the Beijing+25 regional review marked an occasion to foster the integration of reporting and actions to realize both sets of commitments, and intensify attention to gender equality across the global Goals. Based on the regional review, and a series of national review reports and consultations, UN Women's Europe and Central Asia Regional Office issued a [regional assessment](#) analysing positive trends and reversals in individual countries, subregions and the region at large.

This current publication complements the regional assessment by adding data-based evidence on progress and gaps in gender equality and women's rights. The report specifically looks at six dimensions: inclusive development, shared prosperity and decent work; poverty eradication, social protection and social services; freedom from violence, stigma and stereotypes; participation, accountability and gender-responsive institutions; peaceful and inclusive societies; and environmental conservation, protection and rehabilitation.

Data cover the period from 1995 to 2015, and to 2019 for some countries and subregions with verifiable figures. The report considers seven subregions of countries under the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe. These comprise South-Eastern Europe, Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, Central Asia, newer European Union countries, European Union (EU)-15 countries, Western European countries without European Union membership, and North America and Israel (see Annex I for the full list of countries by subregion).¹

A brief summary of findings

Proactive labour policies across the region have improved prospects for **inclusive development, shared prosperity and decent work**. Labour force participation among women aged 25 to 49 has climbed. Yet women still constitute the majority of those employed part-time, often due to childcare and parental care responsibilities that have remained disproportionately high. Substantial numbers of women are still consigned to vulnerable employment, including in informal work, in family-run businesses or family-owned farms, and as

own-account workers. For them, wages are low, savings are nearly impossible to accrue, and access to financial resources such as old-age pensions is constrained.

Entrenched occupational and educational segregation sustain traditional feminized sectors and occupations, and help keep women out of the top echelons of private and public organizations. Women with children were 33 per cent less likely to be gainfully employed compared to women without children. Many countries have made great gains in adopting policies to achieve gender equality, prohibiting harassment and discrimination, extending learning for pre-school children, and increasing paternal and maternal benefits. Yet the failure to attain gender parity keeps inclusive development and shared prosperity out of reach.

All across Eastern and Western Europe, fertility levels have remained around 1.8 per cent, below the population replacement level. Another demographic trend has been significant population ageing with a visibly female face. Over the previous two decades, the life expectancy of women increased by close to four years. Women outlive men by an average of 6.1 years, and as much as 10 years in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus. **Poverty eradication** and expanded **social protection and social services**, especially related to pensions and old-age security, are critical to women's empowerment across the life span.

Positive trends are evident in maternal mortality, access to modern contraceptives, and sexual and reproductive health services. Yet early pregnancies remain a problem in South-Eastern Europe and Central Asia, amid widespread opposition to comprehensive sexuality education in schools. In most countries, the share of women and girls equals or exceeds that of men and boys in overall educational enrolment and attainment, except for Central Asia.

Legislative frameworks guaranteeing **freedom from violence, stigma and stereotypes** have gained momentum in all subregions. Among the 47 member States of the Council of Europe, 45 have signed the Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence (Istanbul Convention), which has ushered in new laws, protections and services, and increased access to justice. Yet gender stereotypes and discrimination fuel high rates of violence against women and girls. Homicides committed against women by men they know are prevalent in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, Central Asia and Russia. Domestic violence occurs in all countries. Among people who are trafficked, 90 per cent are female

victims, mostly for sexual exploitation. Strategies to prevent violence against women and girls have proven most effective in curbing violence by intimate partners, but even there, budgetary constraints, low political will and gaps in institutional capacity have been serious stumbling blocks.

From national parliaments to local governments, women's presence in politics in the region has doubled over the past two decades. Most subregions have seen rising levels of **participation**, increased accountability and more **gender-responsive institutions**, including through the use of quotas and special measures. Yet the picture is mixed; men still dominate in many domains. While women now hold 25 per cent of all ministerial positions and have gained gender parity in some professions like the judiciary, they lag far behind men in others, notably journalism, law enforcement and national armed services. Consistent gender mainstreaming across all sectors is undercut by insufficient financing and budgeting targeted at achieving gender equality.

Women make growing contributions to **peaceful and inclusive societies** in the region, yet in chronically limited roles. Some who stand up for human rights have been repressed and/or persecuted. Few take part in peace talks, which often means that deliberations and agreements neglect the needs and rights of women and girls. Even though nearly two thirds of countries have adopted national action plans to implement Security Council resolution 1325 on women, peace and security, the lack of adequate financing restricts much change on the ground. Little attention has been paid to long-term, gender-responsive relief and recovery efforts in major crises, despite the region's spike in refugees and asylum-seekers. Most countries do not recognize gender-based persecution as a basis for seeking asylum.

Concerning **environmental conservation, protection and rehabilitation**, gender perspectives are mostly absent from national policies to protect the environment, respond to climate change and manage disaster risks. Overall, women remain underrepresented in positions related to these fields. Their highest involvement in environment, transport and energy is in EU-15 countries, where their share is still only 35 per cent. Gender parity has been achieved in international negotiations on climate change, however.

Countries need to intensify and invest in the collection, analysis, dissemination and use of gender-disaggregated statistics in national and subnational decision-making, towards making gender equality central to national development planning and budgeting.

DIMENSION 1:

INCLUSIVE DEVELOPMENT, SHARED PROSPERITY AND DECENT WORK

Achievements in inclusive development and shared prosperity are underpinned by women's economic empowerment and equal participation in the economy. Over the past 25 years, significant efforts to support women's inclusion in the workforce have been made through proactive labour market policies addressing the gender pay gap, and helping to reconcile work and family responsibilities. Yet structural barriers to gender equality and gender discrimination prevail. These manifest as gaps in labour force participation and pay, occupational segregation, unequal working conditions, and the unequal distribution of unpaid care and domestic work.

Women's workforce participation has generally moved closer to men's, yet large gender differentials remain among prime working-age adults, especially during the family formation years. Between 1995 and 2019, the labour force participation rate among women aged 25 to 54 increased from 73.4 to 76.6 per cent, while men's decreased marginally from 91.9 to 90.9 per cent.¹ The largest workforce participation rate increase occurred in South-Eastern Europe (from 42.5 to 48.7 per cent), where levels remained low compared to the EU-15 countries (from 68.6 to 80.2 per cent).² In Central Asia, with a subregional average of 70.1 per cent, women's engagement in the workforce is remarkably low in Tajikistan at 35.5 per cent. In Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, with an average of 84.4 per cent, the lowest level is observed in the Republic of Moldova at 54.1 per cent.³ Rather than engaging businesses around principles of corporate social responsibility, many countries, such as Albania, Azerbaijan and Hungary,

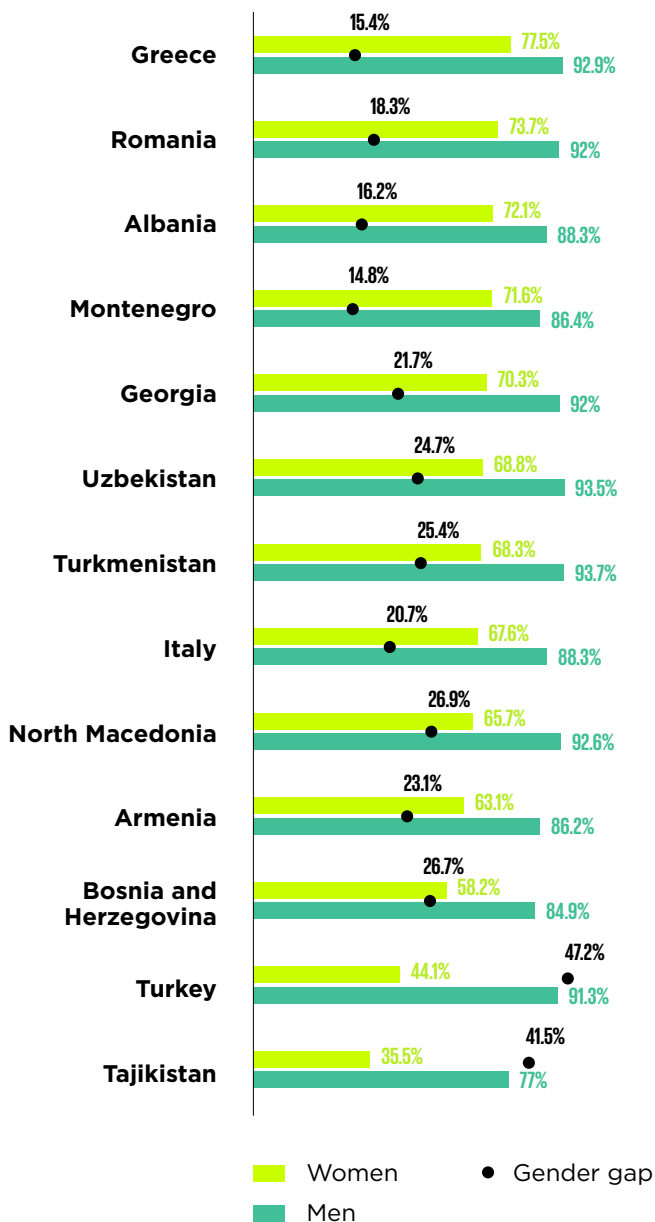
rely on state subsidies to promote the hiring of female workers by the private sector, including women with disabilities and ethnic minorities.⁴

Women are three times more likely than men to hold a part-time job, often as a result of child- and parental care responsibilities. Between 2007 and 2017, part-time employment among women remained stable (29.8 and 30.1 per cent, respectively) but increased among men (8.2 and 10 per cent, respectively).⁵ In 2017, over half of all women employed in Western European countries without European Union membership (52.3 per cent) and one third of women in EU-15 countries (38.1 per cent) held part-time jobs.⁶ Part-time employment among women remained generally low in the eastern part of the region with the exception of Azerbaijan (23.6 per cent), Malta (25.4 per cent) and Armenia (33.6 per cent).⁷ In 2017, the highest shares of men in part-time employment were in Switzerland (18.9 per cent) and the Netherlands (28.8 per cent).

One in every 10 women is employed in a vulnerable job (9.8 per cent), either as an own-account worker (7.5 per cent) or contributing family worker (2.3 per cent).⁸ Women holding these jobs often lack decent working conditions, including inadequate contracts, earnings, social protection and representation by trade unions, all of which undermine their fundamental rights as workers.⁹ In 2019, one in every three women in South-Eastern Europe (32.8 per cent) and Central Asia (33 per cent) was engaged in vulnerable employment, yet there were diverse trends across these subregions.¹⁰ South-Eastern Europe was characterized

by large shares of female contributing family workers (22.2 per cent among all employed women) and relatively large shares of female own-account workers (10.6 per cent).¹¹ A quarter of women in Turkey (24.8 per cent) and over a third of women in Albania (37.4 per cent) contributed to family businesses.¹² In contrast, women in vulnerable employment in Central Asia were primarily engaged in self-employment (28.2 per cent of all employed women), as opposed to contributing to family businesses (4.8 per cent).¹³ In that subregion, self-employment was highest in Uzbekistan (32.5 per cent) and Tajikistan (37.8 per cent).¹⁴

Labour force participation rate in selected countries



Source: ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat ilo.org/>.

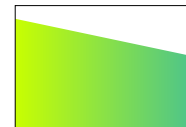
Women's workforce participation varies by marital status and declines as childbearing progresses. In 2017, in the eastern part of the region, where data were available, never-married women aged 25 to 49 were more likely to be employed than their married counterparts in Turkey (52.1 compared to 34.3 per cent), Armenia (57.2 compared to 48 per cent), Kyrgyzstan (76.2 compared to 56.2 per cent) and the Russian Federation (83.1 compared to 80.7 per cent).¹⁵ The reverse pattern was apparent in the Republic of Moldova (43.7 compared to 54.4 per cent), Serbia (53.8 compared to 64 per cent), Albania (55.7 compared to 61 per cent) and Belarus (87.8 compared to 92.1 per cent). In most of these countries, employment levels were highest among widowed women.¹⁶

Country cases: Female employment among women aged 25 to 49

The Russian Federation

89.3%

women with no children



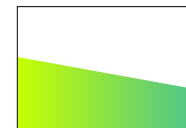
57.5%

women with three or more children under 17

Serbia

58.6%

women with no children



32.9%

women with three or more children under 17

Belarus

92.1%

women with no children



84.2%

women with three or more children under 17

Source: UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.

Young women aged 15 to 24 are more likely than men to not be in education, employment or training (NEET). From 2013 to 2017, 15.2 per cent of women and 12.1 per cent of men aged 15 to 24 were in this category, after declines from 2008 to 2012 (18.6 and 13.3 per cent, respectively).¹⁷ Female rates remain highest in South-Eastern Europe, where women aged 15 to 24 are twice

as likely to be NEET than men of the same age (32.3 compared to 15.8 per cent).¹⁸ The difference is largely driven by Turkey (34 compared to 14.6 per cent).¹⁹ It is lowest in Western European countries without European Union membership at 5 per cent.²⁰

Continuous increases in women's labour market participation over the last decades have often gone hand in hand with their move into women-dominated jobs, rather than a more widespread distribution across sectors and occupations. They have found limited access to senior and management roles.²¹ In 2019, women accounted for the majority of workers employed in food and accommodation activities (55 per cent), education activities (72 per cent), and human health and social sector activities (77.8 per cent).²² In addition, more than 2 in every 10 women employed in South-Eastern Europe (22.6 per cent) and Central Asia (22.8 per cent) worked in the agricultural sector.²³ Vertical and horizontal occupational segregation, coupled with the higher likelihood that women will hold part-time jobs and interrupt their careers, contribute to perpetuating the gender pay gap and cement gender income inequalities across the life course.

Persistent horizontal occupational segregation is addressed primarily by initiatives to eradicate educational segregation, particularly the greater inclusion of women and girls in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM).²⁴ **Just one third of graduates from STEM programmes in tertiary education are female**, however, with only a marginal rise from 32.4 to 34.3 per cent between 2009 and 2013, and 2014 and 2018.²⁵ These low levels have become an emerging area of concern, given the prominence of these fields in forecasted employment opportunities.²⁶

Over one in every three managerial positions are occupied by women, a share that increased slightly from 33.6 to 37 per cent between 2003 and 2007, and 2013 and 2017, reaching 41.1 per cent in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus. It remained remarkably low in South-Eastern Europe, despite nearly doubling during this period from 8.7 to 16.6 per cent.²⁷ From 2013 to 2017, the Russian Federation (41.3 per cent), Poland (41.3 per cent), the Republic of Moldova (42 per cent), Latvia (46.3 per cent) and Belarus (47.6 per cent) were closest to achieving equality.²⁸

Pay inequality remains pervasive, with women earning on average 21.6 per cent less than men per month from 2013 to 2017, although the pay gap has narrowed since 2003 to 2007 (26.9 per cent).²⁹ In the eastern part of the region, significant reductions were achieved during this period by Armenia (from 57.9 to 32.5 per cent), Ukraine (from 31.4 to 21.2 per cent), the Republic

of Moldova (from 29.1 to 13.5 per cent) and Romania (from 18.8 to 3.7 per cent), among others.³⁰ Conversely, stagnations or increases occurred in Bulgaria (from 18.8 to 20.1 per cent) and Belarus (from 20.6 to 25.4 per cent).³¹ Regardless, current levels remain unacceptably high. In the western part of the region, countries have made progress towards enforcing pay equality. For instance, the Transparency in Wage Structures Act adopted in Germany in 2017 created an individual right to information about the wage structure for all employees of companies with more than 200 employees.³² Employers must also disclose the statistical median of the average monthly gross remuneration received by the opposite gender.³³

Laws prohibiting workplace discrimination are essential for addressing the multiple forms of gender discrimination faced by women, including in hiring, promotions, working conditions, remuneration and sexual harassment, yet even where these exist, they are not always effectively implemented. Biases are acutely felt by women from marginalized and excluded groups, such as ethnic and racial minorities, who face even greater challenges to accessing decent work. In the eastern part of the region, women are currently banned in 300 or more professions in Kyrgyzstan (446 professions), the Republic of Moldova (331 professions), Tajikistan (326 professions) and the Russian Federation (320 professions).³⁴ Recently, the Russian Federation and Kazakhstan partly eliminated such legal restrictions on women's employment by reducing the number of banned professions from 456 to 320 and from 287 to 219, respectively.³⁵ In Armenia, Georgia and Ukraine, references to the list of banned professions have been removed from labour codes, but restrictions still exist.³⁶ In Armenia, the list of occupations and professions banned for women, minors and people with disabilities has not been repealed, while in Georgia, professions on this list are still banned for pregnant and nursing women.³⁷

There is an absence of effective legislation and mechanisms for combating workplace sexual harassment in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and Central Asia.³⁸ Finland, Norway and Spain, among other countries, have made significant advances in this area, requiring private employers to establish internal equality plans. In Finland, these must include a sexual orientation and gender identity component.³⁹ Representing a significant milestone in the international legal framework, the ILO Convention (C190) on Violence and Harassment opened for signature in 2019, incorporating the prohibition of violence and harassment in the workplace into international labour standards.

