UfM Ministerial Conference on Strengthening the Role of Women in Society

UfM Regional Dialogue on Women Empowerment

Progress report

DRAFT Report as of 21 December 2016
About The Report

The report was prepared following the request formulated by the UfM Paris Ministerial Declaration on Strengthening the role of women in society. The request was « to establish an effective follow-up mechanism as a Euro-Mediterranean forum and to ensure an effective dialogue on women-related policies, legislation and implementation. Ministers have mandated senior officials/experts to review progress in translating the Ministerial commitments into law, policy and practice and implementing the measures contained in the Paris conclusions and to provide a report to UfM Senior Officials taking into account consultations with civil society organisations ».

The UfM Senior Officials Meeting held on December 4th 2014, agreed to launch a Regional Dialogue process on women empowerment, involving the UfM countries and the concerned stakeholders in the Euro-Mediterranean region with the objective to review with partner countries the progress made in translating the Ministerial commitments into actions. The UfM Co-Presidency has then invited countries to submit to the UfM Secretariat their national reports in order to prepare a regional progress report for the next Ministerial meeting.

In line with the 3 pillars of the Ministerial Declaration, 4 priority areas were identified by the UfM countries to be monitored, which are:

1. To raise women’s participation in economic life.
2. To improve women’s access to leadership and decision making positions.
3. To change stereotypes through education and culture.
4. To combat violence against women and gender-based-violence.

Four working groups were constituted one for each priority field and were moderated as follow:

- Raise women’s participation in economic life, moderated by Italy, represented by Ms Serena Romano and UNIDO, represented by Ms Monica Carco.
- Improve women’s access to leadership and decision making positions, moderated by France, represented by Ms Nathalie Pilhes and M. Alexis RINCKENBACH and OECD, represented by Ms Nicola EHLERMANN.
- Change stereotypes through education and culture, moderated by Morocco, represented by Fatima Barkan and Anna Lindh Foundation, represented by Gemma Aubarell.
- Combat violence against women and gender-based-violence, moderated by Egypt, represented by Dr Maya Morsi, Ambassador Wafaa Bassim and Ambassador Mona Omar and UN Women, represented by M. Mohammad Naciri.

The report was drafted on the basis of the individual country reports provided by UfM countries, Beijing+20 reports and supplementary literature produced by other key organisations operating in the region and recommendations and outcomes of the 4 working groups meetings. 14 country reports were received from Algeria, Egypt, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Jordan, Monaco, Morocco, Palestine, Portugal, Spain, Tunisia, and Turkey.

Four working group meetings were held respectively on 12th July in Paris, 19th July in Amman and 20-21st September in Rabat, and two plenary sessions held on 25-26th April and 10th October 2016 in Barcelona.
Preliminary findings on each priority were discussed during the specific working groups and the recommendations and comments of UfM members were integrated into the report.

This report outlines:

- Legislation and legal reforms related to women’s rights and gender equality
- Policy changes, strategies and measures for achieving these aims and gender mainstreaming
- Key achievements, innovations and best Practices
- Gap analysis and lessons learned
- Recommendations for the ministerial meeting and moving forward

The report was drafted by Dr Helen Johnson, external consultant, under the supervision of Ms Fatiha Hassouni, UfM Secretariat.

At the UfM Secretariat, the development of the methodology and the work was led by Ms Fatiha Hassouni under the supervision of Ambassador Delphine Borione.
Toward the next Ministerial Declaration: Horizontal Working groups’ recommendations

Beyond the specific recommendations to each priority area, which are described in detail in the corresponding chapters below, working groups’ experts considered that it is necessary to take into account the following considerations when drafting the 4th ministerial Declaration:

- The 2013 Ministerial declaration is a broader declaration that covers a wide range of commitments that remain politically relevant. The fourth upcoming Ministerial Declaration should maintain the same commitments completed with operational actions and targeted priorities related to some urgent issues against measurable indicators.

- In addition to CEDAW, the Sustainable Development Goals should be considered as the global framework within which must be framed the fourth ministerial declaration as well as the implementation of the follow-up mechanism. Women have a critical role to play in all of the SDGs, with many targets specifically recognizing women’s equality and empowerment as both the objective, and as part of the solution. Advancing women’s political participation and leadership and economic empowerment and addressing key challenges such as poverty, inequality, and violence against women are among the main targeted priorities. In the same vein, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities should be considered.

- The overall regional environment has very much changed since the third Ministerial meeting in Paris in September 2013; it is important to take into account the impact of the change, especially regarding conflicts and post conflict contexts, political transitions, migration and refugee issue and the impact of radicalisation and extremism, which constitute pressing challenges for the whole region but especially for the advancement of women in the concerned countries. It is recommended to support countries affected by conflict to develop the infrastructure of protection for women protection, support women refugees, involve women in the peace building process, reaffirm women’s rights within constitutions, law and policy in the context of political transition, and condemn and punish the use of violence, particularly sexual violence, as a weapon of war. The UN Security Council 1325 and the other supporting UN Security Council resolutions regarding women, security and peace building process must be taken into account and implemented.

- The need to co-ordinate the UfM work field, in particular the follow-up mechanism to be implemented, with other international and regional frameworks so that work is not overlapped and so that the UfM’s framework can complement the work of other organisations and networks. In the region, this concerns particularly the OECD framework, the League of Arab States, the Beijing monitoring process, EU, ILO, the Council of Europe mechanisms, and ETF work. It is recommended that the UfM monitoring framework to be proposed to Ministers takes into account these existing frameworks and complement them by focusing on the aspects that are missing from these mechanisms. It is also recommended to make a reference and the link to all these existing frameworks in the introduction of the 2017 Ministerial declaration.

