

Gender Equality Advisory Council Report 2022

A shared vision for gender equality



Gender Equality Advisory Council

Report 2022

GEAC

Gender Equality Advisory Council



G7 GERMANY



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GEAC 2022 Members



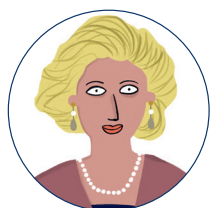
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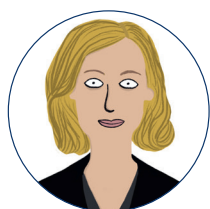
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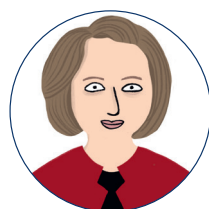
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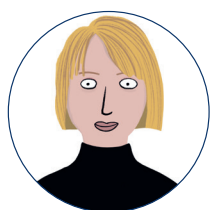
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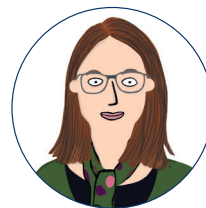
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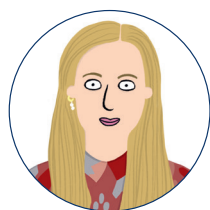
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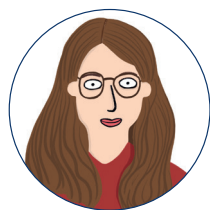
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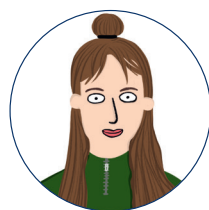
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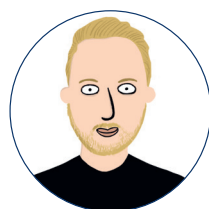
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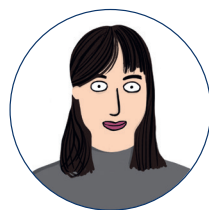
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Foreword by Olaf Scholz

Chancellor of the Federal Republic
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We are going through trying times. Russia's war against Ukraine has shattered the European and international peace order. The brutal war against a sovereign country and against innocent civilians threatens to destroy trust. It threatens to destroy what we have built around the globe among people and nations in recent decades as a crucial foundation for multilateral cooperation towards a more equitable world. Moreover, the transition to a climate-neutral world has been given new urgency.

We know what our goals are, and we know how to reach them. And yet we are still missing out on a huge number of brains, innovators, and doers. Several hundred years after the publication of the first feminist texts¹ that called for equal rights for women and girls, we still have not reached that goal. According to the Global Gender Gap Report, reaching equality worldwide will take another 136 years. We cannot afford to wait that long. We need to get better, and we need to get better quickly.

That is where the new G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps can help us make progress. It tells us exactly where we stand in our own countries and how much further we have to go until women and girls enjoy equal rights and opportunities.

I am grateful to the G7 Gender Equality Advisory Council (GEAC) for providing us with the impetus to develop this highly relevant and timely tool. We need humanity's full potential for the tasks that lie ahead of us, potential that includes the strength, the ideas, and the knowledge of the world's four billion women and girls.

¹ Christine de Pizan, *Das Buch von der Stadt der Frauen*, 1405.

Foreword by Lisa Paus

German Federal Minister for Family Affairs, Senior
Citizens, Women and Youth



The G7 has made gender equality one of its top priorities. The Heads of State and Government have set themselves an ambitious agenda under the German G7 Presidency this year as well. They aim to redouble their efforts to promote gender equality and mainstream it in all policy areas in future. For the first time, they want to explicitly advance the rights of LGBTQIA+ people. In addition, they seek to continuously review their gender equality progress through a new monitoring mechanism, the G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps. The annual monitoring is designed to transparently display the need for action and successes of the G7 gender equality policy. Building on the results of the Dashboard, the G7 will be able to implement more targeted agreements, but also measures in the respective countries.

With the G7 Gender Equality Advisory Council (GEAC), the G7 once again has an indispensable and independent partner by its side this year. The GEAC has dealt with a variety of gender equality issues in seven working groups. The wide range of social and economic issues covered shows that gender equality is a task for society as a whole. We can only tackle this complex task together.

As the federal minister responsible for promoting gender equality, I had the honor this year to work with the GEAC. At the meeting of the G7 Gender Equality Ministers in Berlin in October, I was given the opportunity to exchange views on the current challenges with some of the high-level experts in person. In the joint discussions, we, the G7 ministers responsible for gender equality, have been provided with many valuable insights.

The GEAC's work has been groundbreaking in promoting G7 gender equality policy. In its report, the GEAC produces recommendations on gender equality policies to be implemented by the G7 and calls on the group time and again to take the urgently needed next steps. This year's report, too, will provide an important basis for the Heads of State and Government with regard to future gender equality measures and decisions.

I look forward to continuing this important cooperation with the GEAC in the G7 together with my international colleagues. I will continue to work tirelessly towards a gender-equal world also in this political context.

Foreword by Jutta Allmendinger

Chair of the Gender Equality
Advisory Council 2022

President of the WZB Berlin
Social Science Center



The GEAC 2022, a diverse group of 21 women and men from 14 countries, proudly presents the results of a journey through the still highly contested terrain of gender equality. Our work was sustained by a shared vision, knowledge, experience, courage, and the absolute conviction that progress will be achieved. Our efforts were brilliantly supported by the G7/G20 Sherpa Office of the German Federal Chancellery and the GEAC Secretariat located at the WZB Berlin Social Science Center, with wonderful administrative staff, research officers, and our talented design team.

Building upon the excellent work of our GEAC predecessors from Canada, France, and the UK, we focused on a range of social, economic, and political topics that impact the overall security and well-being of not only women and girls, but also of our entire society. In this report, we offer thorough, evidence-based descriptions of seven key issues, each of which is followed by well-justified and actionable recommendations to the G7 leaders.

It is upon the leaders of the G7 to act now to secure safe and sound lives for women and men and the future of coming generations. Millions of people will stand by their side. Our democracy will be vitalized, economies will prosper, and social cohesion will be strengthened. By working together toward a shared goal of gender equality, we can more effectively address the global challenges of war, pandemics, climate change, energy shortages, digital transformation, migration, and demographic change.

The GEAC 2022 puts trust in the G7 leaders for good reason. In 2018, the G7 leaders committed to establishing the first Gender Equality Advisory Council. In 2022, they took the important step of backing up their words with transparent data, and they committed to establishing the G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps. The Dashboard offers a series of indicators mapping change over time in crucial dimensions of our daily lives, and it provides us with an important tool for learning from one another. The 2022 G7 Summit Declaration in Elmau also shows a marked shift in language, using the word “feminist” for the first time and, more importantly, going beyond binary categories of sex and gender. This is a small revolution, and a long overdue one.

The GEAC 2022 has finished its work and looks forward to Japan’s leadership in 2023.

With humility and respect, we dedicate this report to the many imperiled women in Ukraine, Afghanistan, Iran, and too many other parts of this world.

About the Gender Equality Advisory Council

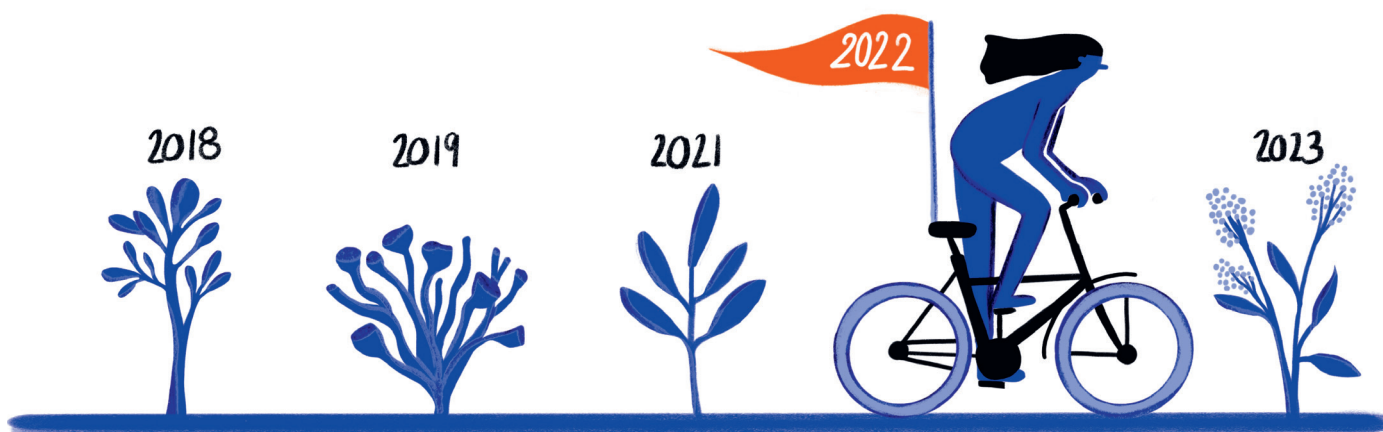
The Gender Equality Advisory Council (GEAC) is an international, independent group of experts that advises G7 countries on issues of gender equality. The GEAC aims to champion the core principles of freedom, opportunity, individual humanity, and dignity for women and girls around the world. Each year, the GEAC develops recommendations as to how the G7 should ensure that women are at the heart of its policy making.

The inaugural GEAC was convened by the Canadian G7 presidency in 2018. Under the theme “Make Gender Inequality History,” the 2018 GEAC urged G7 leaders to use their positions to advance gender equality both at home and abroad. Their final report also made clear that gender equality is not simply a concern of women: “The evidence is clear: when girls and women are healthy, educated, included, and can make decisions about their own lives and bodies, and lead change in their communities, countries, and the world, there is a ripple effect and everyone benefits.” The 2018 recommendations were organized around three broad themes: (1) measures to ensure that girls and women are safe, healthy, educated, heard, and visible; (2) mechanisms for women’s economic empowerment; and (3) initiatives to ensure a healthy and secure planet. These recommendations involved not only policy and practice, but also previewed another theme that would emerge more strongly in later years: namely, the urgent need to collect data and report on progress.

The 2019 GEAC under the French G7 presidency continued many of the themes from the 2018 GEAC, with a sharper focus on laws, policies, and legislative frameworks that support women’s empowerment and sustain gender equality. Their 2019 Recommendations and Call to Action were organized around four goals: (1) ending gender-based violence; (2) ensuring inclusive, equitable, and quality education and health; (3) promoting the economic empowerment of women; and (4) combating discrimination, ensuring full gender equality in policies and in public life. Their report also called for the creation of an Accountability Framework, in which G7 countries would track and report on specific indicators in their efforts to address gender equality.

Working at the height of the COVID-19 pandemic during the United Kingdom's G7 presidency, the 2021 GEAC focused on the theme "Building Back Better for Women and Girls." As Sarah Sands, 2021 GEAC Chair (and member of this year's GEAC) noted in her introduction, "Our first imperative was to ensure that women, and particularly women of colour, were not overlooked in the recovery, as they so often were during the pandemic." Their 14 recommendations to the G7 leaders were driven by an ethos of pragmatism and continued many of the themes of the previous GEACs, including access to education and funding, ending gender-based violence, and ensuring that women are included in the new economies of digitization and green energy. Finally, the 2021 GEAC proposed a G7 Gender Equality Monitoring and Accountability Mechanism, in which internationally comparable data would be collected and analyzed to measure the G7's progress toward commitments to gender equality.

With seven broad themes, our 2022 GEAC Report builds upon the outstanding work of our predecessors. Many of this year's essays amplify and push further the recommendations of past GEACs, including those pertaining to funding, entrepreneurship, the care economy, foreign policy, and ending gender-based violence; the final two themes, "Gender and Crisis" and "Intersectional Policy," bring to the foreground ideas that had first been interwoven through previous reports. The 2022 GEAC also endorses the **2022 Communiqué and Recommendations of the Women7**. Even if topics highlighted by previous GEACs, such as education, health, and leadership, feature less prominently in this year's essays, they come into focus in the second part of this report, the **G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps**. For the first time ever, the 2022 GEAC report includes clear, transparent, and actionable data on progress made toward gender equality. The GEAC's recommendations and the G7 Dashboard thus serve in a symbiotic relationship, demonstrating both why and how we can realize our shared goal of gender equality.



Executive Summary

The 2022 GEAC Report describes the development of the G7 on the path to gender equality. Through both essays and data, it offers a clear picture of gender equality within the G7, highlights success stories, identifies areas for improvement, and provides evidence-based recommendations to the leaders of the G7. The first half of the report focuses on seven areas of action identified by the GEAC 2022; the second half offers a milestone in the work of the GEAC: the first-ever publication of the G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps.

This year's GEAC focused on seven themes: Funding; Ownership, Entrepreneurship, and Investment; The Care Economy; Feminist Diplomacy; Gender-based Violence; Gender and Crisis; and Intersectional Policy. Each of these themes is presented with a dedicated essay that includes data and best-practice models and concludes with a series of recommendations to the G7 leaders. Four of these themes are further elucidated in a more accessible comic-strip format.

Even if this report focuses on gender equality within the G7, it is critical to acknowledge that gender equality, as one of the UN Sustainable Development Goals, is of importance to the entire international community. While the end goal may be shared across all countries, the present conditions and future paths forward differ from place to place. For this reason, we have included two companion essays

by Isata Massaquoi. The first examines ownership, entrepreneurship, and investment in Africa, which has the highest share of women's entrepreneurship globally. The number of women entrepreneurs in Africa has been rising for years, and Massaquoi's essay adroitly describes the social norms and legislative practices that have impacted women's businesses—both as barriers and as facilitators. The second essay provides an in-depth look at gender-based violence in Africa, and shows that, while regional institutions are responding to GBV, many of the measures have been poorly implemented.

The G7 Dashboard is the first-ever publication of data that tracks progress toward gender equality within individual G7 countries, the G7 as a whole, the EU, and the OECD. Its significance cannot be overstated. Initiated by the G7, GEAC, and Women7 and published by the OECD, the Dashboard offers clear data in the areas of Employment and Social Security; Education; Entrepreneurship; Leadership; Health and Well-being; and Funds for Development Cooperation. This report also provides commentaries that further discuss the OECD data for each indicator. While gender gaps may be closing in some areas, they continue to widen in others. Recommendations for new indicators—or an expansion of data-collection efforts for existing indicators—are included in both the thematic essays and in the commentaries to the Dashboard.

GEAC 2022

Recommendations

Though presented in detail in each thematic chapter, the Recommendations to the G7 Leaders ultimately reflect the information found in both the essays and in the Dashboard. In sum, the 2022 GEAC makes the following recommendations:

Funding

- Implement gender-responsive budgeting across all domains of government spending
- Provide direct funding to individuals and organizations focused on women's rights, equality, gender justice, and democracy
- Institute and fund robust data collection and transparent reporting of financial support for women's organizations and activities in support of gender equality

Ownership, Entrepreneurship, and Investment

- Promote and create new opportunities for women-owned businesses within and beyond the G7
- Leverage public procurement as a tool to foster women's business ownership
- Implement new instruments to ensure that women entrepreneurs have equal access to Venture Capital
- Institute and fund robust data collection and reporting to assess progress in women's ownership, entrepreneurship, and investment

The Care Economy

- Ensure a more equitable distribution of care work between men and women
- Ensure better recognition of care work through robust data collection and reporting
- Reward care work better
- Develop and fund high-quality universal care systems

Feminist Diplomacy

- Develop and foster the conditions necessary to Feminist Diplomacy
- Ensure and promote inclusive representation in decision-making at all levels
- Take action to educate leaders and individual citizens on the pillars of Feminist Foreign Policy

Gender-based Violence

- Ratify, publicly support, and enforce international conventions and organizations aimed at eliminating GBV
- Implement and finance public education and outreach programs aimed at preventing GBV
- Establish evidence-based, coordinated protocols across public institutions and services aimed at addressing and ending GBV
- Support data collection and research to inform policies and programs aimed at ending GBV

Gender and Crisis

- Strengthen significantly efforts to prepare for future crises by investing in preventive measures
- Develop, implement, and enforce measures of gender mainstreaming such as principles of gender impact and gender budgeting

- End conflict-related sexual violence through a multisectoral approach from states and a collective global response
- Promote the inclusion of women at all levels of climate policy and action

Intersectional Policy

- Apply an intersectional lens to public policy planning and analysis
- Ensure that political leaders, as role models, understand the complexity of intersectionality, communicate its importance, and integrate an intersectional lens into the decision-making process
- Develop and implement robust measures to evaluate and analyze policies through an intersectional lens
- Develop and implement educational and communication measures and empower women and girls through an intersectional lens

G7 Dashboard: Summary of Key Findings

• **Employment and Social Security:**

The gaps in the labor force participation rate have narrowed between 2012 and 2020, but the share of women among part-time employees remains markedly high. The gender gap in unpaid work averages two hours per day across the entire G7, with significant differences between countries. The gender wage gap has narrowed only moderately in most G7 countries. The gender gap in pension income (the difference between men and women, relative to men) is alarmingly high—34% on average. The GEAC 2022 addresses these themes in two essays: **The Care Economy** and **Gender and Crisis**.

• **Education:** The G7 Dashboard tracks mathematical literacy and the proportion of tertiary graduates in STEM. In all countries, men's secondary school math test scores are higher than those of women, and the proportion of women among STEM graduates is lower than that of men. Little progress has been made in either of these domains. The small differences in test scores are not yet reflected in the graduate numbers, suggesting an untapped potential to increase STEM participation among women.

• **Entrepreneurship:** In all G7 countries, there are fewer self-employed women than self-employed men. Gender disparities are especially high when considering self-employed people with their own employees. The barriers and facilitators to women's businesses in the G7 and in Africa are further discussed in the essays on Ownership, Entrepreneurship, and Investment.

• **Leadership:** The proportion of women in board seats of the largest publicly listed companies increased in all countries between 2016 and 2021,



with an average of 33% across the G7. The share of women in parliament, an average of less than 30%, has seen only moderate gains between 2012 and 2021.

- **Health and Well-being:** The G7 Dashboard offers two indicators in this domain: intimate partner violence and maternal mortality. These initial statistics should be interpreted with caution due to inconsistent and incomplete data sources. In light of significant global conflicts (e.g., the Russian invasion in Ukraine), the oppression of women in Iran, Afghanistan, and elsewhere, the COVID-19 pandemic, and climate change, the GEAC 2022 has dedicated an entire essay to the topic of **Gender and Crisis**; related issues are explored in the essay on **Gender-based Violence**.

- **Funds for Development Cooperation:** All G7 states have committed to improving the situation of women worldwide. Their efforts are visible in the share of aid activities with gender equality as a significant or principal aim. While Official Development Assistance targeting gender equality activities has generally increased across the G7 countries, less than 5% across the G7 goes to programs that have gender equality as a principal objective. Additional context is provided in the essay on **Funding**.

Recommendations for the G7 Dashboard

Improve upon existing indicators

- **For all indicators:** Collect data annually to ensure comparability across all countries
- **Share of women among part-time employees:** Collect more detailed information about the number of part-time hours worked, as current data combines all women working 30 hours per week or less

- **Gender wage gap:** Expand data collection to include part-time workers and workers in marginal employment

- **Gender gap in unpaid care and housework:** Develop robust and comparable measures for unpaid work through comprehensive and regular time-use surveys; include mental and cognitive load in data collection

- **Gender gap in pension income:** Generate internationally comparable data

- **Prevalence of physical and/or sexual violence against women and girls:** Current data focuses on intimate partner violence experienced by women aged 15–49; data on other forms of gender-based violence, for all women and girls, is needed

- **Maternal Mortality:** Following the recommendation of the OECD, collect five-year aggregated data

Develop new indicators

- **Entrepreneurship:** Develop a common definition of women's business ownership; measure women's access to public procurement and Venture Capital; collect data on the size and value of women-owned enterprises

- **Leadership:** Collect data on the share of women holding executive positions in publicly listed companies

- **Health and Well-being:** Establish standardized definitions of gender-based violence; include data disaggregated by other factors of identity (e.g., race, immigration status, age, ability); establish indicators that follow health care access for men, women, and children (e.g., preventative care visits, vaccinations)

- **Funding:** Incorporate new markers that track the direct financial support of women's organizations and activities in support of gender equality and whether funds are granted for long-term core funding or short-term projects

GEAC 2022 Themes



Funding



Ownership,
Entrepreneurship,
and Investment



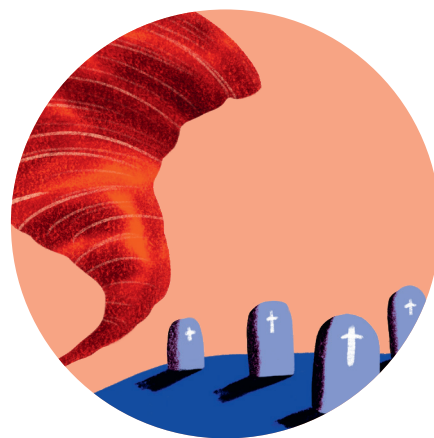
The Care Economy



Feminist Diplomacy



Gender-based
Violence



Gender and Crisis



Intersectional Policy

Funding



The Issue

Gender equality is integral to modern democracy, a central goal of UN member states, and a pillar of the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. As observed in a recent OECD report, “Never before has the determination to achieve gender equality been so impressive — nor the need so self-evident.”¹ Despite these unequivocal declarations and statements of support, substantial gender gaps persist. In some cases, these gaps are even widening due to recent crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic or conflicts and wars that impact the health, participation, and well-being of women and girls.²

Policies that aim to advance gender equality must go beyond lip service. In addition to legal and regulatory provisions, gender equality requires budgetary planning, fiscal analysis, and the effective allocation and distribution of financial resources. Gender mainstreaming cannot leave funding out of the equation, as it is a critical lever for implementing the policy goals to which UN member states have committed.

Gender budgeting (GB) requires that fiscal policies be developed and analyzed in terms of their consequences for gender outcomes. While many countries have introduced measures to address gender inequality, few have systematically integrated gender into the normal budgeting process across all ministries and at all levels of government. Effective gender budgeting requires not only a strong strategic framework, with gender equality goals and legislative underpinning, but also tools for implementation and a supportive environment that includes training and gender-disaggregated data.³

In addition to gender budgeting, NGOs and initiatives that advocate for women’s rights need targeted funding. Such organizations have been shown to be primary drivers of gender equality,⁴ and yet the resources they receive are usually small in scale and granted for project-specific work, rather than integrated into budgets for long-term, sustainable initiatives. Moreover, these funds tend to be granted to large intergovernmental organizations based in the Global North, and relatively little funding eventually reaches small grassroots organizations in the Global South.⁵ In this context, funds are often allocated without engaging potential recipients in the decision-making process. The picture is further complicated by a lack of tools and data necessary to monitor the allocation and impact of funding for activities aimed to address gender inequality. The GEAC’s recommendations focus on the issue of funding at broadest levels of domestic and foreign policy: first, through the principles of gender-responsive budgeting; and second, through access to financial resources for domestic and international programs aimed at gender equality.

¹ OECD DAC Network on Gender Equality, *Donor Support to Southern Women’s Organizations* (OECD, 2016).

² Virginia Alonso-Terran et al., *Gender Budgeting in G20 Countries* (IMF Working Paper, 2021).

³ Ronnie Downes and Scherie Nicol, *Designing and Implementing Gender Budgeting: A Path to Action* (OECD, 2020).

⁴ Mala Htun and S. Laurel Weldon, “The civic origins of progressive policy change: combatting violence against women in global perspective, 1975–2005,” *American Political Science Review*, 106: 3 (2012), 548–569.

⁵ OECD, *Donor support to Southern Women’s Organizations*.

Principal activity

gender equality is the main objective of the activity—that is, the activity would not have been undertaken without that objective

Significant activity

gender equality is an important objective, but not the main reason for undertaking the activity

Gender Disparities in the G7 and Beyond

The inaugural 2018 GEAC's recommendations to Canada's G7 Presidency called on the G7 leaders to integrate gender-responsive budgeting into policymaking, and gender budgeting was similarly addressed in the GEAC reports of 2019 and 2021. These recommendations are also supported by the Women7 (W7),⁶ IMF, OECD, and the Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability Program (PEFA).

However, there are still countries that have not yet enshrined gender-responsive budgeting in legal and institutional frameworks, including Germany, the United States, and the United Kingdom; France, according to the IMF Gender Budgeting Index (GBI), only shows limited practice in this regard. Among the G20 countries, fewer than half have taken this fundamental step—thus foregoing a key driver of successful gender budgeting. In addition to the lack of political support, technical barriers also hinder GB implementation, such as the lack of guidance and expertise, coordination, and data. Within the G7 and G20, Canada has the most advanced gender budgeting practices, including a legal and institutional framework, budget preparation, execution, and monitoring, as well as audits and parliamentary oversight. Germany and the US bring up the rear in the GBI rankings, as they have little good or advanced practice in any of these areas.⁷

Feminist organizations and initiatives have been plagued by chronic underfunding and a lack of direct support; this is true for both the Global North and South, and especially for women-led organizations. Here, the OECD definitions of gender equality activities are key to understanding the challenges these organizations face: *principal* activities are those in

which gender equality is the main objective of the activity—that is, the activity would not have been undertaken without that objective; *significant* activities have gender equality as an important objective, but gender equality is not the main reason for undertaking the activity. While Official Development Assistance (ODA) targeting gender equality activities has generally increased across the G7 countries, less than 5% of ODA across the G7 goes to programs that have gender equality as a principal objective.⁸ (Country-specific data is provided in the **Dashboard**.) Furthermore, between 2019 and 2020, only \$707 million out of \$56.5 billion in ODA dedicated to gender equality and women's empowerment reached women's rights organizations or feminist movements—a paltry 1.25%.⁹ There is little to no data on domestic funding for women's rights and feminist organizations in the G7 countries and beyond. Where states do provide insight into the relevant budget items, it is clear that budgets are provided on a small scale. For example, grants and benefits from the German federal government to institutions for implementing ongoing tasks related to gender equality amounted to about 25 million euros in 2022, less than 0.2% of the total budget (12.6 billion euros) for the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, and Youth.¹⁰

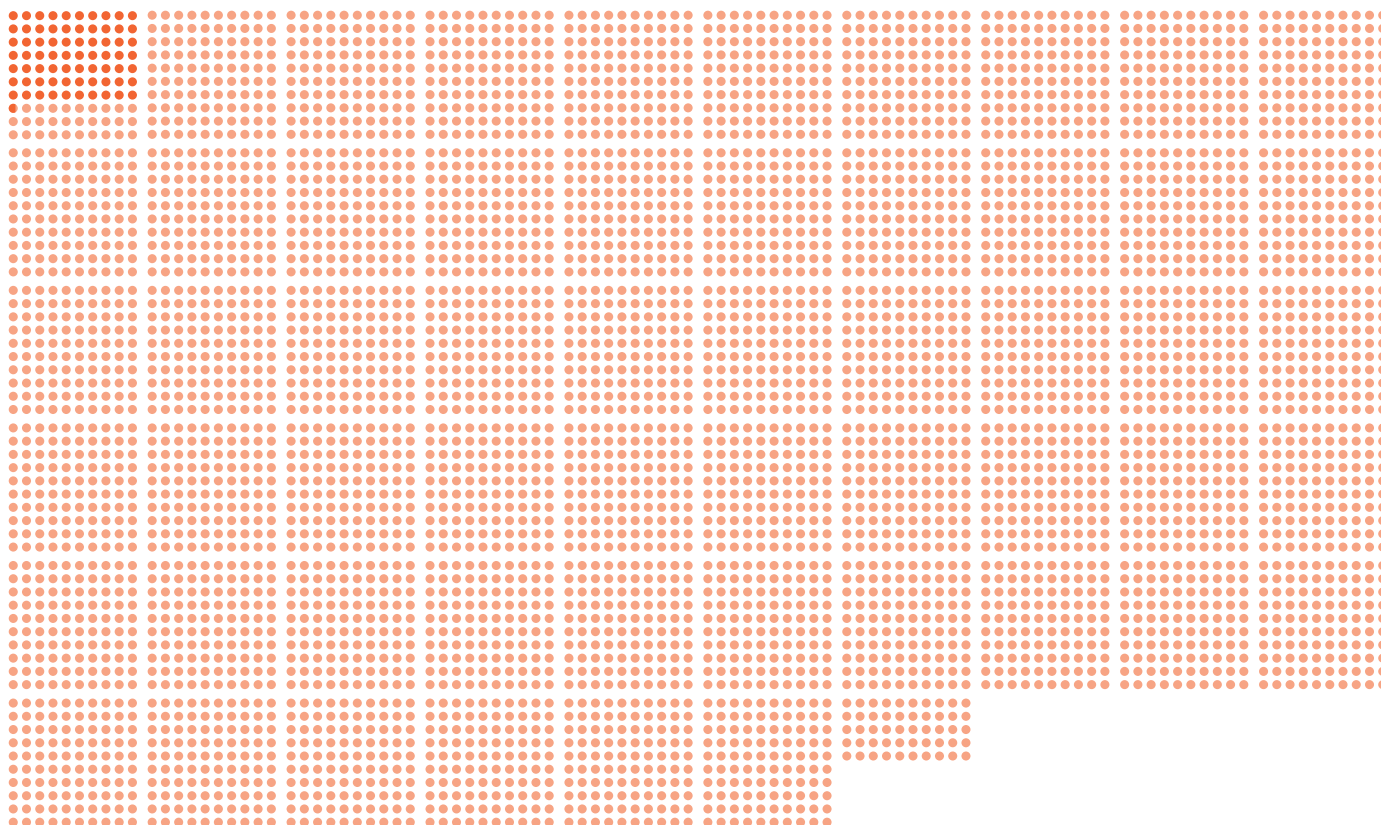
⁶ One of the Engagement Groups to the G7, the W7 is a group of civil society organizations that come together to promote proposals on gender equality and women's rights within the G7 process. More information is available at www.women7.org.

