

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

2021



**VIOLENCE AGAINST
WOMEN JOURNALISTS
AND POLITICIANS:
A GROWING CRISIS**



CONTENTS

- INTRODUCTION.....3**
- PART I.....5**
- OVERVIEW OF THE CRISIS.....5**
- ONLINE VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN JOURNALISTS AND POLITICIANS.....6**
- VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN JOURNALISTS.....8**
 - A. Violence in the Field, the Newsroom and Beyond.....9
 - B. Online Violence Against Women Journalists.....11
 - C. Targeted Identities.....12
 - D. Targeted Stories.....13
 - E. Impact on Journalism and Democracy.....15
- VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN POLITICIANS 16**
 - A. Violence in Elected Assemblies, in Public Meetings and Beyond.....16
 - B. Online Violence Against Women in Politics.....19
 - C. Targeted Politicians.....20
 - D. Impact on the Political Sphere, Including Elected Assemblies.....21
- BARRIERS TO ADDRESSING VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN JOURNALISTS AND POLITICIANS..... 23**
- WAYS FORWARD TO ADDRESS VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN JOURNALISTS AND POLITICIANS..... 24**
 - A. The Development and Revision of Legislation.....25
 - B. Efforts Specific to Parliaments.....26
 - C. Men as Allies.....27
 - D. Data Collection.....28
 - E. Support Services for Women Journalists and Politicians.....28
 - F. Election Observation Missions.....29
 - G. The Women, Peace and Security Agenda.....29
- CONCLUSION..... 30**

PART II	31
GENDER BALANCE IN THE OSCE GOVERNMENTAL STRUCTURES	31
A. OSCE Leadership	32
B. OSCE Secretariat.....	33
C. Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR).....	33
D. Office of the High Commissioner on National Minorities (HCNM).....	34
E. Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media (RFoM)	34
F. Seconded Posts in the Secretariat, Institutions and Field Operations	34
G. Field Operations: Gender Balance of Staff Members	34
H. Latest Gender-related Developments in the OSCE.....	35
FEMALE REPRESENTATION IN THE SPECIAL MONITORING MISSION TO UKRAINE	37
A. Gender Equality Action Plan	37
B. Gender Balance Among the SMM Staff Members.....	38
GENDER BALANCE AMONG THE VIENNA-BASED AMBASSADORS AND PERMANENT REPRESENTATIVES TO THE OSCE PERMANENT COUNCIL	38
GENDER BALANCE IN THE OSCE PA	39
A. Member Directory Statistics	40
B. Initiative to Boost Women’s Participation	41
C. Gender balance in the Bureau.....	41
1. Female Presidents and Vice-Presidents in the OSCE PA.....	42
2. Officers of the OSCE PA General Committees	42
D. Female Participation in the OSCE PA Annual Sessions and Winter Meetings.....	42
E. Female Participation in the OSCE PA Election Monitoring 2019–2020.....	44
F. Permanent Staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat	45
G. The International Research Assistant Programme.....	45
H. Female Representation in National Parliaments of OSCE participating States.....	45
I. Parliamentary Web Dialogues in 2020 and 2021.....	45
APPENDIX A	48

INTRODUCTION

Violence against women is a global epidemic that affects at least one in three women in their lifetime.¹ While many women experience violence in the private sphere, such as intimate partner violence at home, the public sphere provides no guarantee of safe haven. Women often find their presence and legitimacy challenged in dangerous and alarming ways when they assume their rightful place in the public sphere.²

This report is divided in two Parts. The first, thematic part examines the prevalence and impact of violence against women in two public and influential fields: journalism and politics, with a particular emphasis on the emerging phenomenon of online violence. The report provides evidence – both quantitative and qualitative – of violence against women journalists and politicians, including certain groups of women who are targeted for additional abuse because of intersecting identities. Furthermore, the report discusses the negative impact of such violence on the fields of journalism and politics, as well as democracy as a whole. Lastly, the report examines the barriers to effective responses and possible ways forward that could be implemented to address violence against women journalists and politicians. The second part provides statistical analysis of developments pertaining to gender balance within the staffing structure of the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), including the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly (PA).

DISCLAIMER: The OSCE Parliamentary Assembly makes no claims nor warranties of any kind, expressed or implied, about the completeness and reliability of this report and the data contained in it.

¹ UN Women, [Facts and figures: Ending violence against women](#).

² Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women parliamentarians](#), 2016; National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics. A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021; Flávia Biroli, “[Violence against Women and Reactions to Gender Equality in Politics](#),” *Politics & Gender*, Vol. 14, Issue 4, December 2018.

PART I

OVERVIEW OF THE CRISIS

As this report will demonstrate, while both men and women who enter journalism and politics are at risk of abuse, the violence against women in these domains is qualitatively different. It is gendered, and often sexual, in nature. It has the goal and impact of discouraging women from being in the public sphere.³ Further, it often focuses on matters unrelated to the women's work as a journalist or politician, focusing instead on her appearance, intellect, personal relationships, professional credentials, and "likeability." The perpetrators, the great majority of whom are men, often commit such acts with the aim of preserving traditional gender roles and restricting or preventing the public participation of women as a group.⁴ The range of violence targeting journalists and politicians can include physical, sexual, psychological and economic.

Violence against women journalists and politicians is a growing problem and one that appears to be fuelled by the broader global context. Democratic backsliding and a rise in authoritarianism – strict obedience to authority at the expense of personal freedom – has put journalists and politicians at risk and reduced the costs of violence for perpetrators.⁵ Furthermore, some political regimes in the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) region and beyond have used the COVID-19 pandemic to advance authoritarian policies with the goal of restricting the media and political activities.⁶ In addition, a move towards authoritarianism is often accompanied by a resurgence of patriarchal values, with devastating effects on gender equality. Leaders with authoritarian leanings will encourage intolerance of, and misogyny against, women in public life with the goal of dividing and cultivating fear. As countries inch towards authoritarianism, this backlash against women is noticeable. For instance: in May 2021, Hungary and Poland successfully got the term "gender equality" removed from a European Union social summit in Portugal; in March 2021, Turkey left the *Istanbul Convention*, a legally binding Council of Europe treaty to tackle violence against women; and in Russia, numerous domestic violence laws have been scaled back.⁷

Furthermore, violence against women journalists and politicians is fuelled by toxic masculinity, whereby persistent gender norms teach boys and men that they will be rewarded and valued for their toughness

³ National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics, A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021.

⁴ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, "[Violence against women in politics](#)," *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018; Ludovic Rheault et al. "[Politicians in the line of fire: Incivility and the treatment of women on social media](#)," *Research and Politics*, Vol. 1, Issue 7, January-March 2019.

⁵ National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics, A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021.

⁶ Ibid.

⁷ Laura Thornton, "[How authoritarians use gender as a weapon](#)," *Global Opinion: The Washington Post*, 7 June 2021.

and their athleticism, for winning at all costs, for being in control and unemotional, and for their sexual prowess.⁸ According to the White Ribbon Campaign:

These stereotypical gender norms, when internalized and if unchecked, may lead to tremendous harm for young people and adults, especially when they pressure children and youth to behave in strict and rigid ways. The use of risky behaviours, including violence, bullying, dominance and control among boys, young men and men to prove they are “real men,” has devastating consequences – for them, and for our homes, schools, communities and workplaces.⁹

Toxic masculinity leads men to believe that they should control the public sphere and that women with influence undermine men’s identity and role in society.

Women’s movements have been powerful drivers of global and national action to advance gender equality. The #MeToo movement and other public protests led by women have raised awareness of the impact of gender-based violence on women in all aspects of their lives, including the workplace. Today, the mindset that sexist remarks or harassment are “part of the job” is no longer acceptable, and many women and men are demanding change in the world of media and politics: this includes demands to improve women’s representation in managerial positions in newsrooms and the diversity at all hierarchical levels.¹⁰ Yet, despite growing awareness of the problem, in Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe Parliamentary Assembly (OSCE PA) countries and globally, the scourge of violence against women journalists and politicians remains ever-present.

ONLINE VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN JOURNALISTS AND POLITICIANS

The Internet, including social media, has become a necessary and a very useful tool for journalists and politicians to connect with colleagues, to reach out to the public, to conduct research, and to express themselves.¹¹ However, the Internet has also provided a space for gender-based online violence, a form of violence that is particularly widespread against women journalists and politicians.

Online violence can be understood as the use of the Internet by a perpetrator for committing an act of violence or extending an act of violence in order to harm the well-being of an individual or group. While both men and women experience violence through social media and communications technologies,

⁸ White Ribbon Campaign, [Boys Don’t Cry](#).

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women parliamentarians](#), 2016.

¹¹ Amnesty International, [Toxic Twitter – A Toxic Place for Women](#), 2018.

research indicates that women and girls are at greater risk of experiencing cyberviolence, especially severe types of harassment and sexualized online abuse, and that this form of violence is tied to larger social problems of sexism and misogyny.¹² According to a 2019 Council of Europe document:

Online harassment, both misogynist and sexist, is on the rise. While the Internet is not at the origin of harassment, it has contributed to propagating and perpetuating gender stereotypes, sexism and sexist hate speech, thus bringing a new and complex dimension to efforts to tackle this challenge and curb its negative impact.¹³

UN General Assembly Resolution 68/181 states that “information-technology-related violations, abuses, discrimination and violence against women ... with a view to discrediting them and/or inciting other violations and abuses against them, are a growing concern and can be a manifestation of systemic gender-based discrimination.”¹⁴ Online violence against women is similar to other types of gender-based violence: it is used as a tool to control women, to maintain men’s dominance over women, and to reinforce patriarchal norms, roles and structures. However, online violence differs from other forms of violence against women because of certain characteristics¹⁵:

- **Relentlessness:** Victims can be attacked online at any hour, any day, and there is no “safe” location for the victim to take refuge.
- **Disinhibition:** Perpetrators feel less empathy and find it easier to be cruel when they cannot see or be seen by their target, particularly when they are acting anonymously.
- **Audience:** The online realm has a potentially huge audience.
- **Anonymity:** Perpetrators can use deception or anonymity to undertake their activities.
- **Ease of access:** The automation of technology requires little technical knowledge and the affordability of most technology provides access.
- **Digital permanence:** Content posted online about a person typically becomes a part of their permanent online identity and is nearly impossible to erase.

Online violence against women can take many different forms, such as, but not limited to:

- Harassment or spamming, where a perpetrator uses technology to continually contact, threaten or scare a victim;

¹² YWCA Canada, [Creating a safer digital world for young women. Project Shift – Needs Assessment Report Summary](#), September 2015.

¹³ Council of Europe, [“Women in politics and in the public discourse: What role can national Parliaments play in combating the increasing level of harassment and hate speech towards female politicians and parliamentarians?”](#) Background document for the European Conference of Presidents of Parliament, 24-25 October 2019.

¹⁴ United Nations, [“Resolution 68/181.”](#) *United Nations General Assembly*, Sixty-eighth session, 30 January 2014.

¹⁵ Jessica West, [Cyber-Violence Against Women](#), Battered Women’s Support Services, May 2014, p. 2; United Nations Broadband Commission for Digital Development, [Cyber Violence Against Women and Girls: A World-Wide Wake-Up Call](#), 2015, p. 23.

- Cyberstalking, where a perpetrator initiates repeated and unwanted contact through emails, texts or social media;
- Non-consensual distribution of sexual recordings, images or messages, with the aim of harassing or shaming the targeted individual;
- Disinformation campaigns, whereby individuals, groups of individuals or government entities purposefully spread false information about an individual or their work with the goal of discrediting them and damaging their reputations; and
- Doxing, where a perpetrator releases a victim's personal information with the intent of causing harm.

Online violence is both difficult to prevent and difficult to prosecute, presenting serious challenges to victims, their families, law enforcement agencies, the justice system and governments. Furthermore, the irreparable harm to a survivors' mental and physical health is often not understood by law enforcement, justice and government officials. Moreover, there is still prevalent thinking of law enforcement that "online is not real", which leads to a lack of institutional support and reinforces impunity for perpetrators. This can lead to a lack of willingness to report online attacks, which, in turn, further reinforces impunity, creating a vicious circle. In recent years, women journalists and politicians have been targeted by perpetrators of online violence, a troubling situation that is examined later in this report.

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN JOURNALISTS

Many experts agree that attacks on freedom of the press and on the activities of journalists have intensified in recent years. Increasingly hostile political rhetoric towards the media across the OSCE region and beyond, combined with the rise of social media and, more recently the strain of working during the COVID-19 pandemic, have put unique pressure on all journalists.¹⁶ Furthermore, violence against journalists has also increased and, all too often, perpetrators act with impunity.¹⁷

Women journalists are in face additional risks compared to their male counterparts. This gendered violence takes myriad forms, ranging from physical and sexual violence to workplace discrimination to

¹⁶ OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media, [Regular Report to the Permanent Council For the period from 4 December 2020 to 13 May 2021](#), 13 May 2021; the partner organisations to the Council of Europe Platform to Promote the Protection of Journalism and Safety of Journalists, [Wanted! Real action for media freedom in Europe: Annual report 2021](#), Council of Europe, April 2021; Julie Posetti, Emily Bell and Pete Brown, [Journalism & the Pandemic: A Global Snapshot of Impacts](#), International Center for Journalists [ICFJ] and the Tow Center for Digital Journalism at Columbia University, 2020; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], [Intensified Attacks, New Defences: Developments in the Fight to Protect Journalists and End Impunity](#), 2019.

¹⁷ OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media, [Safety of Journalists: An imperative for free media](#), 2019; UNESCO, [Intensified Attacks, New Defences: Developments in the Fight to Protect Journalists and End Impunity](#), 2019.

misogynistic online threats and harassment. For women with intersecting identity factors, the risk compounds further.¹⁸

A. Violence in the Field, the Newsroom and Beyond

Far fewer women journalists than men journalists are killed while on the job. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) reports that 1,454 journalists have been killed since 1993, of whom 114 were female.¹⁹ There are a number of reasons for this discrepancy: in addition to being underrepresented in the industry generally, women journalists are less likely than men to work on reporting from conflict zones or on more dangerous topics, which may stem from stereotypes and exclusionary newsroom practices.²⁰ Indeed, 45% of respondents to a Reporters Without Borders survey, which was sent to 150 people in 120 countries, observed that women journalists in their country are often purposefully not sent to areas considered dangerous.²¹

More recently, women's representation in the media field has increased, and more women are given equal assignment opportunities as men (including in dangerous regions or on dangerous topics). As a result, women journalists are increasingly experiencing physical violence at such assignments, and that abuse is additionally often gendered in nature.

Women journalists also face the possibility of detention, which can hold special dangers and hardships for women, including threatened and actual sexual violence.²² According to Reporters Without Borders, the number of detained women journalists increased 35% from December 2019 to December 2020, although the total number of detained journalists held approximately steady.²³ The Coalition For Women In Journalism reported that 19 women journalists were newly detained in May 2021 alone, including several in Belarus.²⁴

Women journalists also experience many other forms of violence. One survey of women journalists in 50 countries found that 48% of respondents had experienced gender-based violence while working,

¹⁸ Reporters Without Borders [RSF], [Sexism's Toll on Journalism](#), 8 March 2021; Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, "[Combating Violence Against Women Journalists](#)," *United Nations General Assembly*, Forty-fourth session, 6 May 2020; Dr. Michelle Ferrier, [Attacks and Harassment: The Impact on Female Journalists and Their Reporting](#), Troll-Busters and International Women's Media Foundation, 2018.

¹⁹ UNESCO, [UNESCO observatory of killed journalists](#). For other reports on violence against journalists, see Committee to Protect Journalists, [Explore CPI's database of attacks on the press](#); Reporters Without Borders, [Violations of press freedom barometer](#); Council of Europe, [Platform to promote the protection of journalism and safety of journalists](#).

²⁰ UNESCO, [Intensified Attacks, New Defences: Developments in the Fight to Protect Journalists and End Impunity](#), 2019, p. 50.

²¹ Reporters Without Borders, [Sexism's Toll on Journalism](#), 8 March 2021.

²² Reporters Without Borders, [Sexism's Toll on Journalism](#), 8 March 2021; Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, "[Combating Violence Against Women Journalists](#)," *United Nations General Assembly*, Forty-fourth session, 6 May 2020, para. 28.

²³ Reporters Without Borders, [RSF's 2020 round-up: 35% rise in number of women journalists held arbitrarily](#), 11 December 2020.