- The other relevant UfM frameworks should be taken into account and linked to the fourth Ministerial Declaration, namely the UfM Ministerial Declaration on Employment and Labour, the Med4Job Initiatives as well as the UfM Ministerial Declarations on Energy, Environment and Climate Change and on Regional Cooperation and Planning.

- The need to develop a research, information systems and data production agenda to take stock of the situation and the needs of women, to better understand the impact of policies and the root causes of discrimination and to identify the best ways to combat it.

- Country and stakeholders commitments should be backed up with monitoring mechanisms against concrete indicators (impact indicators included).

- Develop partnership with civil society organisations that promote the interests of women, due to their strong capacity for intervening at the local level and for effecting cultural change.
Executive Summary

Today, it is widely recognised and evidenced that when countries value girls and women as much as boys and men; when they invest in their health, education, and skills development; and when they give them greater opportunities to participate in the economy, own and run businesses, the benefits extend to all societies and to economies at large.

Remarkable progress has taken place in the region in relation to women and girls’ rights, and overall, gender issues have gained significant momentum. All UfM countries express commitments to gender equality within their legislative, constitutional and international frameworks – such as gender equality laws, commitments to Beijing and constitutional assertions of equality between men and women. In addition, further positive actions have been taken at the level of parties, parliaments and local bodies to increase participation of women in political life, such as quota systems reserving a set number of seats in parliaments and local councils for women. At the economic level, countries have adopted legislations and mechanisms to integrate women in economic activity and launched programmes to promote an enabling environment for women.

However, the region still faces considerable obstacles and challenges regarding the achievement of gender equality, and a clear gap divides the legislative efforts from actual implementation. Discriminatory practices, social barriers, insufficient institutional protections and unequal access to services and resources continue to block women’s progress.

Women within the Union for the Mediterranean region are strongly affected in their life course by the impact of stereotypes – this affects both their own decision-making and the support and opportunities available to them. Factors such as continued stereotypes about women’s traditional roles and values, as well as the multiple responsibilities that they incur in their lives constitute the most important barriers that hinder women’s full participation and access to leadership.

Women’s participation in public life is an area in which significant positive changes have occurred. However, even in countries with higher representation in Parliament, there may be a lack of female participation within senior positions in Government and advisory bodies, local government, and the judiciary. Women’s representation in Parliament amongst the UfM countries is still at 30% or lowers for all countries except for Algeria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Netherlands, Slovenia, Spain and Sweden.

Women are still under-represented in top corporate jobs. In southern Mediterranean, the low representation of women on corporate boards can be partially explained by women’s low economic participation. In Europe in 2014, the proportion of women on the boards of the largest publicly listed companies reached 20.2 %. A number of countries have adopted compulsory/legally binding or voluntary quotas or ‘targets’ for women on boards with the objective to achieve gender balance much faster than allowing change to happen of its own accord. Nevertheless, without quotas progress remains slow amongst UfM countries.

Women’s economic empowerment is an area in which all countries are strongly committed to making progress. However, women continue to experience more obstacles than men to accessing both business and employment opportunities. Where women are participating in the labour market, their roles continue to be more limited than those of men. Women are more concentrated in informal employment or small businesses and microenterprises. Opportunities to expand into larger scale businesses – ones that have the potential to create more jobs – are limited. In particular, parenthood affects men and women’s employment in disproportionate ways. Women are more often involved in childcare and eldercare duties when care services are lacking or not meeting the needs of - full-time - working parents.

Violence against women and girls continues to be a major issue in all UfM countries. In Europe, it is estimated in 2014, that 13 million women had experienced physical violence in the course of the
year. In MENA, reliable and comparable data regarding the extent of violence are not available, but research studies attest that this is a real problem and that the number of affected women is very high.

This limited success in the advancement of gender equality in the region is being challenged by ongoing political constraints and armed conflicts as well as the continued impact of the financial crisis. The region has witnessed a series of shocks and profound changes over the previous years. Some countries have experienced political transition that have led to major constitutional changes, while others have engaged in a more progressive transformation, which has prevented them from addressing any long-term issue, including gender-related reforms. In the meantime, regional conflicts and post-conflict situations have resulted in a large number of victims and weighs heavily on several countries, making difficult the foundations for the advancement of women. Women are facing significant challenges in the region linked to conflicts and political uprisings. There are new forms of violence against women and girls and violence is used as a tool of war. Many of displaced and refugee women became the heads of the households. They have to earn money for the family, take care of the children, in addition to challenges related to live in a foreign country. They are more vulnerable to gender-based violence and financial destitution.

To foster women’s equal participation, it is recommended:

- To step up the effective implementation of existing legislation and bring in new legislation to combat discrimination.
- To support and implement complementary measures and programmes to foster women’s participation.
- To establish a framework of laws and regulations that explicitly promote positive portrayals of women and challenge the consequences of stereotyping.
- To protect women and girls from gender-based violence through legislation and practical measures on victims’ rights and by supporting specific action.
- To ensure that legal framework include measures for monitoring the application of legislation on equal treatments.
- To support countries affected by conflict to develop the infrastructure for women protection, support women refugees.
- To reaffirm women’s rights within constitutions, law and policy in the context of political transition, involve women in the peace building process and condemn and punish the use of violence, particularly sexual violence, as a weapon of war.
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Acronyms
EU: European Union
MENA: Middle Eastern and North African
OECD: The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SET: Science, Engineering and Technology
UfM: Union for the Mediterranean
UN: United Nations
UNSCR: UN Security Council Resolution
VAWG: Violence Against Women and Girls
Chapter 1

POLITICAL AND INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK
Country Commitments to Gender Equality

Promoting gender equality and combating gender-based discrimination are among the main priorities of the Union for the Mediterranean. These priorities were confirmed by the 43 UfM Ministers in their Ministerial Declarations on strengthening the role of women in society adopted in Istanbul in 2006, Marrakech in 2009, and Paris in 2013, where they have committed to promote the equal participation of women and men in all spheres of society: political, economic, civil and social.