⁷ Virginia Alonso-Albarran et al., IMF Working Paper: Gender Budgeting in G20 Countries (International Monetary Fund 2021).

⁸ Isabela Vera and Francesca Sanders: Words to action: The state of ODA funding for gender equality, Donor Tracker Insights (2019).

⁹ OECD, Development finance for gender equality and women's empowerment: A snapshot (2022).

¹⁰ German Federal Ministry of Finance, Federal budget interactive (2022).



From 2019 to 2020, only **\$707 million** out of **\$56.5 billion** in ODA dedicated to gender equality reached women's rights organizations or feminist movements — a mere 1.25%

● = \$10 million reaching women's rights organizations or feminist movements

● = \$10 million reaching other organizations

Models and Examples

Canada: Targeted funding for feminist organizations

Canada is an international leader in both gender budgeting and targeted international assistance for gender equality. Through the Gender Budgeting Act of 2018, the Canadian government has committed to incorporating the GBA+ analysis tool into all budget decisions, anticipating and monitoring the gender impact of budget planning. (GBA+ is further discussed in the essay **Intersectional Policy**.) It is also the only country, along with Iceland, to meet the international target of spending at least 85% of its ODA on gender equality, and one of three countries to spend at least 20% of its ODA on directly promoting gender equality.¹¹

France: Setting legal standards

France has one of the largest volumes of official development assistance, with over 15 billion dollars. In 2021, the government made a legal commitment to inclusive development and the fight against global inequalities. By 2025, it intends to allocate the internationally formulated target of 0.7% of its GNI to Official Development Assistance. At the same time, France commits to meet the target set by the W7: 75% of the programs financed should have gender equality as a principal or significant goal (compared to the actual share of 43.7% in 2020), and 20% as a principal goal (compared to 3.1% in 2020).¹²

¹¹ Focus 2030, "Which Countries support Gender Equality in their Official Development Assistance?" (2022).

¹² OECD, Trends and insights on development co-operation (2022).

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

1

Implement gender-responsive budgeting across all domains of government spending

- Apply gender as a cross-cutting principle in all stages of the budgetary process, and prioritize targeted initiatives towards women's empowerment in domestic and foreign policies in order to overcome traditional and patriarchal power dynamics, gender stereotypes, and social norms
- Evaluate the gender impact of legislation by using recognized instruments such as gender impact assessments, gender analysis of legislation, and gender equality markers
- Ensure that funding for special initiatives (e.g., climate change, pandemic relief funds) address gaps in gender equality, rather than exacerbate them
- Acknowledge that gender equality needs additional investments (e.g., in social sectors) by rejecting austerity measures that reduce public spending
- End harmful taxation practices, impose new special taxation to generate funds for needed investments, and institute tax reforms for programs that focus on gender equity

2

Provide direct funding to individuals and organizations focused on women's rights, equality, gender justice, and democracy

- Increase flexible and sustainable funding to both grassroots and large-scale domestic organizations and NGOs focusing on women's rights and gender justice
- Increase domestic spending on initiatives targeted to address gender equality
- Ensure that all Official Development Assistance (ODA) is integrated with broader goals of gender mainstreaming; increase ODA for activities in which gender equality is the principal objective, with a goal of 20% by 2030; prioritize core and flexible funding to locally led feminist and women's rights organizations

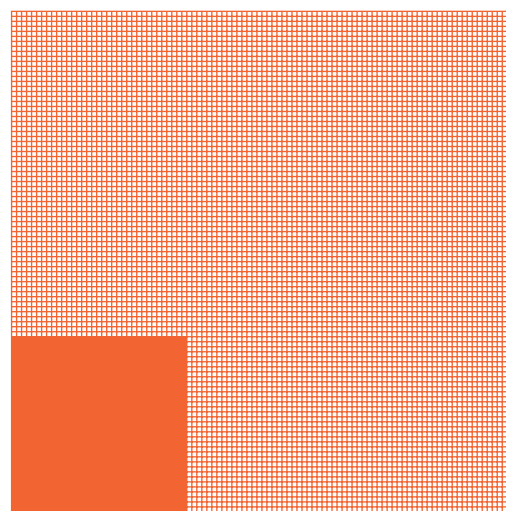
3

Institute and fund robust data collection and transparent reporting of financial support for women's organizations and activities in support of gender equality

- Incorporate new markers into the G7 Dashboard that track (1) the direct financial support of women's organizations and activities in support of gender equality, both in the G7 and Global South, and (2) whether funds are granted for long-term core funding or short-term projects
- Establish guidelines on effective data collection for multilateral organizations
- Adopt mandatory mechanisms that monitor funds granted to such organizations (e.g., peer review, external monitors)

Ownership, Entrepreneurship, and Investment





Less than **15%** of land in the world is women-owned

The Issue

Businesses founded, owned, or led by women are vital to realizing inclusive and sustainable economic growth worldwide.¹ Fostering women's entrepreneurship is not simply a matter of justice and equity, but also sound economic policy: by one estimate, \$28 trillion would be added to global GDP if women and men participated in the economy at equal rates.²

There are three key factors contributing to the gender gap in women's businesses: First, due to patriarchal structures enshrined in societies and judicial systems, many women worldwide still lack property rights. An OECD report estimates that women own less than 15% of the world's land; 123 countries have laws or traditional practices limiting the ability of women to claim and protect their land assets.³ Without personal property ownership, women are stripped of financial and personal agency and do not have the collateral necessary for acquiring loans. Second, women entrepreneurs

experience significant barriers to public and corporate procurement opportunities, including limited access to networks, information, and training. Third, women lack equal access to capital: according to the International Finance Corporation (IFC), there is a \$300 billion gap worldwide in financing for women-owned businesses, while 70% of women-owned small and medium enterprises (SMEs) have insufficient or even no access to financial services.⁴ The lack of access to capital is a particular problem in the venture market, and women are significantly underrepresented within Venture Capital (VC) firms.⁵ In order to close the gender gap in women's entrepreneurship, it is critical to develop policies and advocate practices that provide women with the same access to ownership and investment.

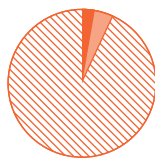
¹ This report uses the term "women's business" broadly to indicate any business founded, owned, and/or led by women.

² McKinsey Global Institute, *The Power of Parity: How Advancing Women's Equality Can Add \$12 trillion to Global Growth* (2015).

³ OECD, *SIGI 2019 Global Report: Transforming Challenges into Opportunities*, Social Institutions and Gender Index (Paris: OECD Publishing, 2019): 117.

⁴ International Finance Corporation, *Women-Owned SMEs: A Business Opportunity for Financial Institutions* (Washington: International Finance Corporation, 2014).

⁵ Simone de Bruin and Marta Munoz, *European Women in VC: Analyzing the Role and Importance of Women as Cheque Writers and Start-Up Founders*, IDC European Women in Venture Capital Report (2022), 3.



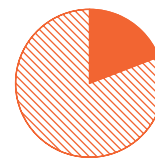
3–7%

of startups in the G7 countries are founded by women



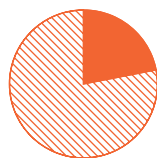
27%

of business directors in France are women



19.3%

of entrepreneurs in Japan are women



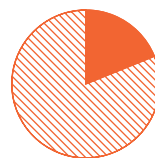
22%

of businesses in Italy are owned by women



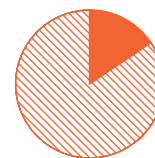
42%

of businesses in the US are owned by women



19%

of SMEs in the UK are led by women



15.7%

of SMEs in Canada are owned by women

⁶ Julie Lassébie et al., "Levelling the Playing Field – Dissecting the gender gap in the funding of start-ups," *OECD Science, Technology and Industry Policy Papers*, No. 73 (Paris: OECD Publishing, 2019), 46. No data available for Japan.

⁷ Infogreffe, "Etude Infogreffe: les femmes et l'entrepreneuriat en 2019."

⁸ Statistics Bureau of Japan, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, "2017 Basic Survey on Employment Status: Summary of Results" (2018), 10.

⁹ Unioncamere, Press release: "Welfare e istruzione: 1 impresa su 3 è guidata da donne" (20 January 2020), 2. Data collected on 30 September 2019 by the Observatory on Female Entrepreneurship of the Italian Union of Chambers of Commerce.

¹⁰ Venturepreneur and American Express, *The 2019 State of Women-Owned Businesses Report*, (2019), 3.

¹¹ UK Department for Business, Energy & Industrial Strategy, *Longitudinal Small Business Survey: SME Employers: businesses with 1-249 employees* (2022), 2.

¹² Canada Office of the Chief Economist, *Majority-Female Owned Exporting SMEs in Canada* (2016), 2.

¹³ OECD, *Government at a Glance 2021*, (Paris: OECD Publishing, 2021). Data from 2020, except for Japan (2018) and United States (2019).

¹⁴ Barbara Orser et al., "Gender-responsive Public Procurement: Strategies to Support Women-owned Enterprises," *Journal of Public Procurement* 21, no. 3 (2021): 1.

¹⁵ UN Women, *The Power of Procurement: How to Source from Women-owned Businesses. Corporate Guide to Gender-responsive Procurement* (2017), 27.

¹⁶ Idem.

¹⁷ International Finance Corporation, *Venture Capital and the Gender Financing Gap: The Role of Accelerators* (2020), 7.

Gender Disparities in the G7 and Beyond

There is no shortage of data demonstrating the significant gender gap in women's businesses at all stages of development, particularly the start-up stage. Within the G7, the share of start-ups with all-female founders in 2019 ranged from 3% to 7%.⁶ Women account for just 27.2% of France's business directors⁷ and 19.3% of Japan's total entrepreneurs.⁸ Women-owned businesses constitute 21.97% of Italy's enterprises⁹ and 42% of total United States enterprises.¹⁰ Focusing specifically on SMEs, 19% of the United Kingdom's SMEs are women-led,¹¹ while 15.7% of Canada's SMEs are women-owned.¹²

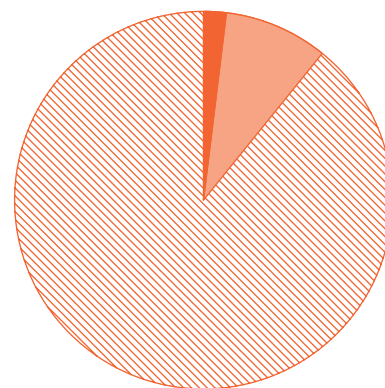
As public procurement represents a significant proportion (10-18%) of the GDP in each of the G7 economies, it can offer women-owned businesses a key opportunity for public investment and growth.¹³ The complexity of public procurement procedures disproportionately affects women-owned businesses, which tend to be smaller than

men-owned businesses.¹⁴ Gender disparities also extend to corporate procurement practices: according to some estimates, less than 1% of the supply chain expenditures of large businesses goes to women-owned businesses.¹⁵ Yet the economic case for involving more women-owned businesses has been demonstrated: 34% of companies that have diversified their supply chain by engaging women-owned businesses have seen increased profitability.¹⁶

Venture Capital can secure the future for a new company, as well-funded startups are the most likely to succeed. Startups with at least one female founder currently receive a disproportionately small percentage of global venture capital. In emerging markets, businesses with a female founder receive only 11% of seed funding; this number decreases even further with regards to later-stage funding.¹⁷ In developed markets, the funding gap for women in the venture

and startups space has remained static. In 2021, all-women startups raised just 1.8% of investment in Europe. 9.3% went to mixed-gender founding teams, while all-men founding teams raised 89%.¹⁸ This discrepancy also persists in the US market, where all-women founding teams receive just 2.3% of the total venture capital invested in startups.¹⁹

One factor contributing to gender disparities in VC recipients is the lack of gender diversity among the very people who award these funds. To ensure equal access to capital, we need a diverse pool of investors to work with founders and innovators. Yet within Europe, a mere 15% of VC general partners are women, mainly holding junior positions;²⁰ within the United States, only 12.4% of decision-makers at VC firms are women, and 61% of VC firms have no women decision-makers.²¹ Male dominance in VC perpetuates gender disparities in SME growth: According to one report, women-led startups in the United States enjoyed a success rate of nearly 30% when approaching female VCs, but just over 10% with male VCs.²² Without dedicated institutional and governmental efforts to support women-run VCs, this small percentage is unlikely to increase.



Investments raised by start-up founding teams in Europe (2021)

- 2% all-women teams
- 9% mixed-gender teams
- 89% all-men teams

Models and Examples

Procurement in Italy

Article 47 of the Italian Simplifications Bill (2021) underlines the importance of ensuring gender equality and the inclusion of young people in the workplace, especially in the execution of public tenders and procurement. Companies that meet specific criteria, such as commitment to hiring young people and women, or adopting measures to foster work-life balance, are given higher scores in the procurement process, while noncompliant companies are sanctioned—for example, through non-admission to future calls for tenders.

Supporting women innovators

The European Innovation Council (EIC) was established in 2018 to support innovation at all stages. By prioritizing women-led companies for interview pitches, the EIC has increased the number of startups with a female CEO from 8% to 29%. Women constitute 50% of the jury members for interview pitches for Accelerator funding and 42% of the business coaches that advise and mentor EIC-supported startups.²³ EIC's new target is to reach 40% of women-led companies in 2022.²⁴

¹⁸ European Women in VC, *Analysing the Role and Importance of Women as Cheque Writers and Start-up-Founders* (2022), 8.

¹⁹ Gosia Glinska, *Closing the gender gap in VC funding* (UVA Darden Ideas to Action, 23 Jan 2020).

²⁰ European Women in VC, *Analysing the Role and Importance of Women as Cheque Writers and Start-up-Founders* (2022), 7.

²¹ Primack, Dan. "More Women Are Top VC Decision-Makers, but Parity Is a Long Way Off." *Axios*, 2020. <https://www.axios.com/2020/07/21/women-venture-capital-gender-equality>.

²² Sahil Raina, "VCs, Founders, and the Performance Gender Gap," *Finance Down Under: Building on the Best from the Cellars of Finance* (2021).

²³ European Innovation Council pilot Advisory Board: *Statement on Gender & Diversity in EIC* (2021).

²⁴ European Innovation Council (EIC) Work Programme 2022, 69.

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

1

Promote and create new opportunities for women-owned businesses within and beyond the G7

- Provide dedicated annual public funds and tax incentives for the development of businesses owned by women
- Enact programs that actively uplift women-owned Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in the Global South, including investing in women farmers, developing e-commerce platforms, and backing a guarantee fund for first-time female borrowers
- Develop and implement training and mentoring programs for women entrepreneurs

2

Leverage public procurement as a tool to foster women's business ownership

- Ensure that gender dimensions are integrated into public procurement procedures in all sectors and at all levels, both national and local
- Reward companies with robust gender equity practices by providing extra points and incentives for policies such as equal pay, parity in recruitment, promotion and governance
- Exclude from public procurement enterprises that do not respect gender equality laws and refuse to implement gender parity or diversity in their supply chain

3

Implement new instruments to ensure that women entrepreneurs have equal access to Venture Capital

- Establish an international Fund of Funds to anchor female-led VCs and growth funds. Set Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) to reflect contributions to gender equality
- Establish a co-investment fund on an international level to match VC funding to female founders
- Offer tax incentives or guarantee bonds to investors who invest in female-led funds and companies at the national and international levels

4

Institute and fund robust data collection and reporting to assess progress in women's ownership, entrepreneurship, and investment

- Establish a common definition of business ownership to ensure data comparability among G7 countries
- Implement robust gender-disaggregated data collection practices to monitor and assess the status of women's ownership worldwide
- Measure the advancement of women's entrepreneurship on a yearly basis, with a particular focus on procurement practices and VC funding

Ownership, Entrepreneurship, and Investment in Africa

The Issue

African countries have the highest share of women's entrepreneurship globally, and the number of women entrepreneurs in the region has been rising for years.¹ The rise in women's entrepreneurship has been fostered by a growing consensus in the region that it is important to improve opportunities for women entrepreneurs. Many countries now recognize that all individuals should have the right to make their own life decisions and pursue opportunities. Women's economic activities are thought to have a crucial value because they unleash the potential of all members of society and spill over to others in the household, particularly girls.² Finally, political leaders have acknowledged the necessity of closing gender gaps by giving women the equal right to control assets. Despite these changing perceptions, women in Africa face a particularly challenging environment. Disparities in education and property rights remain very high—higher than in most other regions.³ Gaps in formal economic rights are often reinforced by traditional law and practice. Many countries in the region also have multiple and overlapping legal systems that make women's economic rights less secure.⁴ These

issues weaken women's abilities and incentives to start and run the types of enterprises associated with better outcomes—that is, enterprises with higher productivity and profits.⁵

Evidence of Gender Disparities in Africa

Research on gender gaps in business ownership, entrepreneurship, and investment in Africa has been sparse. Scholars have typically discussed gender disparities in terms of business size,⁶ sector and industry, location, productivity and profitability, growth, survival and failure, the legal system, social norms and customs, discrimination, and family and social responsibilities.⁷ Some key findings include the following:

- Women entrepreneurs in Africa run smaller businesses with respect to sales, assets, and number of employees.⁸ In Southern and Northern Africa, for instance, the choice to run small businesses is widely attributed to reduced endowments of assets, credit constraints, and limited access to business networks.⁹

1 Jeanne Halladay Coughlin, *The Rise of Women Entrepreneurs: People, Processes, and Global Trends* (Westport: Quorum, 2002).

2 Sally Baden, *Women's Collective Action: Unlocking the Potential of Agricultural Markets* (Oxford: Oxfam International, 2013).

3 Mary Hallward-Driemeier, *Enterprising Women: Expanding Economic Opportunities in Africa* (Washington: World Bank Publications, 2013).

4 Elena Bardasi, C. Mark Blackden, and Juan Carlos Guzman, "Gender, Entrepreneurship, and Competitiveness in Africa," *Africa Competitiveness Report 1* (2007): 69-85.

5 Hallward-Driemeier, *Enterprising Women*.

6 Manuel Ruiz Pérez, Ousseynou Ndoye, Antoine Eyebe, and Danielle Lema Ngono, "A Gender Analysis of Forest Product Markets in Cameroon," *Africa today* 49, no.3 (2002): 97-126.

7 Saskia Vossenbergh, "Women Entrepreneurship Promotion in Developing Countries: What explains the gender gap in entrepreneurship and how to close it," *Maastricht School of Management Working Papers Series 8* (2013): 1-27.

8 Pat Richardson, Rhona Howarth, and Gerry Finnegan, "The Challenges of Growing Small Businesses: Insights from Women Entrepreneurs in Africa," *SEED Working Paper no.47* (Geneva: International Labour Organization, 2004).

9 Zuzana Brixiová, Thierry Kangoye, and Fiona Tregenna, "Enterprising Women in Southern Africa: When does Land Ownership Matter?" *Journal of Family and Economic Issues* 41 (2020): 37-51; Imène Berquiga and Philippe Adair, "Funding Female Entrepreneurs in North Africa: Self-selection vs. Discrimination? MSMEs, the Informal Sector and the Microfinance Industry," *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship* 13, no. 4 (2021): 394-419.

10 Elena Bardasi, Shwetlena Sabarwal, and Katherine Terrell, "How do Female Entrepreneurs Perform? Evidence from Three Developing Regions," *Small Business Economics* 37, no.4 (2011): 417-441.

11 Francisco Campos, Markus Goldstein, Laura McGorman, Ana Maria Munoz Boudet, and Obert Pimhidzai, *Breaking the Metal Ceiling: Female Entrepreneurs who Succeed in Male-dominated Sectors*, World Bank Policy Research Working Paper (Washington: World Bank, 2015).

12 Katherine V. Gough, A. Graham Tiplle, and Mark Napier, "Making a Living in African Cities: The Role of Home-based Enterprises in Accra and Pretoria," *International Planning Studies* 8, no.4 (2003): 253-277; Kalpana Hiralal, "The "Invisible" Workers of the Informal Economy – A Case Study of Home-based Workers in Kwazulu/Natal, South Africa," *Journal of Social Sciences* 23, no.1 (2010): 29-37.

13 Simeon Nichter and Lara Goldmark, "Small Firm Growth in Developing Countries," *World Development* 37, no. 9 (2009): 1453-1464.

14 Asif M. Islam and Silvia Muzi, "Does Mobile Money Enable Women-owned Businesses to Invest? Firm-level Evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa," *Small Business Economics* 59, no.3 (2021): 1245-1271.

15 Charles Stephen Tundui and Hawa Petro Tundui, "Examining the Effect of Child Labour in the Profitability of Women Owned Enterprises: A Case of Microcredit Supported Enterprises in Tanzania," *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research* 8, no.1 (2018): 1-16.

16 Charles Stephen Tundui and Hawa Petro Tundui, "Performance Drivers of Women-owned Microcredit Funded Enterprises in Tanzania," *International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship* 12, no. 2 (2020): 211-230.

17 Kathryn Edin and Laura Lein, *Making Ends Meet: How Single Mothers Survive Welfare and Low-wage Work* (Russell Sage Foundation, 1997).

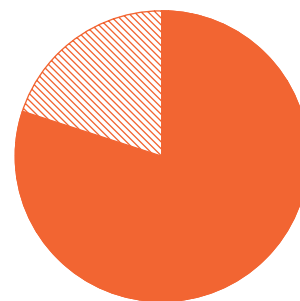
18 Bardasi, Blackden, and Guzman, "Gender, Entrepreneurship, and Competitiveness in Africa."

19 Teresa Carmichael and Nomusa B. Mazonde, "The Influence of Culture on Female Entrepreneurs in Zimbabwe," *Southern African Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management* 8, no.1 (2016): 1-10.

20 Marina Della-Giusta and Christine Phillips, "Women Entrepreneurs in the Gambia: Challenges and Opportunities," *Journal of International Development: The Journal of the Development Studies Association* 18, no.8 (2006): 1051-1064.

21 Prince Karakire Guma, "Business in the Urban Informal Economy: Barriers to Women's Entrepreneurship in Uganda," *Journal of African Business* 16, no.3 (2015): 305-321; Ayisha Akhalwaya and Werner Havenga, "The Barriers that Hinder the Success of Women Entrepreneurs in Gauteng, South Africa," *OIDA International Journal of Sustainable Development* 3, no.5 (2012).

- Women business owners choose to operate in traditionally female-dominated areas, running businesses that require less human capital and fewer formal qualifications.¹⁰ There is therefore a higher concentration of women in sectors such as hotels, food and restaurants, wholesale and retail trade, garments, textiles and leather goods, and other services such as tailoring or hair salons.¹¹
- Women's businesses are often located in their homes.¹² The ILO suggests that more than 80% of "homeworkers" — defined as industrial workers who work at home — in developing countries are women.¹³ Most women are restricted to their homes because of social norms that prevent them from traveling outside of home, which in turn affects business operations and undermines profitability and productivity.
- Women-owned businesses exhibit lower productivity and profitability.¹⁴ Some authors attribute the difference in performance to the type of businesses that women operate and the owner's human capital.
- Slower growth is one reason why many women-owned businesses in Africa remain small. In Tanzania, for instance, Tundui and Tundui find that during the years of childbearing and raising children, female entrepreneurs generate less employment growth compared to their male counterparts.¹⁵ They also associate slower growth with the choice of sectors where women tend to operate, and the external or internal constraints women businesses face (e.g., low self-confidence and self-perception, reluctance to seek credit, etc.).¹⁶
- The exit rates of women-owned businesses before full establishment are also higher. Businesses struggle to survive or fail entirely because of the need to attend to family matters or the choice to opt for wage employment, where they may face better opportunities.¹⁷
- The legal system also constitutes a significant barrier to female entrepreneurship in Africa,¹⁸ as some countries have practices preventing women from working in certain jobs, such as allowing husbands to prohibit their wives from working, stopping women from opening bank accounts (e.g., Chad and Niger), or signing contracts without their husbands' permission (e.g., Equatorial Guinea), and controlling inheritance of assets (e.g., Zimbabwe).¹⁹ Some studies find restrictions on women to initiate legal proceedings or access to markets and information (e.g., Gambia).²⁰
- The aforementioned conditions also reflect social norms that define "appropriate" behavior and "desirable" attributes for women, including property ownership (whether or not women are allowed to own assets in their name), location (whether or not women have freedom of movement and location), restrictions on contact with men who are not their relatives, types of economic behaviors and career choices that are allowed for women, and social attitudes on working outside of the home (e.g., Uganda and South Africa).²¹



More than **80%** of workers who work at home in developing countries are women

22 Asif M. Islam and Silvia Muzi, "Does Mobile Money Enable Women-owned Businesses to Invest? Firm-level Evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa," *Small Business Economics* 59, no.3 (2021): 1245-1271; Salome K. Kaberia and Stephen M. A. Muathe, "Effect of Covid-19 Pandemic on Performance of Women Owned Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises in Kenya," *International Journal of Social Science Studies* 9, no. 1 (2021): 7.