²⁴ Coalition For Women In Journalism, [Press Freedom Status for Women Journalists: May 2021](#), 1 June 2021.

including sexual harassment, physical violence, and verbal, psychological, and economic abuse.²⁵ Another survey of women journalists and media workers found that 63% of women respondents had been threatened or harassed online at least once.²⁶ In the first quarter of 2021, the Coalition For Women In Journalism documented 348 cases of violence and threats against women journalists around the world, such as attack or impediment in the field, sexual assault or harassment, physical assault, including torture, arrests, detentions, legal harassment, organizational harassment, threats of death or violence or expulsion from work.²⁷

This violence appears to be on the rise. The Coalition For Women In Journalism reported that cases of violence and threats against women journalists have been rising around the world.²⁸ The majority of women respondents to a 2018 joint International Women’s Media Foundation and Troll-Busters survey reported a rise in both physical and online attacks against journalists and media workers in the last five years, with 67% observing an increased number of physical attacks and 90% observing increased online threats.²⁹ Likewise, 85% of respondents to a Committee to Protect Journalists survey of women and non-binary journalists in the United States and Canada believed that journalists had become less safe in the last five years.³⁰

Women in journalism are also victimized by their own colleagues in the industry, encountering varied forms of discrimination, harassment and violence. For instance, in a 2017 International Federation of Journalists survey, among women journalists in 50 countries who experienced gender-based violence, in 38% of the cases, the perpetrator was a supervisor and in 17% of the cases, the perpetrator was a colleague.³¹ A Reporters Without Borders survey of its worldwide correspondents as well as journalists who write about gender issues found that 51% of respondents who had experienced sexual violence indicated that at least one perpetrator was a superior.³²

Many women working in journalism and the media have spoken out about patterns of workplace abuse, some empowered by the **#MeToo movement**. For instance, after Danish television presenter Sofie Linde spoke out about sexual harassment in August 2020, over 1,600 women media workers signed an article in a Danish newspaper that described their experiences of “[i]nappropriate comments on our appearance

²⁵ International Federation of Journalists, “[IFJ Survey: One in Two Women Journalists Suffer Gender-based Violence at Work](#),” *News release*, 24 November 2017.

²⁶ Dr. Michelle Ferrier, [Attacks and Harassment: The Impact on Female Journalists and Their Reporting](#), Troll-Busters and International Women’s Media Foundation, 2018, p. 22.

²⁷ Coalition For Women In Journalism, [2021 First Quarterly Report](#), 1 May 2021.

²⁸ Ibid.

²⁹ Dr. Michelle Ferrier, [Attacks and Harassment: The Impact on Female Journalists and Their Reporting](#), Troll-Busters and International Women’s Media Foundation, 2018, p. 25.

³⁰ Lucy Westcott and James W. Foley, “[‘The Threats Follow us Home’: Survey Details Risks for Female Journalists in U.S., Canada](#),” *Committee to Protect Journalists*, 4 September 2019.

³¹ International Federation of Journalists, “[IFJ Survey: One in Two Women Journalists Suffer Gender-based Violence at Work](#),” *News release*, 24 November 2017.

³² Reporters Without Borders, [Sexism’s Toll on Journalism](#), 8 March 2021, p. 11.

or clothes, suggestive messages, physical behaviour that crosses the line, warnings about which men to avoid at the Christmas party.”³³

B. Online Violence Against Women Journalists

The rise of the Internet has been accompanied by the rise of online violence, including online attacks against women journalists. Many experts agree that women journalists are more often targeted in online attacks and are subjected to more vicious and sexualized attacks, compared to men journalists.³⁴

Online attacks can take myriad forms: misogynistic harassment, abuse and threats, breaches of digital privacy and security, and coordinated disinformation campaigns.³⁵ The International Press Institute analysis, done in the framework of the OSCE RFoM project on the Safety of Female Journalists Online (SOFJO), found that online attacks targeting women journalists in Europe could be roughly divided into five categories: belittlement, sexist insults, threats of sexual violence and death, threats and insults to family, and campaigns aimed at inflicting damage to professional reputation.³⁶

This violent phenomenon appears to be growing in frequency and severity. Former OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media Harlem Désir warned in 2019 that “[o]nline harassment is escalating in the OSCE region and beyond, with a significant impact on the work of women journalists and their participation in the field of journalism.”³⁷ European experts described a “surge” of online abuse against journalists, especially female journalists, in 2020.³⁸ Early results from a global survey of journalists, conducted by the International Centre for Journalists (ICFJ) and UNESCO and released in 2020, found that nearly three quarters (73%) of women respondents reported having experienced online violence.³⁹ This figure exceeds those found by surveys conducted in prior years, although the different surveys cannot be directly compared.⁴⁰

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ Barbara Trionfi and Javier Luque, [Newsroom Best Practices for Addressing Online Violence against Journalists: Perspectives from Finland, Germany, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom](#), International Press Institute, June 2019, p. 6; the partner organisations to the Council of Europe Platform to Promote the Protection of Journalism and Safety of Journalists, [Wanted! Real action for media freedom in Europe: Annual report 2021](#), Council of Europe, April 2021, p. 11.

³⁵ UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 10.

³⁶ Barbara Trionfi and Javier Luque, [Newsroom Best Practices for Addressing Online Violence against Journalists: Perspectives from Finland, Germany, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom](#), International Press Institute, June 2019, p. 8-11.

³⁷ OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media, [Communiqué by the OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media on Media Pluralism, Safety of Female Journalists and Safeguarding Marginalized Voices Online](#), Communiqué No. 1/2019.

³⁸ The partner organisations to the Council of Europe Platform to Promote the Protection of Journalism and Safety of Journalists, [Wanted! Real action for media freedom in Europe: Annual report 2021](#), Council of Europe, April 2021, p. 11.

³⁹ UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 12.

⁴⁰ See for example: Dr. Michelle Ferrier, [Attacks and Harassment: The Impact on Female Journalists and Their Reporting](#), Troll-Busters and International Women’s Media Foundation, 2018; International Federation of Journalists, [IFI global survey shows massive impact of online abuse on women journalists](#), 23 November 2018; International Federation of Journalists, [“IFI Survey: One in Two Women Journalists Suffer Gender-based Violence at Work,” News release](#), 24 November 2017.

Online violence can lead to offline violence. Among journalists who responded to the ICFJ and UNESCO survey, 20% of women reported that they had been attacked or abused in-person in connection with violence previously experienced online. More than half of Arab women respondents (53%) said they had experienced offline attacks originating online, compared to 11% of white women respondents.⁴¹

Threats, harassment and attacks can negatively impact a person's mental health and well-being. After an online or a physical attack, women journalists report flashbacks, feelings of self-blame and isolation, or post-traumatic stress disorder, as well as other emotional impacts, physical reactions and negative feelings.⁴² For example, one respondent to a OSCE questionnaire on the online safety of female journalists reported that online abuse affected her psychologically and "[f]or a while it was difficult to feel safe." Another indicated that she had experienced such a severe campaign of online abuse that for a while she found it difficult to sleep.⁴³

Despite growing recognition that violence against women journalists is increasingly online, the full scale of the violence is likely still being underestimated. Many women do not report the violence they experience to their supervisors or the police, often because of stigma and anticipation of negative professional consequences, such as being denied assignments in the future.⁴⁴

C. Targeted Identities

Both offline and online, abusers target women journalists with multiple marginalized identities with particular ferocity.⁴⁵ This can involve abuse based on race, ethnicity, religion, national origin, disability, sexual orientation, and gender identity or expression, among other identity factors.

For instance, among respondents to the ICFJ and UNESCO survey, 88% of Jewish women, 86% of Indigenous women, and 81% of Black women had experienced online violence, compared to 64% of white women. Likewise, 88% of lesbian women respondents and 85% of bisexual women respondents

⁴¹ UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 23.

⁴² Dr. Michelle Ferrier, [Attacks and Harassment: The Impact on Female Journalists and Their Reporting](#), Troll-Busters and International Women's Media Foundation, 2018, p. 36-37; UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 13.

⁴³ OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media, [Summary of the OSCE RFoM Questionnaire on Safety of Female Journalists Online](#).

⁴⁴ UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 15; Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, "[Combating Violence Against Women Journalists](#)," *United Nations General Assembly*, Forty-fourth session, 6 May 2020, para. 31; Dr. Michelle Ferrier, [Attacks and Harassment: The Impact on Female Journalists and Their Reporting](#), Troll-Busters and International Women's Media Foundation, 2018, p. 12.

⁴⁵ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, "[Combating Violence Against Women Journalists](#)," *United Nations General Assembly*, Forty-fourth session, 6 May 2020, para. 53-60; OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media, [Communiqué by the OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media on Media Pluralism, Safety of Female Journalists and Safeguarding Marginalized Voices Online](#), Communiqué No. 1/2019.

had experienced online violence, compared to 72% of heterosexual women respondents.⁴⁶ An Amnesty International analysis of tweets sent to women journalists and politicians in the United States and the United Kingdom in 2017 found that Black, Asian, Latina and mixed-race women were 34% more likely than white women to be mentioned in abusive or problematic tweets.⁴⁷

To some extent, the particular identities that compound a journalist's risk of experiencing violence vary by geopolitical context. In Norway, for example, immigrant women, especially Black and Muslim immigrant women journalists, have been identified as particularly targeted by hate.⁴⁸ In contrast, Crister Ohlsson, head of security at Swedish media group Bonnier News, said much of the harassment against journalists working for their company is anti-Semitic.⁴⁹

The Coalition For Women In Journalism has been recording racially motivated attacks against women journalists. In Portugal, in May 2021, correspondent Conceição Queiroz was intimidated and racially-discriminated against by a passerby during a live broadcast. In Turkey, columnist Karel Valansi was targeted with anti-semitic attacks and subjected to an online smear campaign.⁵⁰

D. Targeted Stories

Reporting on certain “sensitive” or “polarizing” topics appears to attract online abuse. This is true for both men and women journalists; however, men tend to receive targeted abuse that focuses on their professional output (the news story), while the abuse against women often goes beyond the news story, to focus on personal traits and gendered insults.⁵¹

In particular, perpetrators seem to target women journalists to a greater extent when they write stories on the subjects of women, gender and sexuality. Gender was the story theme most often linked to heightened online harassment by participants in the ICFJ and UNESCO survey of women journalists in 125 countries. The same survey notes that stories about feminism, domestic violence, sexual assaults, femicide, reproductive rights and abortion, and transgender issues were met with particular vitriol.⁵² According to another study by the International Press Institute, stories that appear to support LGBTQ+ rights or feminism were found to trigger backlash in Finland, Germany, Poland, Spain and the United

⁴⁶ UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 22.

⁴⁷ Amnesty International, [Troll Patrol Findings: Using Crowdsourcing, Data Science & Machine Learning to Measure Violence and Abuse against Women on Twitter](#).

⁴⁸ Reporters Without Borders, [Sexism's Toll on Journalism](#), 8 March 2021, p. 20.

⁴⁹ UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 25-25.

⁵⁰ The Coalition For Women In Journalism, [Press Freedom Status for Women Journalists – May 2021](#), 1 June 2021.

⁵¹ Barbara Trionfi and Javier Luque, [Newsroom Best Practices for Addressing Online Violence against Journalists: Perspectives from Finland, Germany, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom](#), International Press Institute, June 2019, p. 6.

⁵² UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 31.

Kingdom.⁵³ From 2012 to 2017, Reporters Without Borders recorded 11 murders, 12 imprisonments and 25 attacks against journalists in connection with their reporting on women's rights.⁵⁴

Other types of political reporting can serve as a lightning rod for abuse and discrimination. The ICFJ and UNESCO survey results identified "politics and elections" as the story theme second most likely to attract online harassment and abuse, after gender.⁵⁵ Participants in a survey of female and gender non-conforming journalists in Canada and the United States reported that, while reporters covering a range of beats received harassment, those covering local and national politics and extremism received more severe and sustained abuse.⁵⁶

According to research conducted by the OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media in 2015, some women journalists in the OSCE region, when asked which topics most often trigger abusive online comments, pointed to their reporting on politics, especially criticism of government, migration, human rights, religion, feminism, terrorism and the conflict between Israel and Palestine.⁵⁷ For instance, in Germany, in May 2021, journalists Katherin Grabener and Antonia Yamin were attacked by demonstrators at a protest on the conflict between Israel and Palestine.⁵⁸

Research by the International Press Institute indicates that the type of political stories that trigger the most abuse vary by country and region. For instance, reporting on refugees and migration has inspired online abuse against journalists in Finland, Germany, Poland and the United Kingdom. Coverage of the conflict between Russia and Ukraine has inspired backlash in Finland and Poland. Discussion of the Catalan independence movement catalyzes violence against journalists across Spain.⁵⁹ In Malta, journalist Daphne Caruana Galizia was murdered by a car bomb in 2017 when she was investigating corruption in the Maltese government and society. Her case tragically illustrates how intensive online attacks and smear campaigns, including by politicians and other powerful actors, can lead to physical violence or even murder.

⁵³ Barbara Trionfi and Javier Luque, [Newsroom Best Practices for Addressing Online Violence against Journalists: Perspectives from Finland, Germany, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom](#), International Press Institute, June 2019, p. 8.

⁵⁴ Reporters Without Borders, [RSF shines light on "forbidden coverage" of women's rights](#), 5 March 2018.

⁵⁵ UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 31.

⁵⁶ Lucy Westcott and James W. Foley, ["The Threats Follow us Home": Survey Details Risks for Female Journalists in U.S., Canada](#), *Committee to Protect Journalists*, 4 September 2019.

⁵⁷ OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media, [Summary of the OSCE RFoM Questionnaire on Safety of Female Journalists Online](#).

⁵⁸ The Coalition For Women In Journalism, [Press Freedom Status for Women Journalists – May 2021](#), 1 June 2021.

⁵⁹ Barbara Trionfi and Javier Luque, [Newsroom Best Practices for Addressing Online Violence against Journalists: Perspectives from Finland, Germany, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom](#), International Press Institute, June 2019, p. 8.

Women who report on sports face gendered violence and discrimination as well, according to Reporters Without Borders.⁶⁰ For instance, in March 2021, more than 150 women sports journalists in France signed an article decrying the discrimination and sexual harassment they face while doing their job.⁶¹

E. Impact on Journalism and Democracy

The abuse against women journalists, especially after they report on hot-button issues, can serve to discourage women's participation in the media industry. For some women journalists, online or in-person violence can limit their ability to do their job, damage their reputations, or even drive them out of the profession.⁶² For instance, some women journalists in the United Kingdom said that they had forwarded stories about women's harassment to male colleagues to avoid being harassed for reporting the story themselves.⁶³

According to one survey of women journalists who had been threatened, harassed or attacked at least once, 37% said that they had avoided certain stories as a result. Others had thought about leaving the profession (29%), observed negative impacts on their career advancement (24%), gotten scooped or missed a story (17%), considered requesting a transfer or a different area of speciality (16%) or actually requested a transfer or a different area of speciality (16%).⁶⁴

Where this violence leads to women leaving journalism, the result is a less diverse and representative media. Several studies show that a more diverse newsroom leads to more accurate and fulsome reporting and coverage of issues that would otherwise be dismissed, including issues of importance to women and the public debate.⁶⁵ Hence, all of society benefits from a public debate that is inclusive. This links to society's right to pluralistic information, to democracy and sustainable development more broadly. As described by Virginia Pérez Alonso, co-director of the newspaper Público:

*We are in a society in which female voices are less heard than male voices because men are predominant in the structures of power, structures that women find hard to join and to be heard by. If at that point women refrain from making certain comments or publishing information, we are depriving citizens of access to other voices.*⁶⁶

⁶⁰ Reporters Without Borders, [Sexism's Toll on Journalism](#), 8 March 2021, p. 18-19.

⁶¹ "[Femmes journalistes de sport, nous occupons le terrain !](#)," Le Monde, 21 March 2021.

⁶² UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 13; Reporters Without Borders, [Sexism's Toll on Journalism](#), 8 March 2021, p. 25; Marilyn Clark and Anna Grech, [Journalists under pressure – Unwarranted interference, fear and self-censorship in Europe](#), Council of Europe, 2017.

⁶³ Barbara Trionfi and Javier Luque, [Newsroom Best Practices for Addressing Online Violence against Journalists: Perspectives from Finland, Germany, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom](#), International Press Institute, June 2019, p. 54.

⁶⁴ Dr. Michelle Ferrier, [Attacks and Harassment: The Impact on Female Journalists and Their Reporting](#), Troll-Busters and International Women's Media Foundation, 2018, p. 44.

⁶⁵ Anna Griffin, "[Where Are the Women?](#)," *Nieman Reports*, 11 September 2014.

⁶⁶ Barbara Trionfi and Javier Luque, [Newsroom Best Practices for Addressing Online Violence against Journalists: Perspectives from Finland, Germany, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom](#), International Press Institute, June 2019, p. 46.

Attacks on women journalists also function to discredit journalists generally, leading to loss of trust in mainstream news outlets and increased spread of disinformation through informal channels.⁶⁷ In Germany, for instance, the International Press Institute concluded that gendered attacks against women journalists aim not only to silence the press but also, more broadly, to foster social division and disrupt the democratic exchange of ideas and opinions.⁶⁸

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN POLITICIANS

Like women journalists, women politicians face unique risks, compared to their male counterparts, in the form of sexist attacks and discrimination. Indeed, women politicians and journalists share many similarities: they operate in the public eye and are subject to public scrutiny, they often bring attention to potentially controversial issues that are of importance to women, and they are working in spaces once reserved for men.

Globally, growing numbers of women are participating in politics by running for political office, volunteering for political parties, attending political events, and registering as voters. However, the increase of women's political representation – key to democratic progress – has been met with backlash in some quarters, with reports of more frequent and intense violent responses to women's presence in politics.⁶⁹ The Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project, a non-profit organization that collects data of political violence worldwide, notes in a 2019 report that “the threat of political violence towards women has grown, in particular over the past 18 months, and is currently at its highest level recorded since 2018.”⁷⁰ Too often, this violence is perpetrated or promoted by male political colleagues, whose hostility against women colleagues is driven by toxic masculinity.