Remarkable progress has taken place in the region in relation to women and girls’ rights, and overall, gender issues have gained significant momentum. At the institutional and political level, all countries express commitments to gender equality within their legislative, constitutional and international frameworks – such as gender equality laws, commitments to CEDAW and constitutional assertions of equality between men and women. To support this, countries have introduced public bodies and departments at different levels of government that address gender issues and have made national strategic commitments, such as gender and equality strategies. These institutional framework and national strategies have a double function: firstly, they ensure that women’s voices and issues are heard at the level of public policy, and secondly, they create a stronger environment for equality of opportunity within the public sector. In addition to these reforms, further positive actions have been taken at the level of parties, parliaments and local bodies to increase participation of women in political life, such as quota systems reserving a set number of seats in parliaments and local councils for women. Legislative and regulatory measures have also been taken in most countries to eradicate illiteracy and improve educational and training infrastructure, prevent gender-based discrimination and facilitate empowerment of women in education. Many States have reached or are close to reaching enrolment equality in primary education, and an increasing number of women are completing university studies, often in higher proportions than men.

At the economic level, countries have adopted legislations and specific mechanisms to integrate women in economic activity and launched programmes to promote an enabling environment for women. Countries have adopted and enshrined the principle of equality between men and women in their labour legislation. Legal amendments have been adopted regarding equal wages and maternity leave. A number of countries have also acted to address gender issues in their budgets and make financial systems more gender-responsive. In addition, countries increasingly undertake gender analysis of their strategies, policies and laws.

Examples of gender departments and strategies include:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Gender departments and strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>Ministry of National Solidarity, Family and Women’s Affairs. National Strategy Crucially – has an Intersector National Commission that oversees implementation of the strategy (extended to the end of 2014) and the availability of UN Charter for Working Women and a Plan for the 2015-2017 Operational Rural Women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>National Council for Women; The Political Qualification Centre for Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Ombudsman for Equality and the National Discrimination and Equality Tribunal, Act on Equality Between Men and Woman, Constitution obliges the promotion of equality between the sexes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Ministry of families, childhood and women’s rights, General Directorate for Social Cohesion, department of women’s rights and equality between women and men;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Role/Institution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>The Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth; Federal Anti-Discrimination Agency; Ministries concerned with equal opportunities of women in all of the 16 federal states; 1900 equal opportunities officers at local level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan</td>
<td>Jordanian National Commission for Women; Appointment to Leadership Positions Strategy 2013 – integrity, transparency, justice and equality commitments – Ministry of Public Sector Development building leadership capacity of women in the civil service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mauritania</td>
<td>The Department for the Advancement of Women and The Ministry of Social Affairs, Childhood and Family; the National Gender Monitoring Group; National Strategy for the Advancement of Women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monaco</td>
<td>High Commission for the protection of the rights, freedoms and mediation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>Ministry of Solidarity, Women, Family and Social; Development The Government Plan for Equality « ICRAM» and the Governmental Programme for the period 2012-2016; the Authority for equality and the fight against all forms of Discrimination; Gender budgeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>Ministry of Women’s Affairs – plus objectives within the domains of politics, economics, law, media, social, environment and the creation of gender units. National Cross-Sectoral Strategy to Promote Equality, Justice and Women Empowerment 2017-22.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>The Commission for Citizenship and Gender Equality; The Commission for Equality in Labour and Employment; the National Plan for Equality–Gender, Citizenship and Non-Discrimination; the National Plan against Domestic Violence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Strategic Plan for Equal Opportunities 2014-16; Women's Participation Council; Institute of Women and for Equal Opportunities; Equality Commissions in the Spanish Congress of Deputies and Senate and Equality Plan of the General Administration and its Public Bodies (specific focus on public bodies).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>Ministry of Women, Family and Childhood; the National Committee of promoting gender equality in the management of local affairs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Ministry of Family and Social Policies, General Directorate on the Status of Women; National Action Plan to Combat Violence against Women 2016-2020 (includes activities for gender equality - about to enter into force); Committee on Equality of Opportunity for Women and Men of the Grand National Assembly of Turkey (GNAT) plus Equality at Work Platform. Also, commitment to gender budgeting.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Limitations and Gaps**

The positive developments and policies undertaken by countries, contrast with a reality in which discrimination against women and girls persists at all levels of society. Adopted measures and legal provisions have not led to an increase in women’s access to economic and financial resources and participation in decision-making. The more identified pressing issue is the effective implementation of these strategies and law enforcement. In many countries of the region, the impact of legal and
institutional safeguards to protect women and girls from violence is slow to materialize. Moreover, higher levels of education have not translated into an equivalent increase in access to formal work and access to leadership in economic sphere, keeping women at heightened risk of poverty and violence.

A forthcoming publication on the OECD will evaluate the impact of legislative frameworks within MENA countries (OECD 2017).

**Gender Mainstreaming**

The other structural issue is the lack or insufficient gender mainstreaming in governance tools, policies and practices. It is important to adopt laws that explicitly provide for gender equality but it is also essential to ensure that all laws and policies reflect gender equality considerations and are implemented in the right way to avoid different treatment and/or discrimination. This could be achieved through gender mainstreaming, which is based on the anticipation and assessment of the possible impact on the equality of women of decisions and policy measures. While gender mainstreaming is increasingly evident across the UfM region, further progress is needed to ensure that gender concerns are well established in the policy process. All countries could do more to ensure implementation through enforcement mechanisms, strategies for implementation and better monitoring of progress (OECD 2016). Most policy-making processes across the region do not have a process for integrating gender considerations in a systemic manner, despite the interest of the countries to do so (see below). The biggest identified challenges in this regard are: the lack of resources, the lack of capacity/skills to implement an overall “whole-of-government” approach to gender mainstreaming, limited accountability and lack of oversight mechanisms across public services, and some resistance due to the increased administrative complexities, especially with regards to gender impact assessments and gender-sensitive budgeting, as well as, in some cases, some political resistance.