23 Gerald Kariithi Mira and Ogollah Kennedy, "Challenges facing accessibility of credit facilities among women owned enterprises in Nairobi central business district in Kenya," *International Journal of Social Sciences and Entrepreneurship* 1, no.7 (2013): 377-396; Joshua Abor and Nicholas Biekpe, "SMEs' access to Debt Finance: A Comparison of Male-owned and Female-owned businesses in Ghana," *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation* 7, no. 2 (2006): 105-112; Theo C. Haupt and Jabulile Ndimande, "A Review on Why Women-owned Construction Firms Fail in KwaZulu-Natal?" *Journal of Physics: Conference Series* 1378, no.2 (December 2019).

24 Vossenber, "Women Entrepreneurship Promotion in Developing Countries."

25 Richardson, Howarth and Finnegan, *The Challenges of Growing Small Businesses*; Lois Stevenson and Annette St-Onge, *Support for Growth-oriented Women Entrepreneurs in Uganda* (Geneva: International Labour Organization, 2005).

26 Barbara E. McDade and Anita Spring, "The 'New Generation of African Entrepreneurs': Networking to Change the Climate for Business and Private Sector-led Development," *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development* 17, no.1 (2005): 17-42.

27 Katherine M. Christopherson, Audrey Yiadom, Juliet Johnson, Francisca Fernando, Hanan Yazid, and Clara Thiemann, "Tackling Legal Impediments to Women's Economic Empowerment," *IMF Working Papers* 2022/037 (International Monetary Fund, 2022).

- Women-owned businesses also have less exposure to external investment and financing.²² Some studies present evidence of financial discrimination (e.g., Kenya and Ghana), while others find evidence of discrimination in the labor market (e.g., South Africa), which limits women's ability to find wage employment and leaves them lacking the confidence, skills, and experience they need to start their own businesses.²³

- There are also fewer women in wage jobs in the formal sector because such jobs often have inflexible hours. This problem is exacerbated by the lack of child care and limited time-saving household appliances in African homes. Unequal family and social responsibilities may push African women into entrepreneurship, but they can also limit their potential as business owners.²⁴

Responses and Best Practices

Many different responses to the issues outlined in the preceding section have been identified in the literature. These responses are considered best practices by international development organizations and policies by national governments. The practices and policies mainly address internal and external constraints, preferences, sectoral choice, and endowment limitations.

- Some governments and organizations have improved asset allocation within households by encouraging women to open bank accounts in their name or changing the inheritance and property ownership laws, thus influencing customs that permit women to have control of household financial resources. Others have sought to improve women's entrepreneurship by providing relevant business and financial skills, experience, and education (e.g., African Development

Bank's Support for Growth-Oriented Women Entrepreneurs in Uganda and Kenya).²⁵

- Other actors have improved connections with successful entrepreneurs for business advice and support by enhancing women's access to networking opportunities, such as the Stanford Africa Entrepreneurship Network (SAEN), which works in 12 countries (Angola, Botswana, Lesotho, Madagascar, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, South Africa, Swaziland, Zambia, and Zimbabwe) and receives support mainly from USAID; Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA); French Agence Francaise pour le Development; Belgian International Development Agency; Swiss International Development Agency; the World Bank, and OECD.²⁶

- There are ongoing efforts in some countries to eliminate laws that treat women differently from men, such as different tax requirements or provisions that restrict women's ability to buy, own, sell and use property, initiate legal proceedings, open bank accounts, or enter contracts. Some countries and organizations have adopted policies that reduce discrimination in hiring policies and explicitly prohibit gender discrimination more broadly. Rwanda, for instance, has achieved this by enshrining gender considerations in several key governmental strategies (e.g., Vision 2020, National Gender Policy 2010), and established gender-focused institutions (e.g., a Ministry in Charge of Gender and Family Promotion, a Gender Monitoring Office, and National Women's Council).²⁷

- Social mobilization and campaigns to change behavior conducted by non-governmental organizations have also sought to relax restrictive social norms and change men's attitudes regarding women's freedom of movement outside of the home,

interactions with non-relative males, delaying marriage and childbearing, sharing child-care and housework, and registering assets in their name. These organizations (e.g., SAFEEM, CAMFED International) provide training programs designed to develop positive self-esteem and confidence, particularly pertaining to career-related tasks. They also provide information about returns to capital in different sectors, which encourage women to recognize opportunities in those sectors (e.g., ILO in Mauritius, Cherie Blair Foundation in Sierra Leone).²⁸

- Policies and practices have also focused on promoting stable and steady business models to improve women's financial situation and social status.²⁹ These responses recognize that women start businesses for different reasons, and thus require varying levels of support.

- Similarly, policies and practices seeking to improve women's choice of business sector have focused on expanding the possibilities of what is socially acceptable for women in terms of their career choices, promoting equal opportunities for women in various sectors of the economy, and reducing financial discrimination and improving access to capital. Some authors have flagged the importance of making women more aware of the higher earning potential in traditionally male-dominated sectors.³⁰

Recommendations

To expand women's business ownership, improve female entrepreneurship, and increase investment on the continent, African countries need to tackle constraints on women's abilities and provide incentives to expand and move into higher value-added activities. Policymakers need to take steps to increase women's access to and control of assets and resources required for entrepreneurship, which are affected by gender-based differences in legal capacity and property rights, particularly concerning married women. Fundamentally, laws that matter, such as those that frame economic rights and determine whether women and men can make economic decisions in their own name, should be adopted. Also, opportunities for enhancing entrepreneurship education and experience, which are important drivers of economic choice, opportunity, and performance, need to be provided to women. Better managerial and financial skills demonstrated by female business owners or entrepreneurs have a positive effect on enterprise productivity and profitability. Education for female business owners also strengthens their voice in business environment reforms. Similarly, access to finance should be increased in the same way as opportunities for networking and inclusion in decision-making and policy dialogue. More access to finance will mean more access to productive resources and savings.

²⁸ Patricia Day-Hookoomsing and Vedna Essoo, "Promoting Female Entrepreneurship in Mauritius: Strategies in Training and Development," *SEED Working Paper 58* (Geneva: International Labour Organization, 2003).

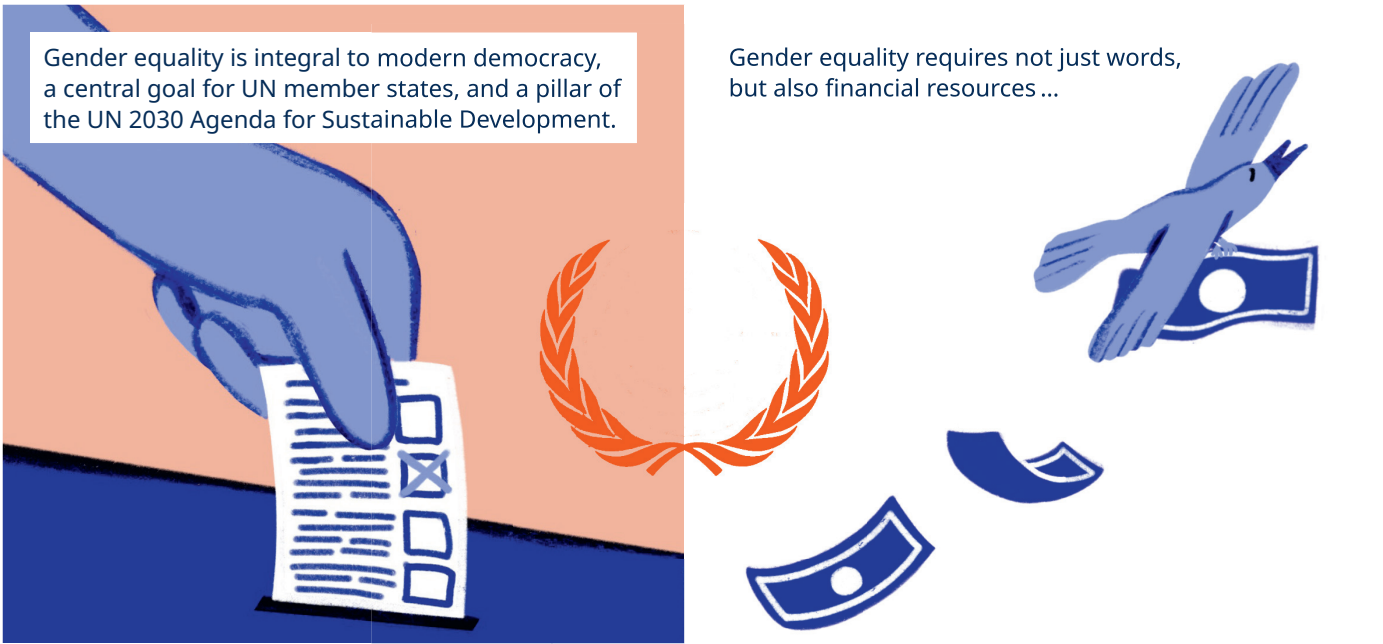
²⁹ African Development Bank, *Economic Empowerment of African Women through Equitable Participation in Agricultural Value Chains* (Abidjan: African Development Bank, 2015).

³⁰ Kate Grantham, Gillian Dowie, and Arjan de Haan, eds., *Women's Economic Empowerment: Insights from Africa and South Asia* (Abingdon: Routledge, 2021).

African countries need to tackle constraints on women's abilities and provide incentives to expand and move into higher value-added activities.

Gender equality is integral to modern democracy, a central goal for UN member states, and a pillar of the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.

Gender equality requires not just words, but also financial resources ...



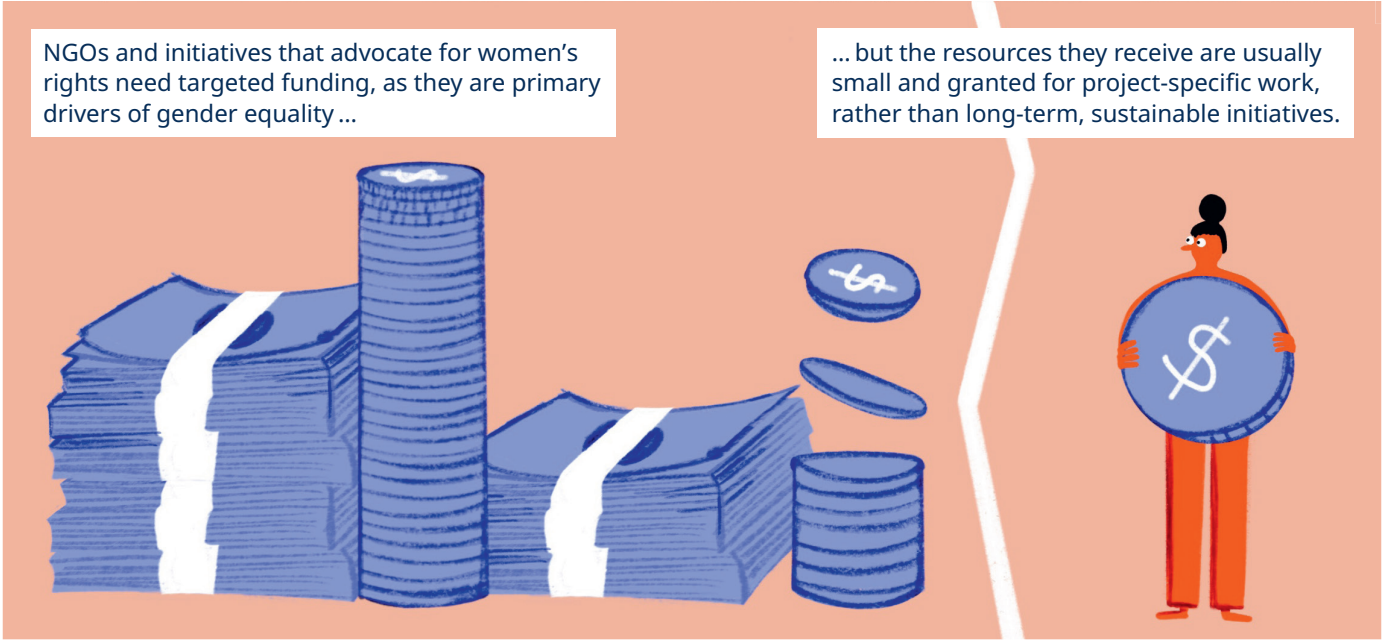
... including budgetary planning and analysis, the effective allocation of funds, and support for women's businesses.

Gender budgeting entails that fiscal policies be developed and analyzed in terms of their consequences for gender outcomes.



NGOs and initiatives that advocate for women's rights need targeted funding, as they are primary drivers of gender equality ...

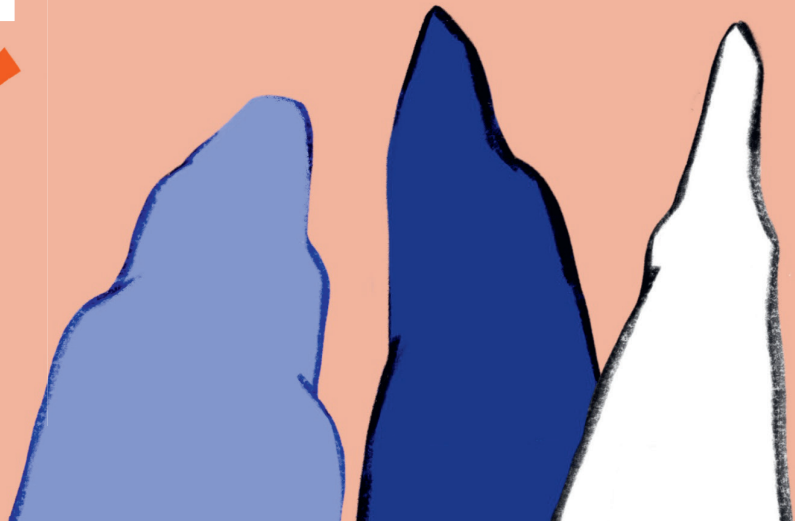
... but the resources they receive are usually small and granted for project-specific work, rather than long-term, sustainable initiatives.



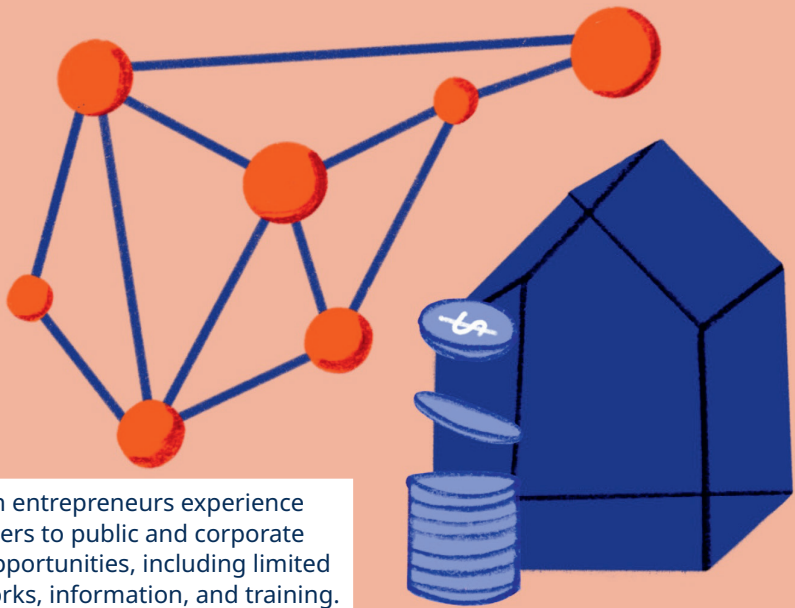
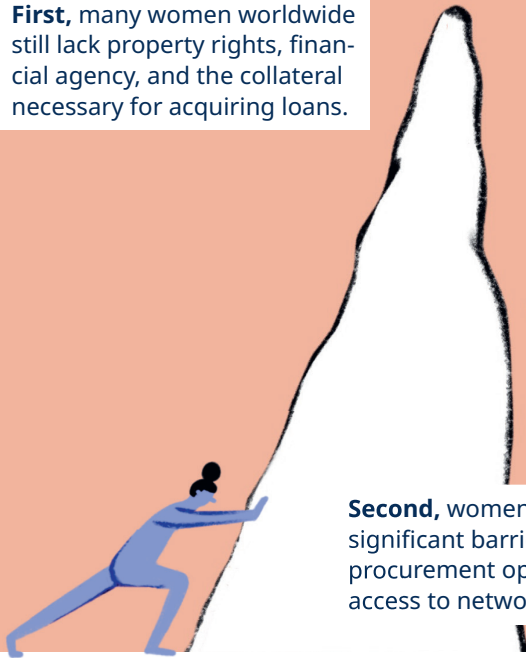
Women's businesses are also vital to realizing inclusive and sustainable economic growth worldwide.



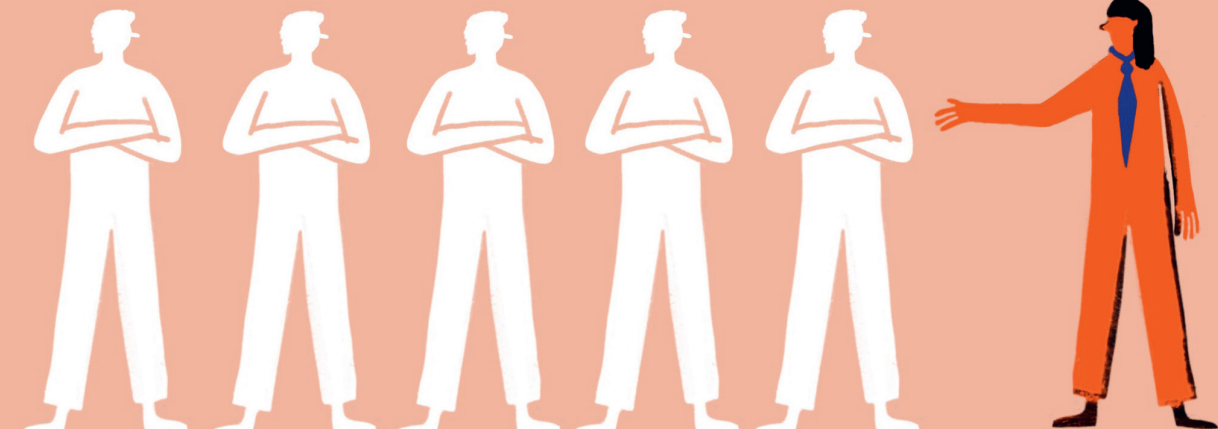
Yet women's businesses face three major barriers:



First, many women worldwide still lack property rights, financial agency, and the collateral necessary for acquiring loans.



Second, women entrepreneurs experience significant barriers to public and corporate procurement opportunities, including limited access to networks, information, and training.

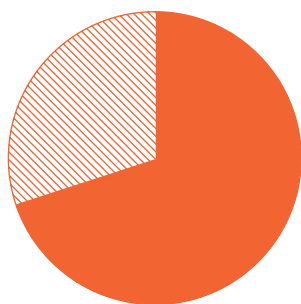


Third, women lack equal access to capital in the venture market, and women are significantly underrepresented within Venture Capital firms.

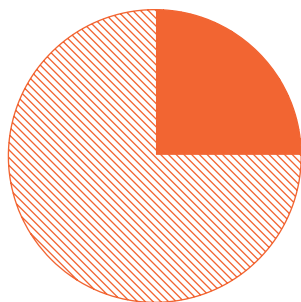
Fostering women's entrepreneurship is not simply a matter of justice and equity, but also sound economic policy.

The Care Economy





70%
of global paid care
workers are women



25%
of global senior roles
in the care workforce
are women

The Issue

The care economy is the bedrock of the quality of life in our societies. It includes paid and unpaid work, revolves around caring for those who are most in need, and is mostly done by women and marginalized groups. Despite its importance in safeguarding a society's most basic processes and contributing to economic growth and stability, the care economy and its workers do not consistently receive adequate compensation or social recognition. Globally, women do three to ten times more unpaid care and domestic work than men.¹ Women also make up 70% of the global paid care workforce, while only representing 25% of senior roles.²

The unequal gender distribution in the care economy and the low status accorded this work significantly limit women's social, political, and economic empowerment. Unpaid care work, which requires considerable time and resources, is one of the main barriers to paid employment, succeeding in other careers, or taking up political office; by one estimate, 606 million women remain outside the labor market because of their unpaid care responsibilities.³ As a critical source of employment for women, care jobs are key to ensuring that women's livelihoods and prospects are strong. Yet growth in this sector is often fueled by the expansion of low-wage jobs at

the most insecure end of the labor market.⁴ Such jobs are characterized by low pay, low status, poor working conditions, and limited social protections. Furthermore, migrant workers and workers representing ethnic minorities are dramatically overrepresented in those jobs, making the paid care sector a significant source of inequality for the world's most vulnerable women.⁵ Consequently, women's disproportionate share of unpaid care work prevents women from fully participating in the paid economy—leading to gender gaps in employment rates, wages, and pensions.

Both within the G7 and beyond, the care economy faces three broad challenges: First, men participate in the care economy far less than women do, particularly with respect to the unpaid care sector. Second, the care economy lacks the social status and recognition in line with its contributions. Third, workers in the care economy do not receive adequate compensation and often lack adequate job protections, and much care work remains uncompensated.

¹ Laura Addati, Umberto Cattaneo, Valeria Esquivel, and Isabel Valarino, *Care Work and Care Jobs for the Future of Decent Work* (Geneva: International Labour Organization, 2018), 43.

² Gary Barker, Aapta Garg, Brian Heilman, Nikki van der Gaag, and Rachel Mehaffey, *State of the World's Fathers: Structural Solutions to Achieve Equality in Care Work* (Washington: Promundo-US, 2021).

³ Addati, Cattaneo, Esquivel, and Valarino, 38.

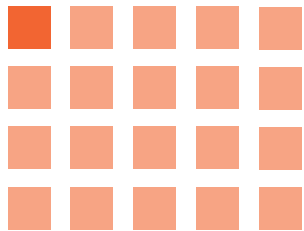
⁴ Mignon Duffy and Amy Armenia, *Paid Care Work Around the Globe: A Comparative Analysis of 47 Countries and Territories* (UN WOMEN Discussion Paper, 2021).

⁵ Ibid.

In 2020 ...



... about 5 in 20 women in Europe with children worked part time ...



... while only 1 in 20 men with children worked part time

⁶ European Institute for Gender Equality, *Gender Equality Index 2019 : Work-life Balance* (Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 2020), 71.

⁷ Data source: Eurostat.

⁸ Manuela Barisic and Valentina Consiglio, *Women in the German Labor Market: The Cost of Being a Mother* (Gütersloh: Bertelsmann Stiftung, 2021).

⁹ International Labour Organization, *Care Work and Care Jobs : For the Future of Decent Work* (Geneva, ILO, 2018).

¹⁰ *The gender pay gap in the health and care sector: a global analysis in the time of COVID-19*. (Geneva: WHO and ILO, 2022).

¹¹ ILO, *Care Work and Care Jobs*.

¹² Duffy and Armenia, "Paid Care Work Around the Globe."

¹³ Fiona Williams, "Converging variations in migrant care work in Europe," *Journal of European Social Policy* 22 (October 2012): 363–376.

Gender Disparities in the G7 and Beyond

Despite national and regional differences, one trend is clear: men do not participate in child raising, elder care, household chores, or other unpaid care activities to a degree even close to that of women. (The data are discussed in further detail in the **Dashboard**.) Men are also less likely to take parental leave for more than a couple of months. In the EU, for example, men account for only 27% of all parental leave days in EU countries.⁶ Another key indicator for these disparities is the share of part-time work, also shown in the **Dashboard**: women managing family responsibilities are less likely to work full time. In Europe, almost one in four women aged 25 to 54 with children worked part-time in 2020, while men with children had a part-time rate of only 5%.⁷ These disparities were broadened further during the COVID-19 pandemic, where women disproportionately carried the burden of remote schooling and additional childcare. (The gendered impact of COVID-19 is further discussed in the essay **Gender and Crisis**.)

Women also reduce their working hours as they have children, while men tend to increase their working hours. Together, these trends have a profound impact on the lifetime earnings of women and their participation in pension systems (See **Dashboard**). For example, a woman with children born in West Germany in 1985 earns about 1 million euros less than a man of the same age group over their lifetime. Children cost mothers in Germany up to two-thirds of their lifetime earnings.⁸

The global paid care workforce numbers 381 million workers; approximately two-thirds of those workers are women.⁹ In 2021, the International Labour Organization (ILO) and World Health Organization (WHO) documented a gender pay gap of roughly 24 percentage points when adjusted for age, education and work hours.¹⁰ Furthermore, four-fifths of these jobs involve informal employment and are especially vulnerable to exploitation.¹¹ Domestic workers in particular are often excluded from legal and social protection systems and experience high rates of wage theft, exploitation, and abuse.

During the first decade of the 21st century, the demand for care workers grew exponentially, boosting the market of transnational "care migration" that accounts for the increasing feminization of migration worldwide. As care work is one of the avenues open to migrants, some care workers migrate to developed countries for higher wages, leaving their own families in their home countries.¹² Caring in the wealthy parts of the world is now an industry that is heavily dependent on low-paid workers from the Global South,¹³ with a heavy social cost for migrants and their non-migrating family members.

Models and Examples

Measuring the value of care work

A critical first step in recognizing the value of care work is to measure it. Globally, the ILO estimates unpaid care work to be around 9% of global GDP, when using hourly minimum wage.¹⁴ Measuring care work with time-use surveys reveals the significant share it represents of countries' GDP; for example, unpaid care work represents 14% in South Africa and Canada, 23% in Argentina, France, and New Zealand, and 33% in China.¹⁵ However, to date, only 83 countries have conducted time-use surveys, and only 24% of those were conducted after 2010.¹⁶ Even when information is collected, it is not systematically calculated as part of the GDP. As women perform more than 75% of household productive activities, these calculations provide a more realistic estimate of women's economic contribution and challenge traditional views of men's greater economic productivity.

Finland: New model for family leave

In 1974, Sweden became the first country to offer parental leave for fathers, followed over the next few years by the other Nordic countries. However, the effect of this policy only became significant once the leave was made non-transferable.¹⁷ Finland has recently revised its family leave model in a manner that aims to treat all children equally regardless of the number or gender identity of the parents, or whether parents are married, cohabiting, or living apart. This new model gives each parent 160 days of paid parental leave, and each parent has the option to donate up to 63 of their paid leave days to the other parent or to their spouse. If the child has only one parent, then that parent would receive 320 leave days. In practice, the reform increases fathers' compulsory quota to 97 days, or approximately three months; if the father does not use this time, the family loses it.

Changing cultural norms through legislation and role models

Policies facilitating a more equal distribution of care work can have transformational effects on children, families, fathers themselves, and society at large. For example, Iceland's Gender Equality Act establishes the employer's obligation to take measures that allow men and women to coordinate their work and family responsibilities and emphasizes the need to increase work flexibility, not only in working hours but also in the way work is organized. Similarly, Belgium introduced the option for parents to take a "career break" to help them balance work and family life. This allows employees to reduce working hours or interrupt their employment while receiving a state allowance for a specific period, after which they can return to the same job. More broadly, studies and experience show that positive role models work. Men in leadership positions need to demonstrate the importance of sharing care work by prioritizing parental leave and care work in their own lives and being vocal about care-supportive policies and workplace culture.¹⁸

¹⁴ ILO, *Care Work and Care Jobs*.