A. Violence in Elected Assemblies, in Public Meetings and Beyond

Violence against women politicians is defined by the United Nations Special Rapporteur on violence against women as: “any act of gender-based violence, or threat of such acts, that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering and is directed against a woman in politics because she is a woman, or affects women disproportionately.”⁷¹ The structures, operations and

⁶⁷ UNESCO, [The Chilling: global trends in online violence against women journalists: research discussion paper](#), 30 April 2021, p. 7.

⁶⁸ Barbara Trionfi and Javier Luque, [Newsroom Best Practices for Addressing Online Violence against Journalists: Perspectives from Finland, Germany, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom](#), International Press Institute, June 2019, p. 29.

⁶⁹ Westminster Foundation for Democracy, [“Violence Against Women in Politics: Global Perspectives of a Global Issue,” Prepared for the International Summit on Violence Against Women in Politics, hosted by the UK political parties in partnership with the Westminster Foundation for Democracy, 19-20 March 2018.](#)

⁷⁰ Armed Conflict Location & Event Data Project, [“Terribly and Terrifyingly Normal’: Political Violence Targeting Women](#), May 2019.

⁷¹ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, [“Violence against women in politics,” United Nations General Assembly, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018.](#)

procedures of elected assemblies are historically established by men and parliaments remain male-dominated to this day. When women are elected to parliamentary assemblies, they can be seen to be challenging established gender norms, and as such, may face resistance and resentment by male parliamentarians.⁷²

According to research on the situation globally, some women are targeted from the very moment they become candidates. They may receive negative reactions from their families and spouses, their campaign materials may be vandalized, and they may receive character assassinations or threats from opponents or the public. Once elected, women continue to face violence, such as hostile working conditions in the legislative assembly or council chambers, sexual harassment by colleagues, and abuse on social media.⁷³

There is limited data on violence against women in the political sphere. Two key surveys, conducted by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), provide some of the only global or region-specific data on this issue. The first is a 2016 survey of 55 women parliamentarians from 39 countries (from five regions: Africa, Europe, Asia-Pacific, Americas and Arab regions).⁷⁴ The second survey, conducted in 2018 in collaboration with the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe (PACE), is based on interviews with 123 women parliamentarians and parliamentary staff in Council of Europe member States.⁷⁵

The 2016 IPU survey of women politicians from 39 countries revealed the shocking extent to which women in politics face discrimination and violence on account of their gender. Of the women surveyed, during their time in office:

- 82% had experienced psychological violence;
- 22% had experienced sexual violence;
- 26% had experienced physical violence; and
- 33% had experienced economic violence.⁷⁶

Psychological violence against women politicians includes humiliating sexual or sexist remarks and threats of death, rape and other violence. The 2016 IPU survey indicates that most psychological attacks were made in parliament by male colleagues or on social media.⁷⁷ For example, in the United States, Congresswoman Ilhan Omar has been targeted with misogyny, alongside Islamophobia and racism, by politicians and political candidates running for office.⁷⁸

⁷² Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe](#), 2018.

⁷³ National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics. A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021.

⁷⁴ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women parliamentarians](#), October 2016.

⁷⁵ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe](#), 2018.

⁷⁶ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women parliamentarians](#), October 2016.

⁷⁷ Ibid.

⁷⁸ Steve Contorno, [“We should hang’ Ilhan Omar. Florida congressional candidate writes in fundraising letter.”](#) *Tampa Bay Times*, 4 December 2019; Astead W. Herndon, [“Trump’s Attack on Ilhan Omar: How the 2020 Democrats Diverged in Response.”](#) *The New York Times*, 14 April 2019.

When women politicians encounter sexual violence, it can constitute sexual harassment or a perpetrator trying to force them to have sexual relations. In the 2016 IPU survey, many women parliamentarians considered sexual harassment a “common practice.” Most of these acts – including unwanted and inappropriate gestures like “placing a hand on breast or buttocks” – were made by male colleagues and occurred in parliament, as well as during political meetings, and at official dinners or travel abroad.⁷⁹ In Belarus, female opposition activists in Belarus, including Sviatlana Tsikhanouskaya, have been regularly threatened with sexual violence.⁸⁰

Physical violence against women politicians can include being slapped, pushed, struck or hit with a projectile, or being threatened with a weapon (knife or gun) or having a weapon used against them. Physical violence can occur in a variety of places, particularly political meetings, and the perpetrators are often men (other politicians, anonymous people, family members or law enforcement).⁸¹ For instance, Member of Parliament for the United Kingdom, Jo Cox, was murdered in 2016 while on her way to a constituency meeting by a man who held extremist views.

The 2018 IPU and PACE survey of women parliamentarians and staff in Council of Europe member States also reveals troubling statistics.

Among women parliamentarians in Europe who took part in the study, during their term of office:

- 47% had received death threats or threats of rape or beating;
- 59% had been the target of online sexist attacks on social networks; and
- 68% had been the target of comments relating to their physical appearance or based on gender stereotypes.⁸²

According to the same 2018 IPU and PACE survey of violence against parliamentarians in Europe, the perpetrators of harassment and violence were political opponents, colleagues from the same party, or ordinary citizens.⁸³

Equally alarming, were the high rates of harassment reported by women who were parliamentary staff. For instance, 41% of women parliamentary staff who responded to the survey had experienced sexual harassment in their work, and in 69% of the cases, the perpetrator was a male parliamentarian.⁸⁴

⁷⁹ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women parliamentarians](#), 2016.

⁸⁰ Amnesty International UK, [“Belarus: Authorities threatening women political activists ahead of election,”](#) Press releases, 17 July 2020.

⁸¹ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women parliamentarians](#), 2016.

⁸² Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe](#), 2018.

⁸³ Ibid.

⁸⁴ Ibid.

B. Online Violence Against Women in Politics

Both women and men in politics have been targeted by a worrying rise in online violence directed at them as individuals, in response to their work. A 2019 research article states:

A seemingly inescapable feature of the digital age is that people choosing to devote their lives to politics must now be ready to face a barrage of insults and disparaging comments targeted at them through social media.⁸⁵

However, the online violence directed at women politicians differs from that directed at political active men in that its underlying intent is to silence women who engage in political life through fear, shame and intimidation. Furthermore, the violence is more frequent and sexualized in nature, it is often driven by misogyny, and appears to have the goal of attacking women’s full participation in politics.⁸⁶ The UN Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences warns that:

The extent to which such online violence is used by State and non-State actors to spread disinformation aimed at discouraging women from participating in politics, swaying popular support away from politically-active women and influencing how men and women view particular issues has yet to be fully understood.⁸⁷

Online violence is not limited to direct messages on social media, but also includes a pervasive violent discourse targeting women politicians that ranges in intensity from sexist slurs to threats of physical harm.⁸⁸

According to the 2018 IPU and PACE survey, women parliamentarians in Europe are frequent targets of online attacks, with electronic communication the primary method by which they are threatened. The survey indicated that 58% of respondents had seen abusive, sexual or violent images or comments about them online. In 67% of cases, the perpetrators of abusive, sexual or violent content and behaviour on social networks were

⁸⁵ Ludovic Rheault, et al. [“Politicians in the line of fire: Incivility and the treatment of women on social media,”](#) *Research and Politics*, Vol. 1, Issue 7, January-March 2019.

⁸⁶ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, [“Violence against women in politics,”](#) *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018; National Democratic Institute, International Foundation for Electoral Systems & US AID, [Violence Against Women in Elections Online: A Social Media Analysis Tool](#), September 2019.

⁸⁷ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, [“Violence against women in politics,”](#) *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018.

⁸⁸ National Democratic Institute, International Foundation for Electoral Systems & US AID, [Violence Against Women in Elections Online: A Social Media Analysis Tool](#), September 2019.

anonymous and acted remotely.⁸⁹ The IPU provided examples of concerning online attacks against politicians, such as “nude photomontages together with crude insults,” or “pornographic videos circulating on the Internet” that target female parliamentarians.⁹⁰

The sheer volume of online abuse is disturbing. A 2017 report by Amnesty International UK, which examined online abuse directed at women parliamentarians in the United Kingdom, highlighted the volume of abuse of received by politicians: it analyzed the Twitter accounts of 177 women members of Parliament in the six months prior to the 2017 elections and revealed a total of 25,688 abusive tweets directed at these women.⁹¹

C. Targeted Politicians

Certain groups of women parliamentarians are at greater risk of abuse than others, with evidence indicating that a woman’s role and work in parliament can be an aggravating factor. For instance, belonging to an opposition party seems to increase a woman’s exposure to abusive types of behaviour and acts of sexist violence.⁹² Research also indicates that a woman’s type of political activity (for instance, working on “contentious” subjects such as women’s rights) and holding a position of power, such as a leadership position, may worsen the level of violence directed against her.⁹³

Women parliamentarians are also at greater risk of experiencing violence if they have a certain identity or are part of certain population groups. In these situations, the attacks are intersectional in nature, driven by hatred towards multiple interconnected social categories like age, gender, race, and sexuality.⁹⁴ For instance, data from the 2018 IPU and PACE survey in Europe indicate that young women parliamentarians are at greater risk than their older counterparts:

- 77% of young women parliamentarians reported being the subject of sexist and sexual remarks (nine percentage points more than for all female parliamentarians surveyed);
- 76% of young women parliamentarians had experienced degrading treatment and abuse in the media and social networks (18 percentage points more than for all female parliamentarians surveyed); and
- 36% of young women parliamentarians had experienced sexual harassment (12 percentage points more than for all female parliamentarians surveyed).⁹⁵

⁸⁹ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe](#), 2018.

⁹⁰ Ibid.

⁹¹ Amnesty International UK, [Black and Asian women MPs abused more online](#), 2017.

⁹² Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women parliamentarians](#), 2016.

⁹³ National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics, A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021; Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe](#), 2018; Ludovic Rheault, et al. “[Politicians in the line of fire: Incivility and the treatment of women on social media](#),” *Research and Politics*, Vol. 1, Issue 7, January-March 2019.

⁹⁴ Project Someone and UNESCO, “[Online Misogyny in Canadian Politics, Research Brief](#),” January 2019; Rebecca Kuperberg, “[Intersectional Violence against Women in Politics](#),” *Politics & Gender*, Vol. 14, Issue 4, December 2018.

⁹⁵ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe](#), 2018.

Women who belonged to racial or religious minority groups were also disproportionately targeted, with misogyny compounded by racism. The 2016 IPU study states that it received “troubling testimony from women politicians of foreign origin, especially in Europe, who have been particularly targeted by members of far right parties.”⁹⁶ A 2019 Canadian study examined the case of Member of Parliament Iqra Khalid who was targeted by hateful social media messages that contained misogyny, racism and Islamophobia.⁹⁷ Amnesty International UK’s 2017 report highlighted a racial dimension to the online violence faced by women parliamentarians in the United Kingdom:

- Diane Abbott, the United Kingdom’s first black female Member of Parliament, was the recipient of just over 45% of the abusive tweets analyzed in the report; and
- If Ms. Abbott is excluded from the analysis, Black and Asian women members of Parliament still received 35% more abusive tweets than white women members of Parliament.⁹⁸

Women who identified as members of the LGBTQ (lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer) community were also at greater risk of violence. A 2019 Canadian study conducted by Project Someone and UNESCO indicated that an openly lesbian politician received more negative comments than women politicians who were straight, and the majority of these comments were not about her politics, but were instead focused on her appearance and sexual orientation.⁹⁹

According to the United Nations Special Rapporteur on violence against women, Other groups of women parliamentarians which appear to experience disproportionate violence, but for which there is limited data or research, include Indigenous women and women with disabilities.¹⁰⁰

D. Impact on the Political Sphere, Including Elected Assemblies

Sexism, harassment and violence against women politicians have a serious effect on women’s attempt to participate in politics, either as voters, as candidates, or in elected assemblies. Many women leave politics entirely, while others are discouraged from entering politics in the first place, while this is a worrying trend also in journalism.¹⁰¹ Harassment and violence targeting women in the political sphere may scare off girls with political ambition and women who are seriously considering entering politics.¹⁰²

⁹⁶ Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Sexism, harassment and violence against women parliamentarians*, 2016.

⁹⁷ Project Someone and UNESCO, “[Online Misogyny in Canadian Politics. Research Brief](#),” January 2019.

⁹⁸ Amnesty International UK, *Black and Asian women MPs abused more online*, 2017.

⁹⁹ Project Someone and UNESCO, “[Online Misogyny in Canadian Politics. Research Brief](#),” January 2019.

¹⁰⁰ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, “[Violence against women in politics](#),” *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018.

¹⁰¹ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, “[Violence against women in politics](#),” *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018 and National Democratic Institute, “[#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence against Women in Politics](#),” *Submission to the United Nations Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women*, June 2018.

¹⁰² Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe*, 2018; Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, “[Violence against women in politics](#),” *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018.

The physical and mental impact of violence on women in the political sphere is similar in many ways to the impact of abuse on women in journalism. A 2016 IPU study noted women parliamentarians in Europe who had been subjected to physical, sexual or psychological violence felt distraught, humiliated, angered, saddened, disoriented, or had experienced anxiety and sleep disorders. The same study notes that female parliamentary staff who had been subjected to harassment or violence were fearful of losing their jobs, felt isolated and abandoned, and were unable to work normally.¹⁰³

The impact of such violence goes beyond physical and mental health challenges; it is also a direct threat to women's freedom of speech and ability to advance their political priorities. It may lead women to reconsider expressing their opinions, to be more cautious about the causes they support, or to attempt to be less visible. As a result, violence restricts the visibility and influence of women in politics.¹⁰⁴ Of note, 33% of women parliamentarians in Europe stated that the acts of violence to which they had been subjected had affected their freedom of expression and scope for action during their time in office.

The study states that these women:

had decided to limit their presence on social networks or close their account, thereby depriving themselves of outlets for conveying their ideas and debating them. In short, their task as parliamentarians is being complicated by contempt, violence and insecurity. On top of fighting for their ideas, they must also fight for the right to have ideas, to be able to express themselves freely and to be recognized as politicians and as human beings.¹⁰⁵

Violence against women in politics not only represents a threat to women, but to democracy itself.¹⁰⁶ If women cannot participate freely and safely as voters, candidates, election officials or party leaders, the free, fair and inclusive democratic process is undermined.¹⁰⁷ Violence is a serious obstacle to the smooth running of elected assemblies and their ability to serve as inclusive and representative forums for all society. When parliamentary colleagues are the perpetrators of this violence, or do not intervene to protect victims, the reputation and image of politicians and the elected institution as a whole are tarnished. This can erode respect for elected assemblies, lead to a lack of trust in elected officials, and affects how seriously the public views the work of politicians.¹⁰⁸

¹⁰³ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe](#), 2018.

¹⁰⁴ National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics. A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021.

¹⁰⁵ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe](#), 2018.

¹⁰⁶ Rebecca Kuperberg, "[Intersectional Violence against Women in Politics](#)," *Politics & Gender*, Vol. 14, Issue 4, December 2018.

¹⁰⁷ National Democratic Institute, International Foundation for Electoral Systems & US AID, [Violence Against Women in Elections Online: A Social Media Analysis Tool](#), September 2019.

¹⁰⁸ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe](#), 2018.

The underrepresentation of women in the political sphere is both caused and exacerbated by discrimination and gender-based violence.¹⁰⁹ In turn, this underrepresentation negatively affects the work of elected assemblies, who do not adequately incorporate the perspectives and experiences of 50% of the global population. Around the world, women are still significantly underrepresented in parliaments, despite advances in recent decades. Only 24 out of 57 OSCE participating States have reached a level of 30% or more women's representation in parliament – a target established by the Beijing Platform for Action and the Sustainable Development Agenda.¹¹⁰ Until violence against women politicians is sufficiently addressed, this significant lack of equal representation will persist.

BARRIERS TO ADDRESSING VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN JOURNALISTS AND POLITICIANS

There are several significant and complex barriers to addressing violence against women journalists and politicians. To begin, women journalists and politicians underreport the violence they experience. The 2018 IPU and PACE survey in Europe indicated that among women in the political sphere who had been sexually harassed, only 24% of women parliamentarians and 6% of female staff members reported the incident. Even more concerning, among women parliamentarians who had received threats of physical violence, only 50% had reported the incidents to the police, security departments in parliament or other authorities.¹¹¹

There are many reasons that women in journalism and politics often avoid reporting the threats and attacks they face. There is a general stigma associated with gender-based violence, and women may worry that they will appear vulnerable or weak, which could be used as a reason to deny them opportunities. In addition, many women state that the costs of reporting outweighed the benefits, as there may be doubt that their superiors or the authorities will respond to their complaints.¹¹² Therefore, lack of institutional support is an essential barrier, as it reinforces impunity, especially if attacks occur online and are considered “not real”. For women in politics, they may be viewed as politically disloyal if they address

¹⁰⁹ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, “[Violence against women in politics](#),” *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018.

¹¹⁰ Inter-Parliamentary Union, “[Situation as of 1st October 2019](#),” *Women in National Parliaments*; and Inter-Parliamentary Union, “[Situation as of 25 December 1997](#),” *Women in National Parliaments*.

¹¹¹ Inter-Parliamentary Union, [Sexism, harassment and violence against women in parliaments in Europe](#), 2018.