### Box 1: Examples of Good Practices on Gender Mainstreaming and Monitoring mechanisms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Organic Law 3/2007, of 22 March for effective equality between women and men, states that “the principle of equal treatment and opportunities for women and men will cross-sector inform the action taken by all public authorities. The central, regional and local governments will actively mainstream the principle in the adoption and implementation of their legislative provisions, definition and budgeting in all areas of public policy and performance of all their activities as a whole”. The Law also provides for regular Government reporting to Parliament on progress in relation to gender equality and for the obligation to include gender impact assessment reports as a precondition for any regulation to be submitted to the Council of Ministers for approval. The gender mainstreaming approach has been translated into some organisational forms, such as the creation of the Inter-Ministerial Committee on Equality between Women and Men and the Equality units within Ministries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>France established the High Council for Equality between Women and Men, which provides expertise in gender balance and decision-making, monitoring of implementation of parity laws, and scrutinising of policy. Law n 2014-873, August 4 2014 promoted an integrated and transversal approach to gender equality and this is evidenced by the fact that France pursues a gender mainstreaming agenda, for example by ensuring that measures such as quotas are adopted in contexts other than just the Government, in particular in publicly listed companies.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In Monaco, their Plan to integrate women’s rights into public policies and programmes includes 24 goals, translated into 156 steps.

Tunisia’s commitment to women’s equality and public participation are supported by a number of comprehensive programmes covering training, awareness raising and research amongst other activities.

**Box2: Examples of Gender Budgeting**

**Egypt**
Gender analysis is part of the CENACT Gender Equality Strategy that aims to implement community-based gender analysis. The National Council for Women conducts gender analysis through surveys and public opinion research to achieve its role in monitoring and evaluating the general policies related to women.

**Morocco**
Since the adoption of a new finance law in January 2014, the needs of women and girls are increasingly being reflected in how governments spend and the gender priorities are integrated throughout the budgeting process. Ongoing efforts have resulted in gender responsive budget being progressively anchored in Morocco’s budget reform process. Experience with results-based and gender-responsive public finance management for more than 10 years in Morocco resulted in the adoption of the new organic law of finance, by the Council of Government, which legally institutionalizes gender equality throughout budget processes. Taking the GRB processes a step forward, the new legislation explicitly mentions that gender equality must be taken into account in the definition of objectives, results and indicators of performance of the line budgets. The new organic law also institutionalizes the Gender Report as an official document that is part of the annual Finance Bill – an important achievement.

**Tunisia**

**Palestine**
State institutions must take in consideration that their budgets are sensitive to gender, and to involve gender units in the preparation process. That followed by another decision to form a national committee for gender sensitive budgets in 2012. The role of the committee is to provide leadership and guidance relating to the process and preparation of budgets that are sensitive to gender.

**Sources:**
- UN-Women

**An evolving context: Political and Economic Crisis**

The overall regional environment has very much changed since the third Ministerial meeting. The limited success in the advancement of gender equality in the region is being challenged by on-going political constraints and the continued impact of the financial crisis. The context of crisis has resulted in a huge drain on resources and more vulnerability for women at the same time as countries. Some countries have experienced political transition that have led to major constitutional changes, while
others have engaged in a more progressive transformation, which has prevented them from addressing any long-term issue, including gender-related reforms. Within conflict situations, particularly in Syria and Libya, rape and other violence towards women are adopted as weapons of war. Even those who have escaped conflict zones will find themselves vulnerable as refugees in the migration route. Many countries find themselves responsible for women refugees, which now constitute an additional group of women that must be protected in a situation where they are already vulnerable. The presence of high numbers of migrants and refugees puts pressure on local labour markets in some countries and reinforces the informal economy which mostly affects women.

In this context, women have been an instrumental part of reconstruction and furthering social change. For example Palestine describes the involvement of women in promoting law and policy that supports women at the same time as peace building – for example, a presidential decree that supports the involvement of women in the UN and peace negotiations. In Syria, women’s participation to the political negotiations of the transition process is very weak, as only two women are part of the Political Committee of the National Coalition of Syrian Revolution and Opposition Forces (UNW 2016). In general, however, although women are marginalised from key decision-making positions, they are nevertheless playing a critical role in the political transition process. A recent UNW study demonstrates that the participation of women at all levels is key to the operational effectiveness, success and sustainability of peace processes and peacebuilding efforts. The roles of women in international peace and security efforts have been underscored by the adoption of UN Security Council Resolution 1325 which recognizes that war, impacts women differently, and reaffirms the need to increase women’s role in decision-making related to conflict prevention and resolution. Progress is being made—in 2013, more than half of all peace agreements signed included references to women, peace and security. But the pace of change is too slow. From 1992 to 2011, women comprised fewer than four per cent of signatories to peace agreements and less than ten per cent of negotiators at peace tables (UNW). More efforts are needed to involve women in the peace building process and reaffirm women’s rights within constitutions, law and policy in the context of political transition.