The countless hours women spend in unpaid care and domestic work remain a great obstacle to being able to access decent employment. Based on evidence available for 17 countries since 2011, **women spend twice the time as men in unpaid care and domestic work.**⁴⁰ In Kazakhstan and Turkey, women spend three and five times as much time in unpaid care and domestic work as men, respectively, while the gender gap is narrowest in Belgium and Norway (1.2 times).⁴¹ The provision of affordable childcare and elder care services, paternity and parental leave, universal health care and tax incentives, alongside infrastructure development, such as water and waste management, clean energy and public transportation services, can have an impact on redistributing this burden, and reconciling work and family life.⁴²

A significant shortage of kindergartens and pre-schools in parts of the region impedes women's workforce participation. Almost 9 in every 10 girls and boys participated in organized learning the year prior to starting primary education (87.7 per cent). Yet significant subregional differences prevail.⁴³ Between 2009 and 2013, and 2014 and 2018, the share decreased in South-Eastern Europe from 73.5 to 66.8 per cent for girls and from 74.7 to 68.6 per cent for boys, a decline driven by Turkey. But it increased in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus from 86.4 to 93.4 per cent for girls and from 85.6 to 94.2 per cent for boys.⁴⁴ EU-15 countries, newer European Union countries and Western European countries without European Union membership virtually achieved universal coverage during both periods.⁴⁵

Paternity leave, and flexible parental leave and leave-sharing arrangements support women's participation in the labour force and the involvement of fathers at home, breaking down gender stereotypes around caregiving roles. Paternity leave was recently introduced in countries including Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Czech Republic and the Republic of Moldova, and extended in Italy, Spain and Switzerland.⁴⁶ In the United Kingdom, working parents can share up to 50 weeks of leave and 37 weeks of pay in the child's first year.⁴⁷ Yet paternity leave entitlements remain inadequate or unavailable in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and Central Asian countries.⁴⁸ In Kyrgyzstan, for instance, fathers are granted only unpaid paternity leave. Low uptake in other countries is prompted in part by traditional social norms. Infrastructure, service

development and institutional support for women workers with families remains insufficient, primarily in the eastern part of the region.⁴⁹

Tax reforms to incentivize women's return to work and to reduce the costs of care for families are vital. In 2015, Austria created a tax incentive to have an income above the marginal employment threshold to encourage women's full-time employment.⁵⁰ Similarly, persons who take care leave or who work part-time and care for someone the rest of the time have a legal right to a carer's allowance, free health and pension insurance, and a supplement for dependent children.⁵¹

Entrepreneurship is crucial to economic development, promoting social integration and reducing inequalities, yet women continue to face limited access to markets, credit, financial services and products, infrastructure and procurement opportunities, and face discriminatory property and inheritance laws, all of which limit access to capital.⁵² **Women remain less likely than men to have an account at a financial institution or mobile-money-service provider,** with the lowest access levels in Central Asia (43.4 per cent) and South-Eastern Europe (55.9 per cent).⁵³ Most initiatives for promoting women's entrepreneurship remain gender neutral, resulting in limited outreach to and use by women in many countries, particularly those from vulnerable groups, including ethnic minorities and conflict-affected women.⁵⁴

Women's property rights are central to economic development and gender equality, allowing them to start and grow businesses, invest in their families, and live with agency and dignity.⁵⁵ Yet despite formal equalities in the right to own property and inheritance, sociocultural norms and practices impede women's ownership and inheritance in several countries, including Albania and Georgia.⁵⁶ In Albania, women own only 8 per cent of land as they are marginalized in inheritance practices, and property is often registered under the "head of household", a role reserved for men.⁵⁷ In Central Asia, harmful traditions still persist and sons generally inherit parents' property. Overall, women's lack of knowledge about their rights, legislative gaps, incorrect judicial and administrative practices, and a lack of monitoring of the implementation of the law all contribute to women's inability to own property on an equal basis with men.⁵⁸

SNAPSHOT

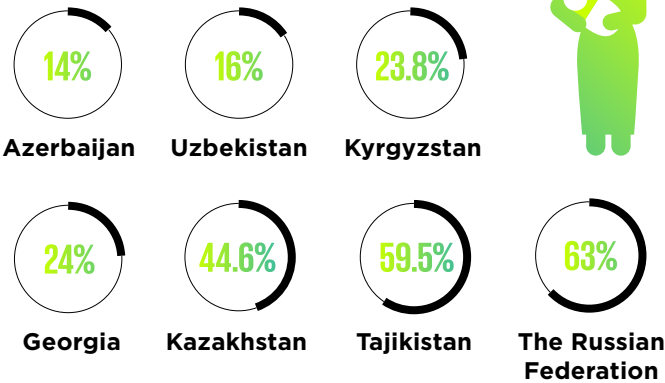
Economic security and autonomy remain elusive for many women, especially in their childbearing years

Legal reforms are helping women and men to reconcile work and family life

Several countries have improved maternity leave entitlements,

either by expanding leave time or by increasing the rate of pay during leave⁵⁹

The share of mothers with newborns receiving a maternity benefit is universal except for⁶⁰



PATERNITY LEAVE

has been introduced or expanded in several countries, although it remains unavailable or inadequate in those where its unpaid status along with traditional social norms result in low uptake⁶¹

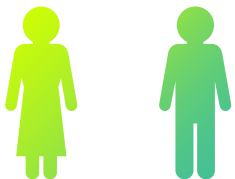
Yet women remain less likely to participate in the labour force, advance in their careers and control assets than men, and more likely to be in lower-paid and vulnerable employment

MORE MEN

between the ages of 25 to 54

are in the labour force than women⁶²

76.6% 90.9%



Approximately

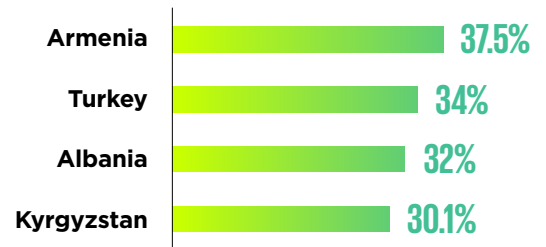


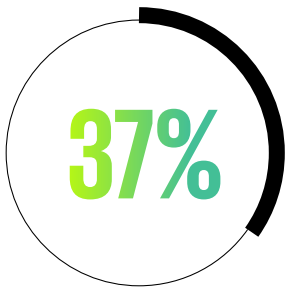
of women in the region are employed informally⁶³

In 16 countries, more than

15% of young women aged 15 to 24

are not in education, employment or training, including⁶⁴





of all managerial positions are occupied by women, as are **35.6% of senior and middle-management positions**⁶⁵

Women earn on average **21.6% LESS** ▼

than men every month⁶⁶

The gender pay gap in monthly earnings **exceeds 20% in 20 countries**, ranging⁶⁷



Motherhood pay gaps are prevalent,

evidencing discrimination between **mothers** and **non-mothers**, and between **mothers** and **fathers**

In Lithuania, the hourly gender pay gap stands at



Yet single mothers earn 33% less than single fathers⁶⁸

Women spend on average

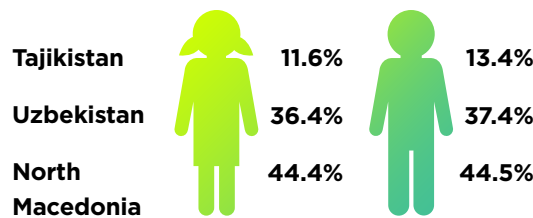
2X as many hours as men

on unpaid care and domestic work⁶⁹

LESS THAN HALF

of girls and boys

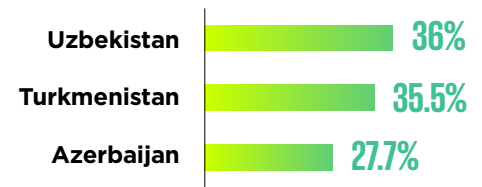
participate in organized learning one year before the official primary entry age⁷⁰



LESS THAN HALF

of adult women

have an account at a financial institution or mobile-money service provider in eight countries, including⁷¹



Women from marginalized and excluded groups face even greater challenges to access decent work



In the Russian Federation and the Czech Republic

women with disabilities are **3 and 4 times**

more likely to be unemployed than women without disabilities, respectively⁷²

Labour force participation of women aged 15 to 64⁷³

Montenegro:

Roma **5%** non-Roma **26%**

Bosnia and Herzegovina:

Roma **13%** non-Roma **24%**

DIMENSION 2:

POVERTY ERADICATION, SOCIAL PROTECTION AND SOCIAL SERVICES

The availability of and access to social protection and social services is crucial to reduce poverty, combat inequality and promote social inclusion. Equal access to educational qualifications empowers women in all areas of their lives, while improved health and equitable and affordable access to health services play important roles in reducing poverty.

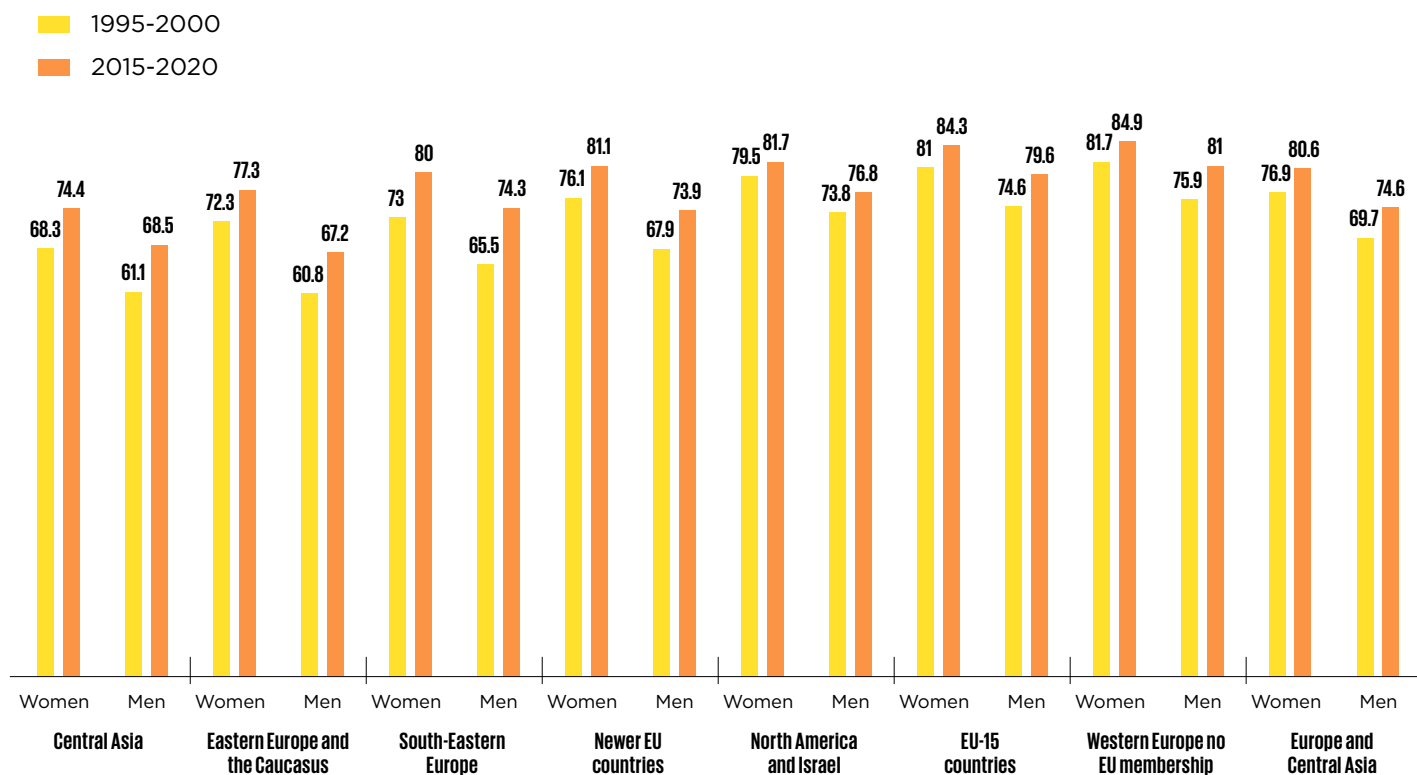
Europe and Central Asia is at the forefront of a global demographic transformation from population growth to population ageing. Between 1995-2000 and 2015-2020, the total fertility rate remained below replacement level, increasing marginally from 1.7 to 1.8 live births per woman aged 15 to 49, while the share of persons aged 65 years or older increased from 12.7 to 16.8 per cent between 1995 and 2020.¹ Today, older persons account for around two in every five persons in Western European countries without European Union membership (18.4 per cent), newer European Union countries (19.4 per cent) and EU-15 countries (20.8 per cent).² Young people aged 15 to 24 account for around 10 per cent of the population across all subregions except Central Asia (15 per cent) and South-Eastern Europe (15.5 per cent).

Women are living longer and healthier lives. Female life expectancy at birth increased by 3.7 years in Europe and Central Asian between 1995-2000 and 2015-2020, from 76.9 to 80.6 years.³ Male life expectancy at birth rose by 4.9 years, from 69.7 to 74.6 years.⁴ From 2015 to 2020, women lived on

average 6.1 more years than men, a gender gap that was highest in South-Eastern Europe (5.8 years), Central Asia (5.9 years), and Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (10 years).⁵ The largest relative gains in female life expectancy were in subregions with the lowest life expectancy levels, namely, Central Asia (from 68.3 to 74.4 years), Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (from 72.3 to 77.3 years), and South-Eastern Europe (from 73 to 80 years).⁶ Female healthy life expectancy at birth increased 2.5 years between 2000 and 2016, from 67.7 to 70.2 years, suggesting that on average, women in Europe and Central Asia live around 10 years with ill health or disability.⁷ During the same period, male healthy life expectancy at birth increased 4.2 years, from 62.8 to 66 years.⁸ In 2016, women in the region lived on average 4.1 more healthy years than men.⁹

Ageing has a female face, since women account for 58.1 per cent of people aged 65 or older.¹⁰ This share is highest in Central Asia (60.2 per cent), newer European Union countries (60.3 per cent), and Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (66.5 per cent).¹¹ Gender differentials in life expectancy are particularly large in some countries of the two latter subregions, where women outlive men by around 10 years. These countries include Latvia (9.9 years), Belarus (10 years), the Russian Federation (10.7 years) and Lithuania (11.1 years).¹² Older women are less likely to be married than older men, or to remarry. They are also less likely to be outlived by male spouses.¹³

Change in life expectancy by subregions



Source: UN Women calculations using United Nations Population Division. 2019. World Population Prospects 2019. Online edition. Rev. 1. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://population.un.org/wpp/>.

Life cycle inequalities in income, education and employment expose many women to poverty in old age, exacerbated by limitations on pension entitlements and a lack of control over financial resources.¹⁴ As the number and share of older persons grows across the region, older women play a central role in the provision of care to younger generations, as well as to their older relatives and relatives with disabilities.¹⁵ In parallel, increasing long-term care needs tend to be absorbed informally by middle-aged women.¹⁶ The share of people aged 65 and older receiving long-term care in institutions is estimated to range from less than 1 per cent in Poland and the Russian Federation to 9 per cent in Iceland.¹⁷ Likewise, the share of those receiving publicly funded long-term care services at home is very small in many countries in the eastern part of the region, yet it stands at 25 per cent in Denmark.¹⁸ In almost all countries, around 80 per cent of long-term care recipients are aged 80 or older.¹⁹ Policies that holistically address older persons' needs in terms of social protection, health, housing, transport and civic life, and facilitate women's and men's reconciliation of employment and care work throughout the life course remain key.²⁰

Significant health inequities prevail across and within countries. For instance, women in Turkmenistan live on average 14.6 years less than women in Spain.²¹ Between 2000 and 2016, the female non-communicable disease burden decreased significantly in all subregions, remaining highest in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (16 per cent) and Central Asia (19.6 per cent).²² In 2016, deaths from non-communicable diseases accounted for over 20 per cent of all deaths in Tajikistan (22 per cent) and Turkmenistan (22.9 per cent).²³

The accessibility, affordability and quality of health-care services remains of concern, especially in South-Eastern Europe, Eastern Europe, and the Caucasus and Central Asia. It is often women in rural and remote areas and minority women, such as the Roma, who lack access to health care due to the distance required to travel to facilities, the costs of service and waiting periods.²⁴ In 2015, the universal health coverage service index was markedly lower in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (63.7), South-Eastern Europe (69.5) and Central Asia (70). That reveals variation in ensuring equitable and affordable access to health services, especially for the poor and most marginalized groups of

the population.²⁵ South-Eastern Europe in particular had the lowest health worker density among all subregions, with 19 physicians and 31.6 nurses per 10,000 people from 2013 to 2017.²⁶ The universal health coverage service index stood close to or above 80 in other parts of the region,²⁷ yet high self-reported unmet needs for health care due to distance, expense or waiting lists among women aged 16 or older were consistently reported in Greece (9.9 per cent) and Estonia (17.8 per cent).²⁸ In some countries, women continue to face gender bias and discriminatory treatment by health-care personnel, as well as the provision of inadequate and inappropriate medical services, including obstetric violence.²⁹ These barriers are exacerbated for women with disabilities, women living with HIV, displaced women and women from conflict-affected areas, minority women and LGBTI women.³⁰

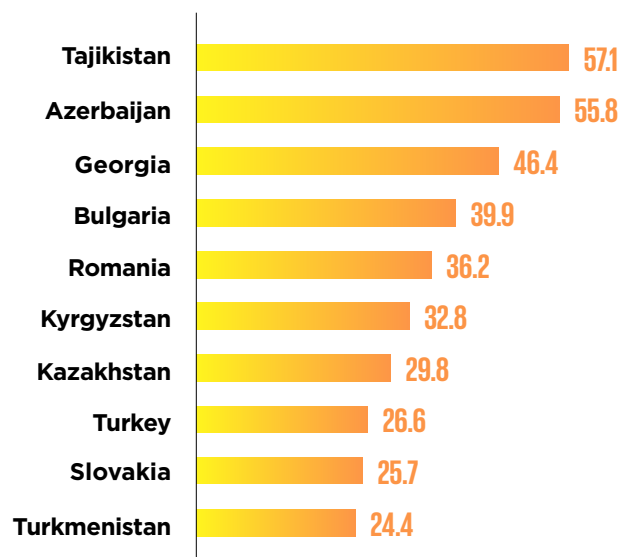
Progress towards sexual and reproductive health outcomes has been uneven. Access to sexual and reproductive health services, information and counselling remains a challenge, particularly in the eastern part of the region, resulting in low modern contraceptive use, unintended pregnancies, unsafe abortions, preventable maternal deaths, and high rates of cervical cancer and sexually transmitted infections. Access limitations may be partly attributed to a resurgence of socially conservative values and policies,³¹ and are especially acute for adolescents and young girls, women living in rural areas, poor women, women with disabilities, migrant and refugee women, and minority women, among others, all of whom face intersectional discrimination in the realization of their sexual and reproductive health and rights.³²

Barriers to knowledge and access to modern contraceptive methods remain in the eastern part of the region, where many women continue to rely on traditional methods. Between 1995 and 2019, the share of married and in-union women aged 15 to 49 using modern contraception increased from 31.2 to 44.6 per cent in South-Eastern Europe, and from 42.4 to 52.9 per cent in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus.³³ These shares stood well below the regional average of 60.9 per cent in 2019, due to the high prevalence of traditional contraceptive methods in the two subregions (23.5 and 13.3 per cent, respectively).³⁴ In 2019, although more than 8 in every 10 married and in-union women of reproductive age had their need for family planning satisfied by modern methods in the western subregions, this share was considerably lower in South-Eastern Europe (55.9 per cent) and Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (69.1 per cent).³⁵ Many women remain

unable to freely decide on matters related to their sexuality and sexual and reproductive health, including whether and when to have children.

Maternal mortality decreased by more than a third between 2000 and 2017, from 22.7 to 14.3 deaths per 100,000 live births.³⁶ Although maternal mortality was reduced by half in the eastern part of the region,³⁷ levels remain unacceptably high in some countries in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, and Central Asia. These include Armenia (26 deaths per 100,000 live births), Azerbaijan (26 deaths per 100,000 live births), Uzbekistan (29 deaths per 100,000 live births) and Kyrgyzstan (60 deaths per 100,000 live births).³⁸ In 2017, maternal mortality stood below 8 deaths per 100,000 live births in newer European Union countries (7.8 deaths per 100,000 live births), EU-15 countries (5.8 deaths per 100,000 live births) and Western European countries without European Union membership (3.8 deaths per 100,000 live births).³⁹

Adolescent birth rate in selected countries (live births per 1,000 women aged 15-19)



Source: United Nations Population Division. 2019. World Population Prospects 2019. Online edition. Rev. 1. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://population.un.org/wpp/>.

Early pregnancies remain a concern in a few countries, calling for expanded access to adolescent-friendly sexual and reproductive health services. The adolescent birth rate nearly halved between 1995-2000 and 2015-2020, from 33.3 to 17.7 live births per 1,000 per women aged 15 to 19.⁴⁰ Nonetheless, Albania, Azerbaijan and Tajikistan witnessed stagnations or increases in adolescent fertility during this period.