¹¹² Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, “[Violence against women in politics](#),” *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018; and National Democratic Institute, “[#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence against Women in Politics](#),” *Submission to the United Nations Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women*, June 2018.

violence within their own party.¹¹³ As well, workplaces may lack robust and safe reporting mechanisms and services or codes of conduct to support victims of violence.¹¹⁴

Another barrier to addressing this abuse is a lack of comparable, disaggregated data on violence against women journalists and politicians. Without reliable collection efforts and standard indicators for measuring the incidence of violence, it is challenging to prove that each case of violence is not an isolated event, but rather an example of more widespread structural inequities and discrimination against women in public life.¹¹⁵

There are also significant barriers to obtaining justice for all women seeking to address gender-based violence: re-victimization through the reporting and complaint process, a lack of support or guidance from law enforcement officials, and a lack of access to appropriate legal aid and services.¹¹⁶ Threats or harassment – particularly when made online – may be dismissed by authorities if they don't cause physical harm.¹¹⁷

WAYS FORWARD TO ADDRESS VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN JOURNALISTS AND POLITICIANS

The right of women to participate in public life is an internationally recognized human right. The *Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women*, adopted by the UN General Assembly in 1979, specifies that State Parties “shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in the political and public life of the country.”¹¹⁸ In 2018, the OSCE Ministerial Council adopted two landmark decisions on violence against women, including in the context of professional activities and concerning women journalists in particular. In the MC Decision No. 3/18 on the Safety of Journalists¹¹⁹, the OSCE participating States recognize “the distinct risks faced by women journalists in relation to their work, including through digital technologies” and commit themselves to

¹¹³ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, “[Violence against women in politics](#),” *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018.

¹¹⁴ Council of Europe, “[Women in politics and in the public discourse: What role can national Parliaments play in combating the increasing level of harassment and hate speech towards female politicians and parliamentarians?](#),” Background document for the European Conference of Presidents of Parliament, 24-25 October 2019; National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics. A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021.

¹¹⁵ Council of Europe, “[Women in politics and in the public discourse: What role can national Parliaments play in combating the increasing level of harassment and hate speech towards female politicians and parliamentarians?](#),” Background document for the European Conference of Presidents of Parliament, 24-25 October 2019; Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, “[Violence against women in politics](#),” *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018.

¹¹⁶ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, “[Violence against women in politics](#),” *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018.

¹¹⁷ Ibid.

¹¹⁸ UN Women, [Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women](#), 1979.

¹¹⁹ MC Decision No. 3/18 on the Safety of Journalists, 7 December 2018. Available at <https://www.osce.org/files/mcdec0003%20safety%20of%20journalists%20en.pdf>

“ensure their greatest possible safety” and to effectively address “the experiences and concerns of women journalists”. The Decision also calls on the States “to condemn publicly and unequivocally attacks on women journalists in relation to their work, such as sexual harassment, abuse, intimidation, threats and violence, including through digital technologies”. In the MC Decision No. 4/18¹²⁰ on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women, the OSCE participating States recognize that “women engaged in professional activities with public exposure and/or in the interest of society, are more likely to be exposed to specific forms of violence or abuse, threats, and harassment, in relation to their work.” In addition, the participating States commit themselves to ensure access to justice, and to take action to address abuse, threats and harassment, including through digital technologies. On the international stage, the OSCE and OSCE PA should be leaders and incorporate statements in resolutions and declarations that recognize and call for action against the violence targeting women journalists and politicians.¹²¹

To date, the OSCE has done important work on the problem of violence against women in journalism and politics. The OSCE Representative on Freedom of the Media, as part of their campaign for the Safety of Female Journalists, launched a new Resource Guide that provides suggestions for State and non-State actors to protect the safety of female journalists online. The OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights has also been working to promote women’s political participation and gender equality.¹²² Despite these excellent initiatives, there remains more work to be done by both the OSCE and the OSCE PA to respond to this growing crisis; some suggested actions are provided below.

A. The Development and Revision of Legislation

Legislation is a key tool in protecting and seeking justice for women journalists and politicians. Importantly, legal definitions of violence against women journalists and/or politicians can underscore the unique nature of this crime.¹²³ The UN Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences calls for the implementation of “laws to prohibit sexism, harassment and other forms gender-based violence against women in politics, public life and parliament.”¹²⁴

In addition, legislation should be revised or developed to address online violence against women, which is overlooked in most legal frameworks.¹²⁵ As well, gender should be incorporated as a protected characteristic in hate crime legislation, to allow for misogyny to be labelled and prosecuted as a hate

¹²⁰ MC Decision No. 4/18 on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women, 7 December 2018. Available at <https://www.osce.org/files/f/documents/e/e/406019.pdf>.

¹²¹ National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics. A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021.

¹²² OSCE, [Safety of Female Journalists Online](#); and OSCE, [Promoting women’s political participation and gender equality](#).

¹²³ Juliana Restrepo Sanín, “[The Law and Violence against Women in Politics](#),” *Politics & Gender*, Vol. 14, Issue 4, December 2018.

¹²⁴ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, “[Violence against women in politics](#),” *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018.

¹²⁵ National Democratic Institute, International Foundation for Electoral Systems & US AID, [Violence Against Women in Elections Online: A Social Media Analysis Tool](#), September 2019.

crime.¹²⁶ Furthermore, electoral laws – whether existing or in development – should address violence against women and its impact on the democratic process.

Finally, law enforcement agencies should improve their response to threats and violence against women politicians and journalists by ensuring that they uphold legislation by investigating and prosecuting crimes quickly.¹²⁷

The OSCE PA should develop guiding documents for the development and review of legislation by parliamentarians with the specific goal of addressing the violence experienced by women journalists and politicians.

B. Efforts Specific to Parliaments

Parliaments – including the parliaments of OSCE PA participating States – must also take action to address violence against women politicians. The OSCE PA has a unique role in encouraging the parliaments of its participating States to consider implementing several measures, as outlined below and recommended by the National Democratic Institute. These include:¹²⁸

- Establish or review existing parliamentary codes of conduct to ensure they incorporate gender considerations and are effective in responding to violence against parliamentarians and staff;
- Establish dedicated teams to investigate threats and abuse directed at members;
- Create an independent office within parliament that deals with complaints related to violence against women in politics;
- Streamline harassment complaint processes in parliament;
- Create a cross-party working group on sexual harassment that includes parliamentarians, representatives of parliamentary staff, and sexual violence experts;
- Provide gender sensitivity and sexual harassment training – and consider making it compulsory – to parliamentarians; and
- Conduct a confidential survey of parliamentarians' experience with violence.¹²⁹

In addition, parliamentarians can take a number of actions themselves:

- They should promote media and digital literacy among their citizens, which will include raising awareness of the growing problem of violence against women journalists and politicians;

¹²⁶ Ibid.

¹²⁷ OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights, [Compendium of Good Practices for Advancing Women's Political Participation in the OSCE Region](#), 2016.

¹²⁸ National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics, A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021.

¹²⁹ Ibid.

- They should support efforts to increase expertise on the phenomenon by supporting funding for research and dialogue;
- In the process of reviewing, reforming or making laws, parliamentarians should consult with the media sector, the public, and civil society, as well as international and regional intergovernmental bodies and academia; and
- They should condemn all attacks targeting women journalists and politicians, as will be discussed in the next section on “men as allies.”

C. Men as Allies

As well, to tackle this crisis, women journalists and politicians need men to act as allies in the fight to address violence in their fields. Men still comprise the majority of decision makers in these fields, and as such, they are important actors who must acknowledge that this is not a “woman’s problem.” As bystanders, male colleagues should offer support and assistance when they see a woman colleague threatened or abused, whether in person or online.

Furthermore, many male journalists and politicians must examine their own behaviour, as they may be contributing to the problem. In many cases, men must recognize the ways in which they uphold toxic masculinity and that they are entrenched in a patriarchal system associated with violence against women.¹³⁰ All male journalists and politicians must reflect and ask themselves:

- “Could my behaviour constitute harassment or abuse?”;
- “Are my actions or words promoting abuse against a female colleague or am I emboldening the perpetrators of abuse?”; and
- “Have I witnessed acts of violence without intervening to offer support to my female colleague?”

According to the IPU’s 2016 survey of female parliamentarians, 65.5% of respondents said they had been subjected to humiliating sexist remarks, the majority of which were made by male colleagues – from both their own parties and the opposition. As an example, Congresswoman Alexandria Ocasio-Cortez in the United States has been harassed publicly by a number of male colleagues.¹³¹

Efforts to end violence against women and to advance gender equality benefit from men’s participation and collaboration. For instance, the International Foundation for Electoral Systems has developed the Male Allies for Leadership Equality training module, which works simultaneously to sensitize women and men to the importance of working together to lead political processes and democratic development and includes a practical approach on how to share power.¹³² The OSCE PA should collaborate with media

¹³⁰ ACE project: the Electoral Knowledge Network, “[Civil Society Advocacy for Gender Equality in Politics and Inclusive Participation in the Electoral Process](#),” *Gender and Elections*.

¹³¹ Abby Ohlheiser, “[How much more abuse do female politicians face? A lot.](#),” *MIT Technology Review*, 6 October 2020; John Wagner and Felicia Sonmez, “[Rep. Yoho apologizes for Capitol Hill confrontation with Rep. Ocasio-Cortez](#),” *The Washington Post*, 22 July 2020.

¹³² International Foundation for Electoral Systems, “[Violence against Women in Politics](#),” *IFES Submission to the OHCHR Special Rapporteur*, May 2018.

and political institutions to develop interventions that encourage men to act as allies to end all forms of violence against women in journalism and politics.

D. Data Collection

While this report contains data on violence against women journalists and politicians, there is a need to develop and maintain efforts to collect statistics on the prevalence of violence against women journalists and politicians in the OSCE region. This data should be collected using the same methodologies, such as common definitions and indicators.¹³³ Without quality data, it is challenging to identify the perpetrators and measure progress or setbacks over time.¹³⁴ The collection of data is also critical for awareness-raising initiatives, in order to recognize in the institutions and among the general public the widespread nature of the problem of violence against women politicians and journalists.

The OSCE PA should lead efforts to collect and publish data on abuse targeting women journalists and politicians. It is important that such data collection efforts use representative samples, which include women of all different backgrounds, to analyze the differential impact of violence on certain groups of women.¹³⁵

E. Support Services for Women Journalists and Politicians

Women journalists and politicians need access to services that provide guidance, advice and support when they experience violence. Workplaces, in both media and political institutions, should provide survivor-centred and trauma-informed supports and resources for victims of violence and harassment. In addition, workplaces should advance the development of formal or informal networks for women in journalism or the political sphere to connect and support one another when dealing with violence.¹³⁶ Furthermore, governments should provide sustainable funding to women's organizations that fight to end gender-based violence and offer support services to women survivors, including women journalists and politicians.

The OSCE PA should consider developing a group for women parliamentarians of OSCE PA participating States who have experienced violence. This group, if created, could provide women with peer support and access to services, and it could be consulted by the wider membership of the OSCE PA on relevant issues.

¹³³ Julie Ballington, "[Turning the Tide on Violence against Women in Politics: How are We Measuring Up?](#)" *Politics & Gender*, Vol. 14, Issue 4, December 2018.

¹³⁴ National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics. A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021.

¹³⁵ UN Women, "[Data and Violence against Women in Politics](#)," *Expert Group Meeting Report and Recommendations*, New York, 4-5 December 2019.

¹³⁶ National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics. A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021.

F. Election Observation Missions

Election observation missions are an excellent opportunity to protect women from violence in the political sphere. The UN Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences calls on election observation missions to “include information in mission reports on the number or percentage of women who vote and are elected and quantitative and qualitative data on violence against women in politics and elections throughout electoral processes; and train election observers.”¹³⁷

The OSCE PA has played a leading role in election observations across the OSCE region since 1993. In its future electoral observation missions, the OSCE PA should ensure that gender considerations are integrated into its work and that women are able to participate in elections – as voters, observers, or media representatives – without fear or threat of violence.¹³⁸

As a leader in election observation, the OSCE PA should also conduct research, specific to the OSCE region, and publish a guide on how to address violence against women during the electoral process. In addition, the OSCE PA should provide training to election observers to detect and report acts of violence against women in politics.¹³⁹

G. The Women, Peace and Security Agenda

Addressing violence against women journalists and politicians should also be incorporated into the United Nations Security Council resolutions on Women, Peace and Security (WPS). The International Foundation for Electoral Systems calls for extending the interpretation of the WPS agenda to include women’s participation in post-conflict democratization processes. They state that:

*women’s leadership in conflict prevention, management, and resolution and in post-conflict relief and recovery efforts does not end with the signing of a peace treaty: democratization processes are equally vital for achieving the WPS objectives.*¹⁴⁰

The OSCE PA should encourage our OSCE counterparts to incorporate this perspective – that women’s participation as journalists and politicians in post-conflict democratization processes is key to the success of the WPS agenda – when promoting and supporting the WPS agenda in the OSCE region.

¹³⁷ Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences, “[Violence against women in politics](#),” *United Nations General Assembly*, Seventy-third session, 6 August 2018.

¹³⁸ National Democratic Institute, [#NOTTHECOST: Stopping Violence Against Women in Politics. A Renewed Call to Action](#), 2021.

¹³⁹ Ibid.

¹⁴⁰ International Foundation for Electoral Systems, “[Violence against Women in Politics](#),” *IFES Submission to the OHCHR Special Rapporteur*, May 2018.

CONCLUSION

Gender-based violence should not be the cost for women seeking to work in the public sphere. The impact of such violence goes well beyond physical and mental health challenges. Hence, different layers of impact are a direct threat to women's freedom of speech and ability to advance their political priorities. Consider the women who will never become journalists or politicians, or who will leave these fields prematurely, because of threats and violence. In these situations, important stories are never told, and significant pieces of legislation are never written or debated. The OSCE PA and its participating States must celebrate the strength and resilience of women journalists and politicians, and at the same time, step up its efforts to support and protect these women. As parliamentarians, we must lead such efforts and examine what actions our parliaments can take to address the growing crisis of violence against women journalists and politicians.

PART II

GENDER BALANCE IN THE OSCE GOVERNMENTAL STRUCTURES

The PART II of the report provides the analysis of gender balance within the OSCE governmental structures, based on the statistics provided by the Gender Section and the Department of Human Resources of the Office of the Secretary General of the OSCE. The data outlines the representation of women and men in the OSCE Secretariat, Institutions and Field Operations as of 31 December 2020¹⁴¹.

Excluding the staff members of the Special Monitoring Mission to Ukraine (SMM)¹⁴², at the end of 2020 the OSCE staff amounted to 2,184 members, with women representing 48,63% of the total workforce. This demonstrates a slight increase from the previous year (48,40%) and 2018 (48,10%) in female staff's share of the Organization.¹⁴³ As seen in the **Figure 1**, women's share in General Service Staff grew from 48,20% in 2019 to 48,90% in 2020, as well as in Senior Management Staff (from 27,20% in 2019 to 35,71% in 2020), while it slightly dropped in terms of their number in Professional Staff – from 50,10% in 2019 to 50,00% in 2020.

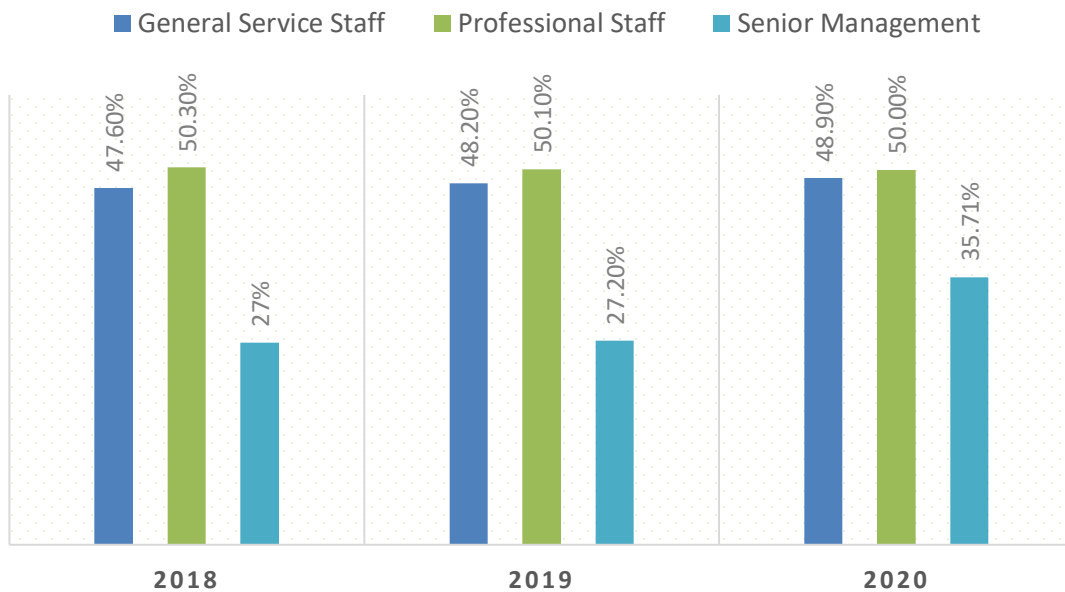


Figure 1 – Positions Held by Women in the OSCE in 2018, 2019 and 2020 without SMM Staff (%)

In terms of the OSCE staff (including the staff members of SMM),¹⁴⁴ as of 31 December 2020, the OSCE employed 3,479 staff, with women representing 41,88% of the total workforce and men 58,12%.