In the EU, economic downturn and austerity policies are disproportionately impacting women as public services are eroded. Recent reports reveal that austerity policies in Europe undermine women’s rights, perpetuate existing gender inequalities and create new ones, and hamper the prospects of sustainable and equal economic progress in Europe. Since 2010 cutting down public expenditure has been the most common reaction to the crisis in Europe. Strict consolidation plans have been introduced in the three countries (Ireland, Greece, and Portugal), and austerity budgets have been announced also in countries with a sounder financial situation (e.g. the UK, France). Cuts in public sector jobs and wages, which have been a typical government response to the crisis across Europe, are a major threat for gender equality in employment. Because women account in average for almost 70% of public sector workers in the EU, anything that happens to public sector jobs and wages affects women more.

UfM countries are pursuing creative responses to these difficult conditions but the reality of limited resources means that there are inevitable gaps in provision. There is a need for more research into the interventions that can make an impact in difficult political and economic circumstances, as well as an opportunity to engage women in finding the solutions.

**Women and Extremism**

The region suffers over the last years from the rise of extremist groups and organizations. The ideology they proffer has profound long-term implications for society, the economy and ultimately peace and security. A global study on the Implementation of UNSCR 1325 showed that exclusion, discrimination, attacks on dignity and structural inequalities are at the basis of conflict and violent
extremism (UNSCR 2014). The relationship between terrorism and violence against women has never been more pervasive. Women can be more vulnerable than men to being raped and physically coerced. Most extremist groups use regressive gender stereotypes to recruit young men. They promise power in the form of dominance over women. Some use rape to create group cohesion.

The roles of women as they relate to extremism and counter-extremism issues have remained less explored by policymakers and international counterterrorism actors. Too often, their roles are ascribed simply as “preventers” without a more nuanced consideration of how and why women may also play the roles of “supporters”. Many women are taking a stand and countering extremism with different strategies. Some women’s organizations are directly engaging with communities, and others are challenging the religious discourse and interpretations of Islamic text, and infusing universal human rights norms into the discourse. Many are pressing for equality under the law.

However, while it is impossible to estimate the exact level of women’s involvement in extremism groups, recent media reports has highlighted an apparent rise in women’s active participation in violent extremist organizations. This includes their deployment in combat operations, and roles as suicide bombers, propagandists, recruiters, and mobilizers. Research studies suggest that most of the same factors that prompt men to become terrorists drive women in the same way.

Women can be powerful preventers and participate to inform, shape and implement policies and programmes to mitigate the effects of violent radicalisation. But women can also glorify and encourage martyrdom and keep violent organisations viable. Such a diversity of roles should be reflected in the development of effective policies and programmes to address violent extremism.

**Recommendations**

**Monitoring and Evaluation**
- Develop concrete indicators and mechanisms to monitor changes.
- Where commitments have been made or programs initiated, data to be gathered on the impact and progress made towards its aims.
- Examine and respond to the particular needs of countries affected by conflict.
- Develop a research and data production agenda to take stock of the situation and the needs of women, to better understand the impact of policies and the root causes of discrimination.

**Mainstreaming**
- Integrate gender mainstreaming in an effective way in all the policies, providing training and encouraging policy makers to attend this training.
- Train professionals, leaders and managers to be gender aware and to understand their legal obligations.

**Women’s Participation and Public Awareness**
- Engage women in finding the solutions to political and economic crisis.
- Focus on reaching groups of women who are more marginalised.
- Public awareness to promote further dialogue, particularly engaging with youth and men, with a territorial perspective (rural, urban). Public awareness should include the development of communication strategies, public awareness campaigns, debates, workshops and community action.

**Legislation and Policy**
• Ensure that legislation is in place that recognises the independence of women and protects them as separate legal entities (for example, fair marriage laws, prevention of early and forced marriage, social security protection, removing policy and law that limits women’s freedom of movement etc.).

• Step up implementation of existing legislation in these areas and bring in new legislation for non-discrimination.

• Adopt work/life balance policy and practice that ensures both women and men can carry out their care duties, thus providing accessible and affordable care services for children, elderly and people with disabilities and promoting the sharing of households and care responsibilities, as well as work/life balance policies also for men.
Chapter 2
CHALLENGING STEREOTYPES

THE PARIS MINISTERIAL DECLARATION, 2013

A. Promoting a balanced and non-stereotypical portraying of women and men in the media and in the education system, and raising consciousness of the society on gender equality with a view to promote women empowerment by organizing awareness and educational campaigns as well as training in schools targeting not only women and girls, but also men and boys, as well as employers and employees of both public and private sector, to foster positive attitudes and behaviour and to ensure changes in the institutional behaviour with regard to women’s rights and fundamental freedoms;

B. Designing and implementing national policies promoting a balanced and non-stereotypical roles of women and girls in society and combating trafficking and sexual exploitation of women and girls;

C. Promoting an effective partnership between the public and private sectors, employers, trade unions business and professional associations as well as civil society organizations, women’s associations, and youth across the Euro-Mediterranean region in the dialogue aimed at improving the situation of women.
Overview

In UfM countries, the context of gender stereotyping is acknowledged across the other specific priority areas. Many countries cite this issue as one of their most difficult barriers to overcome. In particular, women’s progression at work is still affected by stereotypes in all countries and it is a major focus of many countries in relation to combatting VAWG. The most common area addressed by UfM countries in relation to stereotypes is the media, which is an arena that helps to produce and reproduce harmful ideas about both women and men. Engagement with the media and scrutiny of the school curricula are two of the most common responses to stereotyping in the UfM countries and are reported to be having a positive impact.