Adolescent birth rates are highest in the second and third countries, at 55.8 and 57.1 live births, respectively, per 1,000 women aged 15 to 19 from 2015 to 2020.⁴¹

Early pregnancies severely curtail adolescent girls' educational and employment opportunities, imposing long-term, adverse impacts on the quality of their lives and the lives of their children, especially in parts of South-Eastern Europe, Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, and Central Asia. This underscores the importance of integrating age-appropriate comprehensive sexuality education (CSE) into school curricula. Nonetheless, opposition to CSE is still widespread in the region, with respondents in only five countries – Belgium, Estonia, Finland, the Netherlands and Sweden – perceiving that there is hardly any opposition in their national contexts.⁴² Among these, Estonia and Sweden link sexuality education and youth-friendly sexual and reproductive health services, as students visit youth clinics to receive CSE lessons and become familiar with the services offered.⁴³

Countries across the region have expanded access to and improved the quality of sexual and reproductive health care in numerous ways, including through physical infrastructure development, removing cost as a barrier, and developing specialized, gender-responsive policies. Azerbaijan recently established several perinatal centres, while in Norway, national antenatal guidelines ensure women and newborn-centred care, including mental health support and home visits.⁴⁴ In Latvia, vulnerable women can access State-funded contraception, and in Switzerland, migrant women have access to birthing courses, post-partum home visits, and information in their native languages in dedicated reception centres.⁴⁵

Cervical and breast cancers, alongside other reproductive system cancers and infertility, affect growing numbers of women and may be preventable or curable if detected early. Cervical cancer is the second most common cause of cancer death among women in the eastern part of the region, where more than 38,000 new cases and 18,000 deaths occur every year.⁴⁶ Breast cancer is a common disease among women in all subregions except Central Asia.⁴⁷ Incidence and mortality rates remain higher than the global average (66.5 cases and 12.9 deaths per 100,000 women, respectively), driven in some contexts by the lack of screening initiatives.⁴⁸ Albania developed clinical guidelines on breast cancer screenings in 2015.⁴⁹

The number of HIV-positive women is increasing in the eastern part of the region. Between 2000 and

2017, the number of new HIV infections among women aged 15 to 49 per 1,000 uninfected people nearly doubled in Central Asia, from 0.10 to 0.19, and doubled in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, where levels remain highest, from 0.34 to 0.74.⁵⁰ In contrast, EU-15 countries saw notable declines during this period, from 0.10 to 0.07 new HIV infections among women aged 15 to 49 per 1,000 uninfected people.⁵¹ In 2019, approximately 1.4 million people in Eastern Europe and Central Asia were living with HIV.⁵² The 30 per cent increase in new infections observed since 2010 reflects insufficient political commitment and domestic investment in national AIDS responses.⁵³ Outside of the Russian Federation, which is home to 70 per cent of people living with HIV in the region, the rate of new HIV infections is stable.⁵⁴ Insufficient access to sterile injecting equipment and the unavailability of opioid substitution therapy have stymied efforts in the Russian Federation to prevent HIV infections among people who inject drugs.⁵⁵ Armed conflict has disrupted testing, prevention and treatment services in areas of eastern Ukraine not controlled by the Government.⁵⁶

In most countries, women and girls either equal or exceed men and boys in overall educational enrolment and attainment, except in Central Asia.⁵⁷ In Tajikistan, for example, girls comprise only 22 and 35 per cent of primary school and secondary vocational school graduates, respectively, and they are likely to drop out in ninth grade to undertake domestic work obligations.⁵⁸ Tajik women account for just 42.5 per cent of graduates from tertiary education.⁵⁹ Despite formal equality, discrimination against women and girls persists in the form of gender bias and stereotypes in teaching materials, and challenges on enrolling and teaching in certain fields.

Horizontal and vertical gender segregation characterizes education systems. Women remain significantly overrepresented as teachers in primary and lower secondary education, with the exception of Finland, and underrepresented in tertiary education and academic positions.⁶⁰ In the Czech Republic, for example, 84.7 per cent of all teachers are women, while men account for 85.1 and 75 per cent of public university professors and assistant professors, respectively.⁶¹

Women outnumbered men among tertiary education graduates across the region from 2014 to 2018 (57.2 per cent).⁶² They accounted for only one third of graduates from STEM programmes (34.3 per cent), and for over three quarters of graduates from health and welfare programmes (77.3 per cent).⁶³ Empowering

women to enter STEM fields of study will be necessary for their equal participation in the future workforce, where information and communications technology is expected to create the most jobs. Computer, mathematical and engineering sectors are also projected to grow.⁶⁴ Andorra is the only country where female graduates from STEM programmes outnumber males (66.7 per cent). It is followed by five countries in the eastern part of the region with higher-than-average shares of female graduates: Albania (46.7 per cent), North Macedonia (45.1 per cent), Georgia (43.5 per cent), Cyprus (42.2 per cent) and Romania (41.2 per cent).⁶⁵ Denmark created a three-month introductory period for upper-secondary students in which they are exposed to the full range of subjects prior to specializing in particular academic areas (technical, commercial, foreign languages, among others).⁶⁶ The programme seeks to open students' minds around initial preferences and provide them with guidance in making academic choices.⁶⁷

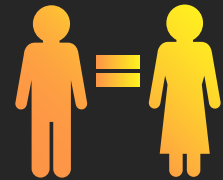
Women are more likely to be at risk of poverty than men; that is, to have an income below the threshold for being at risk of poverty, set at 60 per cent of the national median equivalent disposable income after social transfers. This is evident in all subregions with sex-disaggregated data, namely, Western European countries without European Union membership (14.4 per cent of women compared to 13.2 per cent of men), EU-15 countries (17.8 compared to 16.4 per cent), newer European Union countries (17.9 compared to 16.1 per cent) and South-Eastern Europe (22.9 compared to 21.9 per cent).⁶⁸ In the two last subregions, around one in every four women were at risk of poverty from 2016 to 2019, including in Estonia (24.2 per cent), Montenegro (24.2 per cent), Bulgaria (24.3 per cent), Serbia (24.6 per cent), Lithuania (24.9 per cent), Romania (24.9 per cent) and Latvia (25.1 per cent).⁶⁹ Countries in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and Central Asia lack estimates of the risk of poverty. Using national poverty lines as a poverty threshold, the share of poor persons from 2013 to 2017 was estimated at 10.8 per cent in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, and 14.3 per cent in Central Asia.⁷⁰

As the region's population continues to age, strengthening contributory and non-contributory pension schemes, as well as social protection measures that support women in reconciling care responsibilities and work, is vital. After a lifetime of work and caring for young and older generations, many women lack an adequate pension for a dignified retirement due to their higher likelihood of experiencing career interruptions, holding part-time employment and earning less than men. From 2014 to 2017, all women and men above statutory pensionable age were receiving a pension in 16 of the region's countries, including the majority of new European Union countries, the Russian Federation, France, Germany and the United Kingdom.⁷¹ In others, however, women's pension coverage levels remained far from universal and lower than men's levels. The largest coverage gaps were in Malta and Spain, where virtually all men receive a pension (100 and 95.5 per cent, respectively) yet less than half of women do (42.8 and 44.5 per cent, respectively).⁷²

Large differences remain between women's and men's pensions. In the European Union, for instance, women's pensions were on average 37.2 per cent less than men's in 2016.⁷³ The gender pension gap can be attributed to the lower incomes earned by women due to horizontal and vertical occupational segregation, women's decisions to interrupt their careers or work part-time to reconcile family and work life, and unequal mandatory retirement ages established for women and men. Given that women live longer than men, the gender pension gap results in an increased risk of poverty. Countries have taken diverse approaches to pension reform, including equalizing pension ages for men and women, increasing pension levels, introducing pension-sharing schemes and enabling self-employed women to access pensions.⁷⁴ In Croatia, amendments to the Pension Insurance Act in 2019 established a category of additional working years to supplement pensions for mothers. It applies to each biological and adopted child, helping to mitigate the gender pension gap.⁷⁵

SNAPSHOT

Women's and girl's access to public services and social protection is key to achieving gender equality, and reducing poverty and inequality



Women and girls are more educated and living longer and healthier lives

Nearly



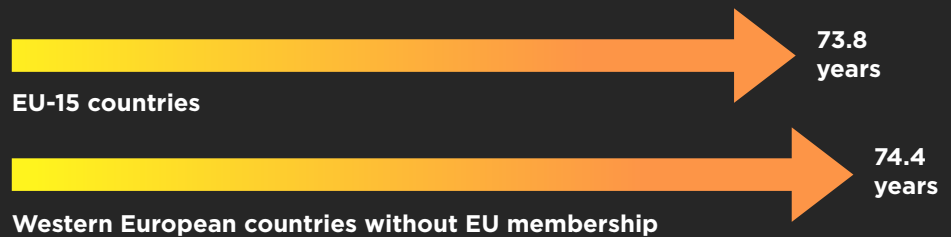
or

6 in every 10

tertiary graduates

in Europe and Central Asia are women⁷⁶

In 2016, female healthy life expectancy exceeded 65 years in all subregions, remaining highest in⁷⁷



Yet many women and girls remain trapped in poverty, and inequalities and discrimination persist in access to education, health and pensions

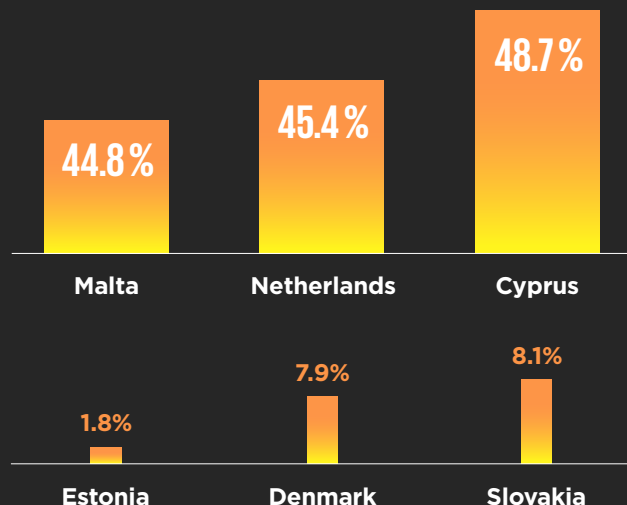
In 2016,

the gender pension gap exceeded 30%

in 11 European Union countries, including⁷⁸

The narrowest

pension gaps were in⁷⁹



At-risk-of-poverty rates from 2016 to 2019 were

HIGHER

among women than men in

31 out of 35

countries with sex-disaggregated data⁸⁰

The chances of employment



for women graduating in male-dominated fields of education are significantly

LOWER

than those of men

In 2014, the employment rate of female graduates in the European Union who studied in STEM fields at the tertiary level was

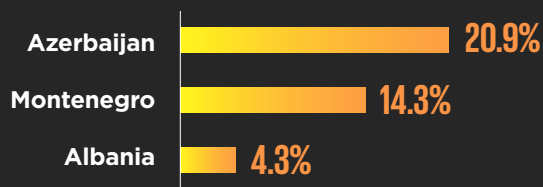


more than 10 percentage points lower

than the rate for men with the same qualifications⁸¹

Modern contraceptive use falls below the average

of least developed countries (36.6%) in eight countries in South-Eastern Europe, and Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, including⁸²



Between 2000 and 2017, the number of new HIV infections

among women aged 15 to 49 per 1,000 uninfected people in Kazakhstan and Belarus

INCREASED 7 and 10 times, respectively⁸³

Women in Kyrgyzstan are

30 TIMES MORE LIKELY

to die giving birth

than women in Belarus, Italy, Norway or Poland⁸⁴

Migrant and minority women and girls face severe discrimination and exclusion in accessing public services and social protection



In 2019, women accounted for

OVER HALF

of the region's international migrants

(51.4%)⁸⁵

Completed compulsory education for girls aged 18 and 21⁸⁶

Albania:

Roma 40%

non-Roma

96%

Serbia:

Roma 57%

non-Roma

93%

DIMENSION 3:

FREEDOM FROM VIOLENCE, STIGMA AND STEREOTYPES

Violence against women and girls constitutes a human rights violation of vast proportions, representing a serious impediment to women's equality in all areas of life. Despite notable progress in the development and enforcement of legal and normative frameworks, and in the provision of services for victims and survivors, significant gaps prevail. And even as deep-rooted drivers of abuse persist, the rapid advancement of technology has opened up new digital spaces where women are being threatened, intimidated and harassed. Improvements in data collection, research, analysis and harmonization have been uneven. Reliable data and research often remain difficult to obtain.

The adoption of the Istanbul Convention is driving States' commitments to end violence. As of June 2020, the Istanbul Convention had been signed by 45 out of the 47 countries in the region that are members of the Council of Europe, and had received 34 ratifications.¹ Azerbaijan and the Russian Federation remained the two countries that had not signed the landmark treaty, while Armenia, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, the Republic of Moldova, Slovakia, Ukraine and the United Kingdom had not ratified it.² In various countries of the eastern part of the region, opposition to signature and ratification has been a focus of rising conservative movements. The Istanbul Convention has been less of a driving force outside of Council of Europe member States, namely, in Central Asia. Yet it remains open for signature and ratification by any country.

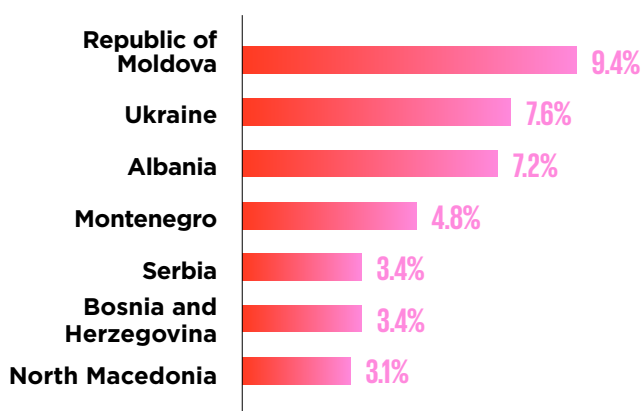
The harmonization of national legal frameworks with the Istanbul Convention has generally brought increased protection and access to justice for women, and contributed to the increased quality and accessibility of specialist and general services for survivors.³

For instance, Albania, Georgia, the Republic of Moldova, Malta and Romania recently expanded domestic violence laws to encompass broader concepts of violence against women and gender-based violence. The United Kingdom passed legislative amendments criminalizing controlling or coercive behaviour in intimate or family relationships. In Bosnia and Herzegovina, the new Law on Protection from Domestic Violence in Republika Srpska will treat domestic violence as a criminal offence instead of as a misdemeanor.⁴ Serbia has drafted its new Law on Prohibition of Discrimination, which defines and prohibits direct and indirect discrimination, sexual harassment and incitement to discrimination. It also amended the Criminal Code to criminalize non-consensual acts of a sexual nature in line with the Istanbul Convention. Albania, Belgium, Hungary and Kyrgyzstan, among other countries, have established crisis centres offering specialized services for sexual violence survivors. Rape crisis centres were created in North Macedonia and Serbia, albeit shortcomings remain in both scope and quality.⁵ At the other end of the spectrum, Kazakhstan and the Russian Federation decriminalized the offences commonly invoked in domestic violence cases, reducing them to administrative offences.⁶

Despite advances and the high priority accorded to this issue by most States, significant gaps remain in law and practice. Azerbaijan, Belarus, Liechtenstein, Russia and Turkmenistan, among other countries, still have no dedicated legislation on domestic violence or other forms of violence against women.⁷ Controversial legislative amendments in the Russian Federation in 2017 decriminalized first battery offences among family members and reduced penalties for abusers, putting survivors in greater danger, and sending a message

of impunity to perpetrators. At least 15 countries have not established clear criminal penalties for domestic violence, and at least 10 have not instituted specialized courts or procedures for domestic violence cases.⁸ All Eastern European and the Caucasus and Central Asian countries except Georgia and the Republic of Moldova lack one or both of these.⁹ They were in place in all South-Eastern European countries, however.¹⁰ No country in the region criminalizes all nine forms of violence laid out in the Istanbul Convention.

Share of women and girls (18 to 74 years) who have experienced intimate partner violence in selected countries



Source: OSCE (Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe). 2019. OSCE-led survey on violence against women. Vienna: OSCE.

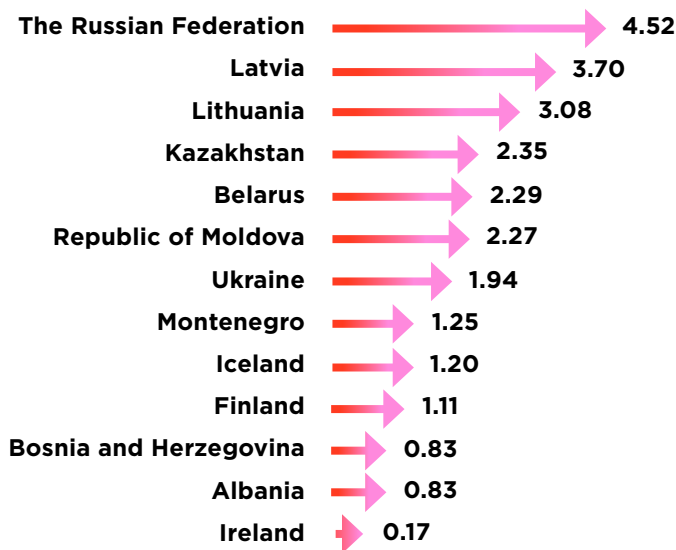
Domestic violence remains systemic, normalized and tolerated. Prevalence rates are quite high in many countries, particularly considering the underreported nature of the phenomenon. Among the 32 countries with data for 2012 to 2017, intimate partner violence among women and girls aged 15 to 49 was most common in Turkey (11 per cent), Kyrgyzstan (17.1 per cent), Tajikistan (19 per cent) and Georgia (19.8 per cent).¹¹ In contrast, 9 per cent or less of women and girls aged 18 to 49 in EU-15 countries and newer European Union countries had been subjected to physical and/or sexual violence by an intimate partner during the last 12 months.¹² The prevalence of intimate partner violence was highest in Belgium (8 per cent), Finland (8 per cent), Greece (8 per cent), Hungary (8 per cent), Slovakia (8 per cent) and Bulgaria (9 per cent), and remarkably low in Cyprus (3 per cent), Luxembourg (3 per cent), Poland (3 per cent) and Spain (2 per cent).¹³ A survey conducted in 2018 among women and girls aged 18 to 74 in selected South-Eastern European and Eastern European and the

Caucasus countries found that intimate partner violence is generally more common in the latter subregion.

Few countries have criminalized stalking in the eastern part of the region, where many women and girls have become stalking victims at the hands of intimate partners and non-partners. This is especially acute in more traditional Central Asian societies, where women are seen as being under men's protection, and laws do not adequately protect them from abuse and harassment.

Homicide represents the most extreme form of violence against women, a lethal act on a continuum of gender-based discrimination and abuse.¹⁴ While most homicide victims are men, killed by strangers, women are far more likely to die at the hands of someone they know.¹⁵ From 2013 to 2017, the region's female homicide rate was 1.68 victims per 100,000 women.¹⁶ Levels in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus were more than double the regional average, however, at 3.63 victims per 100,000 women.¹⁷ The prevalence of homicide was least common in newer European Union countries (0.90 victims per 100,000 women), South-Eastern European countries (0.70 victims per 100,000 women, excluding Turkey), EU-15 countries (0.69 victims per 100,000 women) and Western European countries without European Union membership (0.49 victims per 100,000 women).¹⁸

Female homicide rate, 2013-2017 (victims per 100,000 women)



Source: UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistical Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.