¹⁵ Gaëlle Ferrant and Annelise Thim, "Measuring women's economic empowerment: Time use data and gender inequality" *OECD Development Policy Papers*, No. 16 (Paris: OECD Publishing, 2019).

¹⁶ UN Women, "Promoting Women's Economic Empowerment: Recognising and Investing in the Care Economy," UN Women Issue Paper (New York, 2018).

¹⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸ Benjamin J. Drury and Cheryl R. Kaiser, "Allies against sexism: The role of men in confronting sexism" *Journal of Social Issues*, 70 (2014): 637–652.

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

1

Ensure a more equitable distribution of care work between men and women

- Challenge cultural and social norms that prevent men from taking care of their children and place the burden of care work on women; support programs that engage men in combating gender stereotypes and discrimination, including UNESCO's Transforming MENTalities and UN Women HeForShe
- Enact care-friendly employment policies to balance work and family commitments, facilitated by culturally relevant education curricula and advocacy campaigns
- Enact paid family leave policies that are flexible, well-compensated (65–80% of previous income), job-protected, non-transferable, and available to parents of all genders

2

Ensure better recognition of care work through robust data collection and reporting

- Define and measure care work and integrate it into national accounts of economic performance
- Fund research to better understand the impact of paid and unpaid care work on the economy and society, the reasons why men participate unevenly, and the policies that have worked in other contexts or countries
- Publicize and share data widely by including it in speeches, publications, and media

3

Reward care work better

- Guarantee that working conditions for care workers are improved significantly through living wages, benefits, and predictable work hours
- Ensure that unpaid care work is valued or compensated through mechanisms such as tax policies and pension calculations

4

Develop and fund high-quality universal care systems

- Ensure that core economic and social policies include concrete commitments to establish, finance, and sustain universal care systems and invest in affordable, accessible, high-quality child and elder care
- Ensure that fiscal consolidation and austerity measures in response to social and economic crises will not restrict investment in high-quality public care systems

Feminist Diplomacy



The Issue

Feminist Foreign Policy, or Feminist Diplomacy, is a concept in international relations that calls on states to mainstream gender equality and women's rights through all components of their foreign policy, including peace and security, economic and trade diplomacy, human rights, international development, and climate and environmental policy. Feminist Diplomacy is rooted in evidence that women and girls around the world suffer from discrimination and violation of their rights, and it is based on the conviction that achieving equality is not a "women's issue," but rather benefits all people and nations. The full and equal participation of women in societies and the attainment of their rights are not only international obligations for UN member states and integral to completing the UN Sustainable Development Goals; they are also critical tools to achieving peace and security in the world. The well-being of women and the well-being of nations goes hand in hand.

As the world celebrates the 25th anniversary of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, most current government policies on foreign assistance, trade, diplomacy, and defense still do not adequately integrate a gender perspective into policy decisions. There is no single definition of Feminist Foreign Policy, nor is there an international convention or treaty that sets a series of obligations for

states that are party to it. Yet among those countries that have adopted a Feminist Foreign Policy, there are three critical components they share: (1) making sure all women and girls enjoy their full and equal rights, (2) ensuring representation of women in all parts of society and the economy, and (3) supporting this policy with adequate human and financial resources.

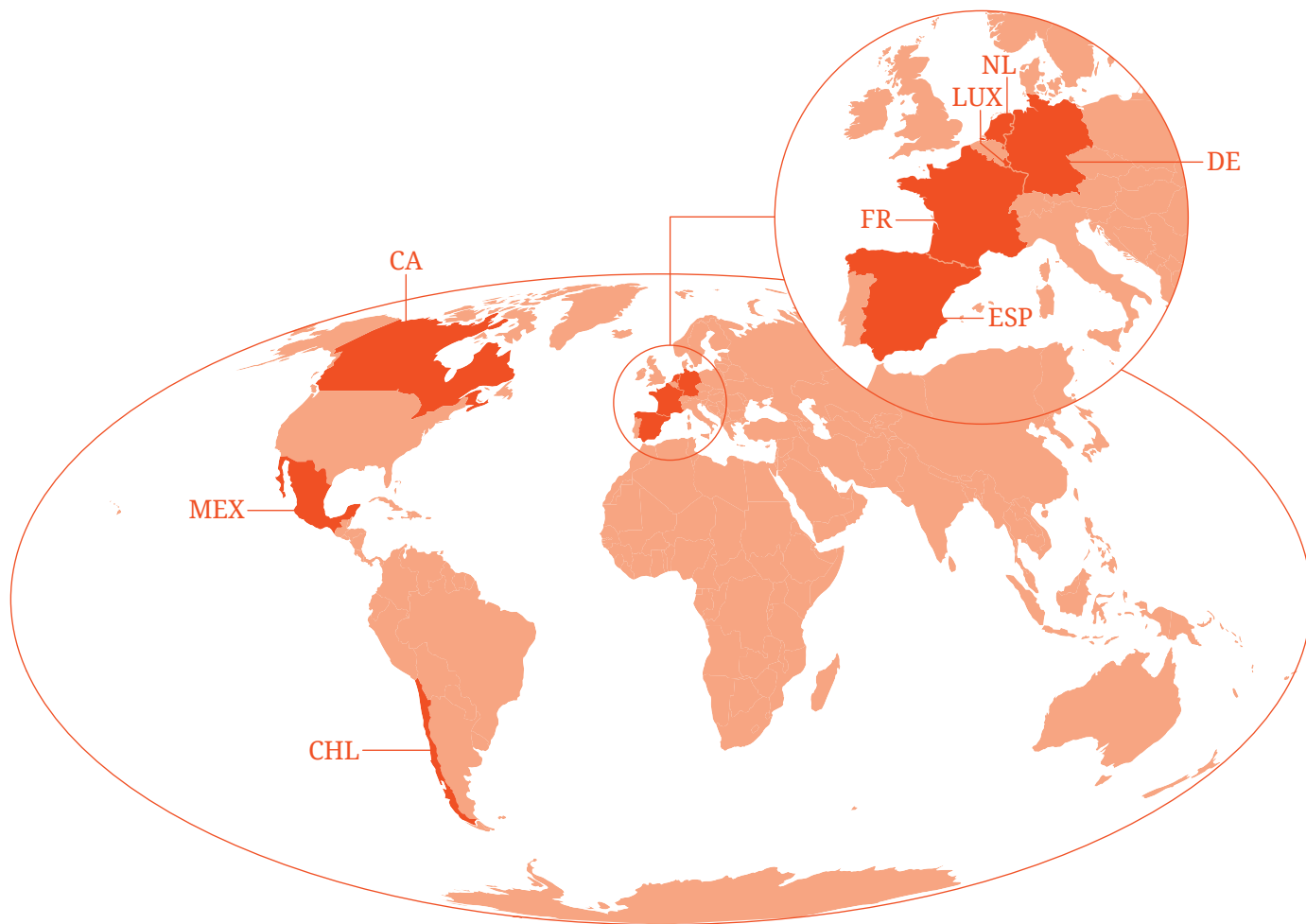
Building on this diplomatic approach, Lyric Thompson and Rachel Clement offer the following academic definition: "Feminist Foreign Policy is the policy of a state that defines its interactions with other states and movements in a way that prioritizes gender equality and enshrines the human rights of women and other traditionally marginalized groups, allocates significant resources to the realization of this vision, and seeks, through its implementation, to disrupt patriarchal and masculine power structures through all of its levers of influence (aid, trade, defense, and diplomacy), informed by the voices of feminist activists and movements."¹

¹ Lyric Thompson and Rachel Clement, *Defining Feminist Foreign Policy* (International Center for Research on Women, 2019): 7.

Feminist Diplomacy in the G7 and Beyond

In 2014, Sweden was the first country to launch a Feminist Foreign Policy (FFP). Although the newly elected government abandoned its FFP in October 2022, the Swedish model remains the most comprehensive. As described in its Handbook of Feminist Foreign Policy, the Swedish approach encompasses the three “Rs:” Rights for women, supported by Resources and increased Representation of women.² Since then, a total of nine countries (including three members of the G7) have officially adopted a Feminist Foreign Policy: seven in the Global North (Canada, France, Spain, Luxembourg, Germany, and the Netherlands) and two in the Global South (Mexico and Chile).

² *Handbook: Sweden's Feminist Foreign Policy*, Government Offices of Sweden, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2019.



Countries with a Feminist Foreign Policy

Gender equality is not only a human rights issue, but also a condition for social justice and economic progress.

Each of these countries has created its own framework and guidelines, with its own indicators. Despite this variance, evidence from the past decade shows a number of promising developments. Countries that have adopted a Feminist Foreign Policy have effectively mainstreamed gender equality and women's rights into their foreign policy decisions whenever possible. France, for example, has thoroughly integrated gender equality into all components of foreign policy since 2018 and uses every multilateral or global platform to promote women's and girls' rights, including the G7, G20, UN, OECD, and EU. As a result, these countries have strengthened their negotiating position in the UN on women's rights, and they have rallied and mobilized other countries to support transformative actions and resolutions; for example, by hosting international summits to advance gender equality, such as the Stockholm Forum on Gender Equality (2018) and the Generation Equality Forum in France and Mexico (2021).

The launch of a Feminist Foreign Policy has also created a strong sense of accountability among these countries. Civil society organizations, both national and international, are supportive and vigilant of the actual steps taken by countries to implement their Feminist Foreign Policies, particularly in efforts to defend women's and girls' rights both domestically and abroad, in times of peace, times of crisis, and when addressing international challenges such as climate change.

Finally, countries with a Feminist Foreign Policy have typically increased their financial assistance to feminist

organizations, using their policy as an opportunity to rethink development assistance and adopt an intersectional feminist approach to amplify the voices of all women and account for their different experiences. For example, the Canadian government, which adopted its Feminist International Assistance Policy in 2017, decided soon after to invest 300 million Canadian dollars in the Equality Fund. (This theme is further discussed in the earlier essay, **Funding**.)

As noted above, Feminist Diplomacy can include a variety of elements and actions, even when a country has not formally adopted a FFP. For example, while the United States does not have a formal FFP, it has nonetheless committed to empowering women economically in the developing world through the Women's Global Development and Prosperity Initiative (W-GDP). W-GDP seeks to reach 50 million women in the developing world by 2025 through focusing on three pillars: women prospering in the workforce, women succeeding as entrepreneurs, and women enabled in the economy.

Gender equality is not only a human rights issue, but also a condition for social justice and economic progress. It is also a necessary and fundamental prerequisite for democracy, peace, and development for all. By strengthening the rights of women and girls, the whole of humanity progresses.

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

1

Develop and foster the conditions necessary to Feminist Diplomacy

- Publicly and explicitly exercise a commitment to gender equality in the UN and other multilateral forums — not only with words, but also through concrete actions
- Provide direct support to and engagement with policy frameworks such as the UN Security Council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security and the UN Sustainable Development Goals (particularly SDG 5, focusing on gender equality)

2

Ensure and promote inclusive representation in decision-making at all levels

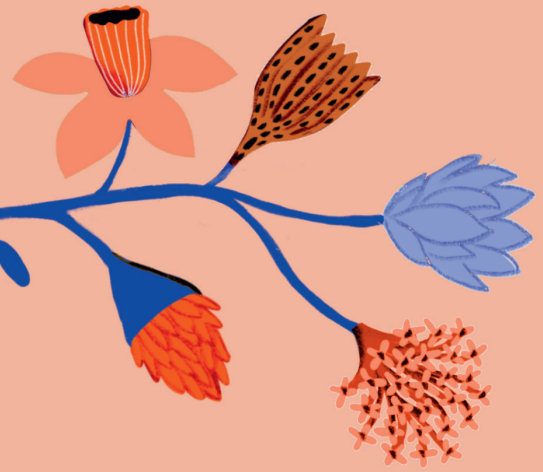
- Strive for gender parity through gender-balanced ministerial cabinets; include women in top positions such as foreign policy, defense, security agencies, development agencies, and trade
- Include women in the ranks of senior diplomatic corps, peace envoys, and negotiators
- Include women and women's organizations at the grassroots level, particularly for initiatives involving peacebuilding, economic policy, and climate adaptation; consult with women when establishing priorities and resource needs

3

Take action to educate leaders and individual citizens on the pillars of Feminist Foreign Policy

- Institute training about women, peace, and security for both diplomats and the military
- Fund and support programs for men and boys that promote positive masculinities, advocate for gender equality, and challenge traditions that maintain gender inequalities
- Work with young people to promote positive gender norms and prevent the perpetuation of negative stereotypes among their peers

Feminist Foreign Policy, or Feminist Diplomacy, is a concept in international relations that calls on states to mainstream gender equality and women's rights through all components of foreign policy...



... including peace and security, economic and trade diplomacy, human rights, international development, and climate and environmental policy.



Feminist Diplomacy is rooted in evidence that women and girls around the world suffer from discrimination and violation of their rights.



It is based on the conviction that achieving equality is not a "women's issue," but rather benefits all people and nations.



The full and equal participation of women in societies and the attainment of their rights are not only international obligations for United Nations member states and integral to completing the UN Sustainable Development Goals ...



... they are also critical tools to achieving peace and security in the world.

There is no single definition of Feminist Foreign Policy.



Countries that have adopted a Feminist Foreign Policy share three critical activities:



1 Making sure all women and girls enjoy their full and equal rights

2 Ensuring representation of women in all parts of society and the economy



3 Supporting this policy with adequate human and financial resources



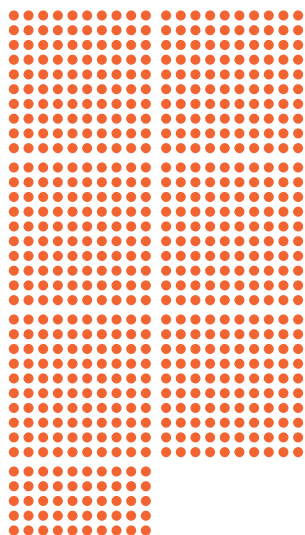
Ultimately, the well-being of women and the well-being of nations goes hand in hand.

Gender-based Violence





200 million
women and girls alive
today have undergone
genital mutilation



650 million
women alive today
were under the age
of consent when they
married

● = 1 million

¹ World Health Organization, *Global, Regional and National Prevalence Estimates for Intimate Partner Violence Against Women and Global and Regional Prevalence Estimates for Non-partner Sexual Violence Against Women, 2018* (Geneva, 2021).

² UNODC, *Global Study on Homicide: Gender-Related Killing of Women and Girls 2018* (Vienna, 2018).

³ UNICEF, *Female Genital Mutilation/Cutting: A Global Concern* (New York, 2016).

⁴ UNICEF, *Child Marriage: Latest Trends and Future Prospects* (New York, 2018).

⁵ International Labour Organization, *Global Estimates of Modern Slavery: Forced Labour and Forced Marriage* (Geneva, 2022).

⁶ Jeni Klugman et al., *Voice and Agency: Empowering Women and Girls for Shared Prosperity* (Washington: World Bank, 2014).

The Issue

One in three women worldwide has experienced either physical or sexual violence during her lifetime.¹ 137 women are murdered each day by a family member or intimate partner;² 200 million women and girls alive today have undergone genital mutilation;³ and more than 650 million women were under the age of consent when they married.⁴ Of 6.3 million victims of sex trafficking worldwide, nearly 80% are women and girls.⁵

Gender-based violence (GBV) is a human rights violation. It discriminates against people based on their gender and disproportionately affects women and girls. As defined in the Istanbul Convention, GBV includes all acts “that result in, or are likely to result in, physical, sexual, psychological or economic harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life.” GBV is perpetrated along unequal power relations that are manifested through socially constructed gender roles. It is directed against both individuals and groups, with the aim of degrading and subordinating them. Women of color, migrant and refugee women, women with disabilities, and LGBTQIA+ women are particularly affected by GBV, yet they are less likely to have access to counseling and care services.

GBV exists in all countries and across all socioeconomic groups. It has various manifestations: domestic and intimate partner violence, which can appear as physical, sexual, or psychological violence; sexual violence including rape, forced prostitution, and forced pregnancies; as well as violent social practices like female genital mutilation. GBV also includes psychological violence like coercive control, stalking, or hate speech and cyberbullying in the digital sphere.

GBV in the context of war and conflict is often used as a weapon in order to systematically destroy communities and humiliate the enemy. (This theme is further discussed in the following essay, **Gender and Crisis**.)

A World Bank Group report estimated the costs of intimate partner violence across a range of countries to be up to 3.7% of their GDP, which is about as much as what most governments spend on primary education.⁶ Addressing GBV not only helps women and girls, but also promotes society as a whole and the economy of every state.

Challenging Gender-based Violence in the G7 and Beyond

For decades, states have made international commitments to address GBV, with each commitment becoming increasingly specific. The UN General Assembly laid the foundation in 1979 with the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), which imposed measures to eliminate gender-based discrimination in the 189 ratifying states. In 1995, the Beijing Platform for Action stipulated that perpetrators should be consistently prosecuted and held accountable. And with the 2011 Istanbul Convention, the Council of Europe established a comprehensive foundation that includes measures for prevention and criminal sanctions, as well as data-based measures to systematically change state approaches and social awareness.

Despite the stated goals and concrete targets for their implementation, the statistics on GBV are hardly changing, with figures on femicide and sex trafficking especially worrying. Women's rights that have been fought for are being challenged and additionally threatened in the context of humanitarian crises and conflicts.

International treaties on GBV must be translated into effective national laws and provided with the necessary resources to ensure structural and area-wide security for women and girls. In addition, there are still states that have not legislated the goal of gender equality or committed to action against GBV. The constant failure to address women's rights and violence against women is itself a form of systematic gender-based violence and must be addressed by the international community.

Within the G20, for example, more than half of the member states have improved legislation to protect women and girls from GBV, and all but Russia have legal frameworks that specifically address domestic violence. Seventeen countries have laws that explicitly protect against sexual harassment. However, none of the countries have adopted a comprehensive legal approach to investigating, prosecuting, and punishing GBV perpetrators, nor have they developed a comprehensive process to provide protection and support services for survivors, according to a 2021 report by the OECD Development Centre.⁷

Addressing GBV requires robust data and close monitoring and evaluation. Progress is being made in this regard: The GEAC welcomes the G7's inclusion of a GBV indicator in the **Dashboard** that measures cross-sectional physical and sexual violence against women and girls by an intimate partner. According to the indicator, the G7 average for this indicator is 4.1% (Canada and Germany have the lowest at 3% and the United States has the highest at 6%). Three of the G7 members were also reviewed by the Council of Europe's Committee of Experts for the implementation of the Istanbul Convention (GREVIO); most recently Germany, which GREVIO found to lack coordination in the concrete implementation of action plans and gaps in research on GBV.⁸ Nonetheless, data collection remains a challenge on a number of fronts: many cases of GBV remain unreported, and other forms of GBV are difficult to define and measure.

⁷ OECD, *Ending gender-based discrimination in G20 countries: A frame for action* (2021).

⁸ GREVIO, *Evaluation Report on legislative and other measures giving effect to the provisions of the Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence* (2022).

1979

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), UN General Assembly

Imposed measures to eliminate gender-based discrimination in the 189 ratifying states

1995

Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action

Stipulated that perpetrators should be consistently prosecuted and held accountable

2011

Istanbul Convention, Council of Europe

Established measures for prevention, criminal sanctions, and data-based measures to systematically change state approaches and social awareness

Models and Examples

Belgium: Combined care approach

In 2017, Belgium began a pilot project to establish Sexual Assault Care Centers, where victims of sexual violence can simultaneously receive medical, psychological, and forensic help. This approach reduces barriers by logistically centralizing support from different areas and thus makes it easier for women to receive care. Building on the pilot phase, Belgium plans to establish ten SACCs by 2024.⁹

Denmark: Live without Violence

Denmark launched a national unit in 2017 to target Intimate Partner Violence (IPV), a program executed by five NGOs with different expertise and target groups. “Live without Violence” brings together survivors and professionals who work with victims and perpetrators. In addition, the unit launches public-awareness campaigns to prevent IPV, such as a 2019 film that depicted different forms of domestic violence and provided information about its hot-line. In 2020, Denmark extended the program to 2024, providing the equivalent of \$5.6 million.¹⁰

Scotland: Public prevention campaigns

Scotland’s Zero Tolerance campaign is an example of how sexual violence, domestic violence, and sexual abuse can be addressed in a long-term, public way. The first poster campaign was launched in 1992 to raise awareness of violence against women and challenge public attitudes on the issue. Since then, Zero Tolerance has worked closely with the Scottish government; on the occasion of the campaign’s 30th anniversary this year, it briefed the Parliament’s Social Justice and Social Security Committee on measures against gender-based violence.¹¹

⁹ Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth, *Protecting Women against Violence – Best Practices from all over Europe* (Berlin, 2020).

¹⁰ *Protecting Women against Violence – Best Practices from all over Europe*. See also Council of Europe, *Committee of the Parties Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence* (Strasbourg, 2021).

¹¹ Zero Tolerance briefing for Social Justice and Social Security Committee (2022).

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

1

Ratify, publicly support, and enforce international conventions and organizations aimed at eliminating GBV

- Affirm and enforce existing frameworks such as the Istanbul Convention and Beijing Declaration
- Provide support and resources to women living in regimes with legalized gender discrimination, empowering and enabling women and their allies to advance necessary reforms
- Increase international efforts to combat trafficking, including coordinated institutional response mechanisms, dedicated budgetary allocations, mandatory reporting, and maintaining records of criminal organizations that sponsor trafficking
- Create a code of conduct at the G7 level that clearly defines sexual harassment and GBV, establishes a protocol to address cases of GBV, and protects victims and witnesses from threats and retaliation
- Advocate for the international criminalization of femicide and for all GBV to be addressed both as a crime and as a public health problem

2

Implement and finance public education and outreach programs aimed at preventing GBV

- Create and develop empowerment programs that strengthen the self-esteem and autonomy of women from groups that are more likely to be at risk of violence
- Support programs aimed at helping men eliminate harmful stereotypes and toxic masculinities, such as UNESCO's Transforming MENTalities initiative

3

Establish evidence-based, coordinated protocols across public institutions and services aimed at addressing and ending GBV

- Create victim-centered systems to address GBV through “one-stop shops” that bring together sectors such as law enforcement, judiciary, health care, and social work
- Promote specialized and coordinated approaches by developing standard operating procedures for all institutions in the justice chain

4

Support data collection and research to inform policies and programs aimed at ending GBV

- Establish standardized definitions of GBV and develop instruments to support the collection of accurate, internationally comparable data
- Expand research into the prevalence of GBV by identifying best practices in data collection; encouraging countries to collect frequent and accurate data, including data disaggregated by other factors of identity (e.g., race, immigration status, ability); and by publishing and applying results to raise public awareness and improve service delivery for victims
- Strengthen research and provide funding to assess interventions that prevent and respond to GBV
- Include GBV in population-based demographic and health surveys, as well as in surveillance and health information systems

Gender-based Violence in Africa

Introduction

The term Gender-based Violence (GBV) has been used widely to mean “a form of discrimination that seriously inhibits women’s ability to enjoy rights and freedoms on a basis of equality with men.”¹ In the context of Africa, the term could be used to refer to limited decision-making, increased exposure to risk, multiple excessive demands on time, lack of access to resources, unacknowledged violence, persistence and prevalence of customary law, and underrepresentation in political structures. To dive deeper into some of the issues listed above, this essay reviews the main issues and characteristics of the primary forms of GBV in Africa.

Sexual harassment and rape: In many African countries, 16-59% of women have experienced sexual violence from intimate partners, and women are at far greater risk of sexual violence from a partner than from others.² The numbers are, however, hard to compare across countries and regions due to variations in definitions and concepts such as rape and sexual assault.

Gender-based discrimination at work: Workplace discrimination in Africa takes many shapes and forms, including ethnicity or the caste system, which involves discriminating against people of different ethnicities using existing structures of power; differences in employment, with most

women still earning less than men and more likely to be trapped in low-skilled jobs in the informal economy;³ and social isolation associated with health and lifestyle.⁴

Female Genital Mutilation and Cutting (FGM&C): FGM&C is viewed in many parts of Africa as an essential and indivisible part of invaluable rites of passage into womanhood, without which a woman is considered ceremonially unclean for spousal and maternal functions. It is also believed to improve the appearance of the genital area as well as hygiene, and to control sexual deviance and promiscuity.⁵ Women in urban settlements are less likely to subject their daughters to the procedure since cultural considerations there are less imperative, or they are diluted by cross-cultural interactions.

Trafficking in women: Despite being identified as a major source and transit route for trafficking, Africa has largely failed to translate international commitments into national laws and policies. Until the 1990s, African countries did not consider trafficking a matter of grave concern. As one of the most affected states in Africa, Nigeria seems to have set the pace by developing a national framework aimed at addressing human trafficking.

¹ Tania Groppi, “Gender-based violence as a challenge to constitutional democracy,” *IgualdadES*, 2, no. 3(2020): 457-471.

² Claudia Garcia-Moreno et al., *WHO Multi-country Study on Women’s Health and Domestic Violence against Women* (Geneva: World Health Organization, 2005).

³ Olubunmi O. Akintola and Olagoke Akintola, “West Africans in the informal economy of South Africa: The case of low skilled Nigerian migrants,” *The Review of Black Political Economy*, 42, no. 4 (2015): 379-398.

⁴ Annemarie E. Meiberg, Arjan E. R. Bos, Hans E. Onya, Herman P. Schaalma, “Fear of stigmatization as barrier to voluntary HIV counselling and testing in South Africa,” *East African Journal of Public Health*, 5, no. 2(2008): 49.

⁵ Rogaiya Mustafa Abusharaf, ed., *Female circumcision: multicultural perspectives* (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 2013).

Case Studies

The issues presented above are described here in the context of five countries in Africa: Senegal, Sierra Leone, Niger, Burkina Faso, and Mali.

Senegal: In Senegal, many cases of pedophilia, rape, domestic violence, denial of paternity, and assault and battery are reported daily by the press. 60% of the reported GBV cases are related to rape, followed by assault and battery (17%).⁶ Men are the primary perpetrators of GBV regardless of the victim's gender (66.3% and 54.1% of GBV committed against men and women respectively were perpetrated by adult males. 42.8% were committed by women).⁷ Moreover, unemployed people represent 21.8% of perpetrators, while shopkeepers represent 20.8%. Girls under the age of 20 are more likely to experience GBV than boys. The incidents in rural areas (27.8%) are slightly higher than in urban areas (25.1%).⁸

Sierra Leone: The 11-year civil war brought about violence and displacement that influenced the nature and extent of GBV in the post-conflict phase, including rape, mutilation, forced labor, trafficking, and sexual slavery. The country is highly patriarchal, and institutionalized gender inequalities are exacerbated by discriminatory customs, especially in terms of marriage, property rights, and sexual offences. Moreover, high levels of illiteracy and poverty prevent women from upholding many of their internationally recognized rights. An attempt to address GBV in the country must consider post-colonial realities and prioritize engagement with both men and women, including community and national leaders who can influence attitudes towards GBV.⁹

Niger: The prevalence rate of GBV among women and girls is 60% and the rate among men and boys is 44%.¹⁰

Women are victims of numerous forms of violence, especially physical abuse (43%), sexual abuse (28.3%), early or forced marriage (4.8%), denial of access to their own resources (6.6%), and insults (17.1%).¹¹ Furthermore, displacements caused by climate change and instability could result in an increase in GBV cases, as well as rising cases of abduction, forced marriages, and use of women and girls as suicide bombers.