Gender Stereotyping in UfM Countries

Changing stereotypes is an issue that cuts across all attempts to redress the balance of gender equality within the UfM countries. Access to leadership is hindered when there are enduring stereotypes around women’s roles, women’s strengths and weaknesses, and the kind of jobs that women can and want to do. Economic empowerment and women’s entrepreneurship are also limited by stereotypes that exclude women from having access to the same opportunities and support as men. Violence against women is underpinned by stereotypes of masculinity and

Key findings

- Women within the Union for the Mediterranean are strongly affected in their life course by the impact of stereotypes – this affects both their own decision-making and the support and opportunities available to them. Gender stereotyping can still be a strong barrier even where other measures of gender equality are present.
- Gender stereotyping is a crosscutting issue and must be addressed in order to achieve goals in each of the priority areas (VAWG, leadership, economic participation) as well as addressing it as a separate issue.
- Although each of the other priority areas has its own obligations in relation to stereotyping, there are also some key areas of intervention to address gender stereotyping more widely, these are: the media (including social media), education including non-formal education, and training, public and cultural awareness. As gender stereotyping has a strong cultural hold, this wider agenda is necessary to intervene before these stereotypes are reproduced and reinforce inequality in relation to economic participation, leadership, and VAWG.
- Persistence of traditional women’s roles and protectionism are operating to hold women back even where women are gaining more access to education and opportunity.
- A significant area of concern is the impact of media and cultural portrayals of both genders on young people, which affects self-esteem, dignity and aspirations, particularly in relation to portrayals of women and girls as sexual objects.
femininity and the enforcement of strict gender roles within relationships. The aim of challenging stereotypes is therefore addressed in each area of enquiry within this report and is furthered by progress in any of these areas.

It is important to note that stereotypes must be challenged directly and not only as a crosscutting issue. As a cultural phenomenon, they are produced and reproduced within society on different levels, each of which then serves to perpetuate the negative consequences for both women and men — limiting life choices, failing to capitalise on energy and talent, and blocking the development of mutually supportive relationships.

Women within the Union for the Mediterranean are strongly affected in their life course by the impact of stereotypes — this affects both their own decision-making and the support and opportunities available to them. A report from the European Parliament on eliminating gender stereotypes in the EU (2012) stated that traditional gender roles and stereotypes continue to have a strong influence on the division of roles between women and men in the home, in the workplace and in society at large, with women depicted as running the house and caring for children while men are depicted as wage-earners and protectors. It also concluded that gender stereotypes tend to perpetuate the status quo of inherited obstacles to achieving gender equality in EU, and to limit women’s range of employment choices and personal development, impeding them from realising their full potential as individuals and economic players, and therefore constitute strong obstacles to the achievement of equality between women and men. In the same vein, the recent Arab Beijing report pointed out that almost all national reports cited cultural reasons for the gap between planning and implementation with regard to asserting women’s rights stating “local cultures respond poorly to changes in standards and legislation concerning women”. Women’s participation outside the home is limited due to the fact that women’s roles as wife, mother and carer are still expected and privileged at a cultural level at the expense of other aspects of women’s lives.

Another issue is the globalisation in societies, especially regarding audio-visual channels where more and more advertisements, series, video games and movies are directed to children. They indicate “the proper place” in the society for girls and boys. Girls are shown as babysitters nursing dolls or cleaning house with a pink cleaning kit, whereas boys do sports or play computer games.

**National commitments to eliminating stereotypes**

A strong legislative framework and scrutiny in relation to gender equality is essential for challenging stereotypes. All the country reports contained measures and commitments to promoting gender equality and preventing discrimination. All countries have made progress in terms of laws that facilitate cultural change. The key to effecting change will therefore be the adequate implementation of these legal and regulatory frameworks. Where legislative changes are made, the wording of laws, their interpretation and their implementation are factors that influence whether the law actually has any real capacity for making change in society. The evolution of law in this area can be demonstrated by the case of Tunisia as one of the early pioneers of a legislative agenda in the southern Mediterranean. In this case, legal frameworks evolved over time with the support of women’s groups. Significant progress has been made particularly in relation to women’s roles outside of the home (WB 2013), as is the case in other MENA countries. However, despite these achievements, the gender gap is apparent and socio-cultural norms, traditional gender roles and discriminatory practices continue to hinder law enforcement and impede women progress in society.
The Media

A report on practices in relation to the media produced by Haute Autorité de la Communication Audiovisuelle in Morocco (HACA 2013) under the framework of the Mediterranean Regulatory Authorities Network (RIRM) outlines the enormous impact that the media has on our collective consciousness and culture in shaping gender stereotypes and expectations, as well as making key recommendations for combatting this issue. It has been suggested that the media is a particularly challenging area in which to attempt to address stereotypes because it is such a strong vehicle for reproducing them (HACA 2013).

In the EU (EP 2012) for example, communication and advertising is still frequent and facilitates the reproduction of gender stereotypes, especially by portraying women as sex objects in order to promote sales; for example, in advertising women account for 27% of the employees or professionals shown, but 60% of those portrayed doing housework or looking after children. Regarding the southern Mediterranean countries, most of them lack gender-sensitive media laws. This is compounded by the absence of monitoring mechanisms and a weak sense of social responsibility on the part of media outlets.

However, the media can also be a powerful catalyst in combating stereotypes and gender-based prejudices. In recognition of this, Spain has implemented a legal and regulatory framework that actually obliges the media to play an active role in encouraging role models and non-sexist social behaviours. The use of legal and regulatory frameworks is strongly supported in the HACA report and it is particularly emphasised that these must be enforceable.

In order to combat gender stereotyping, both an EU report on gender and the media (CoE 2014) and HACA report make a number of recommendations, which focus on three key objectives: developing indicators for gender portrayals and stereotyping, promoting research into media portrayals and the impact on both genders; and collaborating with the media to improve the situation.