¹⁴¹ Hence, the reporting period of this report section is 1 January 2020 – 31 December 2020.

¹⁴² To provide a more comprehensive overview of the gender balance within the OSCE, the report provides the analyses both including and excluding SMM staff. This is due to their high share in the overall OSCE staff. At the end of 2020, OSCE employed 1,295 staff in SMM, and 3,479 in total.

¹⁴³ See Table A.1 in Appendix A.

¹⁴⁴ See Table A.2 in Appendix A.

Compared to 2019, the overall representation of women was enlarged for 0,18% - their share in 2018 amounted to 41,40% and in 2019 41,70%. As demonstrated in the **Figure 2** below, in 2020 this percentage was raised to 41,88%.

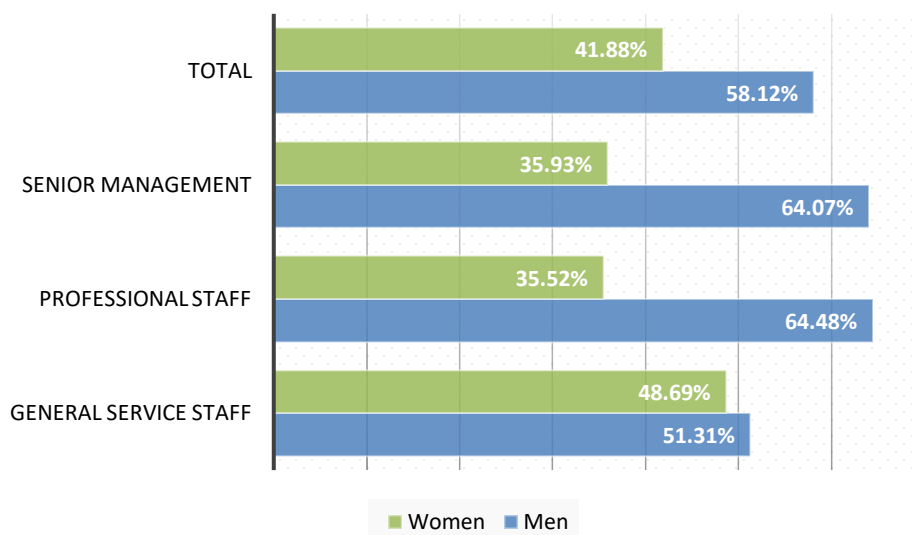


Figure 2 – Post Distribution in the OSCE Secretariat, Institutions and Field Operations by Staff Category including SMM Staff in 2020 (%)

The overall strongest female representation in the Secretariat, Institutions and Field Operations was noted among the General Service staff (48,69%), followed by Professional Staff positions (National Professional Officers, P1 to P4, S, S1 and S2)¹⁴⁵ where women represented 35,52% of the total workforce. In 2020, Senior Management positions continued to be held primarily by men (65,23%), while women’s representation, despite being the lowest compared to the other two staff categories, accounts for 34,73%. Within the Secretariat and Institutions, women held 13 out of the total 33 senior management positions (39,39%), which represents a significant increase compared to 2019, when only 25% of these positions were held by women.¹⁴⁶

A. OSCE Leadership

In December 2020, Ms. Helga Maria Schmid (Germany) was appointed to the post of Secretary General of the OSCE for a three-year term, while Ms. Teresa Ribeiro (Portugal) was appointed as the fifth Representative on Freedom of the Media. At the same time, Mr. Matteo Mecacci (Italy) took up a mandate of a Director of the OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights and Mr. Kairat

¹⁴⁵ The OSCE offers fixed term contracts for positions at the Secretariat, Institutions, and to a limited extent and mainly in the area of administration, at its field operations. Remuneration package and terms of employment are similar to those of the United Nations Common System: General Service (G1 to G7), Professional Staff (NPOs, S, S1, S2, P1 to P4) and Senior Management Staff (S3+, P5+, D, Heads and Deputy Heads of Field Operations and Institutions).

¹⁴⁶ See Table A.3 in Appendix A.

Abdrakhmanov (Kazakhstan) of OSCE High Commissioner on National Minorities. Hence, as of December 2020, two out of four Heads of Institutions (including the Secretary General) are women.

Looking at Heads of Missions, only the Head of the OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina (Ambassador Kathleen Kavalec) is a post held by a woman compared to 13 men holding such positions. At the moment of the drafting of this report (June 2021), the post of the Head of the OSCE Mission to Montenegro is yet to be filled.

B. OSCE Secretariat¹⁴⁷

In total, as of 31 December 2020, women accounted for 53,85% of the OSCE Secretariat's workforce presenting a decrease of 0,75% compared to 2019 (54,60%) and a decrease of 4,55% since 2018 (58,40%).

When it comes to seconded positions (S) in Secretariat, female representation displayed a slight increase (0,9%) with a surge in absolute figures (from 39 in 2019 to 43 in 2020). In 2020, the number of women in Professional and Senior Management Positions in Secretariat (P1-P5, D1, D2 and Heads of Institutions) rose by 1,58% (from 43,80% to 45,38%). This percentage, however, still represents less than half of positions of this kind in the Secretariat. For instance, in 2018, women's share in Professional and Senior Management Positions in Secretariat was significantly higher and amounted to 53,40%. Furthermore, in 2020, 4 director-level positions (D1 and D2) were held by women and 3 by men (9 in total). In 2019, no women were staffing neither D1 nor D2 positions, while in 2018 2 out of 6 such positions were held by women 18¹⁴⁸. As mentioned before, the post of the Secretary General is since December 2020 held by a woman, which represents a significant change in the gender balance of this post – up to December 2020 it was always (since 1993) held by a man.

C. Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR)¹⁴⁹

In 2020, women represented the 60,14% of the total workforce in the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR), thus measuring a decrease of 0,70% since the previous reporting period. Nonetheless, this represents the second highest female representation among the OSCE Secretariat and Institutions after Office of the High Commissioner on National Minorities (HCNM). More than 3 out of 4 General Service positions (76,93%) were held by women, up from 71,21 in 2019 and 68,8% in 2018. Female seconded personnel amounted for 69% in 2020, increased by 2% since 2019 and by 17% since 2018. The overall number of female employees in the professional category (including P1-P5, D1, D2 and Heads of Institutions) shrunk to 41,79%, representing a 5,67% drop since the last reporting period (47,46%). As mentioned before, the Head of ODIHR is a man.

¹⁴⁷ See Table A.4 in Appendix A.

¹⁴⁸ D-level appointments of 2020 do not appear in the Appendix A.5 graph.

¹⁴⁹ See Table A.5 in Appendix A.

D. Office of the High Commissioner on National Minorities (HCNM)¹⁵⁰

In 2020, women represented 69,44% of the workforce in HCNM, measuring the highest female representation among the Secretariat and Institutions. Women held 75% of S-level positions, a slight drop compared to the 80% reported in 2019, but an overall increase from 2018, when 66,70% of such posts were held by women. Concerning P1 to P5 positions, 9 out of 13 of them were held by women. Taking into account professional category positions overall (including P1-P5, D1, D2 and Heads of Institutions) women were represented by 60% of employees, marking a significant surge from the 33,3% in 2018 and 43,75% in 2019 to 60% in 2020. As of December 2020, the position of the Head of Institution as of December 2020 is held by a man.

E. Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media (RFoM)¹⁵¹

In 2020, the workforce of the Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media (RFoM) remained predominantly composed of women (68,75%). Their representation in S-level positions accounted for 4 (out of 5), and 3 out of 5 P-level positions were held by women. D-level position remained without female representation, while the Head of the Institution, as of December 2020, is a woman.

F. Seconded Posts in the Secretariat, Institutions and Field Operations¹⁵²

As of 31 December 2020, the OSCE as a whole had a total of 1,158 seconded staff members from 47 participating States, out of which 27,46% were women and 72,54% men. The seconding States with the highest percentage of female secondees were Iceland and Slovenia (1 women out of 1 secondee, representing 100%), followed by Norway (14 women out of 24, representing 58,33%), and Switzerland (7 women out of 12, representing 58,33%). The parity among seconded posts was achieved for the secondees of the Netherlands (4 women and 4 men) and Ukraine (1 woman and 1 man).

The seconded staff of 8 participating States lacked female participation entirely – Belarus (8 men), Belgium (3 men), Estonia (3 men), Kazakhstan (6 men), Latvia (4 men), Liechtenstein (1 man), Lithuania (2 men), and Mongolia (1 man). The widest gender gaps in favor of men were observed among the staff seconded by the Russian Federation (4% of women – 2 out of 50 secondees), Greece (4,17% - 1 out of 24 secondees) and Turkey (5,88% of women – 1 out of 17 secondees).

G. Field Operations: Gender Balance of Staff Members¹⁵³

As of 31 December 2020, the OSCE comprised 16 Field Missions with a grand total of 2,975 staff members, out of which women represented 39,29% and men 60,71%. The positions within Field Operations included a certain number of local staff members (G1 to G7), Professional staff including locally-employed NPO staff, seconded staff (S1 and S2) and internationally employed P1 to P4 staff, as

¹⁵⁰ See Table A.6 in Appendix A.

¹⁵¹ See Table A.7 in Appendix A.

¹⁵² See Table A.8 in Appendix A. Please note that seconded SMM members are included.

¹⁵³ See Table A.9 in Appendix A.

well as Senior Managements Staff (internationally employed), including S3 and higher, P5 and higher, Directors, Deputy Heads and Heads of Field Operations.

In December 2020, the largest staffed OSCE Field Operations were traditionally the Special Monitoring Mission to Ukraine (1,295 members, including 30,61% of women and 68,39% men) and the Mission in Kosovo, (435 members, including 35,63% of women and 64,37% men). Hence, these two largest Missions held similar gender balance percentages as in the previous year.

The OSCE Field Operations with the highest proportion of employed women in December 2020 continued to be the OSCE Project Co-ordinator in Ukraine (64,50%), the OSCE Mission to Montenegro (61%), the OSCE Presence in Albania (6,44%) as well as the OSCE Mission to Serbia (53%). Other Field Operations where women represented the majority of the workforce included the OSCE Project Co-ordinator in Uzbekistan (51,50%) and the OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina (51%).

In 2020, a majority of the OSCE Field Operations managed to maintain a close to equal gender balance – 40-60% of posts were held by women. There were, however, some exceptions, where the representation of women among the OSCE staff was below 40%, including the OSCE Mission to Kosovo (35,63% of staff were women), the OSCE Special Monitoring Mission to Ukraine (30,61%), the Personal Representative of the CiO on the Conflict dealt with by the Minsk Conference (29,50%) and the Observer Mission at the two Russian Checkpoints (22%).

Within Field Operations¹⁵⁴, women represented 45,16% of General Service Staff¹⁵⁵ (a slight drop compared to 44,70% in 2019) and 34,07% of Professional Staff¹⁵⁶ (also representing a decrease compared to 34,20% in 2019). Looking at the Senior Management Staff positions, there has been a surge in the percentage of represented women – 33,58% of such posts were held by women, compared to 21,5% in 2019 and 28,5% in 2018.

H. Latest Gender-related Developments in the OSCE

The OSCE has a long-standing commitment to the principle of gender equality in its internal structures, established by the 2004 Gender Action Plan (GAP). Its Programme for Gender Issues provides guidance and expertise to ensure that gender mainstreaming is applied in all programmes, projects and activities throughout the Secretariat, Institutions and Field Operations. Gender parity, the equal representation of women and men at all levels of the organization, is outlined as an explicit goal of the Organization.

Currently, the Programme for Gender Issues works with the Department of Human Resources to develop and implement measures according to the OSCE Gender Parity Strategy to attain equal representation of women and men by 2026. The Strategy establishes clear objectives covering the entire Organization and aims to foster an inclusive, enabling work environment and a bias-free work culture, in order to enhance talent management and to increase leadership and accountability as mutually re-enforcing streams of work. It introduces more robust gender equitable selection processes and provides for systematic

¹⁵⁴ See Table A.10 in Appendix A.

¹⁵⁵ Positions from G1 to G7.

¹⁵⁶ Positions including NPOs, S1, S2, P1 to P4.

monitoring to hold hiring managers accountable. Initial results have been positive, although the number of women in senior management positions (S4 and P5 and above) remains low.

On a similar note, the **Third Gender Equality Review Conference (GERC)** was organized on-line on 27 and 28 October 2020, serving as a platform for experts to discuss progress and challenges, share good practices and lessons learned, and identify recommendations for moving forward with the implementation of OSCE gender equality commitments in a changing political and economic global context. The Final Report¹⁵⁷ from the Conference outlined following recommendations for OSCE Executive Structures:

- Increase gender parity among staff, particularly in field missions, and at decision-making levels;
- Transform organizational culture that promotes equality through gender awareness trainings and leadership actions;
- Ensure that working conditions across all executive structures promote equality for all staff
- Enhance accountability of managers to promoting gender equality;
- Enhance the level of mainstreaming gender perspective in policies, programmes and projects across executive structures.

Furthermore, the OSCE Secretary General's 2020 Annual Progress Report¹⁵⁸ on the Implementation of the OSCE 2004 Action Plan on the Promotion of Gender Equality outlines that, despite the challenging circumstances posed by the outbreak of COVID-19, the OSCE witnessed important achievements towards gender equality. Those include the following:

- **Provision of support to women in vulnerable situations:** The bulk of the OSCE's COVID-19 response in 2020 focused on the prevention of domestic violence, access to essential services and support to women who have experienced violence. An estimated number of 4,600 women benefitted from the OSCE's practical assistance during the pandemic.
- **More knowledge and better analysis of gender equality in the OSCE area:** Against the background of the 25th anniversary of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, and the 20th anniversary of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security, the OSCE undertook important gender equality-related analytical work assessing the state of gender equality in its region. This included the preparation of thematic discussion papers, providing evidence on the implementation of gender equality-related commitments and informing the discussions at the OSCE's Third GERC mentioned above. The Gender Issues Programme also carried out the study *"Implementing the Women, Peace and Security (WPS) Agenda in the OSCE Region"* assessing national action plans on WPS, and proposing recommendations.

¹⁵⁷ Third OSCE Gender Equality Review Conference - Final Report, 11 January 2021. Available at <https://www.osce.org/secretariat/475580>.

¹⁵⁸ 2020 Annual Progress Report on the Implementation of the OSCE 2004 Action Plan on the Promotion of Gender Equality (Towards Gender Equality in the OSCE), July 2021.

- **More women in the OSCE leadership:** A milestone on the way to full parity in the Organization's leadership was attained with the increased representation of women in senior management (S4/P5 and above) in 2020.
- **Better skills for gender equality:** The number of staff exposed to training related to gender equality was particularly high in 2020 due to the introduction of mandatory e-learning training on gender equality and the increased reliance on online formats. Moreover, the Gender Issues Programme conducted an organization-wide capacity assessment, which provides the baseline for future training activities and a more systematic approach towards building institutional capacities in gender mainstreaming.

FEMALE REPRESENTATION IN THE SPECIAL MONITORING MISSION TO UKRAINE

A. Gender Equality Action Plan

To address the gender aspects of the work of the mission and to incorporate gender mainstreaming in the SMM agenda and activities, the SMM Gender Focal Point (GFP) Network was introduced in 2015. The Network is led by the Senior Gender Adviser Kyiv, who co-ordinates the efforts of all the GFPs in the field.

In 2016, SMM developed the first Gender Equality Action Plan (GEAP) as a part of its overall strategy and had three key objectives: integration of gender equality principles into the SMM structures and working environment; gender mainstreaming in the SMM monitoring and reporting work and in the other mandated activities; coordination and liaising with international and national stakeholders, including civil society, on gender equality issues.¹⁵⁹ In April 2021, the SMM launched its new GEAP covering the period from April 2021 to March 2023.¹⁶⁰ The 2021-2023 plan has an internal and an external dimension – the first places a particular emphasis on the promotion of a professional working environment, while the other is focused on incorporating a gender perspective into the SMM's monitoring and reporting efforts, whilst aiming at enhancing the Mission's engagement with women working towards peace and security in eastern Ukraine.¹⁶¹

¹⁵⁹ OSCE, [2016 Annual Progress Report on the Implementation of the OSCE 2004 Action Plan on the Promotion of Gender Equality](#), p. 30.

¹⁶⁰ The information contained in this paragraph was provided in June 2021 by the OSCE staff working on gender-related issues in SMM.

¹⁶¹ Objectives of the 2021-2023 GEAP are the following: Part A (Promoting gender parity and a gender-sensitive and inclusive work environment): 1) The SMM closely analyzes and actively promotes gender parity in its workforce; 2) The SMM, especially its managers, promote gender equality and a professional working environment; 3) there is a continuous and relevant flow of information about gender equality and the professional working environment to all MMs. Part B (Integrating a gender perspective into SMM's engagements and products): 1) The SMM actively encourages and practices gender-sensitive monitoring, reporting and briefing; 2) The SMM's Gender Expert Structure (GES) is further professionalized; 3) There is a solid flow of information about gender equality and specific gender issues to external audiences.

B. Gender Balance Among the SMM Staff Members

As of 31 December 2020, the SMM comprised 1,295 staff members, of which 30,53% were women and 69,47% men.¹⁶² Hence, women represented less than a third of employees in this Mission. To achieve gender parity, the SMM has continuously encouraged participating States to nominate female candidates for managerial positions in the Mission. However, also in 2020, the number of women-held managerial and professional positions remained low. More specifically, women represented 48,04% of G-level positions, 21,57% of Professional Staff positions and 35,72% of Senior Management positions.