Violence against women and girls is rooted in gender-based discrimination, patriarchal social norms and gender stereotypes. From 2010 to 2014, 33.8 per cent of women and 39.8 per cent of men in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus believed it is justifiable for a man to beat his wife.¹⁹ In Central Asia, a higher degree of tolerance of violence against women and girls translated into the highest prevalence of intimate partner violence.²⁰ In this subregion, 38.3 per cent of women and 45.3 of men agreed with such a statement.²¹ In contrast, such views were held by a minority of women and men in EU-15 countries and newer European Union countries such as Cyprus (10.5 and 16.4 per cent, respectively), Romania (10.5 and 16.8 per cent), Spain (10.3 and 13.4 per cent) and the Netherlands (9 and 19.8 per cent).²²

Ensuring the effective implementation of protection measures remains a challenge for many countries, those in both the initial and more advanced stages of developing systematized forms of protection for survivors of intimate partner and domestic violence.²³ The Group of Experts on Action against Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (GREVIO),²⁴ under the Council of Europe, has observed that the implementation of protection orders is not effectively monitored. Only a few countries, such as Italy, Poland, Spain and Sweden, have employed electronic monitoring of perpetrators.²⁵ GREVIO has further expressed concern about exceptions to protection orders being carved out in cases where parents have joint custody, with potentially fatal consequences for both the survivors and children.²⁶

While effective protection and response measures are required to address both imminent and ongoing violence, prevention strategies represent the best and most cost-effective policy, particularly if children and youth are engaged.²⁷ In this regard, Iceland has adopted an annual campaign addressing intimate partner violence among youth, called Crazy Love, that stresses the importance of boundaries and consent, but also covers other topics, such as sex, pornography, gender equality, abusive behaviour and how to seek help.²⁸

Women and girls accounted for nearly 9 in every 10 victims of human trafficking for sexual exploitation (89.5 per cent) among countries with sex-disaggregated data for 2014 to 2017.²⁹ Girls under 18 represented 20.2 per cent of all female victims.³⁰ In the eastern part of the region, 243 and 319 female victims of human trafficking for sexual exploitation were identified in Bulgaria and Hungary, respectively, in 2017. Around 500 victims were identified in Italy (461 victims), Germany (466 victims) and the Netherlands

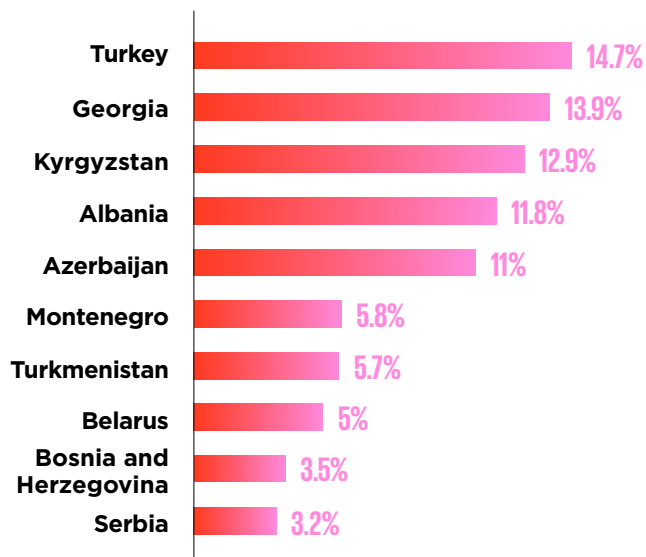
(510 victims) in 2016. On the other hand, men and boys were disproportionately affected by human trafficking for forced labour, servitude and slavery, accounting for over three quarters of all victims (76.8 per cent).³¹ Regardless of purpose, human trafficking victims tend to come from poor countries, regions or communities, reflecting structural economic and social inequalities.³²

Domestic violence and human trafficking represent the primary focus of countries' efforts to combat violence against women and girls,³³ yet other forms of violence are prevalent in parts of or the entire region, including harassment, femicide, and harmful practices such as early, child and forced marriage, female genital mutilation, gender-biased sex selection and honour-related violence.

One of the areas where digital transformation yields worse outcomes for women and girls than for men and boys is exposure to cyberbullying. This form of violence, which disproportionately targets girls, as well as women in the public sphere such as politicians and journalists, constitutes an emerging concern. For instance, in the European Union, 1 in every 10 women aged 18 or older (11 per cent) report having experienced sexual cyberharassment since the age of 15. That is, they have received unwanted, offensive, sexually explicit emails or SMS messages, or faced inappropriate, offensive advances on social networking sites.³⁴ Among adolescents and youth aged 18 to 29, the prevalence is as high as 20 per cent.³⁵ Nonetheless, few countries beyond the European Union have addressed this form of violence from a gender perspective, with many yet to criminalize it.³⁶

Early, child and forced marriages severely curtail adolescent girls' educational and employment opportunities, carrying long-term, adverse impacts on the quality of their lives and the lives of their children. From 2013 to 2019, early and child marriages were most common in South-Eastern Europe, where 13.2 per cent of women aged 20 to 24 years were first married or in union before age 18, followed by Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (9.2 per cent, excluding the Russian Federation) and Central Asia (7.7 per cent).³⁷ In 2019, the legal age of marriage for girls was 18 in all 51 countries with available data, yet penalties for authorizing or entering into child or early marriage had been established in just 21 countries.³⁸ Albania, Turkey and all Eastern European and the Caucasus countries with a high prevalence of child marriage are among those that have not instituted punitive measures against those who promote, permit, perform or are part of such harmful practices.³⁹

Share of women aged 20 to 24 years who were married or in a union before age 18 in selected countries



Source: UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund). 2020. Child marriage global database. Accessed 8 June 2020. <https://data.unicef.org/topic/child-protection/child-marriage/>.

Early, child and forced marriages, and female genital mutilation are more likely to affect girls from minority ethnic, religious and migrant communities, and conflict-affected populations. The practice of child marriage remains widespread in Roma communities. Roma women aged 20 to 49 are more likely to have married before age 18 than their non-Roma counterparts in South-Eastern European countries such as Bosnia and Herzegovina (27 compared to 11 per cent), North Macedonia (33 compared to 10 per cent), Montenegro (41 compared to 8 per cent), Serbia (44 compared to 9 per cent) and Albania (50 compared to 7 per cent).⁴⁰ In Georgia, a study concluded that most older women of Avar ethnicity in Kakheti had either undergone female genital mutilation or heard of it.⁴¹ It also suggested that the practice remains central to the ethnic group's identity and might be practised clandestinely.⁴²

Some countries in the region have stepped up action to address harmful practices. Kyrgyzstan enacted a Law on the Prohibition of Religious Marriage Ceremonies with Minors and toughened the penalties for bride kidnapping to up to 10 years in prison. In Tajikistan and Uzbekistan, the religious registration

of marriages can now only be conducted after these have been sanctioned by state registration offices. Turkey adopted an Action Plan on Combating Early and Forced Marriages 2019-2023, while Georgia established an interagency working group to address both harmful practices.⁴³ In the western part of the region, Denmark, Finland, Ireland, Norway and Sweden revised legislation to abolish any dispensations for the marriage of minors.⁴⁴ The United Kingdom criminalized performing or arranging female genital mutilation overseas, increased the sentence from 5 to 14 years, permitted lifelong anonymity for survivors, and established a protection order specifically for female genital mutilation and forced marriage.⁴⁵

Although prohibited, sex-selective abortions, including forced sex-selective abortions, persist in a few societies in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and South-Eastern Europe. This practice is driven by entrenched social and family norms favouring male children, the emergence of modern reproductive technologies, and the impact of low fertility on reproductive strategies among couples,⁴⁶ all of which lead to skewed sex ratios at birth. From 2015 to 2020, there were more than 110 boys born for every 100 girls in Armenia (111 boys for every 100 girls) and Azerbaijan (113 boys for every 100 girls).⁴⁷ Significant imbalances were also observed in Georgia (107 boys for every 100 girls), Serbia (107 boys for every 100 girls), Montenegro (107 boys for every 100 girls) and Albania (109 boys for every 100 girls).⁴⁸ Countries have made progress in addressing legislative gaps and gender stereotypes. In the past five years, sex-selective abortions were made an administrative offence in Armenia, and were criminalized in Georgia, among other countries.⁴⁹ The share of Armenian women stating that their families had a preference for sons declined from 45 to 13 per cent between 2011 and 2017.⁵⁰

Few countries have the capacity to collect prevalence and administrative data on violence against women and girls. GREVIO monitoring has revealed that few countries disaggregate data by all relevant factors,⁵¹ including the form of violence, the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim, and other relevant factors such as disability status, or sexual orientation and gender identity. Limited data coupled with underreporting continue to mask the true scale and nature of the phenomenon.

SNAPSHOT

The Istanbul Convention is driving state commitments to end violence against women and girls, yet significant gaps prevail in the development and enforcement of legislation, service provision, and data and research

45 out of the 47 countries in the region that are members of the Council of Europe **have signed** the Istanbul Convention, including **34** that **have ratified** it⁵²



At least 15 countries have not established clear criminal penalties for domestic violence and **at least 10 countries** have not instituted specialized courts or procedures for domestic violence cases⁵³



Limited data and underreporting continue to mask the true scale and nature of the phenomenon

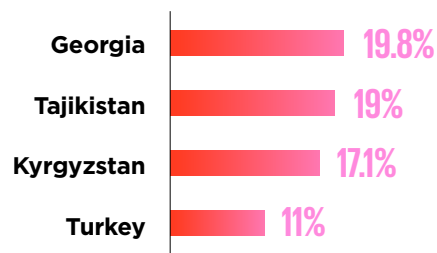
Millions of women and girls still experience various forms of gender-based violence, including harmful practices, which are deeply rooted in gender-based discrimination, patriarchal social norms and gender stereotypes

Among the **32 countries** with data available from 2012 to 2017,

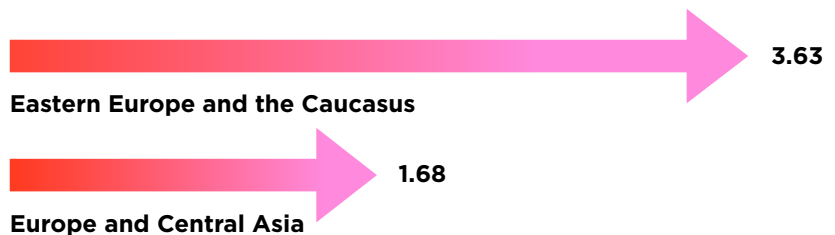
intimate partner VIOLENCE

among women and girls

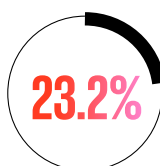
aged 15 to 49 was most common in⁵⁴



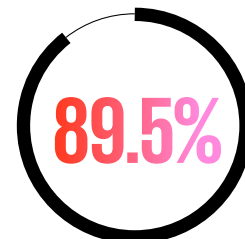
The female homicide rate (victims per 100,000 women)⁵⁵



From 2014 to 2017, women and girls accounted for⁵⁶

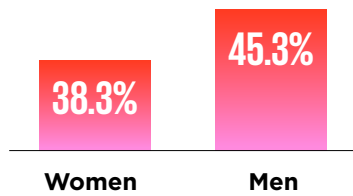


of victims of human trafficking for forced labour, servitude and slavery



of victims of human trafficking for sexual exploitation

Tolerance towards violence against women and girls is highest in Central Asia⁵⁷



believe it is justifiable for a man to beat his wife

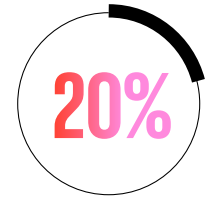
In the European Union,

1 in every 10

women aged 18 or older (11%)

report having experienced sexual cyberharassment since the age of 15

Among **adolescents and youth aged 18 to 29**, the prevalence is as high as⁵⁸

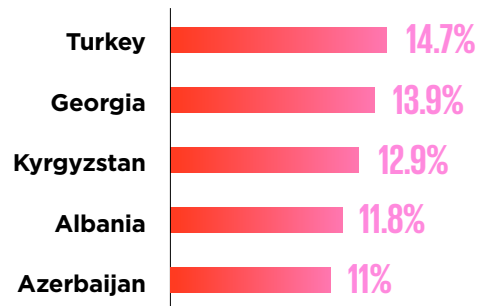


From 2013 to 2019, more than

1 in every 10

women aged 20 to 24 years

was first married or in a union before the age of 18⁵⁹



From 2015 to 2020, **skewed sex ratios at birth** were observed in

Georgia **107**

Serbia **107**

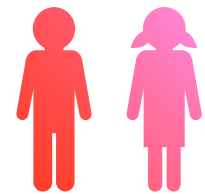
Montenegro **107**

Albania **109**

Armenia **111**

Azerbaijan **113**

boys for every 100 girls



indicating the prevalence of sex-selective abortions⁶⁰

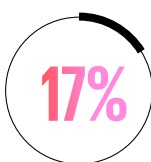
Marginalized and vulnerable women and girls face an increased risk of violence and obstacles accessing victim and survivor services

In the Republic of Moldova, Roma women are



2.4 times

more likely than non-Roma women to think it is justifiable for a man to hit his wife⁶¹



compared to



In South-Eastern European countries such as Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, North Macedonia and Serbia,

Roma women aged 20 to 49 are between

2.5 and 7 times

more likely to have married before the age of 18 than non-Roma women⁶²

DIMENSION 4:

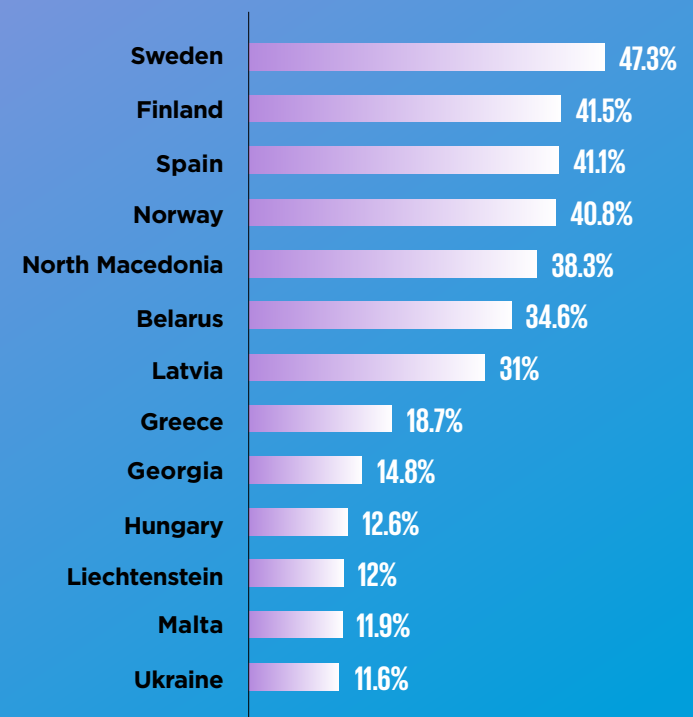
PARTICIPATION, ACCOUNTABILITY AND GENDER-RESPONSIVE INSTITUTIONS

Women's participation in decision-making is essential for a functioning democracy and good governance reflecting the needs and priorities of women and men, and for strong gender-responsive institutions. Although the number of women in leadership roles has increased in the last decade, men still dominate politics, holding the vast majority of seats in national parliaments and local governments as well as top government positions. Measures for strengthening and institutionalizing national gender equality machineries and the allocation of finance for gender equality are generally insufficient. Progress in the collection, analysis and dissemination of gender statistics and data disaggregated by sex remains a challenge. Combined with the lack of identification of intersecting vulnerabilities, this means that fundamental elements of evidence-based policymaking are not in place.

Women's representation in national parliaments nearly doubled between 2000 and 2019, increasing from 15.3 to 27.8 per cent of seats.¹ This significant gain has been driven by changes in electoral systems, political party rules and attitudes towards women in parliament, as well as the use of temporary special measures such as legislated gender quotas. Women's political participation remains lower in the eastern subregions, however. In 2019, women held less than one in every four parliamentary seats in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (17.2 per cent), Central Asia (21.1 per cent), South-Eastern Europe (22.3 per cent) and newer European Union countries (23 per cent). Women accounted for one in every three

parliamentarians in Western European countries without European Union membership (33.9 per cent) and EU-15 countries (34.9 per cent).²

Share of women in national parliaments



Source: United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.

Access to decision-making positions at the local level is generally higher. From 2018 to 2019, women held more than one in every four seats in deliberative bodies of local government in 34 of the 44 countries with data.³ Women's participation was highest in France (40.4 per cent), Norway (40.8 per cent), Albania (43.6 per cent), Sweden (43.8 per cent), Iceland (47 per cent) and Belarus (48.2 per cent). Women's representation in local governments was significantly lower in Romania (12.5 per cent), Turkey (10.1 per cent) and Armenia (9 per cent).⁴ Across the region, few women lead municipal councils, however. A recent study of 41 countries found that the share of female mayors was only 15.4 per cent in 2019, up from 11 per cent in 2008.⁵

If adequately designed and enforced, temporary special measures, including quotas, can accelerate women's political representation at all levels. As of June 2020, two out of three countries had electoral quotas for women at the parliamentary level.⁶ Gender quotas were least common in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, and Central Asia, with only Armenia, Georgia, Kyrgyzstan, the Republic of Moldova, Ukraine and Uzbekistan promoting their use,⁷ and Kazakhstan nearing approval. At the local level, one in three countries have introduced mandatory quotas, including Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Montenegro, North Macedonia, the Republic of Moldova, Serbia and Ukraine.

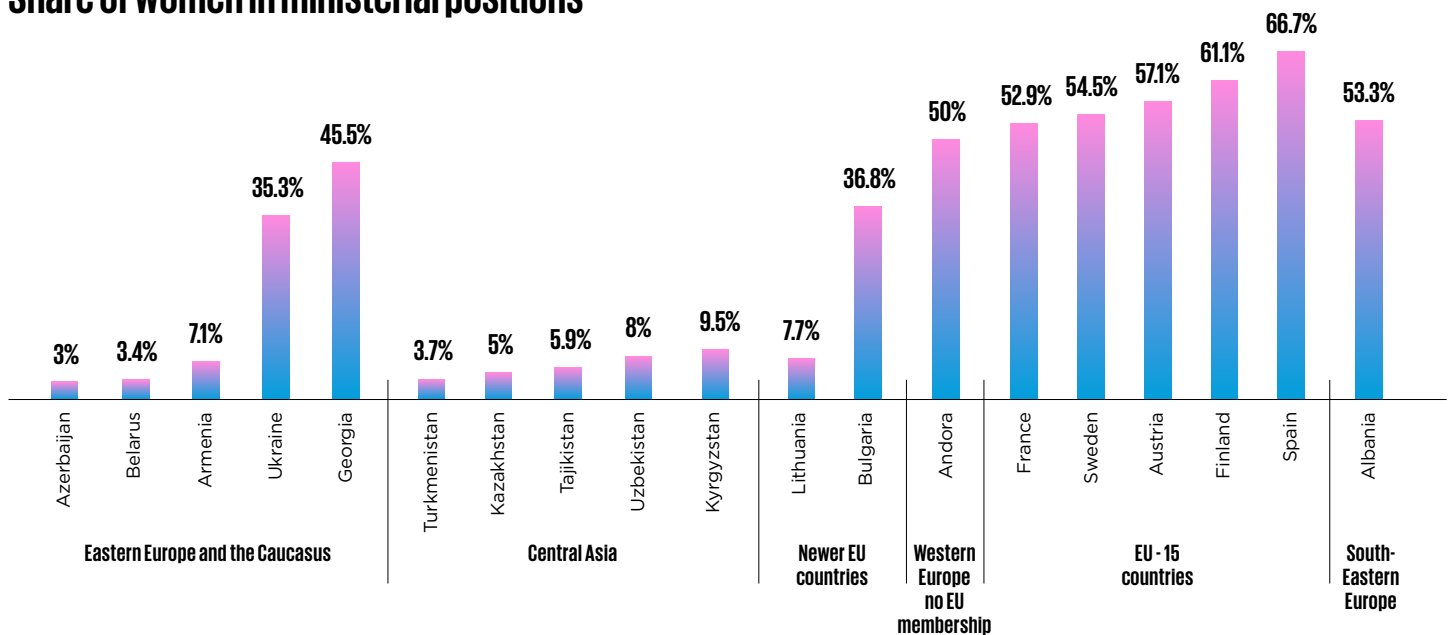
Too often, temporary special measures have not resulted in substantial increases in women candidates or women elected to office.⁸ The lack of effective enforcement mechanisms has been a challenge in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Lithuania, Malta, North Macedonia and

Uzbekistan, calling into question the political will behind ensuring equal representation, the most basic element of democracy.⁹ To boost compliance with its 40 per cent quota, Luxembourg amended the political party financing law, restricting funding to parties that are not compliant. Montenegro established a women's political network in 2017 that brings together members from 16 political parties, including opposition parties. It advocates for amending the Law on Financing Political Parties to allocate more resources for women's groups within parties.¹⁰ Other South-Eastern European countries have taken similar measures.