### Box 3: examples of interventions and practice on Media and Cultural Stereotypes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Intervention</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>France:</strong></td>
<td>Quotas for women’s presence in teams and on airwaves</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The CSA asked TV and radio broadcasters to make a commitment for 2014 to move</td>
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<td></td>
<td>the media landscape towards a better gender balance. France Télévisions had,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>even before being asked, pledged on 8 July 2013 to include in its objectives</td>
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<td></td>
<td>and resources contract with the State quantified measures in respect of women</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>'s presence both in its teams and on the airwaves (inter alia 30% of women</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experts in the studio). Radio France followed the same path in the autumn.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other publishers, to varying degrees, have taken part in the exercise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Germany:</strong></td>
<td>Awards for gender equality</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Since 2001, the government of Lower Saxony has granted the “Juliane Bartel”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>media-award each year. The award is named after Juliane Bartel (1954-1998)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>who was known for high quality and humorous journalism in radio and television.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The competition is open to TV and radio broadcasters, authors as well as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>production companies. The prize goes to TV films, documentaries, features and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>radio segments that promote gender equality by featuring diverse role models,</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>by describing diversity and migration with a view to gender equality or by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>uncovering conflicts between (gender stereotyped) role-models and deficiencies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Morocco:</strong></td>
<td>Banning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The amendment of Law No. 77.03 on audio-visual communication in May 2014,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>which stipulates the prohibition of any advertising, which damages women or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>contains a message likely to perpetuate stereotypes or negative images, or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>portrays the inferiority of women or promotes discrimination against her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>because of her sex.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Degrading Advertising and Portrayals of Women

Similarly, it encourages operators of audio-visual communication to contribute to the fight against discrimination on grounds of sex, including stereotypes based on gender, and to promote a culture of gender equality, while prohibiting any direct or indirect incitement against women or undermining women’s dignity.

The revision of specifications for public broadcasters introducing provisions that strengthens the presence of women in media and helps improve their image.

Spain:

Strong Gender Equality laws

Title III of the Act 3/2007 of 22 March, contains measures to further equality in the mass media with specific rules for State-owned media, as well as instruments to enforce these measures in the context of advertising with a discriminatory content.

The Strategic Plan for Equal Opportunities 2014-2016 contains a special section to avoid a sexist treatment of the image of women in the media. Its main lines of action are:

- To raise awareness on the non-sexist treatment of the image of women.
- Promotion of self-regulation of private media in the treatment of the image of women.
- Cooperation with public media to foster a real and egalitarian image of women.

In this area, the IWEO, through the “Observatorio de la Imagen de las Mujeres” (Observatory of the Image of Women), receives, analyses and channels complaints on sexist ads. In 2013, the IWEO was party to a lawsuit, filed by the consumers’ association “ADECUA”, against the airline “Ryanair”, for the promotion of their rates and the charity calendar “The Girls of Ryanair -2013”. In 2014, a new lawsuit has been filed against the Valencian company “Cementos La Unión”, for unlawful advertising and sexism, demanding the cessation of such advertising.

Turkey:

Training of media professionals

Gender Equality and Media Workshops have been held for the future media professionals to raise their awareness on gender equality and violence against women by the General Directorate on the Status of Women. Application based gender equality training programmes are provided to the students participating from a wide range of universities in the workshops.

Education and Training

As has been demonstrated, an area of particular concern in relation to the media is that of young people and the influence of messages about the ‘dos’ and ‘don’ts’ of their gender. Another environment that has considerable influence on young people is that of education, which then affects subsequent decisions about training and further education.

Within the UfM country, education and training continue to transmit gender stereotypes, as women and men often follow traditional education and training paths, and this has serious repercussions on the labour market, limiting career diversification and often placing women in occupations that are less valued and remunerated. In the education process boys and girls are still not encouraged to take an equal interest in all subjects, in particular as regards scientific and technical subjects.

In order to challenge attitudes, measures that seek to address young people should be at the forefront of the agenda to eliminate stereotypes and the gender perspective should be integrated in all youth policies. Jordan, for example, specifically states that they are focusing on youth orientated programmes to this end.

As a way of reaching and engaging young people to challenge gender stereotypes, linking education to sport can be also a strategy. Some regional experiences such as British Council demonstrate that
using sport as an entry point and engagement tool to address issues such as child protection, boys’ and girls’ rights, violence against women may promote changes in gender norms.

Box 4: examples of interventions and practice on Education and Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Germany</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Career choices are still strongly influenced by gender stereotypes. It is important to note here that these stereotypes do not just affect women and girls, but also men and boys, so this is an area of gender equality policy that has to take into account both genders. In 2014, the Federal Government has set up a working group exploring the possibilities of making career counselling more gender sensitive. This is not just a question of the careers service being addressed, but families, peers and schools as well as the media, employers, and unions play an important role, too.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Communication strategies, Public Awareness and Culture

The country reports contained several examples of good practice relating to challenging stereotypes on a cultural level. These approaches included workshops of challenging stereotypes, challenging online misogyny, celebrating women, public awareness campaigns, involving men in spreading the message of equality, and influencing religious leaders to promote an enlightened vision of Islam and Christianity.

Within the cultural field, arts can also play a role in challenging and overcoming stereotypes. A recent report shows how efforts to promote women artists’ work contribute to change stereotypes to agency of participating women.

Recommendations

General Recommendations

- Promote further research on the root causes of gender stereotypes and the impact of stereotypes on gender equality and best practice for combatting this.
- Focus on combatting daily harassment and sexual objectification of women both on the streets and in the media.
- Adopt specific interventions for rural women who are more subject to stereotypes.
- Develop partnership with civil society organisations that promote the interests of women, due to their strong capacity for effecting cultural change.
- Engage with young people and include gender equality in national youth policies.
- Foster regional cooperation and north-south/south-south exchanges through civil society and media networks.
- It is necessary to develop a set of gender equality and stereotyping indicators to measure progress in the fields of media, education including non-formal education and public bodies.