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

The analysis of the gender balance among the OSCE Ambassadors and Permanent Representatives – presented in the following Section – shows the representation of women and men among the Ambassadors/Permanent Representatives to the OSCE Permanent Council based in Vienna as of June 2021. It includes the Ambassadors/Permanent Representatives of the 57 participating States (plus the EU Ambassador), the Ambassadors of the eleven OSCE Partners for Co-Operation and the Ambassador of the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly.

At the time of the drafting of this report there were 70 Permanent Representations to the OSCE Permanent Council, with women representing 35,72% and men 64,28% of the total number, as demonstrated in the **Figure 3**. This shows an increase by 5,89% in female representation compared to the data from the previous reporting period (2019).¹⁶³

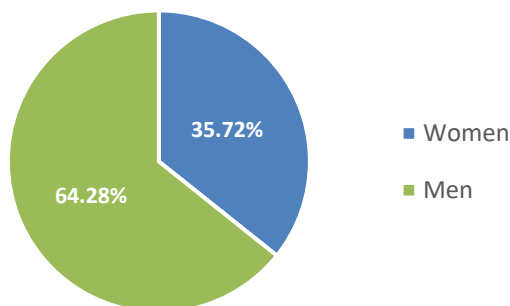


Figure 3 – Ambassadors/Permanent Representatives to the OSCE Permanent Council as of June 2021

¹⁶² See Table A.11 in Appendix A.

¹⁶³ See Table A.12 in Appendix A.

GENDER BALANCE IN THE OSCE PA

During the Vilnius Annual Session in 2009, the Standing Committee amended the OSCE PA's Rules of Procedure, agreeing to introduce a new sub-clause to Rule 1 stating that ***“each national Delegation should have both genders represented.”***¹⁶⁴ Furthermore, in 2011, the OSCE PA adopted a Resolution on ***“Women’s representation at the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly”***¹⁶⁵ urging national parliaments to enhance the representation of women in the national delegations to the OSCE PA. The Resolution noted with concern that, in February 2011, 17 of the 57 national delegations to the OSCE PA were comprised of men only. Moreover, it indicated that only ten delegations were headed by women, as well as that out of the 307 delegates at the time, only 73 (23,7%) of them were women.

Since adoption of the above-mentioned resolution, positive efforts have been achieved by the national delegations to improve the gender balance within the Parliamentary Assembly. At the time of drafting of this report¹⁶⁶, there were 3 delegations primarily comprised by men – Croatia, Malta and Turkey.¹⁶⁷

Furthermore, the OSCE PA has been particularly engaged in reinforcing and expanding dialogue on gender-related topics while promoting the consideration of gender perspectives in all parliamentary and legislative work of the OSCE participating States. During the Annual Session held in Luxembourg in 2019, gender-related resolutions accounted for 2 out of the 15 adopted in total by OSCE PA members¹⁶⁸. These reflected key and timely relevant topics such as on the advantages of the digitalization process on gender policies as well as on gender and youth-related considerations in climate change policy agendas.

In 2020, following the COVID-19 health crisis and its effect on rising incidents of domestic violence across the region, the OSCE PA, together with the OSCE Secretariat and ODIHR urged governments to consider specific measures in order to ensure the protection of women and children¹⁶⁹. In parallel, as part of its series of Parliamentary Web Dialogues initiated as a response to the COVID-19 pandemic, the OSCE PA dedicated several Dialogues specifically to the topics of “Gendered impacts of the health crisis”, “Parliamentarians and journalists: partners against corruption” and “Evidence-based lawmaking in combating violence against women”.¹⁷⁰ The OSCE PA Special Representative on Gender Issues, Dr. Hedy Fry, actively took part in the above-mentioned Parliamentary Web Dialogues moderating and/or reporting on gender-related developments amid the COVID-19 pandemic.

¹⁶⁴ Also present in OSCE PA Rules of Procedure, 21 March 2020. Available at <https://www.oscepa.org/ru/dokumenty/rules-of-procedure/1832-rules-of-procedure-english/file>.

¹⁶⁵ OSCE PA Resolution on Women’s Representation at the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly, 20th Annual Session, 6-10 July 2011. Available at <https://www.oscepa.org/en/documents/annual-sessions/2011-belgrade/declaration-4/3030-belgrade-resolutions-eng/file>.

¹⁶⁶ June 2021.

¹⁶⁷ See Table A.18 in Appendix A.

¹⁶⁸ See OSCE PA [2019 Luxembourg Declaration](#).

¹⁶⁹ [Press Release](#), April 2, 2020.

¹⁷⁰ The full list is available in Section I of Part II of this Report.

A. Member Directory Statistics¹⁷¹

The membership of the OSCE PA continues to be dominated by male representation in June 2021, as in the previous years. Almost, almost three quarters of both regular OSCE PA Members, including Heads of Delegation and Deputy Member of Delegations, as well as OSCE PA Alternate Members are men – holding a combined number of 384 out of 588 positions (65,42%). As seen on the **Figure 4**, female representation to the Assembly accounts for 34,58%. At the time of drafting of this report, there were three Delegations in which female delegates outnumbered their male colleagues – Albania, Norway, and Canada. Delegations of Belgim, Liechtenstein, Monaco, Serbia, Uzbekistan have currently achieved absolute gender parity among their members. Secretaries of Delegations remained predominantly women (54 out of 85), representing the majority (63,53%) of positions in this category.¹⁷²

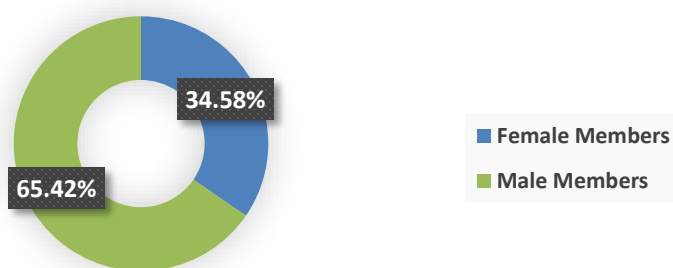


Figure 4 – Gender Balance of the OSCE PA Members (HoD, DHoD, Members, Alternate Members) as of June 2021

In terms of composition of the staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat, as of June 2021, it amounts to 12 female staff members (46,15%) and 14 male (53,85%), including the permanent staff, as well as Research Assistants. **Figure 5** below demonstrates the OSCE PA sex disaggregated data as of June 2021, including Members, Alternate Members, Secretaries of Delegations and the OSCE PA Staff.

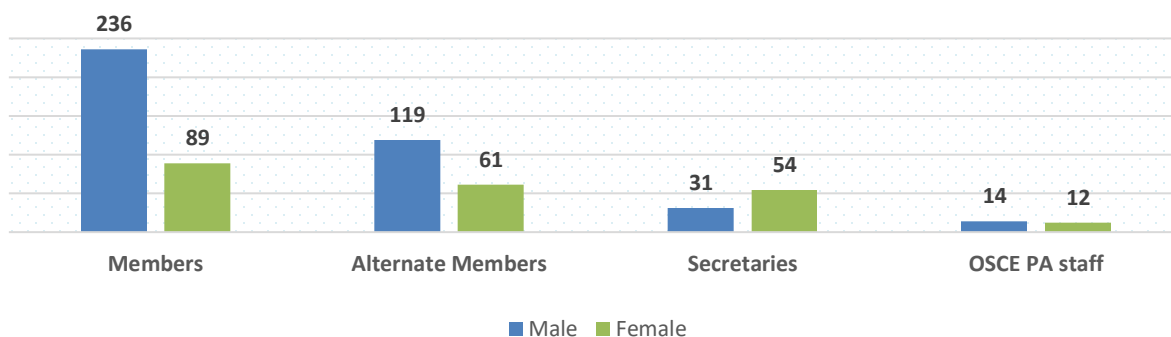


Figure 5 – OSCE PA sex-disaggregated as of June 2021

¹⁷¹ The OSCE PA Member Directory is available on request from the International Secretariat.

¹⁷² See Table A.13 in Appendix A. Co-Secretaries and Deputy of Delegation have also been included in this category.

B. Initiative to Boost Women’s Participation

Since 2011, national delegations to the OSCE PA have taken up efforts to increase their memberships’ compliance with Article 1.4 of the OSCE PA Rules of Procedure¹⁷³. Throughout the years, this has led to a significant decrease in the number of delegations with no female representation. As visible on **Figure 6**, the number dropped from 17 in 2011 to 10 in 2012 and 2013, and further to 9 in 2014, before rising again to 10 in 2015. This trend shrunk to 6 in 2016 and 2017. As of June 2021, 3 delegations remain without female representatives – Croatia, Malta, and Turkey. Hence, during the past 10 years, a number of male-dominated delegations experienced a considerable decrease.

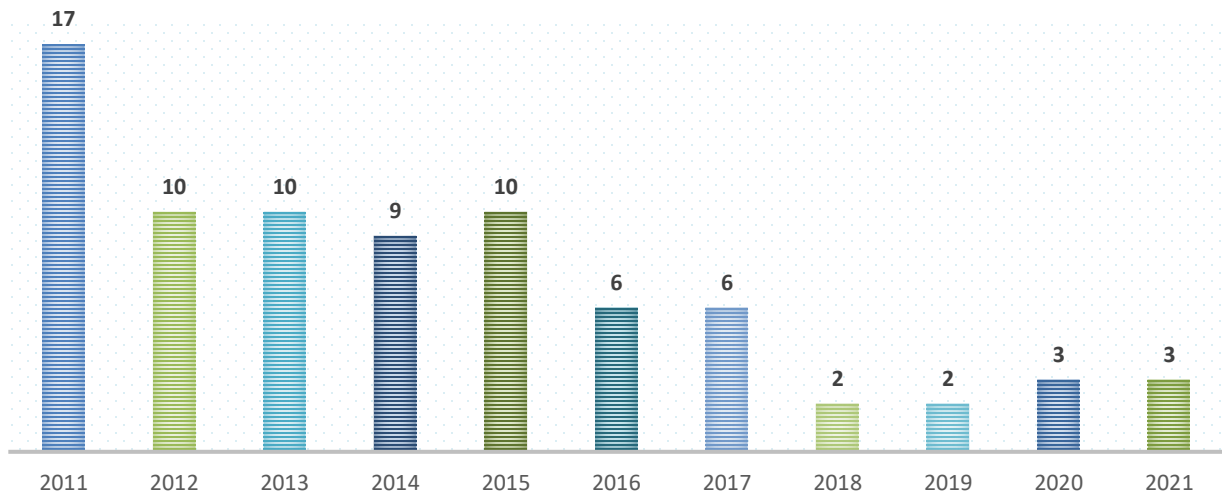


Figure 6 – Number of delegations with no female members (2011 – 2021)

As of June 2021, there were 16 OSCE PA national delegations led by women, a number increased by one compared to the previous reporting period (there were 15 women as Heads of Delegations in 2019).

C. Gender balance in the Bureau

The Bureau of the OSCE PA is composed of the President, 9 Vice-Presidents, the Treasurer, and the President Emeritus, as well as the 3 Officers of each of the General Committees. As of June 2021, three positions for Vice-Presidents remain vacant. The Bureau is comprised 18 members – 5 of whom are female – providing for a 72,22% to 27,78% ratio in favour for male members. Compared to 2020 sex-disaggregated data of the Bureau members, there has been an increase by 2,78% in the female representation. Nonetheless, as seen on the **Figure 8**, the numbers of 2021 still remain bellow the targeted goal of 30% suggested in 2011.¹⁷⁴

¹⁷³ OSCE PA Rules of Procedure. Available at <https://www.oscepa.org/en/documents/rules-of-procedure/1832-rules-of-procedure-english/file>.

¹⁷⁴ Please see Address by Dr. Hedy Fry, Special Representative on Gender Issues to the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly, 10th Winter Meeting, 24–25 February 2011, Vienna, Austria.

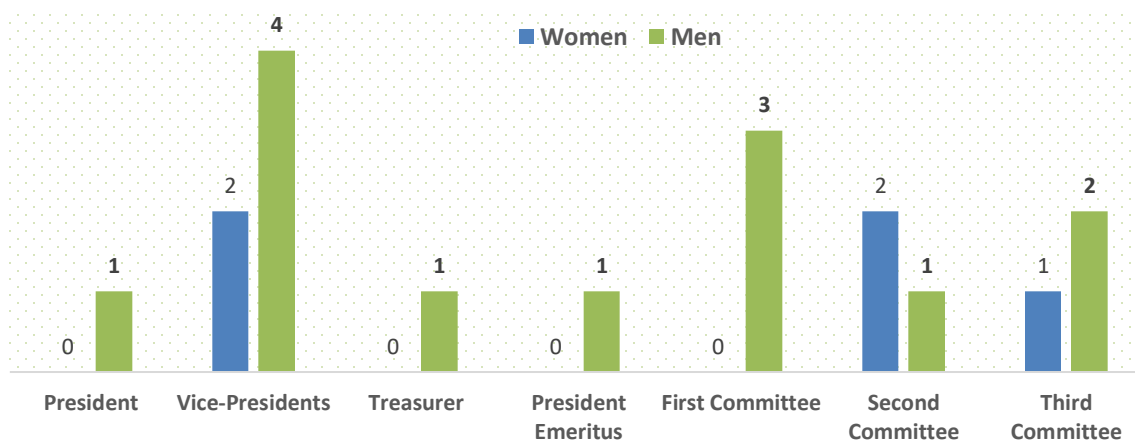


Figure 8 – Gender Balance of OSCE PA Bureau Members as of June 2021

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

The statistics regarding gender balance among the positions of OSCE PA Presidents and Vice-Presidents have varied throughout the time. In May 2017, the President of the OSCE PA was a woman, Ms. Christine Muttonen (Austria), and among the eight Vice-Presidents only one, Isabel Santos (Portugal), was female. Since November 2017, the OSCE PA President was Mr. George Tsereteli (Georgia) until December 2020 when Peter Lord Bowness assumed his post until the Annual Session 2021. At the time of drafting of this report, 2 out of the 9 Vice-President positions were held by female delegates, Ms. Margareta Cederfelt (Sweden) and Ms. Kari Henriksen (Norway), decreased by 1 since 2019. Ms. Doris Barnett (Germany) was replaced by Mr. Peter Juel-Jensen (Denmark) as a Treasurer for the Bureau.¹⁷⁵

2. Officers of the OSCE PA General Committees

Due to the cancellation of the Annual Session 2020, the composition of the Officers of the General Committees remained unchanged since the last reporting period. In June 2021, female members hold 3 out of the total 9 Committee officer posts, whereas they held 4 positions in 2019 and 2 positions in 2018. Since March 2020, 1 female delegate, Ms. Doris Barnett (Germany) is holding the position of Chair of the Second Committee.

D. Female Participation in the OSCE PA Annual Sessions and Winter Meetings

The charts below show the percentage of female parliamentarians who participated in the OSCE PA Annual Sessions (**Figure 9**) and Winter Meetings (**Figure 10**). With regards to the female participation in OSCE PA Annual Sessions, the highest participation of women was noted in 2014, when 29% of participants were female. As demonstrated in the Figure 9, the female parliamentary participation in Annual Sessions since 2010 has varied only slightly – between 21% and 29%. Taking into account that due to COVID-19 pandemic the 2020 Annual Session did not take place, the latest available data on female participation stems from 2019.

¹⁷⁵ See Table A.14 in Appendix A.

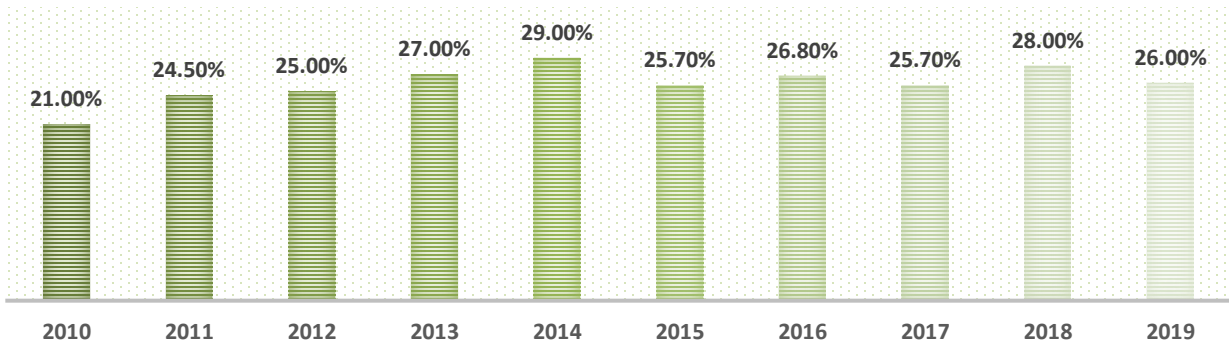


Figure 9 – % Female Parliamentarian Participation in OSCE PA Annual Sessions 2010–2019

The overall percentage of female participation in the OSCE Winter Meetings¹⁷⁶ has decreased since the 2014 OSCE PA Winter Meeting, which saw the highest percentage of female participants in the last ten years (30%).¹⁷⁷ However, since 2016, female participation is presenting a growing trend. As shown in the **Figure 10**, the 2021 Winter Meeting, which was held online, witnessed the highest percentage of female delegates (28,77%) among the last six sessions (2016 – 2021). As this was the only virtual Winter Meeting since the establishment of the OSCE PA, it is difficult to draw any conclusions pertaining to the variation in gender balance among participants due to the online format of the event.