Women comprised 12 Heads of State or Government in 2019, up from just 4 in 2000. Women held the highest position of executive power in Belgium, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Georgia, Germany, Iceland, Norway, San Marino, Serbia, Slovakia and Switzerland.¹¹

Women held one in every four ministerial positions in 2019 (25.6 per cent).¹² In EU-15 countries (40.3 per cent) and Western European countries without European Union membership (37.1 per cent), women accounted for over one third of all ministers. At the other end of the spectrum, female representation fell below the regional average in all eastern subregions in 2019, namely in South-Eastern Europe (24.3 per cent), newer European Union countries (20.2 per cent), Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (13.2 per cent) and Central Asia (6.4 per cent).¹³ Women accounted for less than 10 per cent of ministers in nine countries.

Share of women in ministerial positions



Source: IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union) and UN Women. Women in Politics: 2020. Geneva and New York: IPU and UN Women.

Violence and discrimination against women in politics constitutes a significant problem in the region, preventing them from seeking political office and engaging in political processes. A recent study based on voluntary one-to-one conversations with 123 women from 45 countries, encompassing members of parliament (81 women) and parliamentary staff (42 women), found that an overwhelming majority had been the target of online sexist attacks on social networks (58.2 per cent), had been the target of comments on their physical appearance or based on gender stereotypes (67.9 per cent) or had suffered psychological violence during their term of office (85.2 per cent).¹⁴ Around half had received death threats or threats of rape or a beating (46.9 per cent), and 24.7 and 14.8 per cent had suffered sexual and physical violence, respectively.¹⁵ Many respondents underscored the absence of a mechanism or service to which to direct complaints and seek support. Younger members of parliament and those working on gender equality issues were often singled out.¹⁶

Entrenched gender stereotypes perpetuate violence and discrimination against women in politics. From 2010 to 2014, half of women (49.5 per cent) and two thirds of men (66 per cent) in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus believed men make better political leaders than women.¹⁷ Attitudes towards women in politics were more negative in Central Asia, where 65.3 per cent of women and 77 per cent of men agreed with this statement.¹⁸ In contrast, these views were held by a minority of women and men in the Netherlands (7.9 and 13.8 per cent, respectively) and Sweden (9.2 and 12.3 per cent, respectively).¹⁹

Women's participation in decision-making in the private sector continues to significantly lag behind men's, particularly in managerial roles and on the boards of private companies. From 2013 to 2017, 37 per cent of all managerial positions were occupied by women, representing a slight increase from 33.6 per cent from 2003 to 2007. During the same period, the share of women in senior and middle-management positions increased from 32.1 to 35.6 per cent.²⁰ Countries in the eastern part of the region such as Poland (41.3 per cent), the Russian Federation (41.3 per cent), Slovenia (41.9 per cent), the Republic of Moldova (42 per cent), Latvia (46.3 per cent) and Belarus (47.6 per cent) were closest to achieving equal representation in managerial roles.²¹ This reflects the legacy of both World War II and communism, which boosted women's labour force participation and encouraged them to learn skills for jobs traditionally dominated by men.²² Women occupied one in every three seats on boards of the largest publicly listed companies (32.3 per cent) in EU-15 countries in 2019,

a threefold increase since 2005 (9 per cent). In newer European Union countries, however, progress was much slower during this period, from 12.1 to 16.9 per cent.²³ In Turkey, women's share nearly doubled between 2010 and 2019 from 9.7 to 18.1 per cent, while in the Russian Federation it stood at 10.6 per cent in 2019.²⁴

In most countries, gender parity has been achieved in the judiciary except for the highest courts. From 2015 to 2017, women comprised over half the region's judges (55.6 per cent), a share that was highest in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (60.9 per cent) and newer European Union countries (66.4 per cent).²⁵ Women accounted for just over a quarter of constitutional court judges during the same period (28 per cent).²⁶ Female representation in such courts was lowest in Turkey (5.9 per cent), Ukraine (11.1 per cent), Kazakhstan (14.3 per cent) and Spain (16.7 per cent), and highest in Germany (43.8 per cent), Georgia (44.4 per cent), Lithuania (44.4 per cent) and Slovenia (44.4 per cent), with no country achieving full equality.²⁷

Women were underrepresented among journalists in 11 of the 15 countries with sex-disaggregated data from 2016 to 2017, primarily in the western part of the region. Women equalled or outnumbered men only in Hungary (50 per cent), Denmark (52.1 per cent), Finland (52.4 per cent) and Slovenia (63.1 per cent). The largest gender gaps, where women were fewer than 4 of every 10 journalists, were observed in Portugal (39.7 per cent), Ireland (38 per cent), Croatia (36.3 per cent), Iceland (35.7 per cent), Israel (35.6 per cent) and Sweden (20 per cent).²⁸ High-level managerial and ownership positions in the media are predominantly occupied by men. For instance, women account for 30.2 per cent of media heads in Kazakhstan.²⁹

The underrepresentation and portrayal of women in the media perpetuates gender discrimination and stereotypes. A recent comparative study in selected European countries highlighted that in France, female characters enjoyed just 42 per cent of screen time, dropping to 29 per cent during peak programming (18.00 hours to 20.00 hours). Women were also significantly underrepresented among experts invited to speak on TV (35 per cent), including political experts (27 per cent).³⁰ In the United Kingdom, women older than 55 are seen less frequently on TV, while in Hungary, the number of female presenters and hosts decreased by more than 60 per cent above the age of 40.³¹

Most countries have gender equality policies in place, yet gender mainstreaming across all policy sectors is still far from becoming a reality.³² Gender is frequently mainstreamed in health and social protection policies, but lacking in the economic, financial and

environmental spheres.³³ **The process of developing and institutionalizing national gender equality machineries remains insufficient.** Gender equality mechanisms are predominantly placed within ministries, often those addressing social protection issues. In Iceland and Kazakhstan, among other countries, gender equality machineries operate within the office of the highest executive, while in Georgia, such a body functions as an interministerial council within the executive branch. Andorra and Turkmenistan have no gender equality machinery.³⁴ While placement within government institutions has an important bearing on their effectiveness, gender equality machineries are often hampered by the lack of adequate staff, training, data and resources. Other constraints come from inadequate support from political leadership, and complex and expanding mandates.³⁵ Some gender equality machineries have been weakened or marginalized in recent years. Effective gender mainstreaming requires breaking down silos and ensuring gender equality machineries have the mandate to support the integration of gender in all government policies and programmes in all areas.

Insufficient financing for gender equality constitutes one of the biggest barriers to its achievement. Several countries, particularly in Central Asia, and in parts of Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, rely almost entirely on donor-led and -funded short-term projects to advance gender equality initiatives, signalling a lack of political will.³⁶ As part of a more serious setback, Croatia, Hungary and Poland, among other countries in the eastern part of the region, have witnessed concerted efforts to restrict funding through attacks on international donors, cuts in public funding for progressive civil society organizations or shifts from institutional grants to tendering. These structural changes in support mechanisms are evidence of diminishing civic space.³⁷

Countries have advanced in developing, adopting and implementing methodologies for gender-responsive budgeting, yet much remains to be done. In 2018, among the nine countries with data in South-Eastern Europe, and Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, none fully met the three criteria — intent, allocation tracking and transparency³⁸ — to make systematic public budget allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment.³⁹ Azerbaijan and Montenegro did not meet any requirements, while Albania, Armenia, Belarus, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Georgia, the Republic of Moldova and Serbia met at least one of the three criteria.⁴⁰

Progress in the collection, analysis, dissemination and use of gender statistics remains uneven, particularly in South-Eastern Europe, Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, and Central Asia. This stems from low technical capacity, lack of political will, and inadequate resources.⁴¹ For instance, in 2018, the national statistical plans of Albania, the Republic of Moldova and Tajikistan were not fully funded, while national statistical legislation in Kyrgyzstan and Ukraine did not comply with the Fundamental Principles of Official Statistics.⁴² North Macedonia, Ukraine and Uzbekistan have not conducted population and housing censuses in the past 10 years, although the three countries are scheduled to conduct them in 2020 Census Round.⁴³ The low level of completeness of the Tajik civil registration and vital statistics system is equally worrying, with birth and death registration falling below the 90 and 75 per cent coverage thresholds, respectively, in 2017.⁴⁴

Regrettably, the adoption of the SDGs has not driven improved data collection practices on gender equality and women's empowerment in the eastern part of the region, where many countries remain unable to generate key SDG indicators, such as those measuring the prevalence of violence against women (indicator 5.2.1), time spent on unpaid domestic and care work (indicator 5.4.1), and the gender pay gap (indicator 8.5.1), among others.⁴⁵

The lack of disaggregated data by sex, and in terms of intersecting vulnerabilities, such as age, geographic location, disability status, HIV status, migratory status, ethnicity, race, and sexual orientation and gender identity, is a primary concern for all countries. Increasing demand for monitoring and reporting on the most vulnerable population groups⁴⁶ poses a number of challenges for the statistical community, including the need to increase the statistical sample in surveys to draw statistically significant conclusions on gender differences among and within smaller groups.

Finland developed the Gender Equality Barometer to provide information on opinions, attitudes and experiences related to gender equality in various areas of life. It is an important tool for assessing gender equality in the country.⁴⁷ Questions are revised annually to reflect topical issues and the need for new data. For example, in 2017, revisions addressed considerations on the diversity of gender, relationships and families, and online harassment. The data collected are no longer gender binary.⁴⁸

SNAPSHOT

Women are demanding equal power and representation in political life

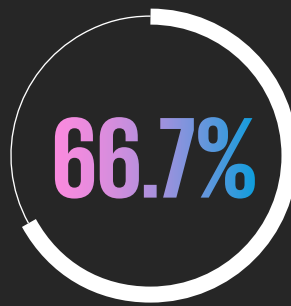


More women are in politics than ever before

Women's representation in national parliaments nearly

DOUBLED

between 2000 and 2019⁴⁹



of countries have electoral quotas for women⁵⁰

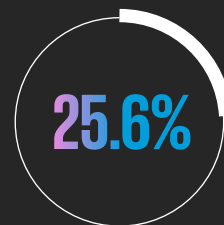
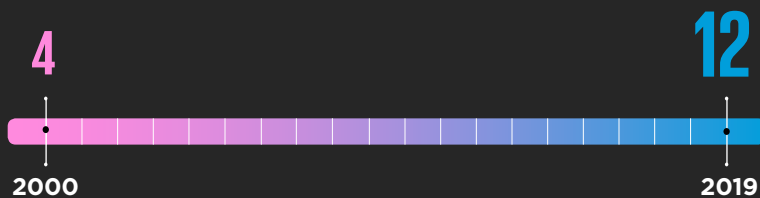
From 2018 to 2019, women held more than

1 in every 4

seats in deliberative bodies of local government

in 34 of 44 countries with data⁵¹

Number of women as **Heads of State or Government**⁵²



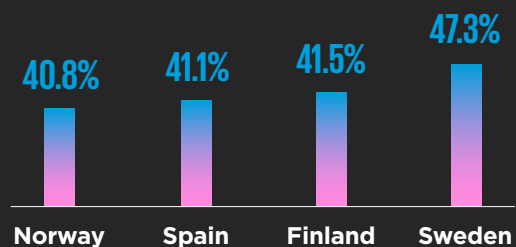
of ministerial positions

were held by women in 2019⁵³

Despite progress, women are still largely excluded from politics, policies, budgets and data collection

Across the region, women account for at least

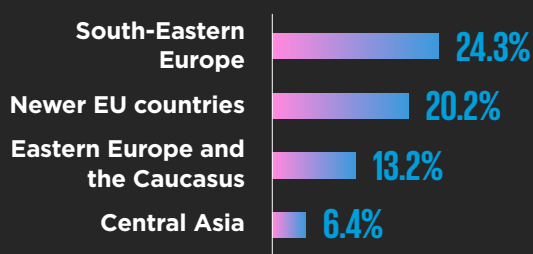
4 in every 10

 parliamentarians in just four countries⁵⁴

Female representation at the ministerial level

FALLS BELOW ▼

the regional average (25.6%) in all eastern subregions, namely⁵⁵



Among 9 countries

with data in South-Eastern Europe, and Eastern Europe and the Caucasus,

NONE

fully met 3 criteria

to systematically make and track public budget allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment in 2018⁵⁶

Many countries in the eastern part of the region

remain unable to generate data for key SDG indicators,

such as

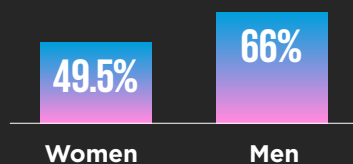
- ▶ prevalence of violence against women (indicator 5.2.1)
- ▶ time spent on unpaid domestic and care work (indicator 5.4.1)
- ▶ the gender pay gap (indicator 8.5.1)⁵⁷

Women in politics continue to face gender stereotypes and discrimination, threats and attacks

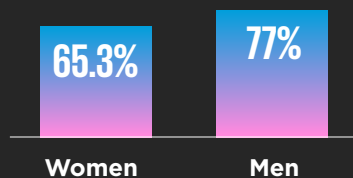
From 2010 to 2014,

half of women and two thirds of men

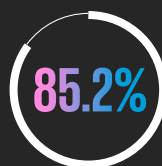
in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus **believed men make better political leaders than women**⁵⁸



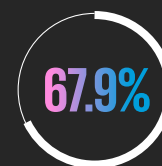
In Central Asia, shares agreeing with this statement were⁵⁹



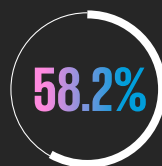
Women members of parliament and parliamentary staff from 45 countries (123 women interviewed) reported that:⁶⁰



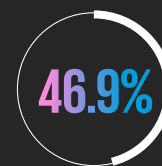
had suffered psychological violence during their term of office



had been the target of comments on their physical appearance or based on gender stereotypes



had been the target of online sexist attacks on social networks



had received death threats or threats of rape or a beating

DIMENSION 5:

PEACEFUL AND INCLUSIVE SOCIETIES

Progress in implementing the women, peace and security agenda in the region remains uneven. The progressive adoption of national action plans (NAPs) to carry forward United Nations Security Council resolution 1325 on women, peace and security has not been accompanied by firm financial commitments. While women have a critical role to play in times of conflict and crisis, they remain underrepresented in peace negotiations and in the military, police and diplomatic sectors. In recent years, the region has witnessed a spike in refugee and asylum-seeking populations, with women facing heightened vulnerabilities. Women human rights defenders confront rising repression and violence in some parts of the region, and intersectional and multiple forms of discrimination continue to impede efforts to reach women who are furthest behind.

While nearly two thirds of countries have adopted NAPs for resolution 1325 (64.3 per cent), the lack of adequate financing constitutes a major barrier to implementation.¹ Since 2005, 36 countries and Kosovo² have developed NAPs; some have adopted second- and third-generation plans.³ Yet only eight countries – Albania, Canada, Kosovo, the Netherlands, Serbia, Sweden, Ukraine and the United Kingdom – costed or budgeted their NAPs at the time of adoption.⁴ In Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, Central Asia and South-Eastern Europe, seven countries have not developed NAPs: Azerbaijan, Belarus, Kazakhstan, the Russian Federation, Turkey, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.⁵ In the western part of the region, Greece and Israel remain the two most notable examples of the failure to develop NAPs.⁶

A recent desk-based analysis of 75 NAPs elaborated by members of the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) from 2005 to mid-2019 indicates positive trends in the number of issues covered by the plans, particularly around the prevention and participation pillars.⁷ Emerging women, peace and security issues, such as disasters and violent extremism, have been increasingly reflected in the plans.⁸ Other signs of positive progress are the increased specificity of monitoring and evaluation components, and greater use of inclusive practices, although civil society engagement continues to lag behind.⁹ Budgeting remains a concern, with most NAPs not featuring agency- or programme-specific financial allocations, and even lacking broadly defined budgets.¹⁰

The limited capacity and commitment of key stakeholders involved in NAP implementation results in such financial shortages, which can limit gender-sensitive conflict prevention, peacebuilding and negotiations for peace restoration. The women, peace and security agenda continues to be considered secondary to national security policy, with laws and policies lacking context-specific and gender-sensitive analysis, and primarily focusing on women as victims. A complex set of patriarchal social norms, including common stereotypes that security-related issues are traditionally men's issues, continue to reinforce these gaps and place women in a disadvantageous position.

Today, the rise in violent extremism and its deeply misogynist ideology poses a threat to regional security and the implementation of the women, peace and security agenda.¹¹ Yet this may also open opportunities to capitalize on women's roles in conflict prevention, and increase their participation in national and regional

² All references to Kosovo should be understood to be in the context of United Nations Security Council resolution 1244 (1999).

security processes.¹² Women and girls are differently affected by violent extremism. They are often the first victims of violent extremist groups, experiencing horrific violations of their rights. They may also be perpetrators of violent extremism themselves, including through support for family members. Their association with violent extremist groups is due to a complex combination of factors, often involving coercion, co-option, enslavement, kidnapping or subjugation in their communities, among other issues.¹³ In many cases, the lack of consistent and coherent policies on returnee women and girls associated with terrorist or extremist groups renders them prone to abuse.¹⁴

Recent research suggests that women foreign terrorist fighters are returning at a considerably lower rate than men and children.¹⁵

Globally, only between 3 and 4 per cent of the 7,366 recorded returnees from Iraq and the Syrian Arab Republic were women, despite comprising between 10 to 13 per cent of all Islamic State affiliates.¹⁶ At the subregional level, women account for less than one in every four Islamic State affiliates in Western Europe (16 to 17 per cent), Eastern Europe (12 to 23 per cent) and Central Asia (10 to 13 per cent), and for less than 1 in every 10 returnees from these subregions (Western Europe, 8 per cent; Eastern Europe, 5 per cent; and Central Asia, less than 1 per cent).¹⁷

Women’s direct participation in peace and conflict negotiations increases the sustainability and quality of peace.

A global study investigating 82 peace agreements for 42 armed conflicts between 1989 and 2011 found that agreements with women signatories were associated with durable peace.¹⁸ The same study discovered that such agreements have a higher number of provisions aimed at political reform and a greater implementation rate.¹⁹ Another global study based on an analysis of 98 peace agreements involving 55 countries between 2000 and 2016 found that they are more likely to have gender provisions when women participate in official and high-level talks or unofficial dialogues that support the main negotiations.²⁰

In Europe and Central Asia, women’s participation in peace processes remains low, despite some progress.

Ten years after the launch of the Geneva International Discussions on the conflict in Georgia, women comprise 30 per cent of negotiators.²¹ In Ukraine, low women’s engagement has been evident in high-level talks on the settlement of the international armed conflict in certain areas of the Donetsk and Luhansk regions, as well as in peacekeeping.²² Nonetheless, this represents an improvement from the late 1990s and early 2000s, when women accounted for a very minor share of negotiators. In conflict-affected countries and the European Union, consistent support has been offered to

build the capacity and support the inclusion of women mediators in active negotiations.²³

Share of women involved in Peace Processes

Bosnia	0%	(Dayton Agreement, 1995)
Croatia	11%	(Erdut Agreement, 1995)
Northern Ireland	10%	(Good Friday Agreement, 1998)
Kosovo	3%	(Rambouillet Accords, 1999)
North Macedonia	5%	(Ohrid Agreement, 2001)

Source: Council on Foreign Relations. 2020. Women’s Participation in Peace Processes. Accessed 28 June 2020. <https://www.cfr.org/womens-participation-in-peace-processes>.