Burkina Faso: The forced displacement caused by instability in the country has led to an unprecedented deterioration of the humanitarian situation with the fight against GBV in the country.¹² The reports are alarming, with more than one woman in three (37%) having experienced domestic violence in her lifetime, compared to one man in five (16%).¹³ GBV is partly on the rise due to the persistence of certain sociocultural practices and the crises that the country is currently experiencing, such as terrorism and insecurity, which have led to massive population displacements. Discrimination against women is widespread, including within families, where no fewer than 44% of women were married before the age of 18. Early and forced marriages have increased the rate of teenage pregnancies among girls aged 13 and 17. A study by the Society of Gynaecologists and Obstetricians of Burkina Faso (SOGOB) estimated that out of 23,764 pregnancies recorded in 2016, 797 or 3.4% were teenagers between the ages of 13 and 17. 27.7% of those pregnancies ended in obstructed labor, and 12.9% ended in miscarriages. These situations increased the maternal mortality rate among teenagers to 1,786 deaths per 100,000 live births, far exceeding the national ratio of 135 deaths per 100,000 live births in the same year.¹⁴

⁶ UN Women, *Status of violence against women: response and support for survivors in Dakar, Diourbel, Fatick, Kaffrine, Kaolack, Louga, Saint-Louis and Thiès regions* (UN Women Report, 2012).

⁷ Groupe D'Etudes et de Recherches Genre et Societes (GESTES), "Les violences basées sur le genre au Sénégal: la prévention comme alternative aux périls de sécurité et de justice" (International Development Research Center, 2015).

⁸ National Statistics and Demographics Agency (ANSD), "Violences basées sur le genre et pouvoir d'action des femmes" (Ministry of the Economy, Planning and Cooperation, ANSD, 2019).

⁹ Karen Barnes, Peter Albrecht, and Maria Olson, *Addressing Gender-Based Violence in Sierra Leone: Mapping Challenges, Responses, and Future Entry Points* (International Alert, 2007).

¹⁰ Djibo Saley et al., *Ampleur et Déterminants des Violences Basées sur le Genre au Niger* (UNFPA Report, 2015).

¹¹ Niger Rapport Annuel, Annexe Genre (2018).

¹² Trust Africa, *Etude exploratoire sur la prévention et l'élimination des violences basées sur le genre au Burkina Faso: les régions des Cascades, du Centre Nord, du Nord, du Plateau Central et des Hauts Bassins* (Trust Africa, 2019).

¹³ OECD, Burkina Faso Social Institutions and Gender Index, Burkina Faso-SIGI Country Study (OECD, 2018).

Mali: In Mali, GBV is an everyday occurrence for women and girls. More than 35% of women have reported experiencing sexual violence at least once in their lives. The actual figures are much higher, as many of the victims often do not have the opportunity to seek help.¹⁵ Rape, sexual assault, and genital mutilation, as well as physical violence and forced marriage, are still the most reported forms of GBV in the northern and central regions, particularly in Menaka, Gourma, Timbuktu, Mopti, Socoura and Kayes circles. Between January and December 2018, 3,330 types of violence including 2,965 cases of GBV were reported directly by the GBV information management system; 59% were cases of sexual violence (among which nearly 41% were cases of sexual assault and 18% of penetrative rape, 14% were cases of physical assault, 12% were denial of resources, 9% were emotional abuse, and 6% were forced marriage).¹⁶ The occupation of the north has worsened the GBV crisis, and COVID-19 impacts increased the GBV rate to 54% from 43% before the pandemic.¹⁷

Responses to GBV in Africa

Some responses from regional bodies include the protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights on the Rights of Women in Africa, the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa, Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) Protocol on Gender and Development, the African Commission on Human and Peoples' Rights and GBV, the Peace and Security Council, the Special Rapporteur on Women, the African Peer Review Mechanism (APRM), and the Maputo Plan of Action for the Operationalisation of the Continental Policy Framework for Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights (2007-2010).

At the country level, some examples of responses to GBV include:

- The revised Penal Code of Niger, which has relevant articles such as provisions on assault and battery (Articles 222 to 225); Articles 283, 284 and 285, which define and punish the act of rape; Article 232 on female genital mutilation; Article 290 dealing with forced marriage; Article 281-1 on sexual harassment; and Article 291-1 on trafficking in women.
- The Penal Code of Senegal, which covers assault and battery, sexual harassment, domestic violence, female genital mutilation, rape, indecent assault, incest, and procuring; and the establishment of a committee for the revision of legislative and regulatory texts that discriminate against women, and the criminalization of rape and pedophilia in 2020.

¹⁴ Sibraogo Kiemtoré, "Grossesse chez les adolescentes: fréquence et pronostic dans cinq formations sanitaires de la ville de Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso," *Journal de la SAGO*, 19, no. 2 (2018).

¹⁵ UN Women, "Le Mali dit STOP aux violence basées sur le genre (VBG): le nouveau One Stop Center de Bamako, un trait d'union entre la justice et les femmes maliennes rescapées de VBG" (31 April 2018).

¹⁶ Rapport statistiques annuelles des cas de violences basées sur le genre déclarés en 2018, Sous cluster VBG au Mali (UNFPA, 2019).

¹⁷ Système des Nations Unies au Mali, "Étude sur l'impact du COVID 19 sur les Violences Basées sur le Genre au Mali" (UNFPA, 2020).

- The 2008 Labour Code of Burkina Faso, which prohibits and sanctions any form of discrimination in employment and occupation, including gender-based discrimination (Articles 4 and 38); and the establishment of relevant caucuses in the National Assembly, regional and communal gender promotion councils, a Centre for Information, Training and Action Research on Women (CIFRAF), a National Council for the Promotion of Gender (CONAP Genre), a national council on the practice of female genital mutilation, and a National Women's Forum.

practices, which impact the health and well-being of women and young girls. Furthermore, implementation shortfalls in Burkina Faso relate to the lack of enforcement of laws aimed at combating discrimination against women; limited effectiveness of government actions; significant economic and social gaps between urban and rural areas; persistent problems related to sexual and reproductive health and issues most often due to impunity; recurring cases of rape, clandestine abortions, etc.

Despite the numerous challenges in countries across Africa, it is notable that good practices have been reported in the fight against GBV. For instance, legal, judicial, psychological, and medical service packages are increasingly provided for women and girls who have suffered from abuse. A growing number of community watchdog and reporting systems (often through associations) focus on cases of violence. Anti-GBV organizations and UN agencies work in synergy within countries, with UN organizations collaborating with community organizations on GBV management and prevention. Crisis centers known as "One Stop Centers" have been set up to provide survivors with access to legal, medical and other services related to GBV, and dialogues with community leaders (especially religious leaders) are conducted on a regular basis. Training is increasingly provided for legal professionals on how to overcome their prejudices and biases based on gender and social norms. There is a dynamic consultation framework for all stakeholders involved in the fight against GBV in many countries, and various countries have set up active hotlines and developed Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) to facilitate the adoption of joint GBV prevention and response measures by all stakeholders. These measures have contributed to the mitigation of GBV at community and country levels.

Conclusion

As described in the sections above, GBV takes different shapes and forms in different countries in Africa. While regional institutions are responding to GBV indirectly through the promotion of gender equality, and in other cases directly through the adoption of various protocols and establishment of institutions, many of the measures articulated towards addressing GBV have been poorly implemented. The challenge remains in the implementation of various commitments and the coordination of national compliance mechanisms. In Niger, for example, although the 1962 Convention on Consent to Marriage, Minimum Age for Marriage and Registration of Marriages contributes to the fight against GBV, it remains insufficient in that it does not set a specific minimum age for marriage. Also, while many measures have been taken to accelerate the complete abandonment of FGM in Senegal, there are still challenges that need to be overcome to end these

Gender and Crisis



The Issue

COVID-19, Russia's war in Ukraine, the deprivation of human rights in Afghanistan, Iran and elsewhere—all these crises lead to severe cuts in people's resources and degrees of freedom as well as an increase in diseases, mental and physical stress, poverty in all its forms, suffering from fuel and energy shortages, hunger, and violence. No crisis is gender-neutral; all affect women differently than men—and often in stronger and more lasting ways. In addition, we live in an era of profound transformation: climate change, digitization, demography, nationalism, globalization. These movements change the lives of us all, though the extent of their impact depends on region, government, and economy and can differ by age, education, income, status, and gender. Here, too, it is women who suffer particular hardship, albeit with differences between them. An intersectional lens is indispensable to addressing these changes.

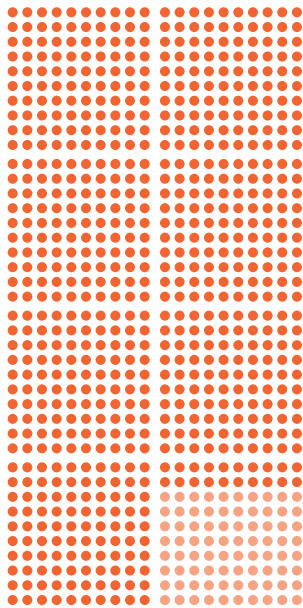
The GEAC 2022 focuses on three crises—Russia's invasion of Ukraine, climate change, and the COVID-19 pandemic—and details three areas of pervasive gendering: the *consequences* of crises, the *measures* used to combat crises, and the *decision-making bodies* that steer crisis management and provide the top personnel in the emerging sectors of the economy.

Consequences. Crises usually push women back to the family, and traditional role models flourish. The gender care gap widens, as do the gender income and pension gaps—increasing the financial vulnerability of women. Caring for others inside and outside one's own family leads to high

psychological stress, and women struggle to live up to cultural expectations and their own internalized values. Moreover, the withdrawal into the private sphere leads to more violence within the family, with women overwhelmingly the victims. War can lead to trafficking, rape, and femicide. In sum, worldwide crises intensify women's poverty and economic insecurity, displacement, violence against women, and discrimination.

Measures used to overcome crises often favor men. Male-dominated occupations and sectors receive more public aid than female-dominated jobs. Energy-saving measures are based on the needs of men, while women have different needs for energy consumption. Curfews burden women more than men, since they are more dependent on social communities and infrastructure for child and elder care.

Decisions made in crises are usually made by men or male-dominated bodies, who often lack perspective on the social consequences of their actions: family, schools, and care facilities are not always part of their lived experience. In the new prosperous labor markets, characterized by digitization and the ecological restructuring of our economy, men are overrepresented by far. The knowledge and talents of women remain largely unused.



90% of the nearly 8 million people who have fled Ukraine are women and girls at risk of war crimes such as rape, sexual exploitation, and human trafficking

● = 10 000 women and girls

● = 10 000 men and boys

Gender Disparities in Crises

Russia's war in Ukraine

The Russian invasion of Ukraine highlighted how violence against women and girls increases through war and displacement. Of nearly 8 million people who have fled, 90% are women and girls at risk of war crimes such as rape, sexual exploitation, and human trafficking.¹ Pregnant women have limited access to health care, and many maternity hospitals have been destroyed by Russian strikes. Women-headed households are more likely to experience food insecurity, resulting in girls leaving school to ensure the economic well-being of their families.²

Financial measures to assist Ukraine initially included minimal funds for gender-specific causes. It was not until May 2022, for example, that the European Commission announced 1.5 million euros in aid to the UN Population Fund to enable sexual and reproductive health services for women and girls, such as emergency care for pregnant women. This represented 0.6% of EU humanitarian aid to Ukraine at that time.³ Women's organizations on the ground have not been adequately involved in decision-making processes on humanitarian action and peacebuilding negotiations.⁴

Climate change

In the wake of climate change, women and girls are more exposed to risks such as resource scarcity and food shortages, displacement, and natural disasters, and have a correspondingly shorter life expectancy.⁵ 80% of the people displaced by climate change are women. They are at greater risk of gender-based violence and have less access to health care. During droughts and erratic rainfall, women work harder as primary procurers to secure income and resources for their families.

Despite these responsibilities, women are not sufficiently engaged to address the challenges of climate change, especially in local aid projects.⁶ International agreements such as the Paris Agreement commit to gender-sensitive measures, yet only 40% of National Climate Contributions (NDCs) mention the role of women. Where gender concerns are included, they often remain vague and uncoordinated, and they are not provided with appropriate resources or monitoring mechanisms.⁷ Women are still significantly underrepresented in international climate negotiations.⁸ A 2022 report commissioned by the G7 also noted that women are vastly underrepresented at all levels in the global energy sector, which plays a critical role in addressing climate change; for example, fewer than 5% of top posts in the energy sector are filled by women.⁹

1 UN Population Fund, "Ukraine: Gender-based violence: Secondary Data Review," 27 April 2022.

2 UN Women, *Global Gendered Impacts of the Ukraine Crisis* (UN Women, 2022).

3 European Commission, "Ukraine: EU is stepping up support to sexual and gender-based violence survivors" (13 May 2022).

4 UN Human Rights Office of the High Commissioner (OHCHR), "Ukraine: Protection and participation of women is essential, say UN human rights experts," (Press Release, 4 March 2022); CARE, "Six months on in Ukraine: Local and national women's organizations are leading the response to the conflict but are side-lined by humanitarian actors" (Report, 24 August 2022).

5 OHCHR, *Analytical study on gender-responsive climate action for the full and effective enjoyment of the rights of women* (OHCHR, 2019).

6 Liane Schalatek, "Gender and Climate Finance" (Heinrich Böll Stiftung, 2018).

7 Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ) *Diving into the gap: Gender dimensions of Climate Risk Management* (Bonn: GIZ GmBH, 2021); UN, *Differentiated impacts of climate change on women and men; the integration of gender considerations in climate policies, plans and actions; and progress in enhancing gender balance in national climate delegations* (Report, United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, 2019).

8 UN, *Gender Composition* (Report, United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, 2021).

9 German Federal Ministry for Economic Affairs and Climate Action, *G7 Report on Gender Equality and Diversity in the Energy Sector* (October 2022).

The COVID-19 pandemic

The COVID-19 pandemic has impacted men and women in different ways: While studies suggest that men have a higher risk of severe sickness and death, the social and economic impacts on women have been staggering.¹⁰ School and day care closures led to an increase in gaps of unpaid care work and labor force participation.¹¹ Time-use surveys from Germany, the United Kingdom, and the United States conclude that women disproportionately carried the burden of online schooling and additional childcare. More than 2 million mothers globally left the labor force in 2020.¹² Workers in women-dominated professions like health care and child care bore the brunt of the pandemic, working overtime and often under unsafe conditions. Lockdowns and curfews increased women's exposure to domestic violence while isolating them from support networks.¹³

Here, it is worth noting that COVID-19 policies were enacted mainly by men: Of 115 identified COVID-19 decision-making and expert task forces, only 3.5% had gender parity, and 85.2% were majority men.¹⁴ Even if many of these measures were key to reducing the spread of COVID-19, the consequences for women were not adequately assessed or mitigated by support structures. Compared to the amount of financial assistance provided to address the economic consequences of the pandemic, the proportion addressing gender inequalities was small. For example, in one international survey of 580 fiscal responses to the economic downturn caused by COVID-19, only 12% were identified as "gender-sensitive," supporting sectors that employ mainly women.¹⁵

Models and Examples

Portugal: Assessing the consequences

In Portugal, a coalition of foundations and government agencies provided special funding for projects conducting research on the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on gender inequalities and violence. "Gender Research 4 COVID-19" received public funding and provided a total budget of 500,000 euros for analyses, contingency plans, and action catalogs.¹⁶

International project: Ensuring food security

FAO, IFAD, UN Women, and the Women and World Food Programme established a Joint Programme on Accelerating Progress towards the Economic Empowerment of Rural Women to increase food security of women in Ethiopia, Guatemala, or Kyrgyzstan, for example, in the face of threats of environmental degradation and climate change.¹⁷

IUCN: Guided decision-making

The International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) is working to increase national commitments to gender-equitable climate action. The network is working with countries to implement gender action plans on climate change (ccGAPs), which identify strategies and develop action plans with local stakeholders, depending on national conditions.

¹⁰ Kim Robin van Daalen et al., "Symptoms of a broken system: the gender gaps in COVID-19 decision-making," *BMJ Global Health* 2020;5:e003549.

¹¹ Usha Ranji, Brittni Frederiksen, Alina Salganicoff, and Michelle Long, *Women, Work, and Family During COVID-19: Findings from the KFF Women's Health Survey* (Kaiser Family Foundation, 2021); and Katherine Schaeffer, *Working moms in the U.S. have faced challenges on multiple fronts during the pandemic* (Pew Research Center, 2022).

¹² International Labour Organization, "Statistics on Women (2022)," ILOSTAT.

¹³ UN Women, *From Insight to Action: Gender Equality in the Wake of Covid-19* (UN Women, 2020).

¹⁴ van Daalen et al., "Symptoms of a broken system."

¹⁵ IMF, UN Women, and UN Development Programme, "Gender Equality and COVID-19: Policies and Institutions for Mitigating the Crisis," *Special Series on Covid-19* (2021).

¹⁶ Fundação para a Ciência e a Tecnologia, *Gender Research 4 Covid 19* (2020).

¹⁷ UN MPTF Office, *Accelerating Progress towards Rural Women's Economic Empowerment: Final Report Phase 1 Summary* (2022); OHCHR/UN Women, *Realizing Women's Rights to land and other productive sources* (United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, 2020).

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

1

Strengthen significantly efforts to prepare for future crises by investing in preventive measures

- Provide tools for crisis communication; facilitate access to consultation and information
- Fight social norms, cultures, and institutional arrangements that incentivize an unequal gender division of unpaid care work; improve high-quality accessible infrastructure for children and the elderly; reduce gendered segregation of the labor market
- Provide adequate health care, including hospitals and shelter

2

Develop, implement, and enforce measures of gender mainstreaming such as principles of gender impact and gender budgeting

- Promote the inclusion of women in leadership positions, diverse decision-making bodies, and full participation in emerging markets
- Secure fair and equal economic support of women, men, and children
- Respect physiological differences between men and women and act according to the needs of all genders
- Evaluate the social impact of any measure used to combat crises and assess its gendered consequences

3

End conflict-related sexual violence through a multisectoral approach from states and a collective global response

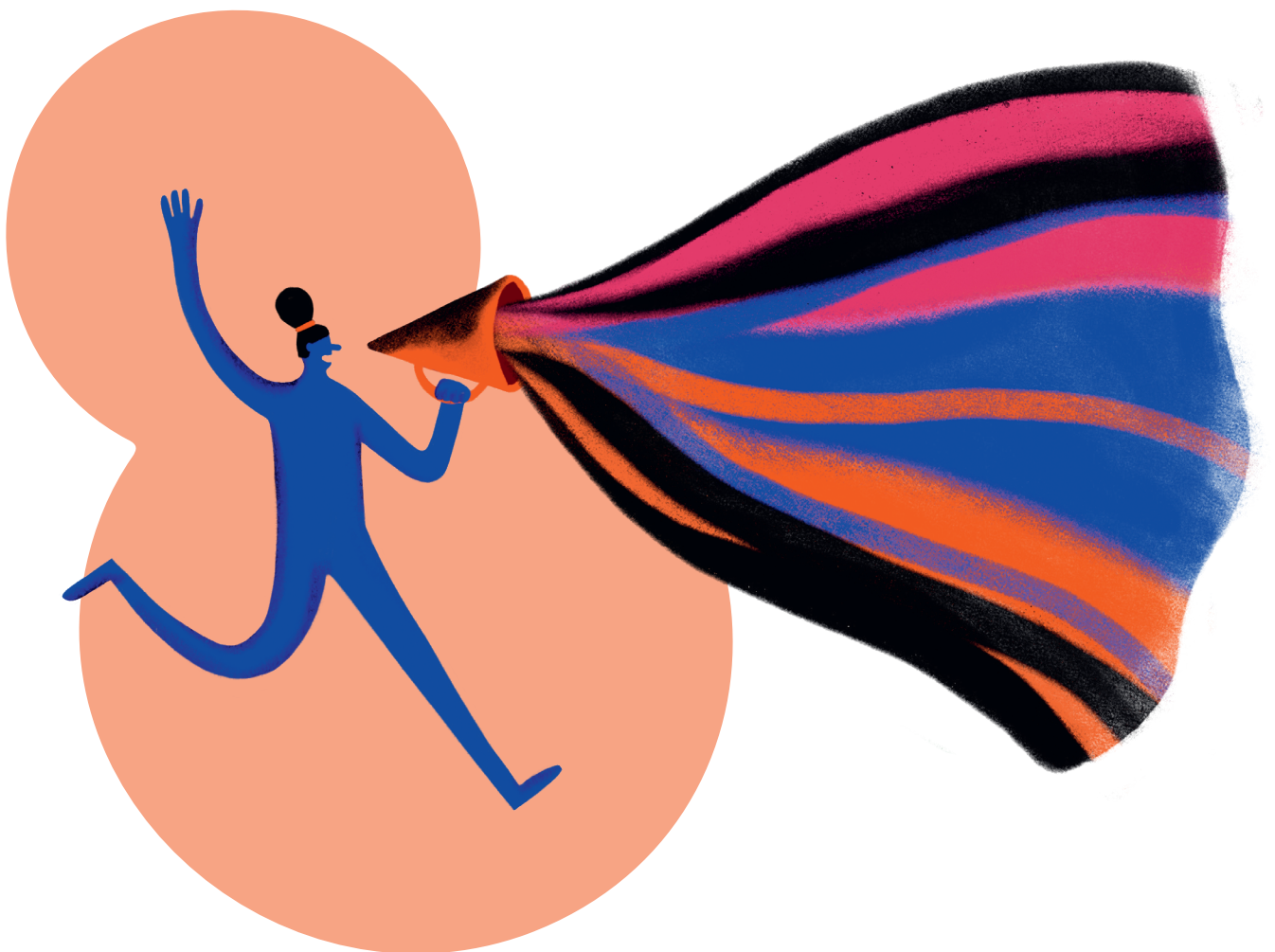
- Develop, ratify, and enforce international conventions and organizations aimed at fighting gender-based violence
- Foster international partnerships to tackle conflict-related sexual violence, allocating additional resources, stepping up global coordination, and promoting victim- and survivor-centric approaches
- Strengthen global research on conflict-related sexual violence and evidence-based strategies for intervention
- Prevent conflict-related sexual violence from occurring through addressing its drivers, such as gender inequality and harmful social norms
- Strengthen justice for all those affected by conflict-related sexual violence and hold perpetrators to account, using approaches such as the Accountability Commission and Taskforce (ACT) for survivors
- Co-create and implement meaningful support systems for victims and survivors, communities, and children born as a result of conflict-related sexual violence, including by addressing stigma

4

Promote the inclusion of women at all levels of climate policy and action

- Review contributions to the Paris Agreement submitted by G7 countries to identify possible opportunities for gender equity in the implementation of the Agreement at the national level
- Ensure that gender considerations are integrated into the development and implementation of long-term, low-emission development strategies
- Support rigorous implementation and continued strengthening of gender equality policies and action plans, as well as multilateral climate change financing mechanisms, including the Green Climate Fund and the Global Environment Facility; strive for gender parity at all levels of the energy sector, particularly in leadership and decision-making bodies

Intersectional Policy



The Issue

In politics and society at large, questions around gender equality and policy are typically viewed, evaluated, and communicated from a perspective that begins with a basic comparison of men and women—for example, whether a particular initiative can benefit women, or in which areas women are disadvantaged. Consequently, the power dynamics of categories such as race, class, sexual orientation, or ability are overlooked, downplayed, and too rarely included in political decision-making.

For example, legal requirements for the advancement of women, such as quota regulations for executive positions passed by the German parliament in January 2021, do not impose any further requirements or accompanying proposals to consider factors such as race, ability, age, or class. Efforts to increase the proportion of women in STEM rarely promote marginalized women—in part because existing data sets on the gender gap are incomplete and do not do justice to the complexity of gender inequality.¹ Access to paid parental leave, already limited in the United States, often excludes LGBTQIA+ parents and further disadvantages those who are already at higher risk of poverty or discrimination.²

Feminist politics that primarily align with the standard of white, heterosexual, abled, middle-class women will thus fail to represent the breadth of women's experiences and generally of society as a whole. At the same time, they cannot adequately capture the

reality of those at the bottom of the income distribution. By ignoring the different dimensions that may cause an accumulation of disadvantages for certain groups, we risk delivering ineffective policy decisions. As a result, existing injustices and social grievances are perpetuated rather than reduced.

As writer Zoe Samudzi highlights, “woman is not a catchall category that alone defines all our relationships to power.” Similarly, legal scholar Kimberlé Crenshaw observed that an intersectional approach can help develop better, more inclusive, and effective solutions to society's greatest challenges by “capturing dynamics and converging patterns of advantage and disadvantage.”³ Rather than confronting different forms of discrimination independently, intersectional policies anticipate and address structural inequalities that arise in their overlap. To do so, they start at the institutional level and attempt to influence the allocation of resources and opportunities.

¹ Genoveva Vargas-Solar, “Intersectional Study of the Gender Gap in STEM through the Identification of Missing Datasets about Women: A Multisided Problem,” *Applied Sciences* 12 (2022): 5813.

² Mary Beth Maxwell, Ashland Johnson, Mark Lee, and Liam Miranda, “U.S. LGBTQ Paid Leave Survey” (Human Rights Campaign Foundation Public Education & Research, 2018).

³ “What Does Intersectionality Mean in 2021? Kimberlé Crenshaw's Podcast is a Must-Listen Way to Learn,” Interview by Kelly Moffitt, *Columbia News* (22 Feb 2021).

Envisioning an Intersectional Approach in the G7 and Beyond

The EU's gender equality strategy, which set out key actions for the years 2020-25 and committed to mainstreaming gender equality into EU policies, is a step forward in acknowledging the specific situation of women of color and, by extension, the need for an intersectional approach. Yet the European Commission offered no measures to ensure that policies will actually be intersectional in practice.

Intersectional approaches appear sporadically in fields such as family, women's, or LGBTQIA+ policy. Yet no G7 country has adopted a comprehensive approach to intersectional feminist policy that recognizes the multiple and intersecting aspects of identity that play out in women's lives. Due to the diverse cultural, political, and economic backgrounds of G7 countries (and, for that matter, other countries, localities, organizations, and businesses), there can be no single intersectional approach that works for all. Nonetheless, there remain some common elements:

Goal: An intersectional lens aims for substantive equality that leaves no one behind. It is committed to understanding the differentiated needs of people, considering not only gender, but also race, socioeconomic position, origins, age, ability, etc.

Process: An intersectional approach embraces the perspectives of people with diverse forms of knowledge who are typically excluded from "expert" roles. Stakeholder collaboration can foster a better understanding of the context, generate effective solutions, result in more tailored services, and ultimately create better outcomes to achieve the goals set and reach those who are in need.

Data: Data and research are crucial for the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of public policies and resource allocation that are informed by the needs of women and girls facing intersectional discrimination. Data collection should be systematic and integrate criteria beyond sex and age.