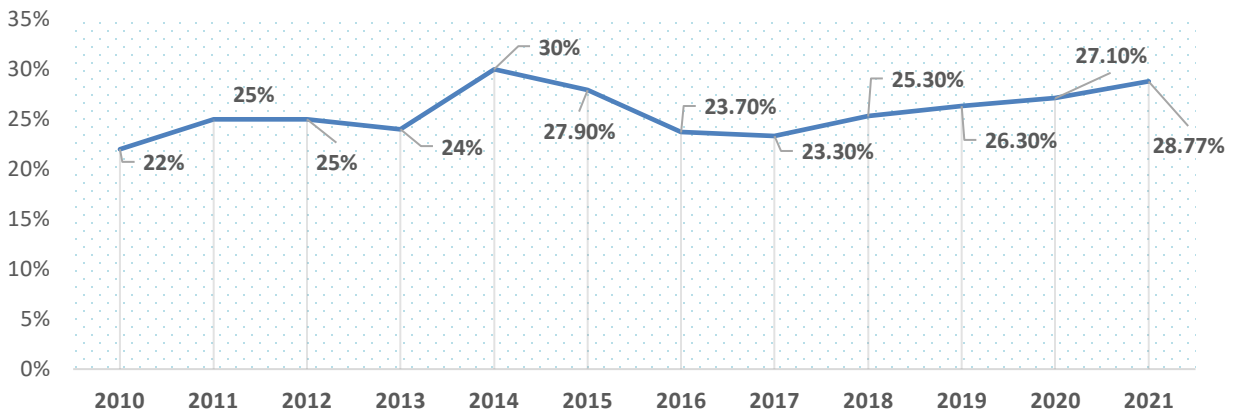


Figure 10 – Female parliamentarian participation in OSCE PA Winter Meetings 2010–2021 (%)

¹⁷⁶ See Table A.16 in Appendix A.

¹⁷⁷ See OSCE PA Gender Balance Report, July 2014.

E. Female Participation in the OSCE PA Election Monitoring 2019–2020¹⁷⁸

Every year, OSCE PA Election Observation Missions (EOM) are composed of women and men. The figures concerning female participation in OSCE PA election monitoring show that during the 2020-2021 reporting period, the overall number of female observers was 56 (~23%), representing approximately a quarter of the total number of observers deployed (239) during the year.

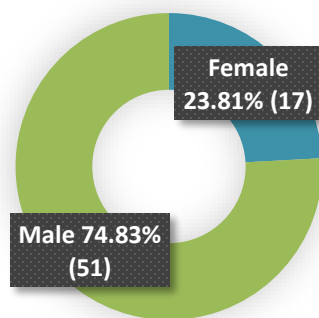


Figure 11 – Female Participation in the OSCE PA Election Monitoring 2020-2021 (%)¹⁷⁹

Overall, during the 2020-2021 reporting period, female members held approximately 45% of election observation leadership positions, comprising Special Co-ordinators designated by the Chairman-in-Office to lead short-term observers and Heads of OSCE PA observation missions. As demonstrated in **Figure 11**, eight EOMs organized in 2020 and 2021 (until June), were staffed by 23,81% female and 74,83% male delegates. For a more detailed breakdown for each EOM, please consult **Figure 12** below.

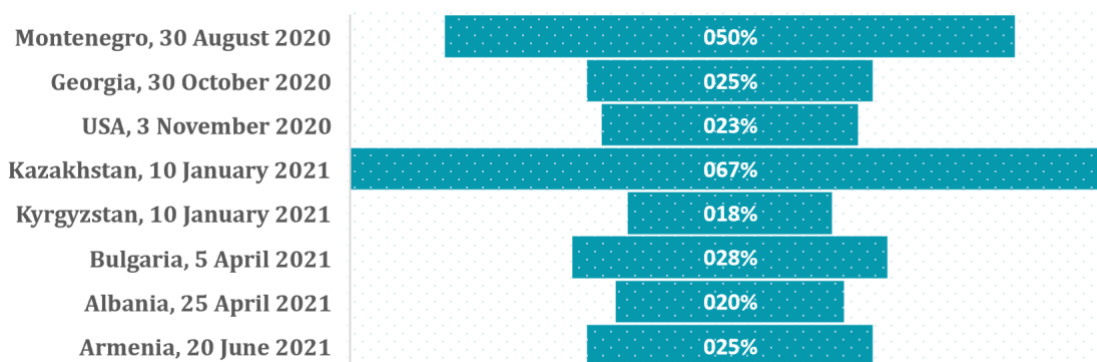


Figure 12 – Female Delegate Representation in Election Monitoring 2020–2021 (%)

¹⁷⁸ See Table A.17 in Appendix A.

¹⁷⁹ Note: Diagram includes Heads of delegations, Special Co-ordinators of delegations and Members of delegations. Diagram covers OSCE PA Election Monitoring as of 1 June 2021.

F. Permanent Staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat

Currently, the permanent staff of the OSCE PA International Secretariat, including the Vienna Liaison Office, is comprised of 26 individuals, of whom 12 are female staff members, increased by 2 since the last reporting period. The posts of the OSCE PA Secretary General and two Deputies are held by male staff members.

G. The International Research Assistant Programme

The International Secretariat of the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly regularly organizes Research Assistant Programme, through which it engages graduate students for a period of six months each to provide them an opportunity to gain practical experience in the field of international affairs. Through this programme, Research Assistants develop their knowledge of international politico-military, economic and environmental, and human rights affairs and build their professional skills in areas related to the work of the Parliamentary Assembly. In June 2021, there were 5 Research Assistants working at the International Secretariat in Copenhagen, and 5 in the Vienna Liaison Office – in total 2 male and 8 female.

H. Female Representation in National Parliaments of OSCE participating States

As per the data provided by the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), female representation in of OSCE participating States' parliaments has increased by 10% (from 29% in 2020 to 38% in 2021). Within the OSCE region, **Hungary** remains the country with the smallest number of female representation in its parliament accounting for only 12,06%, followed by **Malta** (13,43%).

On the other hand, **Sweden** (46,99%), **Andorra** (46,43%), **Finland** (46%) and **Norway** (44,4%)¹⁸⁰ report the highest female representation in their respected legislative bodies.¹⁸¹

I. Parliamentary Web Dialogues in 2020 and 2021

The OSCE PA, in an effort to promote inter-parliamentary dialogue on relevant security developments pertaining to the ongoing COVID-19 crisis, introduced in April 2020 a series of regularly conducted online meetings for members of the Assembly, covering a broad range of issues of all three general dimensions. The Parliamentary Web Dialogues (PWD) were initiated as an attempt to foster dialogue between members as well as with experts, allowing for reflection on key policy challenges while promoting the exchange of good practices among lawmakers across the OSCE region. In 2020, the OSCE PA conducted 11 Web Dialogues, and 10 in 2021 (until June 2021). In total 21 PWDs and online PA-wide events listed below were held since the beginning of the COVID-19 outbreak.

¹⁸⁰ Calculation of female representation in the 2 legislative bodies combined.

¹⁸¹ See Table A.18 in Appendix A.

2020

1. "The Economic Security Fallout of the COVID-19 Pandemic" PWD (22 April 2020)
2. "Respecting HR and democratic control during states of emergency" PWD (8 May 2020)
3. "COVID's Impact on Conflicts in the OSCE region" PWD (15 May 2020)
4. "COVID-19: A turning point for environmental protection?" (22 May 22 2020)
5. "Protecting Refugees and Migrants during the Pandemic: Camps under lockdown" PWD (26 May 2020)
6. Joint OSCE PA-PAM-UNOCT "Countering Terrorism and Violent Extremism amidst the COVID-19 Pandemic" (30 June 2020)
7. "Gendered Impacts of COVID-19" PWD (15 June 2020)
8. "COVID-19 response in diverse societies: challenges and opportunities for stability and social cohesion" PWD (22 June 2020)
9. "From the Arctic to global: The Political Role in addressing Climate Change" PWD (16 September 2020)
10. "Parliamentarians & Journalists: Partners against Corruption" PWD (14 October 2020)
11. "Paris Charter Anniversary Event" (20 November 2020)

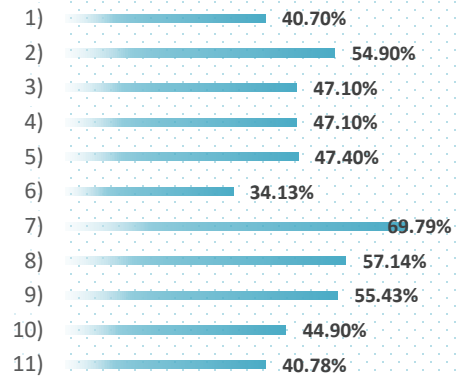


Figure 13 - Female Participation in OSCE PA Web Dialogues and other PA-wide online events in 2020 (%)

2021

1. "Towards Helsinki +50: Reaffirming a Common Purpose" (27 January 2021)
2. Second Meeting of the OSCE PA "Call for Action - Helsinki +50 Process" (10 March 2021)
3. "Humanitarian Protection and Human Rights in Conflict Zones" PWD (12 March 2021)
4. International Parliamentary Conference "Global Challenges and Threats in the Context of the COVID-19 Pandemic: Terrorism and Violent Extremism" (15 April 2021)
5. Third Meeting of the OSCE PA "Call for Action - Helsinki +50 Process" (5 May 2021)
6. Online CCT Hearing on "Prosecution, Rehabilitation and Reintegration of Foreign Terrorist Fighters (FTFs) - the Kazakh Experience" (18 May 2021)
7. Joint event of the OSCE PA, the ODIHR and the OSCE Secretariat Gender Issues Programme on "Evidence-based law making to prevent and combat violence against women" (19 May 2021)
8. "Framing the Environmental Security - Public Health Nexus" PWD (25 May 2021)
9. "OSCE Parliamentary Assembly Meeting with Young Political Leaders" (27 May 2021)
10. "Health as a human right" PWD (4 June 2021)
11. Web Parliamentary Dialogue on "Transparency and Predictability in Military Affairs: The Role of the OSCE" (14 June 2021)

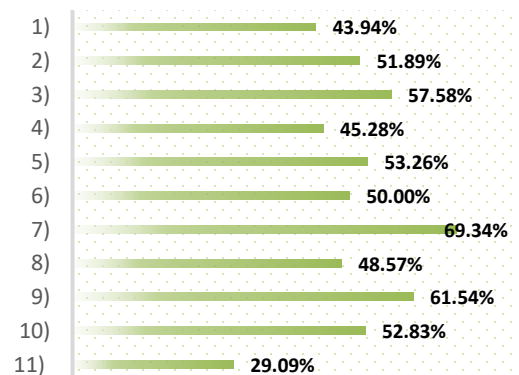


Figure 14 - Female Participation in OSCE PA Web Dialogues and other PA-wide online events in 2021 (%)

According to final registrations, more than half (50,12%) of the OSCE PA online Web Dialogues participants were female (1060 out of 2115). They accounted for 30 out of the total 73 invited speakers (41,10%), and for 308 out of the 828 registrations of female members of delegations (37,20%). Notably, the most by female participants attended Web dialogues in 2020 and in 2021 were: “Evidence-based law making to prevent and combat violence against women” and “Gendered Impacts of COVID-19” as outlined below in **Figure 13** and **Figure 14**¹⁸².

¹⁸² Figures are based upon registration confirmations (received prior to an event) and do not represent the final number of participants attending the events.

APPENDIX A

Table A.1

A1. Post Distribution of Staff in the OSCE without SMM Members				
2020				
Category	Men	Women	Total	% Women
General Service Staff	650	622	1.272	48,90%
Professional Staff	400	400	800	50,00%
Senior Management	72	40	112	35,71%
Total	1.122	1.060	2.184	48,63%

Note: Figures as of 31 December 2020.

Table A.2

A2. Post Distribution of Staff in the OSCE with SMM Members					
2020					
Category	Men	Women	Total	% Men	% Women
General Service Staff	862	818	1.680	51,31%	48,69%
Professional Staff	1.051	579	1.630	64,48%	35,52%
Senior Management	109	60	167	64,07%	35,93%
Total	2.022	1.457	3.479	58,12%	41,88%

Note: Figures as 31 December 2020.

Table A.3

A3. Post Distribution of the OSCE Staff in the OSCE Secretariat, Institutions and Field Operations, Including SMM Members				
2020				
Secretariat and Institutions Staff				
Category	Men	Women	Total	% Women
General Service Staff	97	188	285	65,96%
Professional Staff	99	87	186	46,77%
Senior Management	20	13	33	39,39%
Total	216	288	504	57,14%
Field Operations Staff				
Category	Men	Women	Total	% Women
General Service Staff	765	630	1.395	45,16%
Professional Staff	952	492	1.444	34,07%
Senior Management	89	45	134	33,58%
Total	1.806	1.167	2.973	39,25%

Note: Figures as of 31 December 2020.

Table A.4

A4. Post Distribution of the OSCE Staff in the OSCE Secretariat												
2020												
Category	G1-G7	G in %	NP	S	S in %	P1-P5	D1	D2	Head of Inst.	P+ in %	Total	Total in %
Women	122	61,31%	0	43	49,43%	54	3	1	1	45,38%	224	53,85%
Men	77	38,69%	0	44	50,57%	68	3	0	0	54,61%	192	46,15%
Total	199	100%	0	87	100%	122	6	1	1	100%	416	100%

Note: Figures as of 31 December 2020.

Table A.5

A5. Post Distribution in the Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights (ODIHR)												
2020												
Category	G1-G7	G in %	NP	S	S in %	P1-P5	D1	D2	Head of Inst.	P+ in %	Total	Total in %
Women	50	76,93%	0	11	69%	28	0	0	0	41,79%	89	60,14%
Men	15	23,07%	0	5	31%	38	0	0	1	58,21%	59	39,86%
Total	65	100%	0	16	100%	66	0	0	1	100%	148	100%

Note: Figures as of 31 December 2020.

Table A.6

A6. Post Distribution in the Office of the High Commissioner on National Minorities (HCNM)												
2020												
Category	G1-G7	G in %	NP	S	S in %	P1-P5	D1	D2	Head of Inst.	P+ in %	Total	Total in %
Women	13	76%	0	3	75,00%	9	0	0	0	60,00%	25	69,44%
Men	4	24%	0	1	25,00%	4	1	0	1	40,00%	11	30,56%
Total	17	100%	0	4	100%	13	1	0	1	100%	36	100%

Note: Figures as of 31 December 2020.

Table A.7

A7. Post Distribution in the Office of the Representative on Freedom of the Media (RFOM)												
2020												
Category	G1-G7	G in %	NP	S	S in %	P1-P5	D1	D2	Head of Inst.	P+ in %	Total	Total in %
Women	3	75%	0	4	60%	3	0	0	1	57,14%	11	68,75%
Men	1	25%	0	1	20%	2	1	0	0	42,86%	5	31,25%
Total	4	100%	0	5	100%	5	1	0	1	100%	16	100%

Note: Figures as of 31 December 2020.

Table A.8

A8. Seconded Staff by Country and Gender (Field operations + Secretariat and Institutions)				
2020				
Seconding Country	% Women	Men	Women	Total Seconded Staff
Albania	25,00%	9	3	12
Germany	45,16%	34	28	62
The United States	36,79%	67	39	106
Armenia	40,00%	3	2	5
Austria	40,00%	12	8	20
Azerbaijan	25,00%	3	1	4
Belarus	0,00%	8	0	8
Belgium	0,00%	3	0	3
Bosnia and Herzegovina	24,29%	53	17	70
Bulgaria	20,00%	44	11	55
Canada	36,00%	32	18	50
Croatia	28,57%	10	4	14
Denmark	14,29%	6	1	7
Spain	45,00%	11	9	20
Estonia	0,00%	3	0	3
Finland	33,33%	14	7	21
France	25,00%	15	5	20
Georgia	47,06%	18	16	34
United Kingdom	14,52%	53	9	62
Greece	4,17%	23	1	24
Hungary	9,09%	20	2	22
Ireland	25,00%	9	3	12
Iceland	100,00%	0	1	1
Italy	41,33%	44	31	75
Kazakhstan	0,00%	6	0	6
Kyrgyzstan	19,35%	25	6	31
Latvia	0,00%	4	0	4
Liechtenstein	0,00%	1	0	1
Lithuania	0,00%	2	0	2
North Macedonia	30,23%	30	13	43
Moldova	15,79%	48	9	57
Mongolia	0,00%	1	0	1
Montenegro	25,00%	6	2	8
Norway	58,33%	10	14	24
Netherlands	50,00%	4	4	8
Poland	26,19%	31	11	42
Romania	12,50%	35	5	40
Russian Federation	4,00%	48	2	50
Serbia	25,00%	18	6	24
Slovakia	17,65%	14	3	17
Slovenia	100,00%	0	1	1
Sweden	30,43%	16	7	23
Switzerland	58,33%	5	7	12
Tajikistan	42,11%	11	8	19
Czech Republic	12,50%	14	2	16
Turkey	5,88%	16	1	17
Ukraine	50,00%	1	1	2
Grand Total	27,46%	840	318	1158

Note: Figures as of 31 December 2020

Table A.9

A9. Gender Balance of Staff in OSCE Field Operations					
2020					
Field Operations	Women	In %	Men	In %	Total
OSCE Presence in Albania	55	60,44%	36	39,56%	91
OSCE Centre in Ashgabat	12	42,86%	16	57,14%	28
OSCE Programme Office in Nur-Sultan	14	58,33%	10	41,67%	24
OSCE Centre in Bishkek	49	48,52%	52	51,49%	101
OSCE Mission to Bosnia and Herzegovina	156	51,00%	155	49,00%	311
OSCE Mission in Kosovo	155	35,00%	280	65,00%	435
OSCE Mission to Moldova	25	49,00%	28	51,00%	53
OSCE Mission to Montenegro	20	61,00%	12	39,00%	32
OSCE Mission to Serbia	74	53,00%	61	47,00%	135
OSCE Programme Office in Dushanbe	65	42,00%	85	58,00%	150
OSCE Mission to Skopje	57	42,00%	88	58,00%	145
OSCE Project Co-ordinator in Ukraine	64	64,50%	35	35,50%	99
OSCE Observer Mission at the two Russian Checkpoints	4	22,00%	19	78,00%	23
OSCE Project Co-ordinator in Uzbekistan	20	51,50%	17	48,50%	37
OSCE Special Monitoring Mission to Ukraine	395	30,61%	900	69,80%	1.295
Pers. Rep. of the CiO on the Conflict dealt with by the Minsk Conference	5	29,50%	12	70,50%	17
Grand Total	1.170	39,33%	1.806	60,67%	2.976

Note: Figures as of 31 December 2020.