Peace agreements have rarely included gender-sensitive language.

Between 1995 and 2019, only 23 of the 241 peace agreements signed by countries in the region included provisions specifically addressing women’s inclusion and rights.²⁴ Less than 1 in every 10 peace agreements (9.5 per cent) made explicit references to women, girls, widows, mothers or lactating women; to violence against women and girls, including sexual violence; or to resolution 1325 or the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW).²⁵

Women remain underrepresented in the military, police and diplomatic corps, most notably in conflict-affected countries.

In the eastern part of the region, women held less than 2 of every 10 armed forces jobs from 2013 to 2019 in the seven countries with data: the Czech Republic (7.4 per cent), Croatia (8.9 per cent), Albania (13 per cent), Armenia (13.8 per cent), Hungary (14.5 per cent), Cyprus (14.9 per cent) and Bulgaria (15.3 per cent).²⁶ In the western part of the region, women in the Netherlands and Norway accounted for 8 and 26.9 per cent of all those employed in armed forces positions, respectively.²⁷ Countries have made progress in increasing women’s representation in the military in recent years. For instance, women have been integrated into United Nations and North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) military missions for the first time in Albania, held senior decision-making and command positions in the armed forces of Slovenia, and gained access to all combat positions in the United Kingdom.²⁸

On average, men largely outnumbered women in the police in the 33 countries with data from 2012 to 2017, holding more than 8 out of every 10 staff positions (83.3 per cent).²⁹

Women’s share of police staff exceeds one third in Estonia (35 per cent), Latvia (36.8 per cent) and Lithuania (38.6 per cent). Sweden is the only country where women outnumber men (66.3 per cent).³⁰

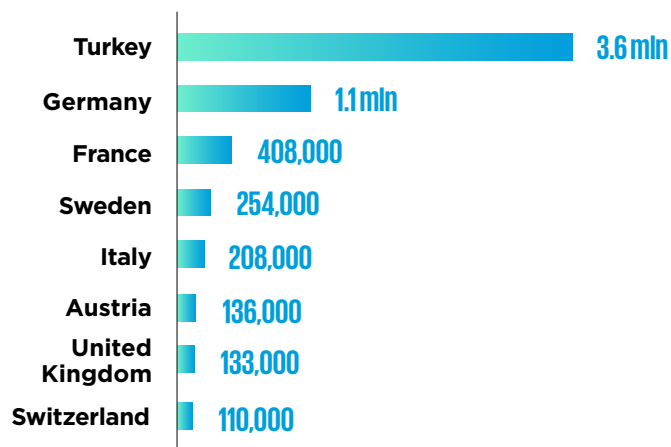
Conversely, women hold less than 10 per cent of staff positions in the police in Albania (9.8 per cent), Georgia (9.5 per cent), Italy (8.4 per cent), Portugal (7.8 per cent) and Turkey (6.1 per cent).

Women are underrepresented at the highest diplomatic ranks, accounting for just 21.7 per cent of all ambassadors in the 32 countries with data from 2012 to 2017.³¹ A great degree of variation exists, with female representation being generally higher in the western part of the region. For instance, women head more than a third of embassies from Ireland (35.2 per cent), Estonia (36.6 per cent), Slovenia (40 per cent), Canada (43.1 per cent), Sweden (45.3 per cent) and Finland (45.6 per cent). In contrast, women account for less than 15 per cent of all ambassadors in Montenegro (14.7 per cent), Israel (12.5 per cent), Spain (12.1 per cent), Italy (10.8 per cent), Georgia (10.3 per cent), Armenia (7.5 per cent), Belarus (7 per cent), Kazakhstan (3.5 per cent) and Ukraine (1.5 per cent).³²

In recent years, the region has witnessed a spike in refugee and asylum-seeking populations, primarily as a result of conflicts in Afghanistan, Iraq and the Syrian Arab Republic. At the end of 2019, the region's countries were home to 7 million refugees and 2.2 million asylum seekers.³³ Refugee populations remained considerably lower in the eastern part of the region with the exception of the Russian Federation (42,000), Serbia, Kosovo (26,000) and Bulgaria (20,000).³⁴

Number of refugees in selected countries

Number of refugees in selected countries



Source: UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees). 2020. UNHCR Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2019 Data. Accessed 30 June 2019. <https://data.humdata.org/dataset/unhcr-global-trends-forced-displacement-in-2019-data>.

Women outnumbered men among refugee populations in only 3 of the 16 countries with complete sex-disaggregated data: Montenegro (53.6 per cent), Bosnia and Herzegovina (57.7 per cent) and Turkmenistan (61.3 per cent), all of which are home to small refugee

populations.³⁵ In Turkey, less than half of all refugees were women (46 per cent) and around 2 in every 10 were girls under 18 (22 per cent).³⁶ In Germany, these shares stood at 38.5 and 14.7 per cent, respectively.³⁷ Women and girls are among the most vulnerable to different forms of violence that take root in times of war and displacement, including sexual violence and exploitation, child marriage and human trafficking.³⁸

Germany and Turkey each hosted over 300,000 asylum seekers at the end of 2019, who were 45.9 and 35.5 per cent female, respectively.³⁹ As primary destinations, both countries spent significant resources to respond to the sevenfold increase in applications for asylum and international protection, and in the case of Germany, to support migrant women's integration.⁴⁰ In Sweden, women's asylum applications are examined separately, and payments to asylum seekers are granted individually, rather than on a family basis.⁴¹ Numerous countries in the European Union and South-Eastern Europe affected by the migration crisis developed targeted initiatives to ensure access to health care, social welfare services and employment for women migrants.⁴²

Since 2014, a few countries have recognized gender-based forms of persecution as a basis for claiming asylum and international protection.⁴³ In most contexts, however, women and girls who seek asylum on such grounds face legal obstacles in obtaining recognition of their refugee status. This is due in particular to judicial interpretations of the category "membership in a particular social group", as well as the refusal of judges to recognize rape and sexual violence as a form of persecution rather than an individual crime.⁴⁴ For instance, on an application in the United Kingdom by a victim of rape from Afghanistan in the early 2000s, the initial adjudicator refused to recognize the rape as persecution because "the only reason for the rape of the Appellant in Takhar was because her assailant found her attractive, and therefore that the attack was a purely personal one, and no more than a common crime".⁴⁵ The decision was overturned on appeal.⁴⁶

Some countries have made progress in ensuring access to justice for women victims of conflict-related sexual violence, as enshrined in Security Council resolutions 1820 (2008), 1888 (2009) and 1960 (2010). Bosnia and Herzegovina amended the State-level Criminal Code in 2015, removing references to the use of force in the definition of rape as a crime against humanity.⁴⁷ Entity-level legal amendments now regulate the rights of survivors of conflict-related sexual violence, including their access to reparations. In 2016, Croatia passed the Act on the Rights of Victims of Sexual Violence During the Armed Aggression Against the Republic of

Croatia in the Homeland War.⁴⁸ Prior to its adoption, war crimes victims could only receive indemnification through individual criminal proceedings brought against perpetrators. The Act regulates the rights of survivors of conflict-related sexual violence to both indemnification and services. Despite the legal advances in both countries, however, survivors continue to be stigmatized through the lack of awareness and capacity of judicial and other authorities.⁴⁹ In 2015, Kosovo passed the Regulation on Defining the Procedures for Recognition and Verification of the Status of Sexual Violence Victims During the Kosovo Liberation War, offering victims reparations such as a personal disability pension, access to health services abroad for health conditions that are a consequence of war and for which no domestic treatment is available, and priority in public and private employment, among others.⁵⁰

Women, girls and gender non-conforming people standing up for human rights have faced increased repression and violence, particularly in the eastern part of the region following the rise of conservative movements.⁵¹ Since 2015, the United Nations has recorded and verified 187 killings of female human rights defenders, journalists and trade unionists in 41 countries across the globe.⁵² In the region, egregious incidents involving women human rights defenders, women journalists and their families have recently been recorded in Albania, Kazakhstan, Malta and Ukraine.⁵³ Experts from national women's machineries and civil society organizations in South-Eastern Europe have warned about an increase in hate messages on social media inciting violence against women in political and other leadership positions, as well as against feminist and LGBTIQ organizations.⁵⁴ The protection of human rights defenders has seldom been addressed in public policy frameworks, however. In 2017, the United Kingdom developed Guidelines for Working with Human Rights Defenders, including women human rights defenders, while Sweden adopted the Action Plan Defending Free Speech to protect journalists, elected representatives and artists from exposure to hatred and threats.⁵⁵

Intersectional and multiple forms of discrimination continue to impede efforts to reach marginalized and vulnerable women, including women with disabilities, ethnic minorities, poor women, migrants and refugees, LBTQI and sex workers, among others.⁵⁶ Yet some landmark achievements have occurred. For example, Ireland passed the Marriage Act and Children and Family Relationships Act recognizing same-sex marriage and family relations.⁵⁷ Malta amended its Constitution and the Marriage Equality Act to recognize same-sex marriage and civil unions, while Cyprus established civil partnerships for same sex couples in 2015.⁵⁸ In Belgium, as of 2016, married mothers are automatically

recognized as parents without having to undergo adoption proceedings, and transgender persons can modify their civil status without medical procedures. In 2019, Iceland approved a bill enabling persons above the age of 15 to define their own gender.⁵⁹

Nearly 4 in every 10 dollars spent by members of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) on bilateral aid targeted gender equality as a principal (primary) or significant (secondary) objective (37 per cent), amounting to a total of USD 41.7 billion in 2015-2016.⁶⁰ Bilateral agreements targeting gender equality as a principal objective, however, only represented 4 per cent of total aid expenditure or USD 4.6 billion.⁶¹ Belgium and Canada dedicate between 60 and 70 per cent of their official development assistance (ODA) to gender equality, either as a principal or significant objective. The share exceeds 80 per cent in Iceland, Ireland and Sweden.⁶² Between 20 and 30 per cent of ODA from Turkey, the Czech Republic and Slovenia targets gender equality.⁶³ France and Sweden have explicitly qualified their foreign policy and assistance as feminist, while the Netherlands applies feminist principles to ODA.⁶⁴ Many donor countries have continued to provide financial support to international justice fora and mechanisms, including the Trust Fund for Victims linked to the International Criminal Court, and the Call to Action on Protection from Gender-based Violence in Emergencies, among others.⁶⁵

The women, peace and security agenda remains severely underfunded. While globally, the overall share of bilateral aid for the promotion of gender equality in conflict-affected contexts has increased since 2010, the proportion going to programmes with gender equality as the primary objective has stagnated at under 5 per cent, relying on a very small group of major donors.⁶⁶ Women's leadership continues to be impeded by lack of access to sustainable funding sources, with only 0.2 per cent of bilateral aid to conflict-affected contexts going directly to women's organizations from 2016 to 2017.⁶⁷

In Europe and Central Asia, services and programmes to address gender-based violence in emergencies remain underresourced. In 2019, the Ukraine Humanitarian Response Plan raised just USD 400,000 or 12.9 per cent of the USD 3.2 million needed to address gender-based violence.⁶⁸ This represented a sharp decrease from the previous year, when USD 1.8 million was provided of the required USD 2.5 million (72 per cent). In both years, resources to address gender-based violence were the lowest amounts among all clusters and sectors, accounting for just 1.3 and 1.9 per cent of all resources stipulated under the 2018 and 2019 Humanitarian Response Plans, respectively.⁶⁹

SNAPSHOT

Women's leadership in building peaceful and inclusive societies has never been more urgent



Progress in implementing the women, peace and security agenda remains uneven

Since 2005,

36 countries and Kosovo have developed NAPs for resolution 1325

Yet

only 8 countries

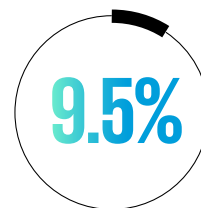
costed or budgeted NAPs at the time of adoption: Albania, Canada, Kosovo, the Netherlands, Serbia, Sweden, Ukraine and the United Kingdom⁷⁰

Despite their essential roles, women are often excluded from peace processes, and remain underrepresented in the military, police and diplomatic corps

Among the **nine countries** with data from 2013 to 2019 the share of women in the armed forces ranged⁷¹

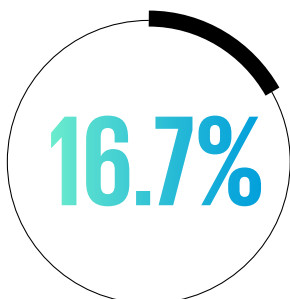


Between 1995 and 2019, just



of peace agreements signed by countries in the region **included provisions specifically addressing women's inclusion and rights**⁷²

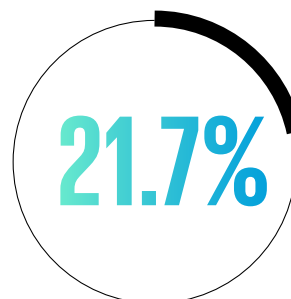
Women held on average



of staff positions in the police

in 33 countries with data from 2012 to 2017⁷³

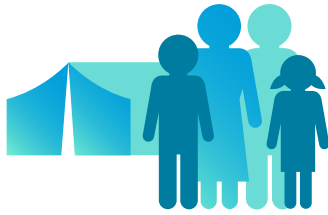
Women headed just



of embassies

from **32 countries** with data from 2012 to 2017⁷⁴

The region has witnessed a spike in refugee and asylum-seeking populations, requiring gender-specific policies and financing

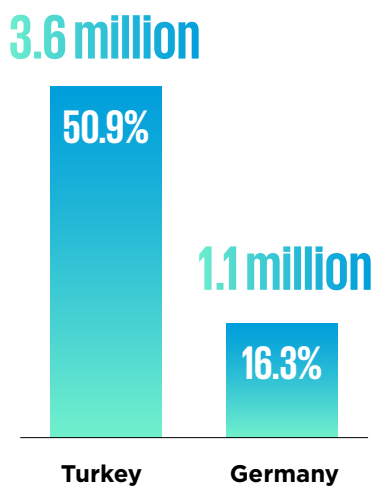


At the end of 2019 the region's countries were home to⁷⁵

7 million & 2.2 million
refugees asylum seekers

TWO THIRDS

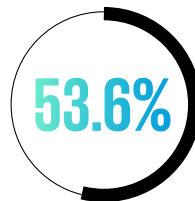
of the region's refugees were hosted by⁷⁶



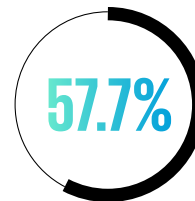
Women outnumbered men among refugee populations in

only 3 of the 16 countries ▲

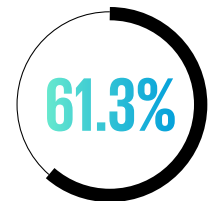
with complete sex-disaggregated data⁷⁷



Montenegro

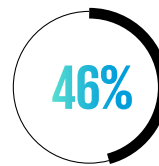


Bosnia and Herzegovina

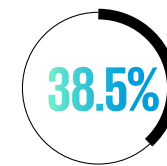


Turkmenistan

Women refugees accounted for:



Turkey



Germany

Since 2014, only a few countries have recognized

gender-based forms of persecution

as a basis for granting asylum and international protection⁷⁸



Services and programmes to address

violence against women and girls

in emergencies remain

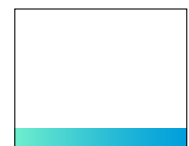
▼ **LARGELY UNDERFUNDED**

In 2019, only

1 IN EVERY 10

dollars needed to address violence against women and girls was raised under the Ukraine Humanitarian Response – 12.9% or⁷⁹

USD 400,000 out of USD 3.2 million



DIMENSION 6:

ENVIRONMENTAL CONSERVATION, PROTECTION AND REHABILITATION

Climate change and environmental degradation are among the most pressing issues facing the region and the world. They have decidedly gendered impacts in displacing communities, interrupting income generation, increasing unpaid labour burdens, and negatively affecting health, especially for women and girls. Yet gender perspectives and sex-disaggregated data on the impact of climate change are largely absent from national environmental protection, climate change and disaster-risk management policies, including in disaster-prone countries. Women remain underrepresented in public and private-sector positions in these fields. On the whole, governments, businesses and civil society must take transformative actions to mitigate and adapt to climate and environmental crises.

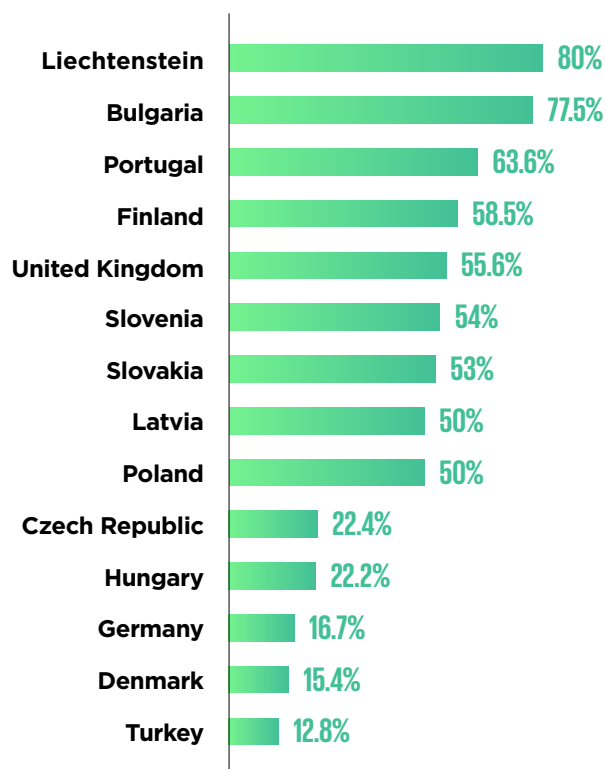
Few countries have integrated a gender perspective into environmental protection, climate change and disaster-risk management policies.¹ Only a handful of countries within the European Union have begun to adopt meaningful laws and policies,² although recent agreement on the European Green Deal by the European Commission is likely to build momentum. Sweden, for example, integrated gender into the Action Plan on a Toxic-Free Everyday Environment, as well as into environmental assessments and trainings on disaster management and civil defense.³ Gender has been prioritized in ODA on the environment, disaster-risk reduction and climate change by donor countries such as Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland.⁴ A few countries recently affected by natural disasters, such as Albania and Bosnia and Herzegovina, have

begun to address disparate gender impacts and mainstream gender into disaster risk management.⁵

Across the region, women remain underrepresented in environment and climate change positions in the public and private sectors.⁶ In 2019, women comprised a third or less of ministers responsible for the environment, transport and energy. They held 16.4 per cent of these positions in newer European Union countries, 20.8 per cent in countries in South-Eastern Europe, 23.5 per cent in Western European countries without European Union membership, and 34.9 per cent in EU-15 countries.⁷ Across these four subregions, women had no presence in such ministerial positions in 11 countries: Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Estonia, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Latvia, Malta, North Macedonia, Poland and Turkey.⁸ Conversely, they held at least half of such positions in seven countries: Austria (50 per cent), Belgium (50 per cent), Liechtenstein (50 per cent), Montenegro (50 per cent), Finland (66.7 per cent), France (75 per cent) and the Netherlands (80 per cent).⁹

Women's representation was significantly higher – but still below parity – among senior officials responsible for the environment, transport and energy in newer European Union countries (37.7 per cent), Western European countries without European Union membership (39.3 per cent) and EU-15 countries (45 per cent), and somewhat lower in South-Eastern Europe (17.8 per cent).¹⁰ In 2019, nine countries had achieved or surpassed parity in these areas.