Leadership, engagement, and outreach: An intersectional approach requires not only explicit support from the highest levels of leadership, but also a citizenship that is prepared to recognize and respond to bias and discrimination. Effective intersectional approaches seek to engage and include individual citizens and members of the private and public sectors.

Woman is not a catchall category that alone defines all our relationships to power. – Zoe Samudzi

Models and Examples

Canadian GBA+: Intersectional Analysis

Gender-based Analysis Plus (GBA+) is an analytical tool used in the Canadian federal context to identify potential policy impacts on different groups of people, recognizing multiple identities in addition to sex and gender, including race, ethnicity, religion, age, and mental or physical disability. GBA+ identifies how initiatives could be tailored to meet the diverse needs of the people impacted, and it anticipates and mitigates any possible barriers to accessing or benefitting from a given initiative.

Germany: Equality measures based on disaggregated data

The German Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (BMFSFJ) publishes studies that integrate an intersectional approach and examine inequality categories such as age, disability, citizenship, and migration status. These studies include the annual equality index (*Gleichstellungsindex*) and the gender equality report (*Gleichstellungsbericht*). The collection of data for the index is based on the 2015 equality statistics regulation (*Gleichstellungsstatistikverordnung – GleiStatV*).

City of Vancouver

The City of Vancouver has adopted intersectionality as a cross-cutting goal within their Gender Equity Strategy.⁴ This strategy has four priority areas: women's safety, childcare, housing, and leadership and representation. Safety in Vancouver is an example of how an intersectional approach can be employed to effectively address the gaps. While 73% of men feel safe, just 57% of women feel safe. Within the women's population, 44% of Indigenous women and 42% of Chinese women reported feeling safe.

Demokratie Leben

Demokratie Leben is a program of the German federal government to strengthen civil society engagement around promoting democracy, shaping diversity, and preventing extremism. The program brings together organizations that have experience with intersectional perspectives in the field of anti-discrimination and diversity. It has an annual budget of 150 million euros (increased to 165.5 million euros in 2022), which supports around 600 projects. Participants are encouraged to include an intersectional approach in their projects, and a 2021 symposium provided opportunities to learn and network.

⁴ Vancouver: A City for All Women: Women's Equity Strategy 2018-2028.

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

1

Apply an intersectional lens to public policy planning and analysis

- Use an intersectional approach to afford equal access to justice and effective means of redress; gender-sensitive, intercultural and high-quality education; and comprehensive health services, including sexual and reproductive health care and information to women and girls affected by intersecting forms of discrimination and violence
- Implement an intersectional framework in the planning and allocation of public resources, as well as in the design, implementation, and review of legislation, policies, and programs — particularly in such areas as migration, development, employment, social protection, poverty reduction, health, and education
- Encourage and guarantee the participation of women and girls affected by intersecting forms of discrimination at all levels of policymaking and decision-making; establish open communication channels through which people of diverse backgrounds can contribute their ideas and perspectives

2

Ensure that political leaders, as role models, understand the complexity of intersectionality, communicate its importance, and integrate an intersectional lens into the decision-making process

- Commit to intersectional representation when appointing committees, selecting ministers and heads of departments
- Require that elected officials and government workers at all levels undergo diversity and anti-bias training
- Establish regular formats offering government decision-makers the opportunity to talk openly about discrimination, privilege, and power — and to discuss solutions

3

Develop and implement robust measures to evaluate and analyze policies through an intersectional lens

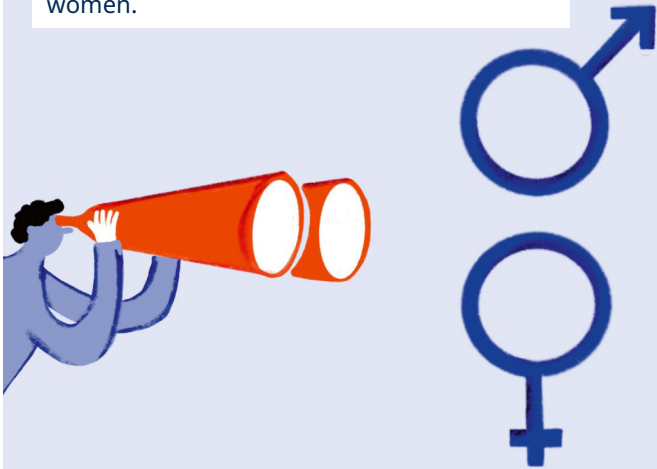
- Intensify efforts to collect, analyze, and disseminate data disaggregated by other aspects of identity (e.g., age, race, economic status, immigration status, ability) in order to adopt effective and targeted policies. Update data regularly and aim for international data comparability
- Invest in research on best-practice models for inclusive decision-making
- Invest in research focused on intersecting forms of discrimination against women and girls, with the goal of using research to design and evaluate legislation and public policies

4

Develop and implement educational and communication measures and empower women and girls through an intersectional lens

- Develop systematic efforts to train public and private sector workers (including, but not limited to the judiciary, the police, border guards, health care workers, educators, and business leaders) to address discriminatory attitudes and stereotypes, to develop an understanding of the intersecting forms of discrimination and violence affecting women and girls, and to apply rights-based, gender- and culturally sensitive methods
- Implement comprehensive outreach campaigns that bring together the general public, civil society organizations, local governments, educational institutions, the media, and artists to dismantle myths, attitudes, and stereotypes that discriminate and exclude women and girls on the basis of a combination of factors, such as gender, race, ethnicity, and religion
- Promote equity and intersectionality on all levels of public education, from early childhood education to adult education, through updated textbooks and educational materials that reflect social diversity and its potential
- Engage with and promote concrete tools and programs aimed at engaging men in combating discrimination, including UNESCO's Transforming MENTalities and UN Women HeForShe

Questions around gender equality and policy are typically viewed from a perspective that begins with a basic comparison of men and women.



Consequently, the power dynamics of categories such as race, class, sexual orientation, or ability are too rarely included in political decision making. For example ...



Gender quota regulations for executive positions passed by the German parliament do not include requirements to consider factors such as race, ability, age, or class.

Efforts to increase the proportion of women in STEM rarely promote marginalized women. Regulations on parental leave often exclude LGBTQIA+ parents.



Feminist politics that primarily align with the standard of white, heterosexual, abled, middle-class women will thus fail to represent the breadth of female experience, and generally of society as a whole.



By ignoring the different dimensions that may cause an accumulation of disadvantages for certain groups, we risk delivering ineffective policy decisions. As a result, existing injustices and social grievances are perpetuated rather than reduced.

Rather than confronting different forms of discrimination independently, intersectional policies anticipate and address structural inequalities that arise in their overlap.



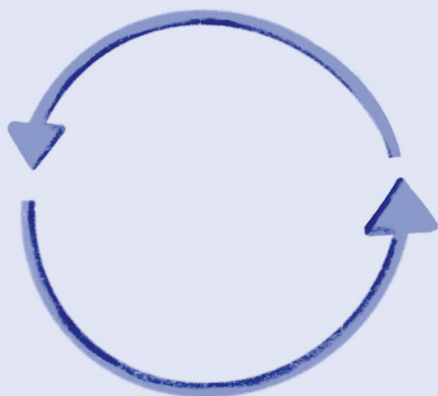
Some common elements include ...

Goal: An intersectional lens aims for substantive equality that leaves no one behind. It is committed to understanding the differentiated needs of people, considering not only gender, but also race, socio-economic position, origins, age, ability, etc.



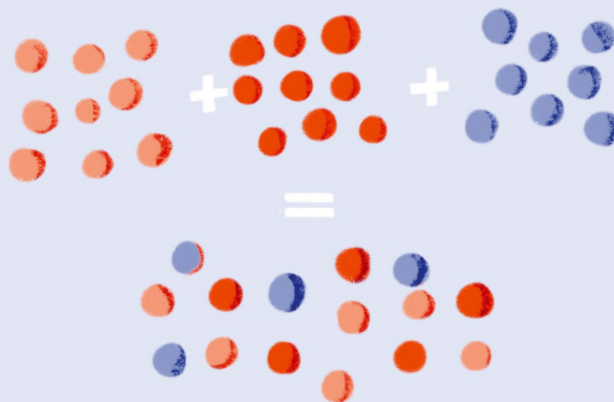
Process: An intersectional approach embraces stakeholder engagement and the perspectives of people with diverse forms of knowledge, typically excluded from “expert” roles.

Data: Data and research are crucial for the development and implementation of public policies that are informed by the needs of women facing intersectional discrimination. Data collection should integrate criteria beyond sex and age.



Leadership and Outreach: An intersectional approach requires both explicit support from leaders and a citizenship that recognizes and responds to discrimination. Effective intersectional approaches engage individual citizens and members of the private and public sectors.

By capturing the converging patterns of advantage and disadvantage, an intersectional approach can lead to more inclusive and effective solutions to society’s greatest challenges.



Dashboard



GEAC



Initiated in 2022 by the G7, GEAC, and Women7. Published by the OECD.



Employment and
Social Security

Education

Entrepreneurship

Leadership

Health and Well-being

Funds for Development
Cooperation



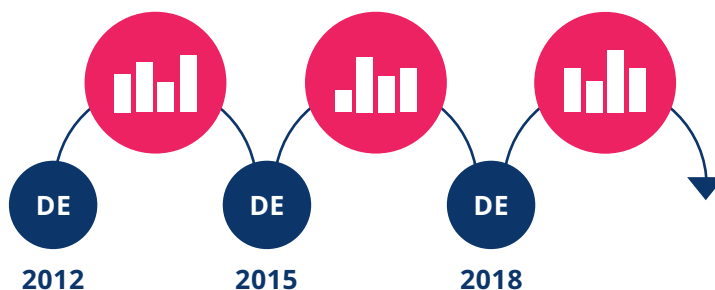
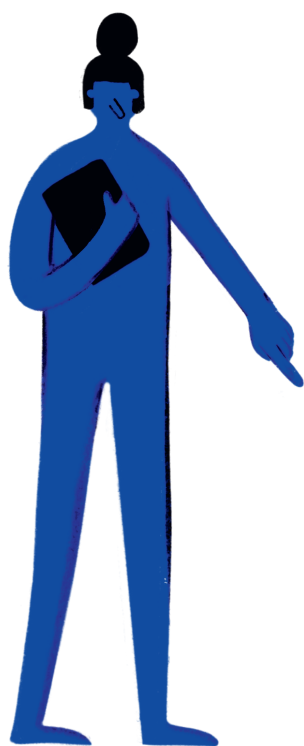
Providing data on gender gaps in six major sectors for the G7 countries, the European Union, and the OECD.

The G7 countries have introduced a **G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps**, which was published in 2022. The Dashboard is based on data that have been collected by the OECD in roughly the same manner for all G7 countries; the aggregate values for the EU and the OECD are provided as a reference. Most of the data available to date cover the time period from 2012 to 2020 and are expected to be updated regularly.

Even if not all data are available in the quality hoped for, the Dashboard is a milestone in the history of the GEAC. It represents an empirical turning point that reveals the extent and evolution of gender gaps, exposes successes and shortcomings, and thereby provides a strong starting point against which all G7 countries will measure their progress. It is therefore critical that the quality and meaningfulness of the data be improved; the GEAC 2022 strongly supports that effort.

The Dashboard comprises six major areas: employment and social security; education, entrepreneurship; leadership; health and well-being; and funds for development cooperation. Each of these areas is covered by numerous indicators, and all of the indicators are subject to two main questions. First, what is the state of development within a country? In which areas have gender gaps narrowed over time, in which have they remained unchanged, and where have they widened? Second, how are the countries performing in relation to each other? In which areas are gender gaps larger in one country than in another? Where have the gaps closed, and where have they widened?

The indicator system can highlight, but not explain, intranational and international progress. Qualitative data and the expertise of each country are thus essential to answering the key question of “why.” Only by knowing what policies and events have led to changes in gender gaps can we target those changes to either support or counteract them. Also, only then can the G7 countries learn from each other. Continuously examining these very questions is a central task of the GEAC.



With each G7 presidency, the Dashboard will be updated. Over time, the dataset will grow to become an even more powerful tool.

The Dashboard can track the progress of an individual country over time.



In addition, the Dashboard will allow for an international comparison of countries within a given year.

Employment and Social Security

This area shows to what extent women and men have equal access to paid employment, are paid equally, and have access to the same pension payments. It thus comprises gender-specific differences in independently ensuring material well-being throughout the course of one's life.

The area is covered by five indicators that show the corresponding differences between men and women: labor force participation, part-time employment, wages, unpaid care, and pension income.

Labor Force Participation Rate in Percent

The labor force participation rate (LFPR) shows the proportion of women and men, as illustrated by the percentage of all women and men of working age (15–64 years) at that reference date. It does not provide information about the type of employment or the working hours.

In all G7 countries, the LFPR of men is higher than that of women.

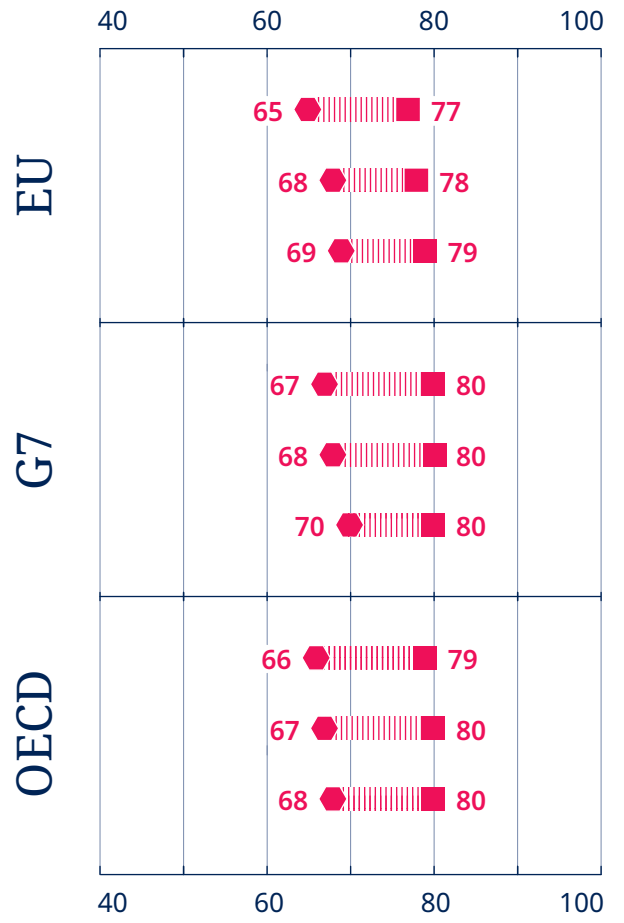
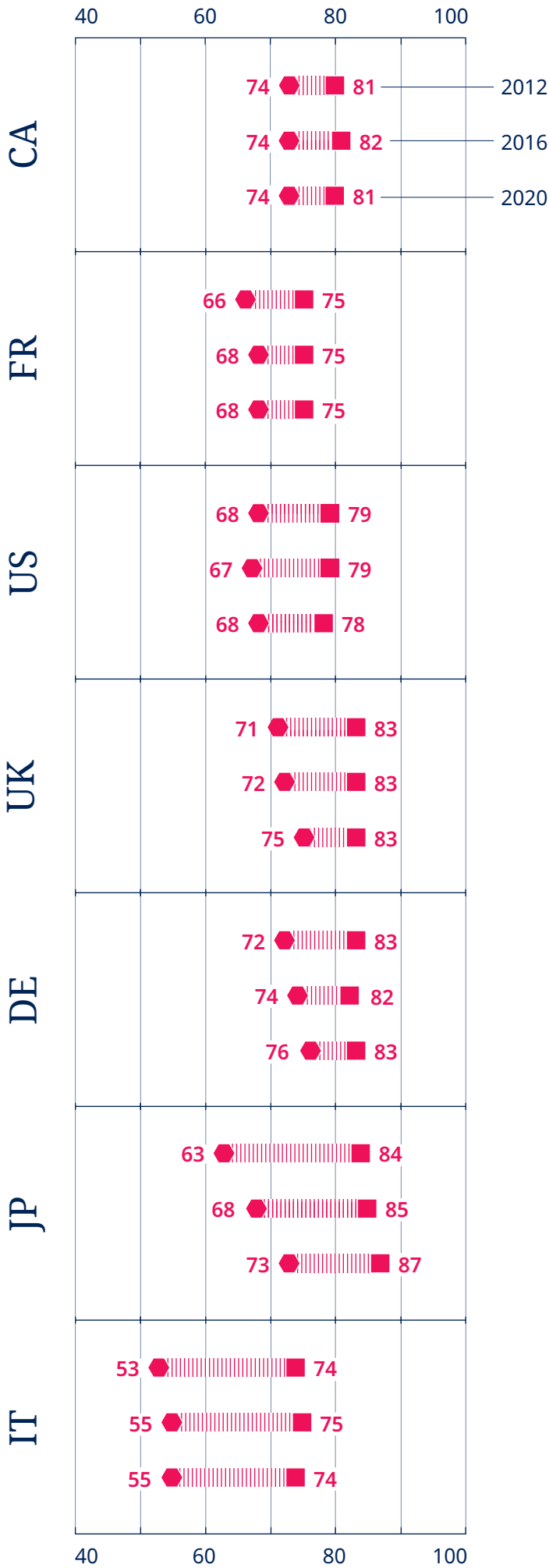
Looking at changes over time, the LFPR of women rose significantly in the UK, Germany, and particularly in Japan, and is above 70% in 2020. In contrast, there was little change in France, the US, and Italy. From 2012 to 2020, the gap in the LFPR of men and women was reduced in the UK, Germany, and in Japan (from 21 percentage points in 2012 to 14 percentage points in 2020); only little progress was made in other G7 countries.

Major differences are evident when comparing the countries. The gap in the LFPR between men and women is smallest in Canada, France, Germany, and the UK at seven to eight percentage points; in the US and Italy it is higher at roughly 10 percentage points; in Japan it remains highest at 14 percentage points, despite some significant progress.

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

The labor force participation rate is defined as the labor force divided by the total working-age population (aged 15–64).

Source
OECD.Stat — LFS by sex and age — indicators: Labor force participation rate



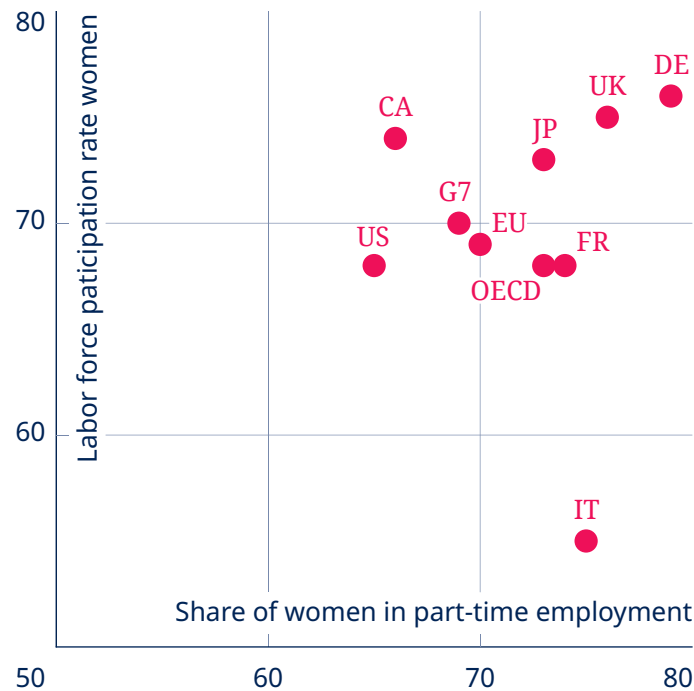
Share of Women Among All Part-time Employees in Percent

The indicator **share of women among all part-time employees** describes differences in working hours. “Part-time” is defined as working less than 30 hours a week and therefore allows only a rough estimate of the actual differences in the working hours of men and women. For example, women could be working nearly 30 hours per week in one country and only 10 hours per week in another. However, both groups are included in the part-time category. Because of the importance of working hours, the GEAC 2022 recommends collecting future data that show working hours in more detail.

In all G7 countries, the percentage of people in part-time work is significantly higher for women than for men. No significant changes occurred in any country between 2012 and 2020.

However, the numbers in the respective countries vary considerably. In the US and Canada, the percentage of women in part-time work is approximately 65%. In France, Italy, the UK, and Japan, it is at approximately 75%. Germany still has the highest percentage at 79%. Despite a significant increase in workforce participation, the gap in working hours remains markedly wide.

As working hours have a significant impact on the financial resources of women, the GEAC 2022 emphasizes that the gap in working hours requires particular attention going forward. A lot can be learned from Canada in particular, where small differences in labor force participation go hand-in-hand with similarly small differences in working hours (**see Figure 1**).

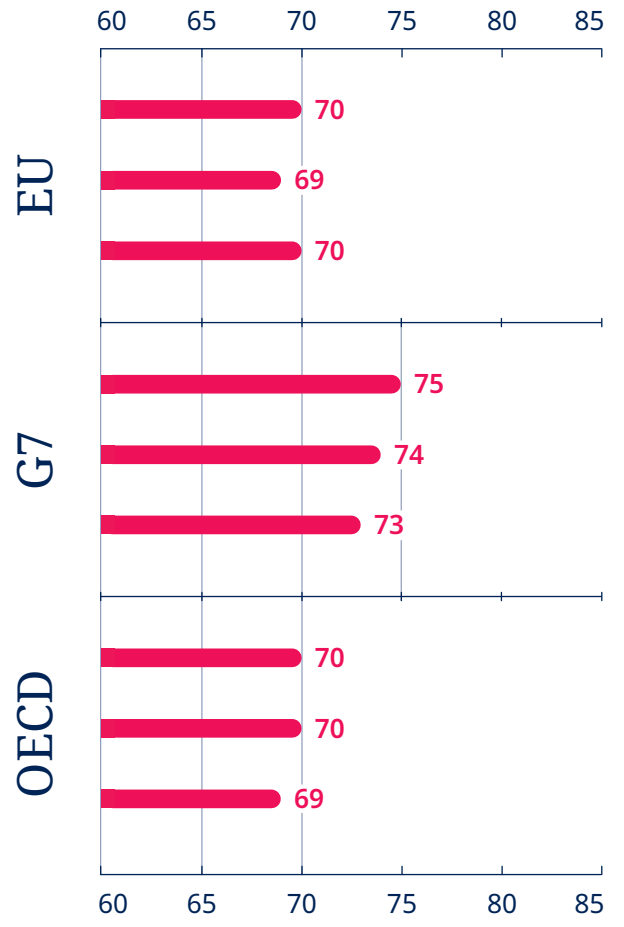
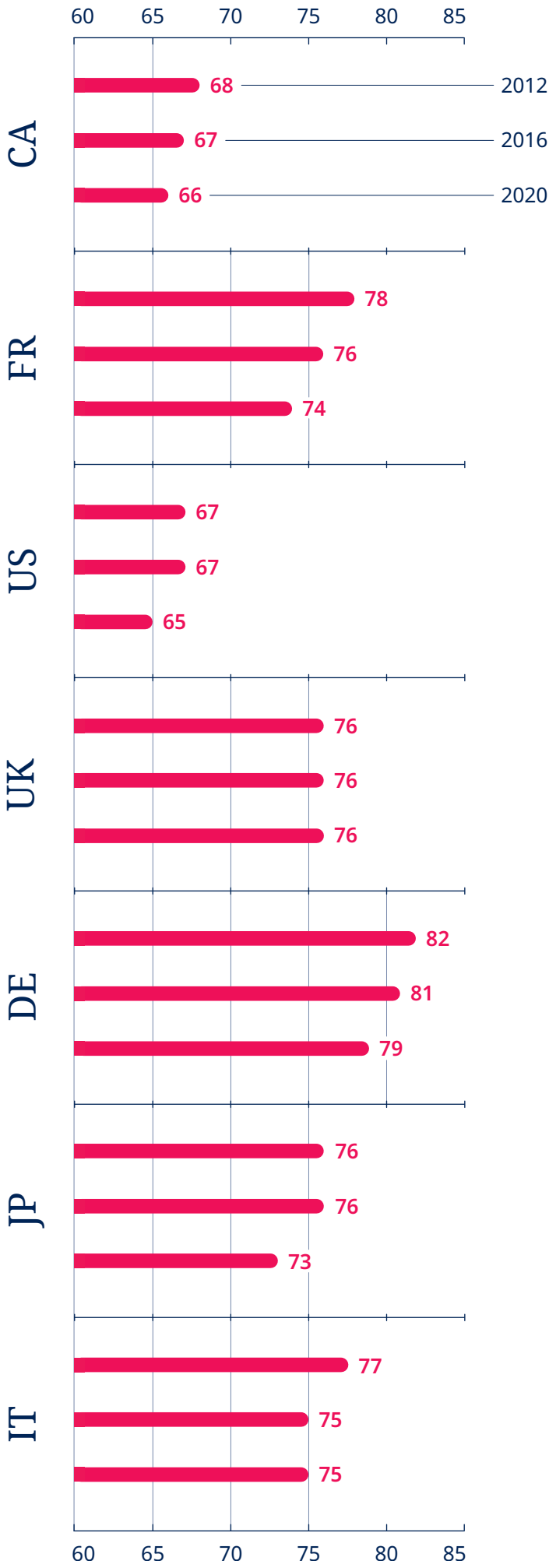


All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

Women's share of part-time employment is defined as the share of women among all part-time employees. Part-time employment is based on a common definition of 30 or less usual weekly hours of work in the main job for the total employed population (aged 15–64). For the United States, data refers to dependent employment only and for Japan, data refers to actual hours worked. German data for 2020 is provisional.

Source
 OECD.Stat — FTPT employment based on a common definition

Figure 1: Labor force participation rate and share of women in part-time employment, G7 countries, 2020



Gender Wage Gap in Percent

The gender wage gap refers to the difference between the average incomes of full-time employees. As women work full time less often than men, this measurement does not show the difference in the weekly, monthly, or annual income of all employees. The GEAC 2022 notes that the gender wage gap data would need to be expanded to include data that covers part-time workers and workers in marginal employment.

In all G7 countries, men working in full-time employment earn more than women in full-time employment.

Over the course of the past 10 years, the gender wage gap was significantly reduced in Japan (a reduction of 6.2 percentage points) and the UK (minus 6.9 percentage points); Canada, the US, and Germany also show some progress. In contrast, the gender wage gap has widened in France and Italy.

The graphics reveal large differences between the countries in terms of overall wage gap levels. Countries with a comparatively low gender wage gap (Italy and France) show a slight widening of the gap, while countries with large gaps (such as Japan and the UK) were able to narrow the gap to some extent. They do not yet, however, reach the low rates of France and Italy.