Table A.10

A10. Post Distribution in Field Operations				
2020				
Category	Men	Women	Total	% of Women
General Service Staff (G1 to G7)	765	630	1.395	45,16%
Professional Staff (NPOs, S, S1, S2, P1 to P4)	952	492	1.444	34,07%
Senior Management Staff (S3+, P5+, D, H, DH)	89	47	136	33,56%
Total	1.806	1.169	2.975	39,29%

Note: Figures as of 31 December 2020. Please note that SMM staff members are included.

Table A.11

A11. Post Distribution of Staff in the SMM to Ukraine					
2020					
Category	Men	Women	Total	% Men	% Women
General Service Staff (G1 to G7)	212	196	408	51,96%	48,04%
Professional Staff (NPOs, S, S1, S2, P1 to P4)	651	179	830	78,43%	21,57%
Senior Management (S3+, P5+, D, H, DH)	37	20	56	64,92%	35,08%
Total	900	395	1.295	69,50%	30,50%

Note: Figures as of 31 December 2020.

Table A.12

A12. Gender Balance Among the Vienna-Based Ambassadors/Permanent Representatives to the OSCE Permanent Council by Country		
As of 5 June 2021		
Participating State	Participating States with a Male Ambassador/ Permanent Representative	Participating States with a Female Ambassador/ Permanent Representative
Albania	1	0
Andorra	1	0
Germany	0	1
The United States	0	1
Armenia	1	0
Austria	1	0
Azerbaijan	1	0
Belarus	1	0
Belgium	1	0
Bosnia and Herzegovina	1	0
Bulgaria	0	1
Canada	0	1
Cyprus	0	1
Croatia	1	0
Denmark	1	0
Spain	1	0
Finland	0	1
Estonia	1	0
France	0	1
Georgia	0	1
The United Kingdom	1	0
Greece	0	1
Hungary	1	0
Ireland	1	0
Iceland	0	1
Italy	1	0
Kazakhstan	1	0
Kyrgyzstan	1	0
Latvia	0	1
North Macedonia	1	0
Liechtenstein	1	0
Lithuania	0	1
Luxemburg	1	0
Malta	0	1
Moldova	1	0
Monaco	1	0
Mongolia	0	1
Montenegro	1	0

Norway	0	1
Uzbekistan	1	0
Netherlands	1	0
Poland	1	0
Portugal	1	0
Romania	0	1
The EU	0	1
Russian Federation	1	0
San Marino	0	1
Holy See	1	0
Serbia	0	1
Slovakia	1	0
Slovenia	0	1
Sweden	0	1
Switzerland	1	0
Tajikistan	1	0
Czech Republic	1	0
Turkmenistan	1	0
Turkey	0	1
Ukraine	1	0
Afghanistan (Partner for Co-operation)	1	0
Australia (Partner for Co-operation)	1	0
Japan (Partner for Co-operation)	1	0
Republic of Korea (Partner for Co-operation)	1	0
Thailand (Partner for Co-operation)	0	1
Algeria (Partner for Co-operation)	0	1
Egypt (Partner for Co-operation)	1	0
Israel (Partner for Co-operation)	1	0
Jordan (Partner for Co-operation)	0	1
Morocco (Partner for Co-operation)	1	0
Tunisia (Partner for Co-operation)	1	0
OSCE PA	1	0
Grand Total	45	25

Note: Figures as of June 2021.

Table A.13

A13. OSCE Parliamentary Assembly					
as of June 2021					
Category	Women	In %	Men	In %	Total
OSCE PA Members	89	27,38%	236	72,84%	325
OSCE PA Alternate Members	61	33,89%	119	66,11%	180
OSCE PA Secretaries	54	63,53%	31	36,47%	85
OSCE PA Staff	12	46,15%	14	53,85%	26
Grand Total	216	35,06%	400	64,94%	616

Note: Figures as of June 2021.

Table A.14

A14. Gender Balance of Bureau Members			
June 2021			
Category	Women	Men	Total
President	0	1	1
Vice-Presidents	2	4	6
Treasurer	0	1	1
President Emeritus	0	1	1
First Committee	0	3	3
Second Committee	2	1	3
Third Committee	1	2	3
Grand Total	5	13	18

Note: Figures as of June 2021.

Table A.15

Parliamentarian Participation in the OSCE PA Annual Sessions (2010–2019)										
Category	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019
Women	50	55	61	67	74	63	75	60	79	70
Men	186	169	185	178	180	182	205	173	202	200
% Women	21%	24.50%	25%	27%	29%	25.70%	26.80%	27.50%	28%	26%
Grand Total	236	224	246	245	254	245	280	233	281	270

Note: Calculations include Members and Alternate members of delegations and do not include Staff of Delegations, the OSCE PA and the OSCE Secretariats, Observers, Guests, International Parliamentary Organizations and Partners for Co-operation. The data for 2020 is unavailable due to the cancellation of Annual Session.

Table A.16

A16. Parliamentarian Participation in the OSCE PA Winter Meeting (2010–2021)												
Category	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021
Women	49	58	60	50	64	61	58	53	59	62	61	84
Men	174	172	180	159	151	157	186	174	174	174	165	208
% Women	22%	25%	25%	24%	30%	27,90%	23,70%	23,30%	25,30%	26,30%	27,10%	28,77%
Grand Total	223	230	240	209	215	218	244	227	233	236	225	292

Note: Calculations include Members and Alternate members of delegations and do not include Staff of Delegations, the OSCE PA and the OSCE Secretariats, Observers, Guests, International Parliamentary Organizations and Partners for Co-operation.

Table A.17

A17. OSCE PA Election Monitoring			
2020–2021			
Elections Observed	MPs	Women	% of Women

Montenegro, 30 August 2020	2	1	50,00%
Georgia, 30 October 2020	16	4	25,00%
USA, 3 November 2020	40	9	22,50%
Kazakhstan, 10 January 2021	3	2	66,67%
Kyrgyzstan, 10 January 2021	28	5	17,86%
Bulgaria, 5 April 2021	29	8	27,59%
Albania, 25 April 2021	45	9	20,00%
Armenia, 20 June 2021	68	17	25,00%
Total	231	55	23,81%

Note: Figures as of June 2021; Calculations include Heads of the OSCE PA delegations, Special Co-Ordinators of the Observer Missions and Members of delegations.

Table A.18

A.18 Women in Parliament in the OSCE Countries										
As of April 2021								As of June 2021		
Global Rank	Country	Lower or Single House			Upper House or Senate			Women OSCE PA Delegate Members		
		Seats	Women	%	Seats	Women	%	Members	Women	%
7	Sweden	349	164	46,99%	-	-	-	16	6	37,50%
10	Andorra	28	13	46,43%	-	-	-	4	1	25,00%
12	Finland	200	92	46,00%	-	-	-	12	3	25,00%
14	Norway	169	75	44,40%	-	-	-	12	6	50,00%
16	Spain	350	154	44,00%	265	108	40,80%	10	4	40,00%
20	Switzerland	200	84	42,00%	46	12	26,09%	8	3	37,50%
"	Belgium	150	63	42,00%	60	27	45,00%	16	8	50,00%
22	Belarus	110	44	40,00%	60	15	25,00%	12	2	16,67%
"	Portugal	230	92	40,00%	-	-	-	8	3	37,50%
24	Austria	183	73	39,90%	61	22	36,07%	7	2	28,57%
25	Denmark	179	71	39,66%	-	-	-	12	3	25,00%
"	Iceland	63	25	39,70%	-	-	-	6	2	33,33%
27	France	577	228	39,51%	348	121	34,80%	13	3	23,08%
28	Netherlands	150	59	39,33%	75	29	38,67%	12	2	16,67%
29	North Macedonia	120	47	39,20%	-	-	-	6	2	33,33%
"	Serbia	250	98	39,20%	-	-	-	8	4	50,00%

The 2021 Annual Report of the OSCE PA Special Representative on Gender Issues

36	Italy	630	225	35,71 %	320	110	34,38 %	13	1	7,69%
39	United Kingdom	650	220	33,85 %	792	221	27,90 %	26	10	38,46 %
41	Monaco	24	8	33,33 %	-	-	-	2	1	50,00 %
"	San Marino	60	20	33,30 %	-	-	-	4	1	25,00 %
44	Uzbekistan	148	48	32,00 %	100	23	23,00 %	6	2	33,33 %
47	Luxembourg	60	19	31,70 %	-	-	-	10	2	20,00 %
48	Germany	709	223	31,50 %	69	25	36,20 %	26	12	46,15 %
50	Croatia	151	47	31,10 %	-	-	-	6	0	0,00%
53	Canada	338	100	29,60 %	91	45	49,50 %	11	7	63,64 %
55	Albania	122	36	29,51 %	-	-	-	3	2	66,67 %
56	Latvia	100	29	29,00 %	-	-	-	3	1	33,33 %
59	Poland	459	1302	28,30 %	100	24	24,00 %	16	5	31,25 %
60	Liechtenstein	25	7	28,00 %	-	-	-	4	2	50,00 %
63	Lithuania	141	39	27,70 %	-	-	-	4	2	50,00 %
67	United States of America	439	117	27,20 %	100	24	24,00 %	27	4	14,81 %
68	Bulgaria	240	65	27,10 %	-	-	-	5	2	40,00 %
"	Kazakhstan	107	29	27,10 %	48	9	18,80 %	11	6	54,55 %
71	Slovenia	90	24	26,70 %	40	4	10,00 %	6	1	16,67 %
76	Bosnia and Herzegovina	42	11	26,20 %	15	3	20,00 %	3	1	33,33 %
82	Estonia	101	26	25,70 %	-	-	-	4	1	25,00 %
83	Turkmenistan	124	31	25,00 %	48	13	27,10 %	6	2	33,33 %
78	Republic of Moldova	101	25	24,75 %	-	-	-	6	1	16,67 %
87	Montenegro	81	20	24,70 %	-	-	-	6	2	33,33 %
91	Tajikistan	63	15	23,81 %	31	7	22,58 %	4	1	25,00 %
94	Czech Republic	200	46	23,00 %	81	12	14,81 %	8	1	12,50 %
98	Armenia	132	30	22,70 %	-	-	-	6	3	50,00 %
"	Slovakia	150	34	22,70 %	-	-	-	7	1	14,29 %
101	Ireland	160	36	22,50 %	60	24	40,00 %	7	3	42,86 %
105	Greece	300	65	21,70 %	-	-	-	10	3	30,00 %
109	Cyprus	56	12	21,40 %	-	-	-	4	1	25,00 %

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN JOURNALISTS AND POLITICIANS: A GROWING CRISIS

113	Ukraine	423	88	20,80 %	-	-	-	16	1	6,25%
114	Georgia	150	31	20,70 %	-	-	-	6	2	33,33 %
125	Romania	329	61	18,50 %	136	25	18,40 %	14	1	7,14%
126	Azerbaijan	121	22	18,20 %	-	-	-	6	2	33,33 %
130	Mongolia	75	13	17,33 %	-	-	-	5	2	40,00 %
"	Turkey	600	104	17,32 %	-	-	-	8	0	0,00%
132	Kyrgyzstan	117	20	17,10 %	-	-	-	6	1	16,67 %
133	Russian Federation	450	71	15,78 %	170	29	17,06 %	14	2	14,29 %
151	Malta	67	9	13,43 %	-	-	-	6	0	0,00%
157	Hungary	199	24	12,06 %	-	-	-	6	2	33,33 %
	Total	1184	4734	39,98 %	311	932	29,91 %	503	148	29,42 %

Note: Figures correspond to the number of seats currently filled in Parliament. The data in this table has been compiled by the Inter-Parliamentary Union on the basis of information provided by National Parliaments. The data on the right side of the table (Women OSCE PA Delegate Members) is compiled by the OSCE PA, as of June 2021.

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union, Women in national parliaments (situation as of April 2021).

Table A.19

A19. Gender participation of OSCE PA Web Dialogues												
April 2020-June 2021												
Title	Invited Experts		Total	% Women	PA Members		Total	% Women	All Participants		Grand Total	% Women
	M	W			M	W			M	W		
2020												
"The Economic Security Fallout of the COVID-19 Pandemic"	3	0	3	0%	32	9	41	21,95%	48	33	81	40,70%
"Respecting HR and democratic control during states of emergency"	1	1	2	50%	32	19	51	37,20%	55	67	122	54,90%
"COVID's Impact on Conflicts in the OSCE region"	1	1	2	50%	39	14	53	26,41%	74	66	140	47,10%
"COVID-19: A turning point for environmental protection?"	1	2	3	67%	28	14	42	33,30%	56	50	106	47,10%

The 2021 Annual Report of the OSCE PA Special Representative on Gender Issues

"Protecting Refugees and Migrants during the Pandemic: Camps under lockdown"	1	1	2	50%	23	10	33	30,30%	51	46	97	47,40%
"Countering Terrorism and Violent Extremism amidst the COVID-19 Pandemic"	4	1	5	20%	32	11	43	25,58%	110	57	167	34,13%
"Gendered Impacts of COVID-19"	0	3	3	100%	15	20	35	57,14%	29	67	96	69,79%
"COVID-19 response in diverse societies: challenges and opportunities for stability and social cohesion"	1	1	2	50%	18	16	34	47,06%	42	56	98	57,14%
"OSCE PA Web Dialogue "From the Arctic to global: The Political Role in addressing Climate Change"	2	1	3	33%	16	18	34	52,94%	41	51	92	55,43%
"OSCE PA Web Dialogue "Parliamentarians & Journalists: Partners against Corruption"	4	1	5	20%	25	15	40	37,50%	54	44	98	44,90%
"Paris Charter Anniversary Event"	3	1	4	25%	36	15	51	29,41%	61	42	103	40,78%
2021												
"Towards Helsinki +50: Reaffirming a Common Purpose"	2	0	2	0%	29	18	47	38,30%	74	58	132	43,94%
Second Meeting of the OSCE PA "Call for Action – Helsinki +50 Process#"	1	0	1	0%	32	15	47	31,91%	51	55	106	51,89%
Webinar on Humanitarian Protection and Human Rights in Conflict Zones	2	1	3	33%	23	23	46	50,00%	42	57	99	57,58%
Joint Interparliamentary Counterterrorism Conference	4	1	5	20%	21	11	32	34,38%	29	24	53	45,28%
Third Meeting of the OSCE PA "Call for Action – Helsinki +50 Process"	2	2	4	50%	26	20	46	43,48%	43	49	92	53,26%
Online CCT Hearing on FTFs	2	2	4	50%	17	9	26	34,62%	33	33	66	50,00%

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN JOURNALISTS AND POLITICIANS: A GROWING CRISIS

Joint event of the OSCE PA, the ODIHR and the OSCE Secretariat Gender Issues Programme on "Evidence-based law making to prevent and combat violence against women"	0	3	3	100%	11	16	27	59,26%	42	95	137	69,34%
"Framing the Environmental Security – Public Health Nexus"	3	2	5	40%	24	14	38	36,84%	36	34	70	48,57%
"OSCE Parliamentary Assembly Meeting with Young Political Leaders"	3	3	6	50%	14	12	26	46,15%	20	32	52	61,54%
OSCE PA Web Dialogue on "Health as a human right"	1	2	3	67%	13	7	20	35,00%	25	28	53	52,83%
Web Parliamentary Dialogue on "Transparency and Predictability in Military Affairs: The Role of the OSCE"	2	1	3	33%	14	2	16	12,50%	39	16	55	29,09%
Grand Total	43	30	73	41%	520	308	828	37,20%	1055	1060	2115	50,12%