Share of women senior officials responsible for the environment, transport and energy



Source: UN Women calculations using ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 5 July 2020. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.

In 2019, women accounted for less than a quarter of all persons employed in the utilities sector (22.5 per cent).¹¹ This share was lowest in South-Eastern Europe (2.5 per cent)¹² due to women's marginal presence in electricity, gas, water and waste management companies in Serbia (2.8 per cent), Bosnia and Herzegovina (1.8 per cent), North Macedonia (1.4 per cent) and Turkey (1.2 per cent).¹³ Women's levels of representation were higher in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (27 per cent),¹⁴ where women in the Russian Federation and Ukraine comprised 26.4 and 31.3 per cent of those employed in the utilities sector, respectively.¹⁵ Elsewhere in the region, women's higher representation stood out in Denmark (26.7 per cent), Portugal (27 per cent) and Kazakhstan (28.5 per cent).¹⁶ In Finland, efforts have been made to increase women's participation and leadership in related private-sector enterprises, including in clean energy and technology.¹⁷

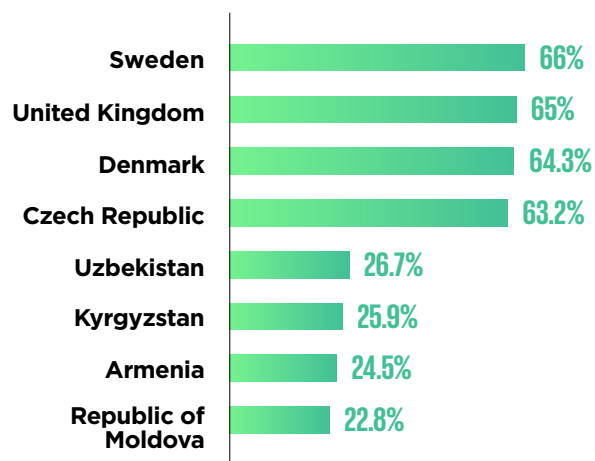
Women comprised a third of graduates from tertiary STEM programmes from 2014 to 2018, and outnumbered men among graduates in natural sciences, mathematics and statistics (53.4 per cent).¹⁸

Women accounted for around 6 in every 10 graduates from these three fields in South-Eastern Europe (59.7 per cent), Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (60.7 per

cent), Central Asia (61.5 per cent) and newer European Union countries (66.3 per cent).¹⁹ In the eastern subregions, women's overrepresentation was most evident in Albania (69.9 per cent), Poland (70.7 per cent), Bosnia and Herzegovina (71.9 per cent), Georgia (72.2 per cent) and Kyrgyzstan (72.9 per cent).²⁰ In contrast, a more gender-balanced picture emerged in the EU-15 countries, where women slightly outnumbered men (51 per cent).²¹ They were less likely than men to graduate from such programmes in Belgium (41.4 per cent), the Netherlands (43.8 per cent), Germany (46.8 per cent) and France (49 per cent).²²

Women accounted for just under half of all graduates from agriculture, forestry, fisheries and veterinary tertiary programmes from 2014 to 2018 (47.2 per cent).²³ Women dominated graduations from these fields in newer European Union countries (52.7 per cent), while virtual parity was observed in EU-15 countries (49.9 per cent).²⁴ Conversely, women were underrepresented among graduates in South-Eastern Europe (44.5 per cent), Eastern Europe and the Caucasus (38 per cent), and Central Asia (32.4 per cent).²⁵

Share of women who graduated from agriculture, forestry, fisheries and veterinary tertiary programmes



Source: UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). UIS.Stat. Accessed 5 July 2020. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.

The region's countries are on track to achieve gender parity in international fora addressing climate change. At the 25th United Nations Climate Change Conference in Madrid in December 2019, women were overrepresented in delegations from newer European Union countries (57.4 per cent), and slightly underrepresented in delegations from Western European countries without EU membership (48.1 per cent), EU-15 countries (45.9 per cent) and countries

in South-Eastern Europe (41.4 per cent).²⁶ Parity was achieved or surpassed by 20 out of the 37 countries with available data, including six countries where women accounted for more than 7 in every 10 delegates: Lithuania (71.4 per cent), Latvia (72.2 per cent), Slovenia (72.7 per cent), Liechtenstein (75 per cent), Bulgaria (76.9 per cent) and Finland (79.2 per cent).²⁷

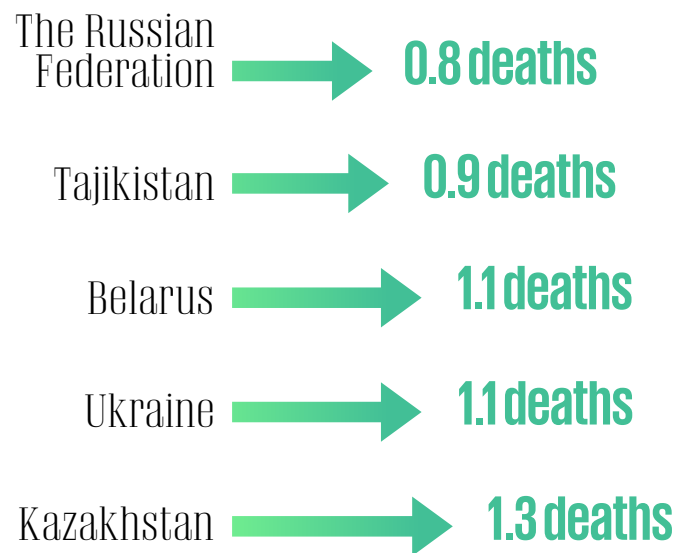
Women’s representation was considerably higher in national delegations participating in the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC) subsidiary bodies. In 2019, women comprised nearly half of delegates from countries in South-Eastern Europe (45.7 per cent) and EU-15 countries (48.8 per cent), and more than 6 in every 10 delegates from newer European Union countries (61.8 per cent) and Western European countries without European Union membership (62.5 per cent).²⁸ At this level, 25 out of 37 countries with available data had achieved or exceeded parity.²⁹ This pattern was also observed at the UNFCCC intersessional meetings in Bonn in June 2019, where women accounted for more than half of national delegates from Western European and other countries (52 per cent) and Eastern Europe (58 per cent).³⁰

The inadequate management of hazardous chemicals and pollution, and the associated impacts on the health of women and girls remain a concern in Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and Central Asia. In 2016, the regional female mortality rate attributed to unintentional poisonings stood at 0.5 deaths per 100,000 women, yet Eastern Europe and the Caucasus and Central Asia exceeded that at 0.8 deaths per 100,000 women.³¹ Conversely, female mortality was considerably lower in EU-15 countries (0.3 deaths per 100,000 women), newer European Union countries (0.2 deaths per 100,000 women), countries in South-Eastern Europe (0.2 deaths per 100,000 women) and Western European countries without European Union membership (0.1 deaths per 100,000 women).³² Men were on average twice as likely to die from unintentional poisonings as women (0.5 deaths per 100,000 women compared to 1 death per 100,000 men).³³ Across the region, female mortality exceeded that of males in three countries: Germany (0.2 deaths per 100,000 women compared to 0.1 deaths per 100,000 men), Italy (0.3 deaths per 100,000 women compared to 0.2 deaths per 100,000 men), and France (0.6 deaths per 100,000 women compared to 0.3 deaths per 100,000 men).³⁴

Women of reproductive age, and pregnant and lactating women in particular, are among the most susceptible if exposed to hazardous chemicals and pollution. Adverse sexual and reproductive health outcomes have recently been documented in Kazakhstan. Chronic exposure to high concentrations

of minerals and toxic pollutants through unsafe drinking water, due to water scarcity caused by the Aral Sea crisis, has increased maternal morbidity and mortality, infertility, and pregnancy and fetal development complications.³⁵

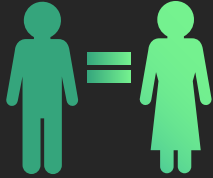
Female mortality rates due to unintentional poisoning in selected countries per 100,000 women



Source: United Nations Statistics Division. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.

The lack of clean fuels and technologies poses serious health risks to women and children, who are generally the main procurers and users of household energy.³⁶ In 2018, in Uzbekistan, at least 15 per cent of the population did not primarily rely on clean fuels and technology. This share stood at 19 per cent in Georgia and Tajikistan, 20 per cent in Albania, 23 per cent in Kyrgyzstan, 25 per cent in Romania, 34 per cent in Serbia, 35 per cent in North Macedonia, 44 per cent in Montenegro, and 55 per cent in Bosnia and Herzegovina.³⁷ Often, wood, crop wastes, charcoal, coal, dung or kerosene, among other unclean fuels, are used with inefficient technologies such as open fires and leaky stoves, leading to high levels of household air pollution.³⁸ In 2016, nearly 27,000 women across the region died prematurely after being significantly exposed to household air pollution.³⁹ Over three quarters of such deaths occurred in Tajikistan (1,088 deaths), Uzbekistan (1,454 deaths), Bosnia and Herzegovina (1,456 deaths), Georgia (1,472 deaths), Serbia (2,574 deaths), Ukraine (3,215 deaths), Romania (4,530 deaths) and the Russian Federation (4,559 deaths).⁴⁰

SNAPSHOT



Climate justice and environmental sustainability depend on **GENDER EQUALITY AND WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP**

National policy agendas must urgently prioritize the integration of gender perspectives into environmental protection, climate change and disaster-risk management strategies

Only a few countries in the European Union have begun

to adopt meaningful laws and policies

in these fields,⁴¹ although recent agreement on the European Green Deal by the European Commission is likely to build momentum

Countries recently affected by natural disasters, such as

Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Serbia,

have begun to address disparate gender impacts and mainstream gender into disaster risk management⁴²

Developing the capacities of women and communities on disaster preparedness and response, and establishing systemic approaches to disseminate information during such events

remain central concerns

Women are underrepresented in environment and climate change positions in the public and private sectors

In 2019, women comprised a third or less of ministers responsible for the environment, transport and energy

Newer European Union countries

16.4%

South-Eastern European countries

20.8%

Western European countries without EU membership

23.5%

EU-15 countries⁴³

34.9%

In 2019, women accounted for

LESS THAN A QUARTER

of people employed in the utilities sector (22.5%), with the lowest share,

2.5%

in South-Eastern Europe⁴⁴

From 2014 to 2018, women

▲ outnumbered men among graduates in the natural sciences, mathematics and statistics (53.4%), and **▼ were underrepresented**

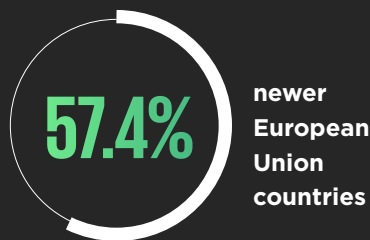
among graduates from agriculture, forestry, fisheries and veterinary tertiary programmes (47.2%)⁴⁵

Significant progress has been made towards achieving gender parity in climate negotiations

At the 25th UNFCCC Conference of Parties in Madrid in December 2019

▲ women outnumbered men in delegations from

▼ they were slightly underrepresented in delegations from



At the UNFCCC intersessional meetings in Bonn in June 2019

WOMEN ACCOUNTED FOR MORE THAN HALF of national delegates

52% Western European and other countries

58% Eastern European countries⁴⁷

Polluting and unsustainable strategies of economic growth must be replaced by new green models that put ecological and social well-being first

In 2016, nearly

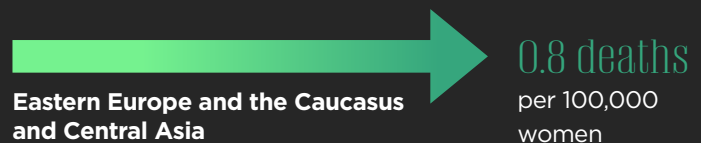


27,000 Women

across the region died prematurely

after being significantly exposed to household air pollution⁴⁸

The inadequate management of hazardous chemicals and pollution, and the associated impacts on the health of women and girls remain major concerns. In 2016 **mortality rates from unintentional poisoning** were



ANNEX 1. SUB-REGIONAL GROUPINGS

The Europe and Central Asia region comprises seven subregions:

South-Eastern Europe

Albania
Bosnia and Herzegovina
Montenegro
North Macedonia
Serbia
Turkey

Eastern Europe and the Caucasus

Armenia
Azerbaijan
Belarus
Georgia
Republic of Moldova
Russian Federation
Ukraine

Central Asia

Kazakhstan
Kyrgyzstan
Tajikistan
Turkmenistan
Uzbekistan

Newer European Union countries

Bulgaria
Croatia
Cyprus
Czech Republic
Estonia
Hungary
Latvia
Lithuania
Malta
Poland
Romania
Slovakia
Slovenia

References to *eastern subregions* and to *countries in the eastern part of the region* refer to the subregions of South-Eastern Europe, Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, Central Asia and newer European Union countries.

EU-15 countries

Austria
Belgium
Denmark
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Ireland
Italy
Luxembourg
Netherlands
Portugal
Spain
Sweden
United Kingdom

Western European countries without EU membership

Andorra
Iceland
Liechtenstein
Monaco
Norway
San Marino
Switzerland

North America and Israel

Canada
Israel
United States of America

References to *western subregions* and to *countries in the western part of the region* refer to the subregions of EU-15 countries, Western European countries without European Union membership, and North America and Israel.

ENDNOTES

Introduction

1 References to the eastern subregions and to countries in the eastern part of the region refer to the subregions of South-Eastern Europe, Eastern Europe and the Caucasus, Central Asia and newer European Union countries. References to the western subregions and

countries in the western part of the region refer to the subregions of EU-15 countries, Western European countries without European Union membership, and North America and Israel.

Dimension 1

- 1 UN Women calculations using ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 2 Ibid.
- 3 Ibid.
- 4 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women. <https://eca.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2020/03/regional-assessment-of-implementation-of-the-beijing-declaration-and-platform-for-action>.
- 5 UN Women calculations using ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 6 Ibid.
- 7 ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 8 UN Women calculations using ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 9 ILO (International Labour Organization). 2010. Vulnerable employment on the rise. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://www.ilo.org/global/about-the-ilo/newsroom/features/WCMS_120470/lang-en/index.htm.
- 10 UN Women calculations using ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 11 Ibid.
- 12 ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 13 UN Women calculations using ILO. 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 14 ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 15 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 16 Ibid.
- 17 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 18 Ibid.
- 19 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 20 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 21 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.

- 22 UN Women calculations using ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 23 Ibid.
- 24 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 25 UN Women calculations using UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 12 November 2019. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 26 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 27 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 28 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 29 UN Women calculations using UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 30 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 31 Ibid.
- 32 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 33 Ibid.
- 34 ADC Memorial. 2020. All jobs for all women – About bans. Accessed 15 June 2020. <https://adcmemorial.org/en/all-jobs4all-women/>.
- 35 Ibid.
- 36 Ibid.
- 37 Ibid.
- 38 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 39 Ibid.
- 40 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 41 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 42 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.

- 43 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 44 Ibid.
- 45 Ibid.
- 46 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 47 Ibid.
- 48 Ibid.
- 49 Ibid.
- 50 Ibid.
- 51 Ibid.
- 52 Ibid.
- 53 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 54 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 55 World Bank. 2020. Women's property rights are the key to economic development. Accessed 4 September 2020. <https://blogs.worldbank.org/developmenttalk/womens-property-rights-are-key-economic-development>.
- 56 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 57 Ibid.
- 58 Ibid.
- 59 Ibid.
- 60 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 61 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 62 UN Women calculations using ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 63 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 64 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 65 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 66 UN Women calculations using UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 67 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 68 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 69 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 70 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 71 Ibid.
- 72 Ibid.
- 73 UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). 2018. Regional Roma Survey 2017. Country fact sheets. Istanbul: UNDP.

Dimension 2

- 1 UN Women calculations using United Nations Population Division. 2019. World Population Prospects 2019. Online edition. Rev. 1. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://population.un.org/wpp/>.
- 2 Ibid.
- 3 Ibid.
- 4 Ibid.
- 5 Ibid.
- 6 Ibid.
- 7 UN Women calculations using WHO (World Health Organization). 2019. Global Health Estimates. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/en/.
- 8 Ibid.
- 9 Ibid.
- 10 UN Women calculations using United Nations Population Division. 2019. World Population Prospects 2019. Online edition. Rev. 1. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://population.un.org/wpp/>.
- 11 Ibid.
- 12 Ibid.
- 13 UN Women. 2012. Between Gender and Ageing: The Status of the World's Older Women and Progress Since the Madrid International Plan of Action on Ageing. New York: UN Women.
- 14 Ibid.
- 15 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe) and UNFPA (United Nations Population Fund). 2018. Fulfilling the Potential of Present and Future Generations: Report on ICPD Programme of Action Implementation in the UNECE Region. Geneva and Istanbul: UNECE and UNFPA.
- 16 Ibid.
- 17 WHO (World Health Organization) Europe. "Health and social care systems". Accessed 21 September 2019. <https://www.euro.who.int/en/health-topics/Life-stages/healthy-ageing/data-and-statistics/health-and-social-care-systems>.
- 18 Ibid.
- 19 Ibid.
- 20 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe) and UNFPA (United Nations Population Fund). 2018. Fulfilling the Potential of Present and Future Generations: Report on ICPD Programme of Action Implementation in the UNECE Region. Geneva and Istanbul: UNECE and UNFPA.
- 21 United Nations Population Division. 2019. World Population Prospects 2019. Online edition. Rev. 1. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://population.un.org/wpp/>.
- 22 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 23 Ibid.

- 24 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 25 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 26 Ibid.
- 27 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 28 Eurostat. 2019. EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/data/database>.
- 29 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 30 Ibid.
- 31 Ibid.
- 32 Council of Europe and Commissioner for Human Rights. 2017. Women's Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights in Europe. Issue paper. Strasbourg: Council of Europe and Commissioner for Human Rights.
- 33 UN Women calculations using United Nations Population Division. 2020. Estimates and Projections of Family Planning Indicators 2020. Accessed 5 June 2020. https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/theme/family-planning/cp_model.asp, and United Nations Population Division. 2020. Estimates and Projections of Women of Reproductive Age Who Are Married or in a Union: 2020 Revision. Accessed 5 June 2020. https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/theme/marriage-unions/marriage_estimates.asp
- 34 Ibid.
- 35 Ibid.
- 36 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 37 Ibid.
- 38 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 39 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 40 UN Women calculations using United Nations Population Division. 2019. World Population Prospects 2019. Online edition. Rev. 1. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://population.un.org/wpp/>.
- 41 United Nations Population Division. 2019. World Population Prospects 2019. Online edition. Rev. 1. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://population.un.org/wpp/>.
- 42 BZgA (Federal Center for Health Education) and IPPF (International Planned Parenthood Federation). 2018. Sexuality Education in Europe and Central Asia: State of the Art and Recent Developments. Cologne and Brussels: BZgA and IPPF.
- 43 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 44 Ibid.
- 45 Ibid.
- 46 UNFPA (United Nations Population Fund). 2015. Preventing Cervical Cancer in Eastern Europe and Central Asia. Issue Brief 5. Istanbul: UNFPA.
- 47 WHO (World Health Organization). 2015. Beyond the Mortality Advantage: Investigating Women's Health in Europe. Copenhagen: WHO.
- 48 Altobelli, E. et al. 2017. "Breast cancer screening programmes across the WHO European Region: differences among countries based on national income level". *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health* 14, supp. 4: 452.
- 49 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 50 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 51 Ibid.
- 52 UNAIDS (Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS). 2018. Miles to go. The Response to HIV in Eastern Europe and Central Asia. Geneva: UNAIDS.
- 53 Ibid.
- 54 Ibid.
- 55 Ibid.
- 56 Ibid.
- 57 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 58 Ibid.
- 59 UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 12 November 2019. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 60 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 61 Ibid.
- 62 UN Women calculations using UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 12 November 2019. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 63 Ibid.
- 64 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 65 UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 12 November 2019. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 66 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 67 Ibid.
- 68 UN Women calculations using Eurostat. 2019. EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/data/database>.
- 69 Eurostat. 2019. EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/data/database>.
- 70 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 71 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 72 Ibid.
- 73 EIGE. 2019. Tackling the gender pay gap: not without better work-life balance. Vilnius: EIGE.
- 74 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.