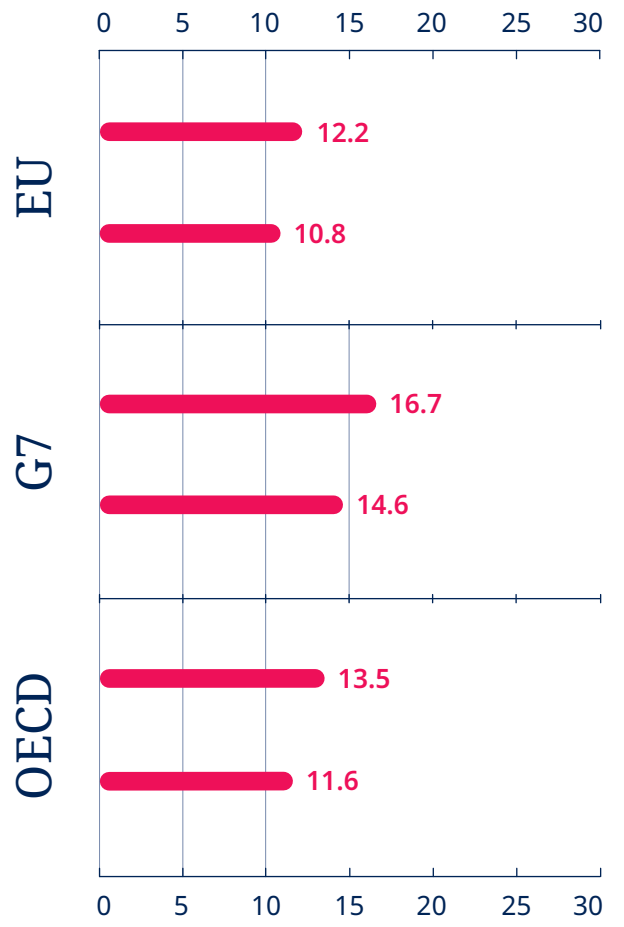
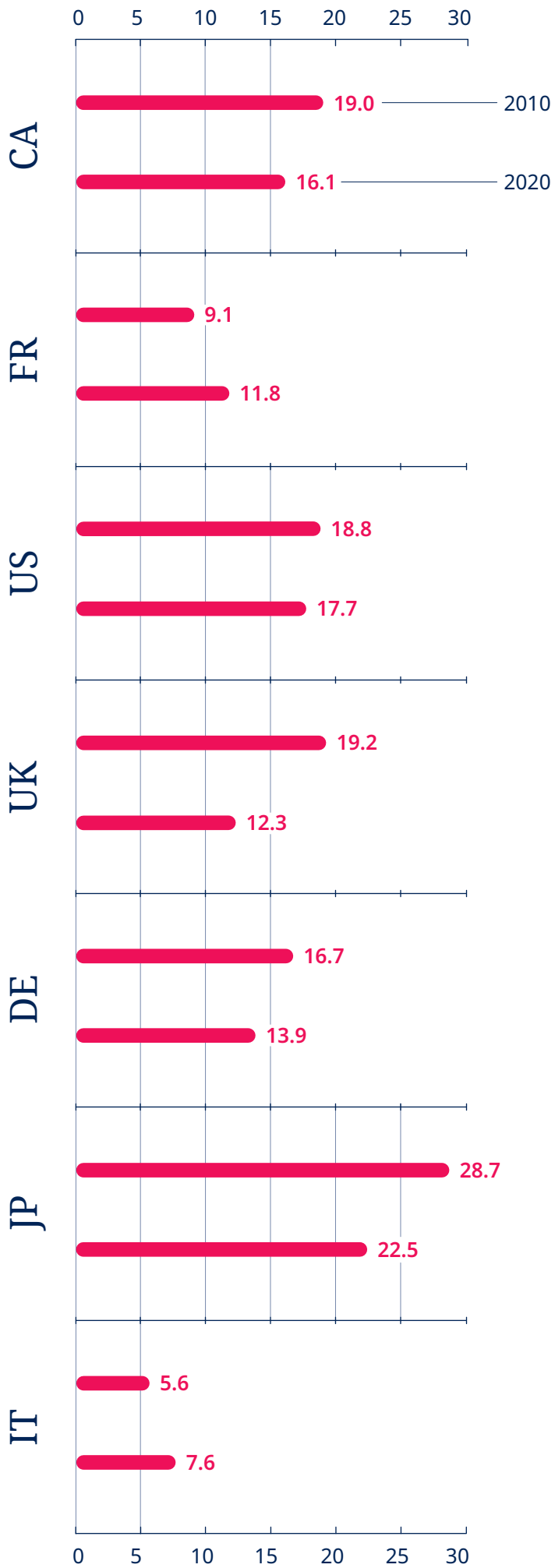
All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

This indicator is defined as the unadjusted difference between median wages of men and women relative to the median wages of men, based on gross earnings of full-time employees. The earnings pay reporting periods are weekly earnings for Canada, the United Kingdom and the United States, as well as monthly earnings for France, Germany, Italy and Japan. Data for France, Germany and Italy refer to 2018.

Source
OECD.Stat — Decile ratios of gross earnings: Gender wage gap (median)

Among the reasons for the large differences in gender pay gaps in many countries are the prevalence of women in primarily low-paying caregiving occupations; women's frequent career interruptions related to raising children and caring for the elderly; and frequent periods of part-time work and the resulting flattened career trajectories, which rarely lead to management positions.

The recommendations of previous GEACs have consistently noted this slow-down in gender equality and identified actions to address it. The GEAC 2022 refers to the past published reports for further information.



Gender Gap in Unpaid Care and Housework in Minutes per Day

Differences in paid employment are closely connected to differences in unpaid care and housework. The corresponding data are gathered from surveys on how people aged 15 to 64 use their time, but they are not fully comparable and also cover different years of data collection. The OECD itself points out this significant data gap and refers to these figures as “placeholders.” The GEAC 2022 also strongly calls for the corresponding data to be collected. All available studies agree that equality in the labor market can only occur with equal participation of women and men in care and housework. The GEAC 2022 further notes that along with the time commitment of care work, the mental and cognitive load should also be presented. This is one of the most important lessons of the COVID-19 pandemic.

In all G7 countries, women spend significantly more time on care work than men.

In most countries, men spend slightly more than two hours and women spend slightly more than four hours a day on care work. The comparison between Japan and Canada is particularly interesting in this context: In both countries, women spend three hours and 44 minutes on care work. However, the difference between men and women is lowest in Canada at one hour and 15 minutes, and highest in Japan at three hours. This is due to the extraordinarily low amount of care time spent by Japanese men, who spend 40 minutes a day on care work, while Canadian men spend roughly two hours and 30 minutes. Also noteworthy are the figures for Italy, where women spend the most time on unpaid work, more than five hours a day.

In this regard, the GEAC 2022 refers to the recommendations of previous GEACs. These recommendations, in summary, involve the creation of a good and reliable infrastructure for raising children and caring for the elderly, incentives for men to take parental leave and work part time on a regular basis, and the abolition of tax systems that provide tax rewards for an unequal distribution of paid work in households.

OECD Comment

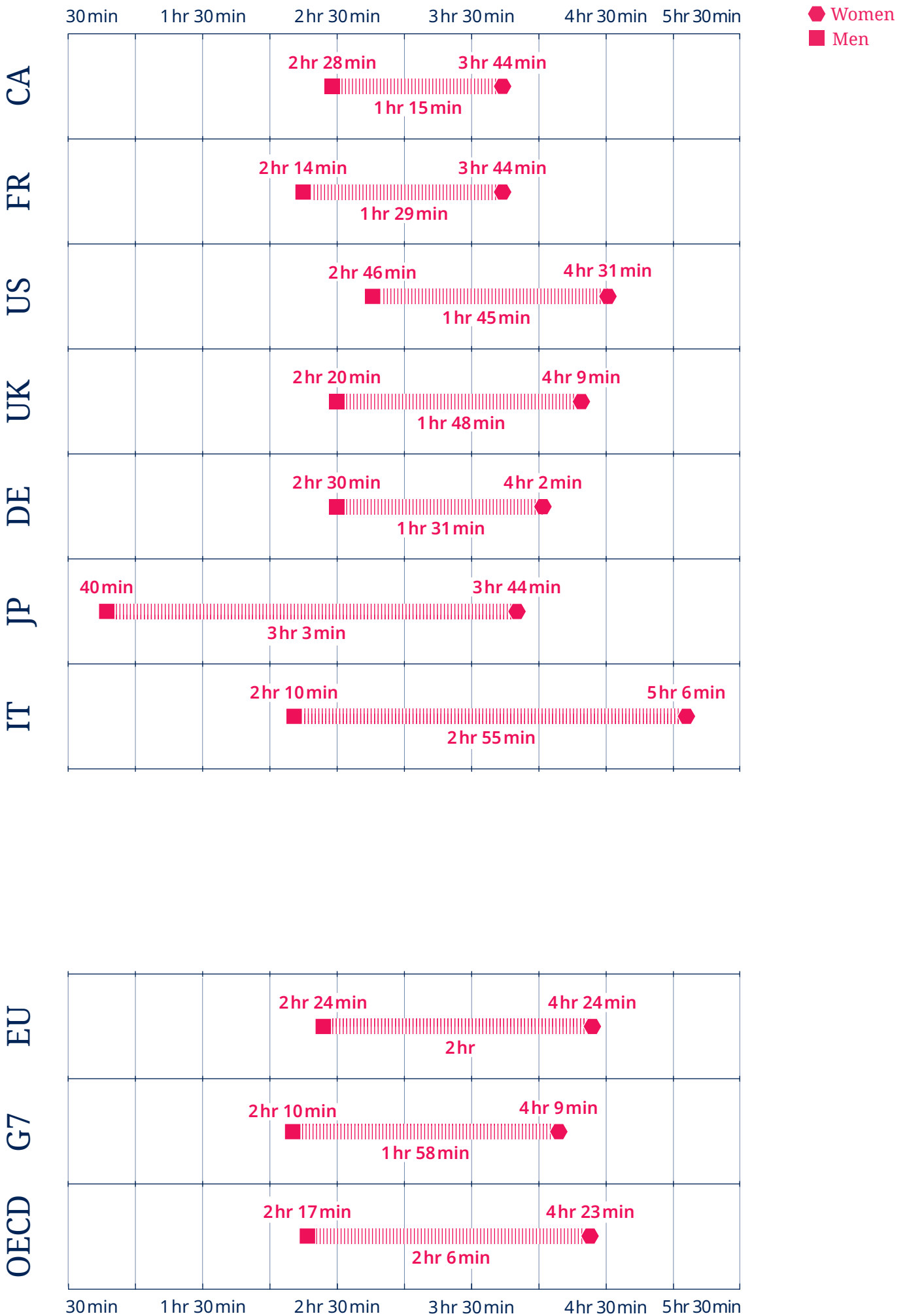
The equal sharing of unpaid work between women and men is of highest political priority to the G7. This indicator is included in the Dashboard as a placeholder, highlighting the lack of internationally comparable data.

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

This indicator is defined as the time spent in unpaid work among all available time per day among 15 to 64-year olds. Time spent in unpaid work includes: routine housework; shopping; care for household members; child care; adult care; care for non-household members; volunteering; travel related to household activities; other unpaid activities. Results for countries are not always fully comparable due to differences in classifications in each separate national time-use survey. No trend is presented due to the large difference in survey years. Data refer to 2019 for Japan and the United States, 2015 for Canada and the United Kingdom, 2014 for Italy, 2013 for Germany and 2011 for France. The OECD average is an OECD-30 average excluding Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Iceland, Israel, the Slovak Republic and Switzerland. The EU average is a EU20-average excluding all non-OECD EU members as well as the Czech Republic and Slovak Republic.

Source

OECD.Stat — Employment: Time spent in paid and unpaid work, by sex



Gender Gap in Pension Income in Percent

The gender gap in pension income is calculated from the difference in the pension income of men and women over the age of 65 years. Here the OECD is unable to show progress over time due to insufficient data. It should also be noted that the data presented were collected during different years—in 2013 in Japan and in 2020 in other countries. Because of progress in the labor force participation and the work volume of Japanese women, the differences between the countries could be overestimated. The GEAC 2022 emphasizes the importance of generating internationally comparable data.

In all G7 countries, the pension amount is primarily linked to the length of time in paid employment, working hours, and salary. Company pensions exist additionally, though not on a large scale.

Given the aforementioned data, it is therefore not surprising that women receive lower pension incomes than men in all G7 countries. Canada fares best in this regard, though there is still a difference of roughly 22%. Alongside Japan, Germany also has a particularly wide pension gap, amounting to roughly 39% in 2020. In most countries, women are also at a far greater risk of poverty in old age.

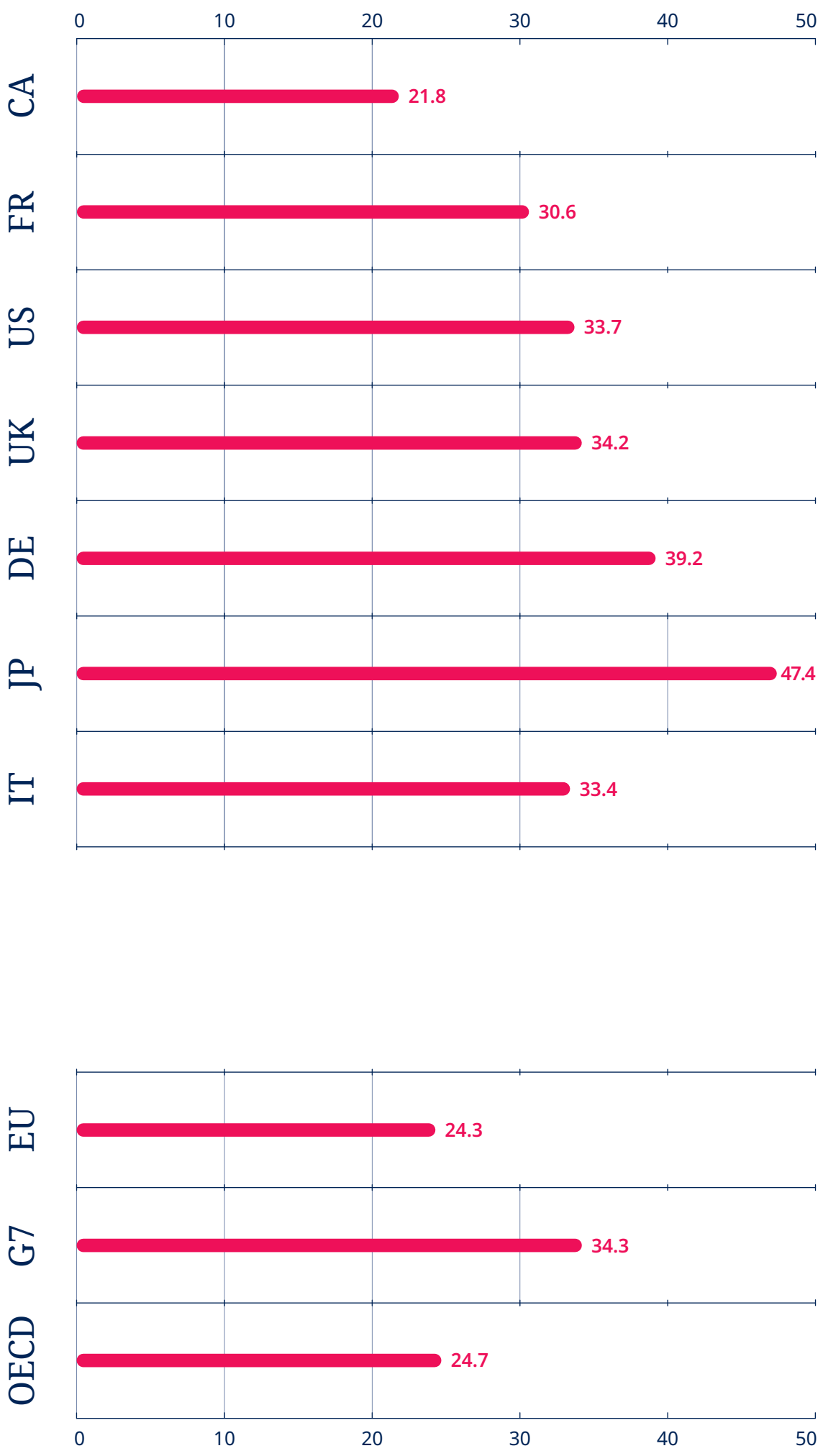
Reducing these considerable differences will require two measures. A preventative approach is needed to minimize previous differences quickly and resolutely. Reparative measures are also to be taken through equalization payments to at least protect women from poverty in old age. This is the only way to reward their commitment to raising and caring for children.

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

The gender gap in pensions is defined as the difference between the mean retirement income of men and women (aged 65+) over the mean retirement income of men (aged 65+), among pension beneficiaries. Data refer to 2020. For Japan, data refer to 2013, for the United States to 2019 and for Canada to 2018. See detailed notes in source databases. The OECD average is an OECD-33 average excluding Australia, Costa Rica, Israel, Korea and New Zealand.

Sources

Eurostat Database—Gender pension gap by age group; for non-European OECD countries, OECD (2021), Towards Improved Retirement Savings Outcomes for Women; Figure 1.1.



Education

Education is key to an inclusive, gender-equitable participation in the labor market and society. Digital and technical skills are especially important for the labor markets of the future, which will be profoundly impacted by the great transformations of our time: digitization, globalization, and the development of a green economy.

The G7 has therefore decided to track education with two indicators that stand as proxies for the digital and technical participation of women: mathematical literacy (as measured through PISA mathematics scores), and the proportion of women among all tertiary graduates in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM).

OECD PISA Mathematics Scores

PISA scores vary greatly between the G7 countries, with Japan performing significantly better than all others. The development of math test scores for both men and women over time is not uniform: scores decrease slightly in Canada and Japan, but increase in the UK. Already starting at a low level in 2012, the US continues to lose ground, though it did recover slightly between 2015 and 2018. Nevertheless, US test scores are still more than 50 points below those of Japan.

In all G7 countries, the PISA scores of men are higher than those of women.

Looking at changes over time, women's math test scores remained relatively stable, with a slight increase of 8 points in the UK and losses recorded in Germany, Japan, and Canada. From 2012 to 2018, the gap in scores between men and women was reduced in Japan (from 18 to 10 points), Germany (13 to 7 points), and Canada (10 to 4 points).

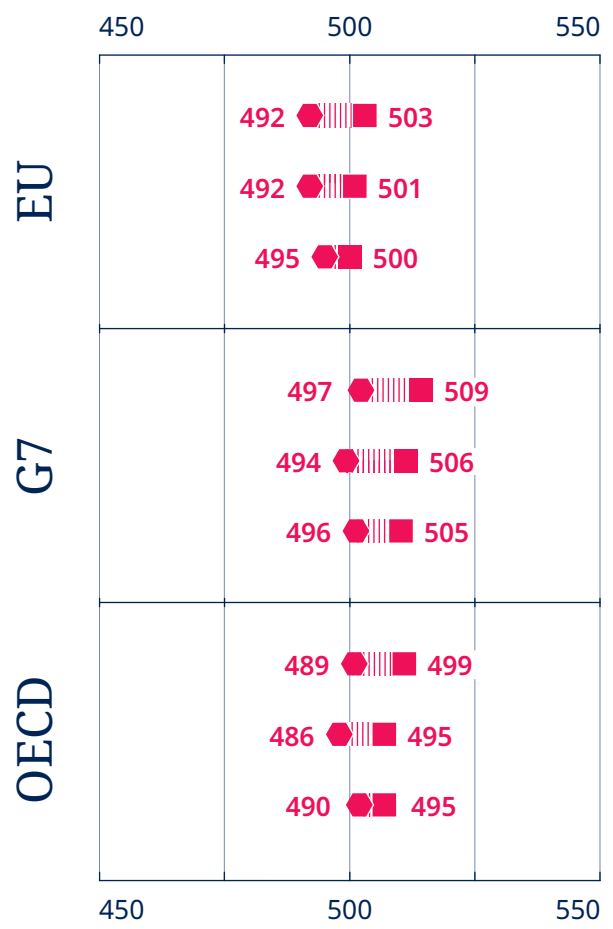
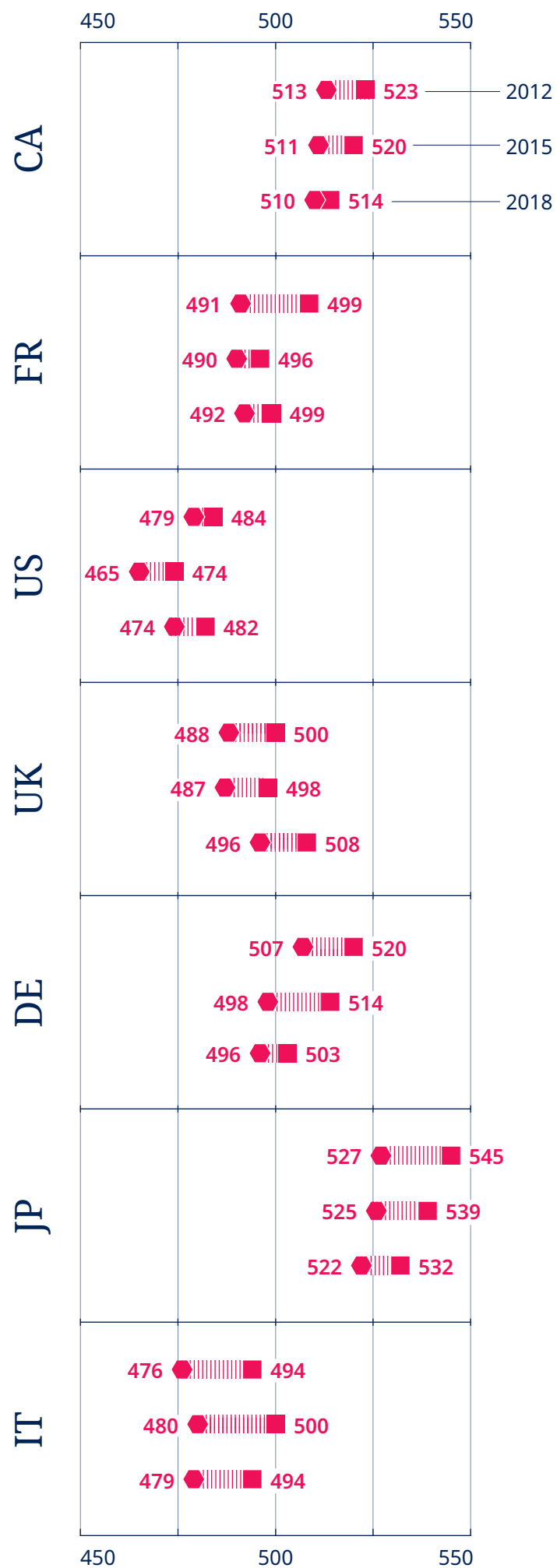
Major differences in the gender test score gap become evident when comparing countries. The gap is smallest in Canada (4 points), followed by Germany, France, the US (between 7 and 8), Japan (10), the UK (12), and Italy (15).

The GEAC 2022 points out that, in addition to closing the test score gap between men and women, it is imperative to raise mathematical competency for all. At present, many G7 countries make insufficient effort to train mathematical competencies for both women and men. The GEAC 2022 recommends significantly larger investments in this domain, especially since it can be assumed that, due to school disruptions during COVID-19, test scores in 2020 and 2022 will be even lower than the 2018 figures reported here.

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

This indicator measures the mathematical literacy of a 15-year-old to formulate, employ, and interpret mathematics in a variety of contexts to describe, predict, and explain phenomena, recognizing the role that mathematics plays in the world. PISA scores are scaled to fit normal distributions, with means around 500 points. The mean score is the measure, per country and year, and by gender.

Source
OECD (2022) Mathematics performance (PISA)



Share of Women Among All Tertiary Graduates in Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM)

In all G7 countries, the proportion of women among STEM graduates is lower than that of men.

Each G7 country saw only slight changes in the proportion of women in STEM between 2012 and 2018, with slight progress in the US, UK, and Japan (3 percentage points each). Accordingly, the gender STEM gap remains almost unchanged.

There are, however, considerable differences between countries. The proportion of female graduates in STEM disciplines is almost 41 % in the UK, 39 % in Italy, and 36 % in the US. The lowest values are recorded in Germany, with just under 26 %, and Japan, with just under 17 %.

Conclusions

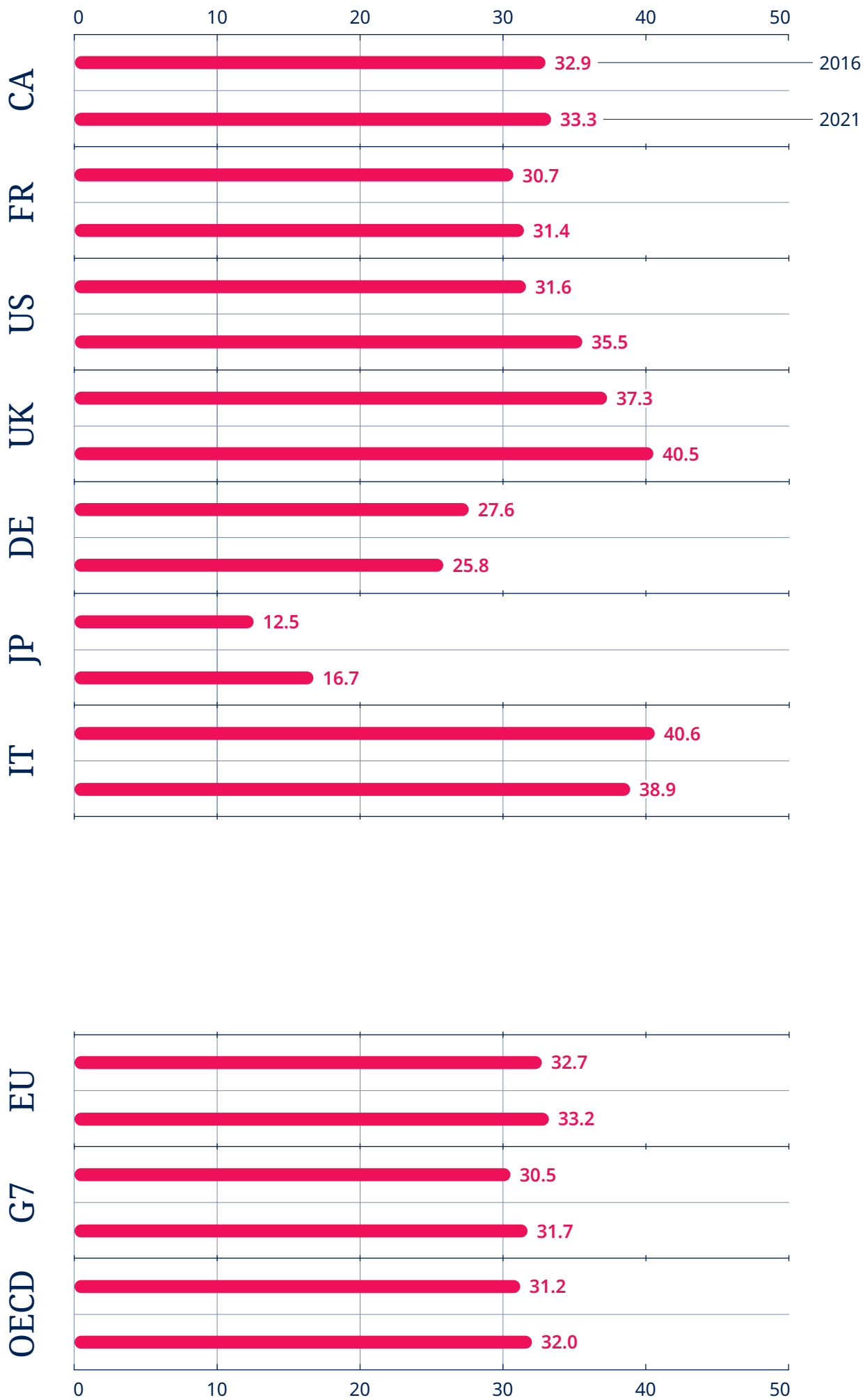
It is noteworthy that differences in math test scores are far smaller than the differences in the proportion of STEM graduates. Progress can therefore be achieved by making better use of existing skills and by training women more specifically for STEM occupations. Japan in particular could benefit from this approach: here, math scores of 15-year-old girls are particularly high—indeed, even higher than the average scores achieved by young men in the other G7 countries—and yet the proportion of women among STEM graduates in Japan is comparatively low.