- 75 Ibid.
- 76 UN Women calculations using UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 12 November 2019. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 77 UN Women calculations using WHO (World Health Organization). 2019. Global Health Estimates. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://www.who.int/healthinfo/global_burden_disease/en/.
- 78 EIGE. 2019. Tackling the gender pay gap: not without better work-life balance. Vilnius: EIGE.
- 79 Ibid.
- 80 Eurostat. 2019. EU Statistics on Income and Living Conditions. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/web/income-and-living-conditions/data/database>.
- 81 EIGE. 2018. Study and work in the EU: set apart by gender. Review of implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in EU member States. Vilnius: EIGE.
- 82 United Nations Population Division. 2020. Estimates and Projections of Family Planning Indicators 2020. Accessed 5 June 2020. https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/theme/family-planning/cp_model.asp, and United Nations Population Division. 2020. Estimates and Projections of Women of Reproductive Age Who Are Married or in a Union: 2020 Revision. Accessed 5 June 2020.
- 83 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 84 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 85 UN Women calculations using United Nations Population Division. 2019. International Migrant Stock 2019. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/data/estimates2/estimates19.asp>.
- 86 UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). 2018. Regional Roma Survey 2017. Country fact sheets. Istanbul: UNDP.

Dimension 3

- 1 Council of Europe. 2019. Chart of signatures and ratifications of Treaty 210. Accessed 8 June 2020. <https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/full-list/-/conventions/treaty/210/signatures>.
- 2 Ibid.
- 3 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 4 Ibid.
- 5 Ibid.
- 6 Ibid.
- 7 Ibid.
- 8 World Bank. 2020. Women, Business and the Law 2020. Accessed 15 June 2020. <https://wbl.worldbank.org/>.
- 9 Ibid.
- 10 Ibid.
- 11 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 12 Ibid.
- 13 Ibid.
- 14 UNODC (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime). 2018. Global Study on Homicide. Vienna: UNODC.
- 15 OSCE (Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe). 2019. OSCE-led survey on violence against women. Vienna: OSCE.
- 16 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 17 Ibid.
- 18 Ibid.
- 19 R. Inglehart et al., eds. 2014. World Values Survey: Round Six - Country-Pooled Datafile Version. Madrid: JD Systems Institute. <http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/WVSDocumentationWV6.jsp>. Respondents were asked to indicate whether it is justifiable for a man to beat his wife on a scale of 1 (never justifiable) to 10 (always justifiable). The proportions shown here include responses ranging from 2 to 10.
- 20 Ibid.
- 21 Ibid.
- 22 Ibid.
- 23 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 24 GREVIO is the independent expert body responsible for monitoring the implementation of the Istanbul Convention by States parties. GREVIO elaborates reports evaluating legislative and other measures taken by the parties to give effect to the provisions of the Convention. In cases where action is required to prevent a serious, massive or persistent pattern of any acts of violence covered by the Convention, GREVIO may initiate a special inquiry procedure. GREVIO may also adopt, where appropriate, general recommendations on themes and concepts of the Convention. GREVIO's membership is governed by Article 66 of the Istanbul Convention.
- 25 Ibid.
- 26 Ibid.
- 27 Ibid.
- 28 Ibid.
- 29 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 30 Ibid.
- 31 Ibid.
- 32 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 33 Ibid.
- 34 FRA (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights). 2014. Violence against women: an EU-wide survey: Main results. Vienna: FRA.
- 35 Ibid.
- 36 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 37 UN Women calculations using UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund). 2020. Child marriage global database. Accessed 8 June 2020. <https://data.unicef.org/topic/child-protection/child-marriage/>.
- 38 World Bank. 2020. Women, Business and the Law 2020. Accessed 15 June 2020. <https://wbl.worldbank.org/>.
- 39 Ibid.
- 40 UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). 2018. Regional Roma Survey 2017. Country fact sheets. Istanbul: UNDP.

- 41 T. Gupta et al. 2018. Exploring Harmful Practices of Early/Child Marriage and FGM/C in Georgia Results from a Qualitative Research. Tbilisi and Washington: Georgia National Center for Disease Control and Public Health, Promundo USA, UNFPA and UNICEF.
- 42 Ibid.
- 43 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 44 Ibid.
- 45 Ibid.
- 46 UNFPA. 2015. Preventing gender-biased sex selection in Eastern Europe and Central Asia. Issue Brief 4. Istanbul: UNFPA.
- 47 UN Women calculations using United Nations Population Division. 2019. World Population Prospects 2019. Online edition. Rev.1. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://population.un.org/wpp/>.
- 48 Ibid.
- 49 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 50 ICHD (International Center for Human Development). 2017. Prevalence and Causes of Sex-Selective Abortion in Armenia. Yerevan: ICHD.
- 51 Ibid.
- 52 Council of Europe. 2019. Chart of signatures and ratifications of Treaty 210. Accessed 8 June 2020. <https://www.coe.int/en/web/conventions/full-list/-/conventions/treaty/210/signatures>.
- 53 World Bank. 2020. Women, Business and the Law 2020. Accessed 15 June 2020. <https://wbl.worldbank.org/>.
- 54 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 55 Ibid.
- 56 Ibid.
- 57 R. Inglehart et al., eds. 2014. World Values Survey: Round Six - Country-Pooled Datafile Version. Madrid: JD Systems Institute. <http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/WVSDocumentationWV6.jsp>.
- 58 FRA (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights). 2014. Violence against women: an EU-wide survey: Main results. Vienna: FRA.
- 59 UNICEF (United Nations Children's Fund). 2020. Child marriage global database. Accessed 8 June 2020. <https://data.unicef.org/topic/child-protection/child-marriage/>.
- 60 UN Women calculations using United Nations Population Division. 2019. World Population Prospects 2019. Online edition. Rev.1. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://population.un.org/wpp/>.
- 61 Biroul Național de Statistica, UNDP (United Nations Development Programme) and UN Women. 2016. Profilul femeilor și fetelor române și femeilor și fetelor române. Chisinau: Biroul Național de Statistica, UNDP and UN Women.
- 62 UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). 2018. Regional Roma Survey 2017. Country fact sheets. Istanbul: UNDP.

Dimension 4

- 1 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 2 Ibid.
- 3 Ibid.
- 4 Ibid.
- 5 CEMR (Council of European Municipalities and Regions). 2019. Women in Politics: Local and European Trends. Brussels: CEMR.
- 6 UN Women calculations using IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union). 2020. Parline - Global data on national parliaments. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://data.ipu.org/>.
- 7 IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union). 2020. Parline - Global data on national parliaments. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://data.ipu.org/>.
- 8 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 9 Ibid.
- 10 Ibid.
- 11 Ibid.
- 12 UN Women calculations using IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union) and UN Women. Women in Politics: 2020. Geneva and New York: IPU and UN Women.
- 13 Ibid.
- 14 IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union). 2018. Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe. Geneva: IPU.
- 15 Ibid.
- 16 Ibid.
- 17 UN Women calculations using R. Inglehart et al. (eds.). 2014. World Values Survey: Round Six - Country-Pooled Datafile Version. Madrid: JD Systems Institute. <http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/WVSDocumentationWV6.jsp>.
- 18 Ibid.
- 19 R. Inglehart et al. (eds.). 2014. World Values Survey: Round Six - Country-Pooled Datafile Version. Madrid: JD Systems Institute. <http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/WVSDocumentationWV6.jsp>.
- 20 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 21 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 22 The Financial Times. 2015. "Women in Eastern Europe lead the way to senior roles". Accessed 21 September 2019. <https://www.ft.com/content/1e921f8a-e8ef-11e4-b7e8-00144feab7de>.
- 23 UN Women calculations using EIGE. 2020. Gender statistics database. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs>.
- 24 OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 2020. OECD.Stat. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://stats.oecd.org/index.aspx?queryid=54753>.
- 25 UN Women calculations using UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 26 Ibid.
- 27 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 28 Ibid.
- 29 Ibid.
- 30 EPRA (European Platform of Regulatory Authorities). 2018. Achieving greater diversity in broadcasting - special focus on gender; benefits and best practice approaches. Comparative background paper presented at the 47th EPRA meeting. Luxembourg: EPRA.

- 31 Ibid.
- 32 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 33 Ibid.
- 34 Ibid.
- 35 Ibid.
- 36 Ibid.
- 37 Ibid.
- 38 The first criterion focuses on the intent of a government to address gender equality and women's empowerment by identifying if it has related programmes/policies and resource allocations. The second criterion assesses if a government has planning and budget tools to track resources for gender equality and women's empowerment throughout the public financial management cycle. The third criterion considers whether a government has provisions to make information on allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment publicly available.
- 39 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 40 Ibid.
- 41 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 42 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 43 Ibid.
- 44 Ibid.
- 45 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 46 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Regional review of progress: regional synthesis. Beijing+25 Regional Review Meeting. ECE/AC.28/2019/3. Geneva: UNECE.
- 47 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 48 Ibid.
- 49 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 50 IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union). 2020. Parline – Global data on national parliaments. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://data.ipu.org/>.
- 51 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 52 IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union) and UN Women. Women in Politics: 2020. Geneva and New York: IPU and UN Women.
- 53 Ibid.
- 54 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 55 UN Women calculations using IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union) and UN Women. Women in Politics: 2020. Geneva and New York: IPU and UN Women.
- 56 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 57 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 58 UN Women calculations using R. Inglehart et al. (eds.). 2014. World Values Survey: Round Six – Country-Pooled Datafile Version. Madrid: JD Systems Institute. <http://www.worldvaluessurvey.org/WVSDocumentationWV6.jsp>.
- 59 Ibid.
- 60 IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union). 2018. Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe. Geneva: IPU.

Dimension 5

- 1 UN Women calculations using Women's International League for Peace and Freedom. 2020. National Action Plans for the Implementation of UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security. Accessed 28 June 2020. <https://www.peacewomen.org/member-states>.
- 2 All references to Kosovo should be understood to be in the context of United Nations Security Council resolution 1244 (1999).
- 3 Ibid.
- 4 Women's International League for Peace and Freedom. 2020. National Action Plans for the Implementation of UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security. Accessed 28 June 2020.
- 5 Ibid.
- 6 Ibid.
- 7 OSCE (Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe) and London School of Economics Center for Women, Peace and Security. 2020. Implementing Women, Peace and Security Agenda in the OSCE Region. OSCE: Vienna.
- 8 Ibid.
- 9 Ibid.
- 10 Ibid.
- 11 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 12 Ibid.
- 13 Ibid.
- 14 Ibid.
- 15 J. Cook and G. Vale. 2018. From Daesh to 'Diaspora': Tracing the Women and Minors of Islamic State. London: Kings College. A. Shajkovic and A. Speckhard. 2017. "Beware the Women of ISIS: There Are Many, and They May Be More Dangerous Than the Men". The Daily Beast, 21 August. <https://www.thedailybeast.com/beware-the-women-of-isis-there-are-many-and-they-may-be-more-dangerous-than-the-men>. CTED (United Nations Security Council Counter-Terrorism Committee Executive Directorate). 2019. Gender dimensions of the response to returning foreign terrorist fighters: Research perspectives. New York: CTED.
- 16 Ibid.
- 17 Ibid.
- 18 J. Krause, W. Krause and P. Bränfors. 2018. "Women's Participation in Peace Negotiations and the Durability of Peace". International Interactions 44(6): 985-1016.
- 19 Ibid.
- 20 J. True and Y. Riveros-Morales. 2018. "Towards inclusive peace: Analysing gender-sensitive peace agreements 2000–2016". International Political Science Review 40(1): 23-40.

- 21 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 22 Ibid.
- 23 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Regional review of progress: regional synthesis. Beijing+25 Regional Review Meeting. ECE/AC.28/2019/3. Geneva: UNECE.
- 24 The University of Edinburgh. 2020. PA-X Peace Agreements Database. Accessed 2 February 2020. <https://www.peaceagreements.org/>.
- 25 Ibid.
- 26 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 27 Ibid.
- 28 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 29 UN Women calculations using UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 30 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 31 UN Women calculations using UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 32 Ibid.
- 33 UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees). 2020. UNHCR Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2019 Data. Accessed 30 June 2019. <https://data.humdata.org/dataset/unhcr-global-trends-forced-displacement-in-2019-data>.
- 34 Ibid.
- 35 Ibid.
- 36 Ibid.
- 37 Ibid.
- 38 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 39 UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees). 2020. UNHCR Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2019 Data. Accessed 30 June 2019. <https://data.humdata.org/dataset/unhcr-global-trends-forced-displacement-in-2019-data>.
- 40 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 41 Ibid.
- 42 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Regional review of progress: regional synthesis. Beijing+25 Regional Review Meeting. ECE/AC.28/2019/3. Geneva: UNECE.
- 43 Ibid.
- 44 UN Women. 2017. Report on the Legal Rights of Women and Girl Asylum Seekers in the European Union. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 45 Ibid.
- 46 Ibid.
- 47 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 48 Ibid.
- 49 Ibid.
- 50 UN Women. 2017. Reparations for conflict-related sexual violence: Lessons from the Western Balkans. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 51 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 52 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 53 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 54 Ibid.
- 55 Ibid.
- 56 Ibid.
- 57 Ibid.
- 58 Ibid.
- 59 Ibid.
- 60 OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 2018. Aid to gender equality and women's empowerment: An overview. Paris: OECD.
- 61 Ibid.
- 62 Ibid.
- 63 Ibid.
- 64 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 65 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Regional review of progress: regional synthesis. Beijing+25 Regional Review Meeting. ECE/AC.28/2019/3. Geneva: UNECE.
- 66 United Nations Peacebuilding Fund. Secretary-General's Peacebuilding Fund Strategy 2020-2024. New York: United Nations Peacebuilding Fund.
- 67 Ibid.
- 68 UN Women calculations using UNOCHA (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs). 2020. Financial Tracking Service. Accessed 28 June 2020. <https://fts.unocha.org/>.
- 69 Ibid.
- 70 UN Women calculations using Women's International League for Peace and Freedom. 2020. National Action Plans for the Implementation of UNSCR 1325 on Women, Peace and Security. Accessed 28 June 2020. <https://www.peacewomen.org/member-states>.
- 71 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Statistical Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. https://w3.unece.org/PXWeb2015/pxweb/en/STAT/STAT__30-GE/.
- 72 The University of Edinburgh. 2020. PA-X Peace Agreements Database. Accessed 2 February 2020. <https://www.peaceagreements.org/>.
- 73 Ibid.
- 74 Ibid.
- 75 UNHCR (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees). 2020. UNHCR Global Trends: Forced Displacement in 2019 Data. Accessed 30 June 2019. <https://data.humdata.org/dataset/unhcr-global-trends-forced-displacement>.
- 76 Ibid.
- 77 Ibid.
- 78 Ibid.
- 79 UN Women calculations using UNOCHA (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs). 2020. Financial Tracking Service. Accessed 28 June 2020. <https://fts.unocha.org/>.

Dimension 6

- 1 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 2 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Regional review of progress: regional synthesis. Beijing+25 Regional Review Meeting. ECE/AC.28/2019/3. Geneva: UNECE.
- 3 UN Women. 2019. Regional Assessment of the Progress of implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action in Europe and Central Asia. Istanbul: UN Women.
- 4 Ibid.
- 5 Ibid.
- 6 Ibid.
- 7 UN Women calculations using EIGE. 2020. Gender statistics database. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs>.
- 8 EIGE. 2020. Gender statistics database. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs>.
- 9 Ibid.
- 10 UN Women calculations using EIGE. 2020. Gender statistics database. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs>.
- 11 UN Women calculations using ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 5 July 2020. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 12 Ibid.
- 13 ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 5 July 2020. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 14 UN Women calculations using (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 5 July 2020. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 15 ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 5 July 2020. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 16 Ibid.
- 17 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Regional review of progress: regional synthesis. Beijing+25 Regional Review Meeting. ECE/AC.28/2019/3. Geneva: UNECE.
- 18 UN Women calculations using UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 5 July 2020. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 19 Ibid.
- 20 UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 5 July 2020. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 21 UN Women calculations using UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 5 July 2020. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 22 UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 5 July 2020. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 23 UN Women calculations using UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 5 July 2020. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 24 Ibid.
- 25 Ibid.
- 26 UN Women calculations using EIGE. 2020. Gender statistics database. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs>.
- 27 EIGE. 2020. Gender statistics database. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs>.
- 28 UN Women calculations using EIGE. 2020. Gender statistics database. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs>.
- 29 EIGE. 2020. Gender statistics database. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs>.
- 30 Women's Environment and Development Organization. 2020. UNFCCC: Progress on Achieving Gender Balance. New York: WEDO.
- 31 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 32 Ibid.
- 33 Ibid.
- 34 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 35 OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 2018. Policy Coherence for Sustainable Development and Gender Equality: Fostering an Integrated Policy Agenda. Paris: OECD.
- 36 UN Women. 2019. Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals: the Gender Snapshot 2019. New York: UN Women.
- 37 United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.
- 38 UN Women. 2019. Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals: the Gender Snapshot 2019. New York: UN Women.
- 39 WHO (World Health Organization). 2020. Global Health Observatory. Accessed 7 September 2019. <https://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.main>.
- 40 Ibid.
- 41 UNECE (United Nations Economic Commission for Europe). 2019. Regional review of progress: regional synthesis. Beijing+25 Regional Review Meeting. ECE/AC.28/2019/3. Geneva: UNECE.
- 42 Ibid.
- 43 UN Women calculations using EIGE. 2020. Gender statistics database. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs>.
- 44 UN Women calculations using ILO (International Labour Organization). 2019. ILOSTAT. Accessed 5 July 2020. <https://ilostat.ilo.org/>.
- 45 UN Women calculations using UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2019. UIS.Stat. Accessed 5 July 2020. <http://data.uis.unesco.org/>.
- 46 UN Women calculations using EIGE. 2020. Gender statistics database. Accessed 5 June 2020. <https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs>.
- 47 Women's Environment and Development Organization. 2020. UNFCCC: Progress on Achieving Gender Balance. New York: WEDO.
- 48 WHO (World Health Organization). 2020. Global Health Observatory. Accessed 7 September 2019. <https://apps.who.int/gho/data/node.main>.
- 49 UN Women calculations using United Nations Statistics Division. 2019. Global SDG Indicators Database. Accessed 12 November 2019. <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>.



**UN Women Regional Office
for Europe and Central Asia**

Abide-i Hürriyet Cad. İstiklal Sok. No: 11 KEY
Plaza Kat:8 34381 Şişli, İstanbul, Turkey

eca.unwomen.org

facebook.com/unwomeneuropecentralasia

twitter.com/unwomeneca

youtube.com/unwomeneuropeandcentralasia

flickr.com/unwomeneuropecentralasia

ok.ru/unwomen