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

This indicator measures the proportion of women who graduate from tertiary education in STEM fields exclusively.

Source
OECD calculations based on OECD. Stat—Distribution of graduates and new entrants by field: Share of graduates by gender in fields of education.

GEAC 2022 also recommends including a new indicator in the Dashboard: the proportion of women in STEM occupations. Combined with the two existing indicators, this new indicator would facilitate the tracking of the “leaky pipeline” of women in STEM, from the mathematical competencies of 15-year-olds, to the proportion of tertiary graduates in STEM, and finally to the proportion of women in STEM occupations.



Entrepreneurship

Share of Self-employed With and Without Employees Among All Employed, 2019

The labor markets of the G7 countries differ greatly in their cultures of self-employment. In Japan and Germany, relatively few people are self-employed (with 11 % and 15 %, respectively), while the proportion in Canada, the UK, and Italy is at least twice as high. The proportion of self-employed persons who have hired their own employees is even lower, with comparatively high proportions in Canada, France, Germany, and especially Italy.

Self-employment as such does not necessarily imply good working conditions with a secure and adequate income. Many self-employed people in solo enterprises find themselves in precarious life situations and never entered the formal wage job market. Even when the self-employed have their own employees, they still face many risks, and one cannot conclude that they enjoy secure employment.

In all G7 countries, the proportion of self-employed women with and without their own employees is lower than the corresponding proportion of men. The self-employment gaps are particularly high in the UK (7.9 percentage points) and Italy (9.6 percentage points). In Japan, the percentage of men compared to women is at least twice as high.

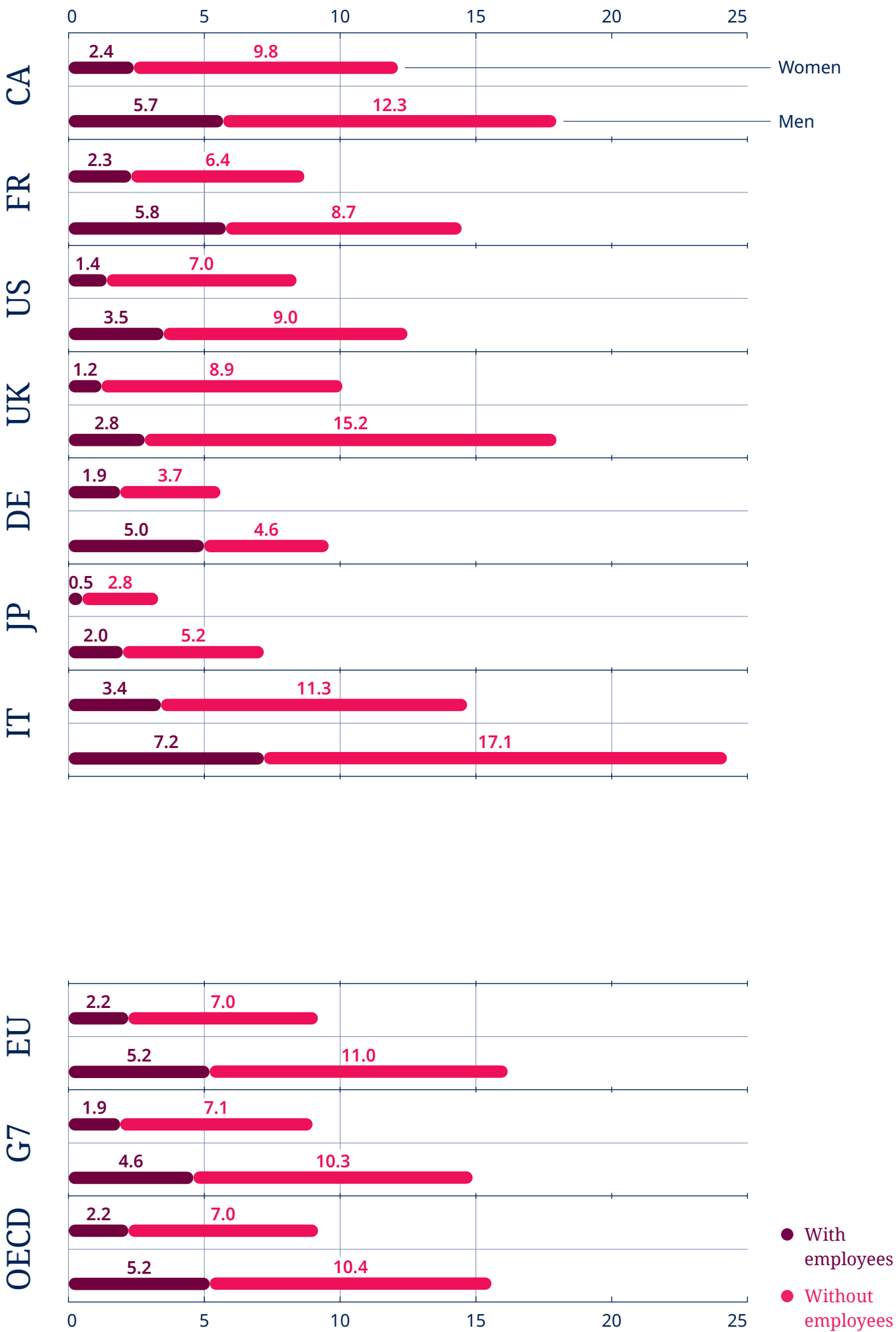
The GEAC 2022 has dedicated an entire essay to the topic of **Ownership, Entrepreneurship, and Investment**. This year's recommendations include supplementing the indicator "entrepreneurship" with further variables that include tracking procurement practices and Venture Capital funding. The number of employees or the value of an enterprise would also be particularly helpful, as this data would illuminate the differences between male- and female-led enterprises.

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

This indicator is defined as the share of those who are registered as self-employed among all employees, and further differentiates whether they have employees or not.

Sources

OECD.Stat—Entrepreneurship: Share of employed who are employers, by sex and OECD.Stat—Entrepreneurship: Share of employed who are own-account workers, by sex



Leadership

The G7 Dashboard includes two indicators for leadership. Leadership in the economy is measured by the share of women in board seats of the largest publicly listed companies, leadership in politics by the share of women in lower or single houses in parliament. Both indicators provide important clues about the participation of women in top positions and their power to shape our future. Both indicators were chosen because policy measures have the potential to shape both areas, and political leaders can thus steer development accordingly.

Share of Women in Board Seats of the Largest Publicly Listed Companies

This indicator is reported for the years 2016 and 2021. It covers a wide range of board positions, thus complicating any attempts to interpret the data from an intra- and cross-national perspective.

No G7 country has an equal representation of men and women in supervisory board positions, although France, which requires companies to have a share of at least 40% of women on its management boards, comes very close to gender parity (45.3%).

The development within countries from 2016 to 2021 is very positive. All G7 member states succeeded in significantly increasing the share of women in top supervisory board positions, in Canada, the US, and the UK by approximately 10 percentage points, in Japan, Italy, and Germany by 6–8 percentage points. In France, where the proportion of women was already quite high, the increase was still 4 percentage points.

Cross-national differences are still high. While the proportion of women in France tops 45 percent, all other countries with the exception of Japan have a range between approximately 30% (US) and 39% (Italy).

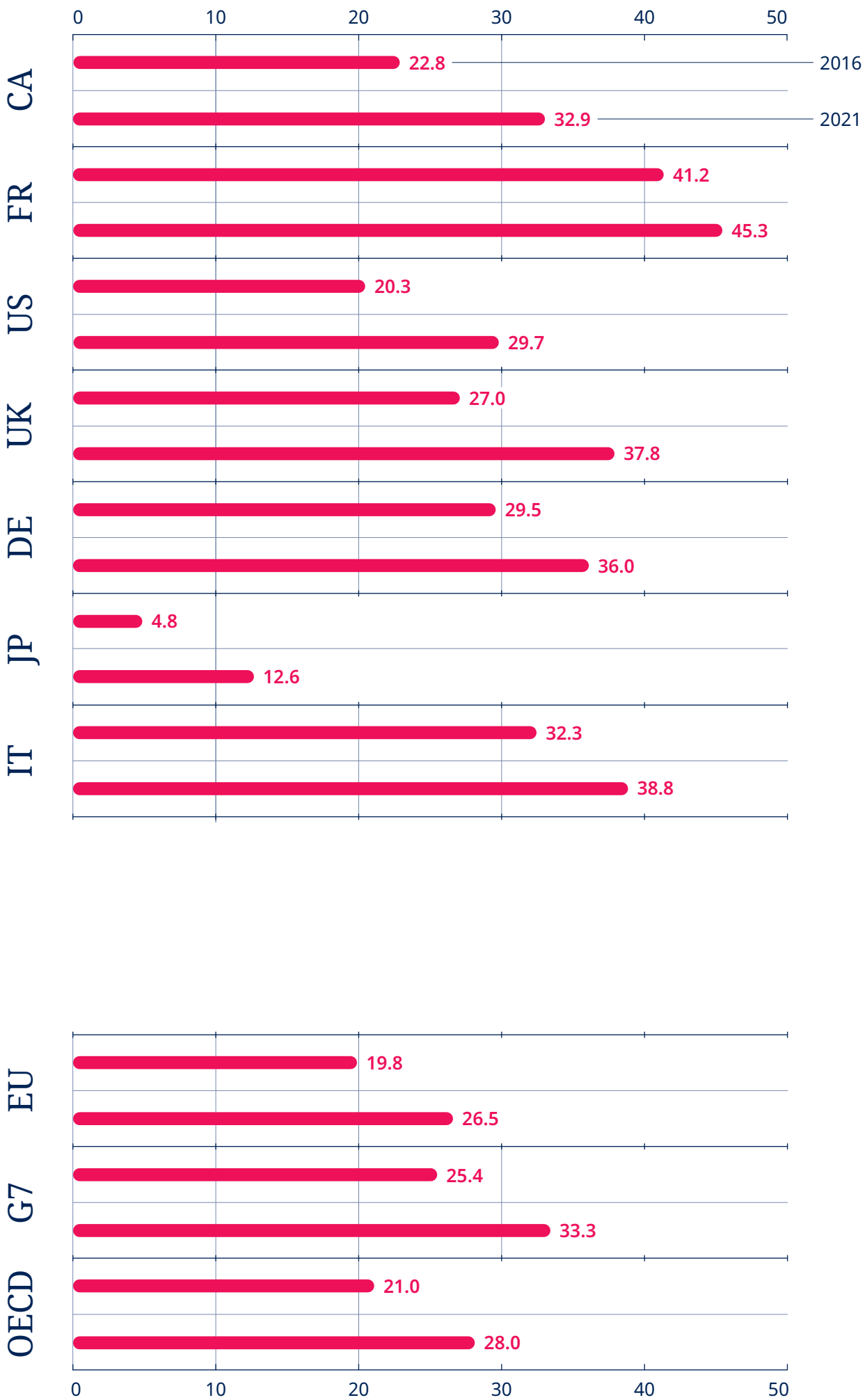
The GEAC 2022 recommends a new indicator to track the proportion of women in top executive positions, in addition to measuring board membership. It would also be worthwhile to learn how progress has been achieved, what individual countries can learn from each other, and the particular role that gender quotas play in this process.

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

This indicator is defined as the share of seats held by women in the highest decision-making body in the given company, such as the board of directors for a company in a unitary system, or the supervisory board in the case of a company in a two-tier system.

Sources

OECD.Stat — Employment: Female share of seats on boards of the largest publicly listed companies and for non-OECD EU countries
Eurostat Database — Positions held by women in senior management positions



Share of Women in Lower or Single Houses of Parliament

This indicator refers to all elected members in the parliaments of the G7 countries in 2012 and 2021 and tracks the percentage of female representation over time. In contrast to the share of women in supervisory boards, the overall picture is mixed, although significant progress has been made across all G7 countries.

Full parity has not been achieved in any of the G7 countries, even though France does very well with close to 40% parliament seats held by women. A comparison of G7 countries continues to show large differences, ranging from 40% (France, as already noted) to just under 10% (Japan).

With the exception of Germany and Japan, the development within countries is very positive. Italy and France increased their share of women in top political positions by 14 and 13 percentage points respectively, the UK by 12 percentage points and the US by 10 percentage points. Canada made slight progress with 5 percentage points. Germany and Japan have slightly decreased their proportion of women over the last 10 years.

The GEAC 2022 recommends more detailed studies on how individual countries have succeeded in increasing the proportion of women. What can other countries learn? How can they position themselves in such a way that women and men alike can decide the future of their countries?

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

This indicator is defined as the share of women among all elected members of lower or single houses of parliament. For the European Union, this refers to the average share in all Member Countries.

Sources

OECD—Government at a Glance 2021; Figure 3.10; for non-OECD EU countries IPU Parline Database



Health and Well-being

This area currently features two indicators: the extent of physical and/or sexual violence against women and girls by an intimate partner, and maternal mortality. Compared to all other indicators in the Dashboard, considerable data and measurement problems restrict the interpretation of both indicators, as the OECD itself points out.

As the risk of gender-based violence has increased significantly in some areas in recent years due to the pandemic, war, and migration, the GEAC 2022 urgently recommends improvements to data collection and quality. In addition, further indicators in the area of health and well-being should be considered.

Prevalence of Physical and/or Sexual Violence Against Women and Girls by an Intimate Partner, 2018

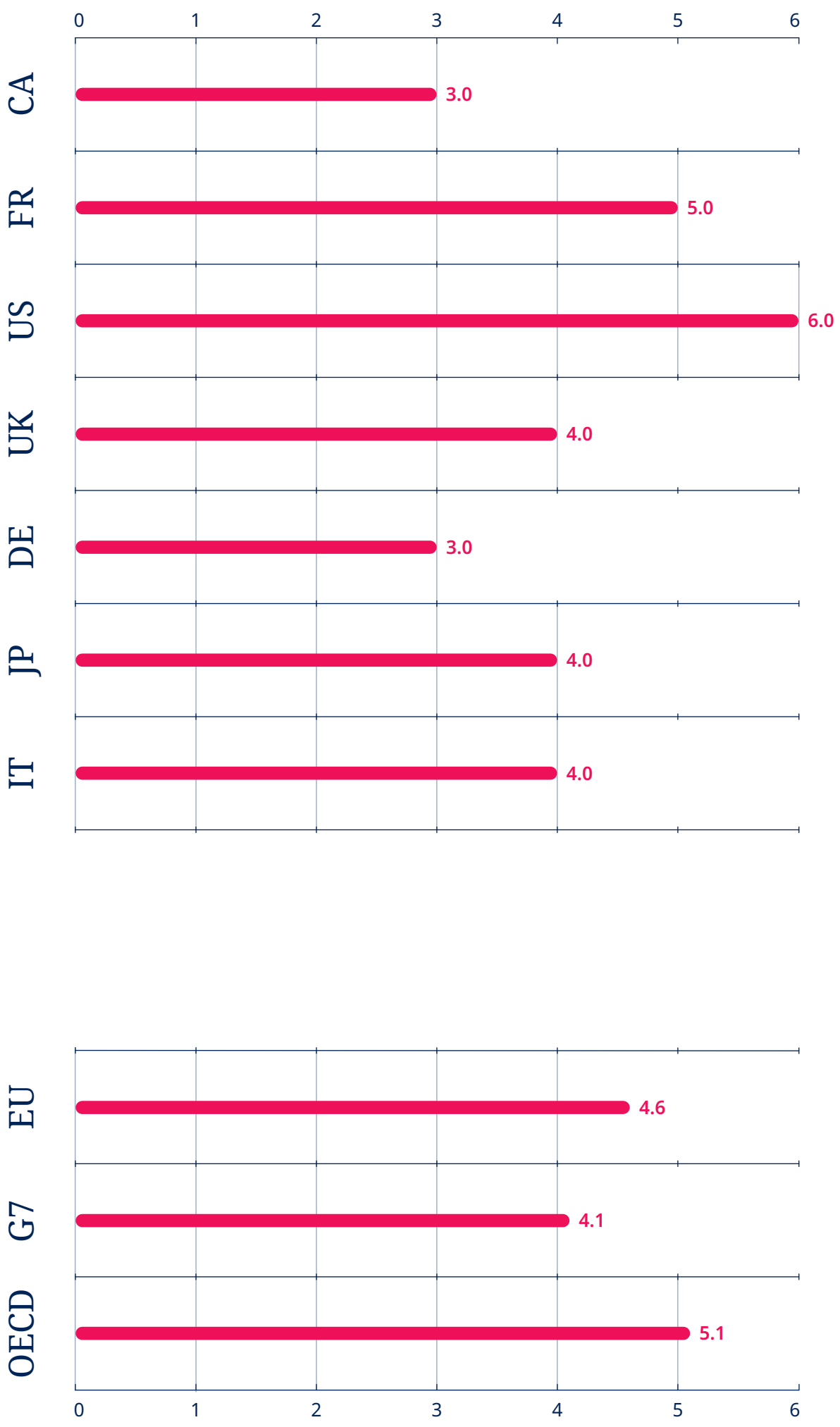
Violence against girls and women is a severe and unequivocal violation of human rights. All G7 countries have committed to addressing violence against women through a number of international conventions, including the Istanbul Convention and Beijing Declaration. The OECD and the GEAC 2022 recognize that the current data on gender-based violence are insufficient: they refer to women and girls between the ages of 15 and 49 only and exclusively consider acts of violence committed against ever-married or partnered women. Furthermore, a very high number of unreported cases must be assumed, since acts of violence are significantly underreported by those affected. But given the urgent need to address GBV in all its forms, the current indicator uses this data as a “placeholder.”

The GEAC 2022 has dedicated a separate essay to the topic of **Gender-based Violence**. At this point, due to a lack of available and reliable data, the Dashboard remains uncommented. Improvements in data collection and quality will benefit the work of the GEAC 2023.

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

This indicator is defined as the share of ever married/partnered women aged 15-49 that have been subject to physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence over the past 12 months.

Sources
For Germany UN Women Global Database on Violence against Women and for all others WHO (2018), Violence Against Women Prevalence Estimates



Maternal Mortality per 100 000 Live Births, 2019 or Later

The data regarding maternal mortality, like that for intimate partner violence, pose a number of interpretative challenges. As stated by the OECD, the mortality data record very small numbers so there may be large annual fluctuations, particularly in the G7 and in countries with low population levels. In the future, this could be addressed with aggregated data for a five-year period. The OECD also refers to further methodological limitations due to possible collection, non-inclusion, and misclassification issues.

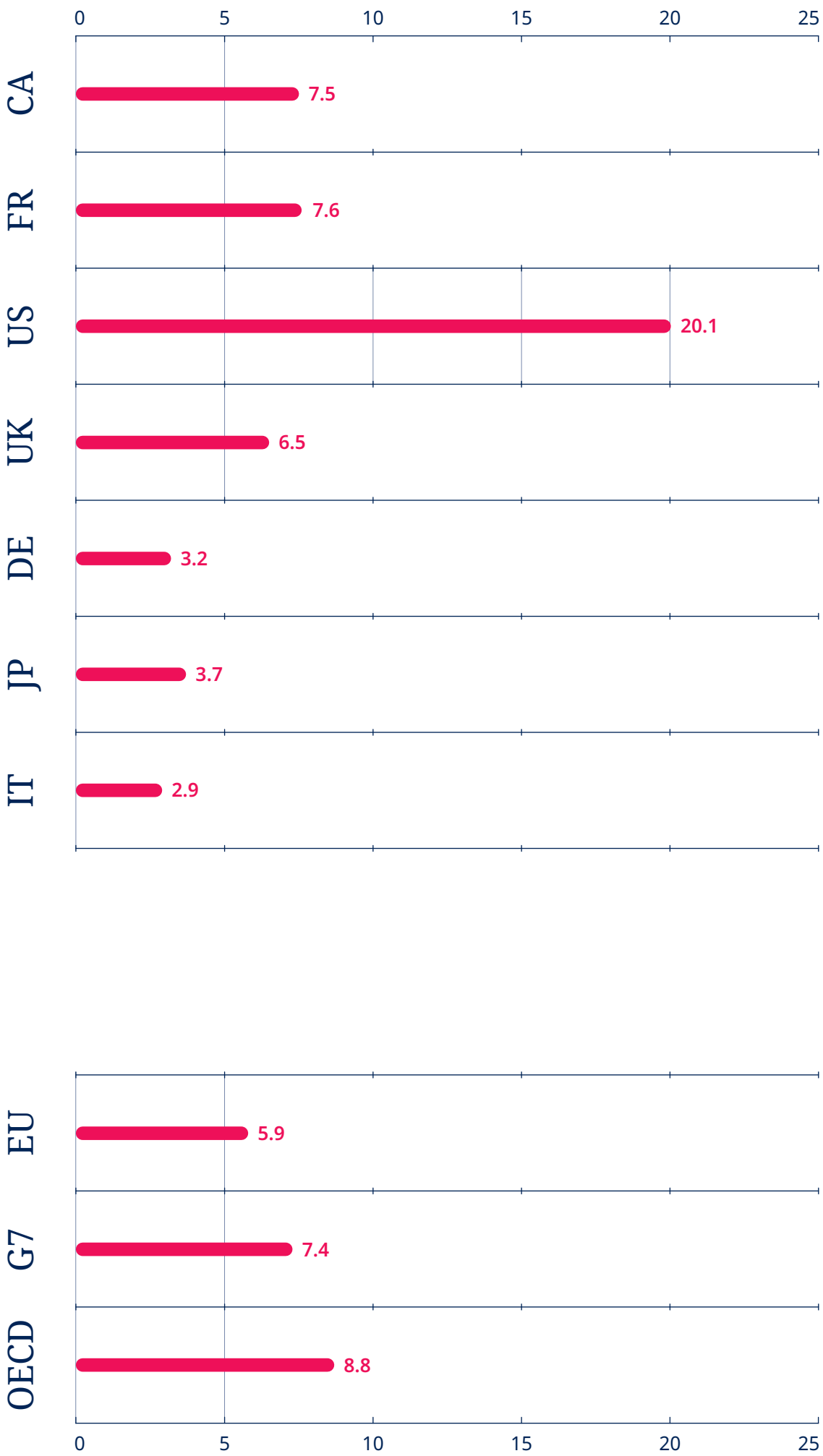
Nonetheless, it is noteworthy that the US has a significantly higher maternal mortality rate than those of the other G7 countries. As access to comprehensive reproductive care has been central to past GEAC recommendations and is one of the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDG 5.6: Ensure universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights), the GEAC 2022 recommends that data collection be improved, and that future GEACs continue to examine the policies and practices leading to especially high or low maternal mortality rates.

The GEAC 2022 otherwise abstains from an interpretation of the data at this point.

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

This indicator is defined as the number of maternal deaths, all causes, per 100 000 live births.

Source
OECD.Stat — Maternal and Infant Mortality



Funds for Development Cooperation

Share of Aid Activities Targeting Gender Equality as Principal and Significant

Development assistance is crucial for women in many countries exposed to hunger, energy poverty, climate change, migration, and the restriction of basic human rights.

Among all screened bilateral official development assistance (ODA) commitments, G7 countries attach quite different importance to measures that either directly or indirectly benefit women.

Between 2011–12 and 2019–20 most G7 countries increased their significant commitments—that is, development assistance that also benefits women as a secondary objective. Proportional expenditures increased by 27 percentage points in France, 25 in Canada, 24 in Japan, and 17 in the UK. In the US, the increase was low; in Germany developmental aid declined slightly. With the exception of Canada (an increase of 19 percentage points), there has been little change in principal commitments—that is, expenditures directly aimed to address gender equality.

Cross-national comparisons show clear level effects. The highest support for gender equality measures in relation to total ODA expenditure is provided by Canada (88%) and the UK (66%), while the US (22%) has the lowest. The other countries range from 42% (France) to 51% (Italy).

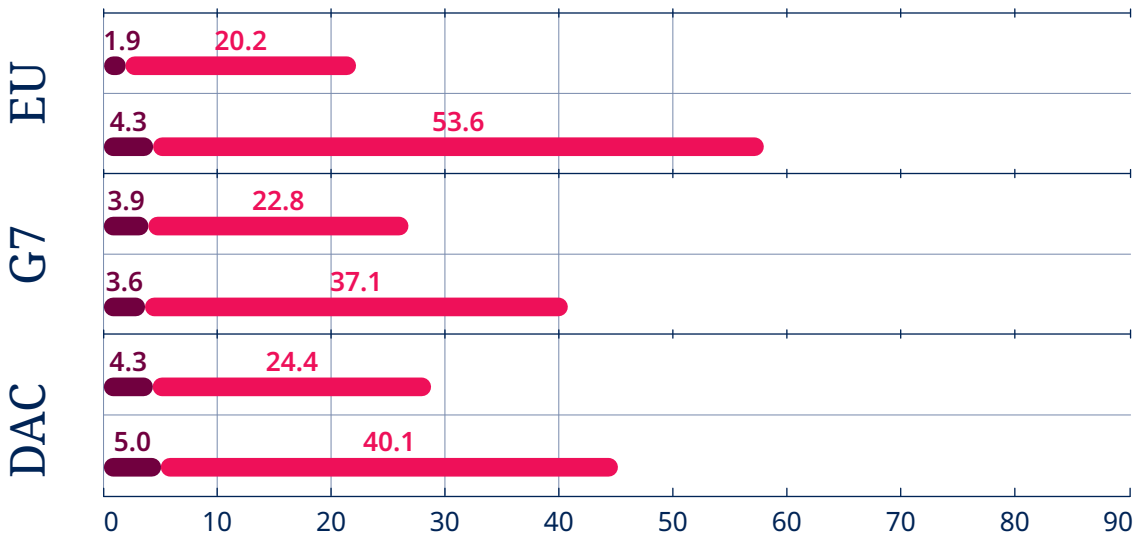
As further elucidated earlier in this report (see the essay on **Funding**), the GEAC 2022 attaches particular importance to development assistance supporting gender equality and has made numerous recommendations to increase direct aid for individuals and organizations, as well as to fund detailed data collection.

All G7, OECD, and EU averages refer to unweighted averages.

Data refers to the share of gender equality commitments among all screened bilateral official development assistance (ODA) commitments. Principal commitments (GE2) have gender equality as an explicit and fundamental objective of the activity and significant commitments (GE1) have gender equality as an important, but secondary, objective.

The OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) is an international forum of many of the largest providers of aid and includes 31 members, among them all G7 countries.

Source
OECD calculations based on OECD. Stat—Aid activities targeting gender equality and women's empowerment (CRS)



Imprint

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We put the quality
in gender equality