Laws

- A framework of laws and regulations that explicitly promote positive portrayals of women and challenge the consequences of stereotyping (for example, eliminating early marriage and the idea that it is normal for girls to be young brides), are necessary. These must include measures for implementation and scrutiny.
• In addition, laws must be scrutinised for unconscious stereotyping and amended to promote positive outcomes for gender equality.

The Media, including social media
• Develop enforceable regulations that actively promote positive portrayals of women and eliminate degrading and sexist imagery. Combine with voluntary codes, incentives for diverse and portrayals of women that also promote dignity and respect, promoting female leadership within the media, and training for media (journalists and media owners) and other professionals to be gender sensitive are all necessary measures for transforming the sector.
• Targeting of advertising to address the cultural context in countries relating to gender stereotypes.
• Providing critical media awareness education in schools including engaging with boys and not just girls. Develop specific campaigns targeting youth in social media.
• Initiate a study for:
  - The adoption of a common reference guide for the qualification of gender stereotypes.
  - The definition of indicators to technically define sexism and measure it accurately in the media.
  - The identification of mechanisms for broadcasters that establish a proactive approach to promoting equality between men women.

Education
• Career guidance that challenges stereotypes in relation to both boys and girls (promoting science, engineering and technology for girls and arts and humanities for boys).
• Engage with education providers and mainstream gender equality within the curriculum and school materials in order to ensure that it represents the value of equality between men and women and eliminates stereotyping.
• Training of teachers and other key educational leaders so that they are more gender sensitive and challenge stereotyping and sexism within classrooms.
• Raising awareness amongst young people of gender stereotyping and inequality.

Labour Market and Decision-Making
• Raising awareness of the economic implications of limiting opportunities for women based on stereotyping, including the gender pay gap.
• Implement serviceable, specific job evaluation tools to help determine work of equal value.
• Promote tools relating to economic inequality and leadership, such as family friendly work environments, quotas, and training.
• Pursue measures that redress the balance of care responsibilities in society, promoting men’s roles as care givers and having equal domestic responsibilities.
• Challenge entrenched views of women in the workplace, promoting more transparency relating to pay and recruitment and fairer workplace practices (see Economic Empowerment and Leadership sections).

Public Awareness and Culture
• Engaging men in the fight against stereotypes, in particular, challenging Violence Against Women and stepping up the role of the father with regard to education within the family so
as to redress the balance.

- Raising awareness on the role of parents in education of boys and girls on an equal footing.
- Engaging with religious organisations on calling attention to developing and perpetuating an enlightened approach that promotes gender equality. Promote progressive roles for women in the context of religion.
- Work with academics and use communications strategies to raise awareness of women’s diverse contribution to society and their importance to economic growth or scientific research.
- Challenge the notion that equality ‘has been achieved’ by raising awareness of existing damaging stereotypes and lack of full implementation.
Chapter 3
WOMEN’S LEADERSHIP

THE PARIS MINISTERIAL DECLARATION, 2013

1. Equal rights of women and men to participate in the political, economic, civil and social life

A. Increasing women’s participation in the political decision-making processes at all levels, including in situations of political transformation, by ensuring their freedom of movements, by promoting their participation in elections and in government; by promoting their active participation in local communities, in civil society organizations, as well as in national political life; by targeted policies and instruments; by providing women with appropriate tools, including role-models and mentoring; and by addressing their issues and concerns in the political process with the creation of parliamentary caucuses on women’s affairs.

B. Ensuring women's participation in reconstruction, peace-building and in policy design in post-conflict by inter-alia implementing the UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security, and by establishing the actual chairs for the women's representatives around the table allowing them to effectively participate in decision-making.

C. Increasing women's participation in economic decision-making processes by promoting representation of women in corporate governance structures as well as in trade unions and employers' organizations; and by mobilising public and private sector resources to support gender equality and empowerment of women in leadership positions.
A. Women’s Leadership in Public Life

- **Key findings**
  - Women’s participation in public life is an area in which significant changes have occurred – for example, increasing women’s representation in Morocco’s Parliament to 21% in 2016 compared to 17% in 2012 and to 0.6% in 1997 and seeing at least 30% representation in over half of countries. Algeria is the first country in southern Mediterranean to have attained more than 30% representation in parliaments (in 2012). In EU, in 2014, 28 % on average of elected members of national parliaments and national governments were women.
  - Countries have strong legal and policy commitments to gender equality: for example, equality laws, constitutional changes, human rights commitments, national strategies, women’s departments/bodies, equalities bodies.
  - Quotas have been adopted by many countries in various forms, focusing mainly on gender quotas for political candidates or seats that are specifically reserved for women. However, they remain a contested issue with some preference for voluntary targets.
  - Despite the various political commitments of countries, several barriers to participation are still present. Factors such as continued stereotypes about women’s traditional roles and values, as well as the multiple responsibilities that they incur in their lives constitute the most important barriers that hinder women’s full participation and access to leadership.
  - There is a lack of specific programmes that are engaging with women directly, outside of quotas, policies and strategies. Some countries acknowledge this absence and describe a lack of access to information, finance, opportunities for external training, programmes for building leadership capacity and media support.
  - The most pressing issues to address are: a) developing an understanding of the current situation and the needs of women through research, information systems and data production; b) a strong social, political and cultural drive towards supporting change through advocacy and awareness campaigns; and c) programmes that support women, promote participation and ensure changes implemented.

**Overview**

Within the UfM region, there are mixed levels of representation within parliament, local government and the judiciary. The judiciary tends to have better representation, although this does not necessarily translate into senior roles. The following table represents the figure for women’s representation for those countries that produced a report (see appendix for further details):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Algeria</td>
<td>32% (2012)</td>
<td>17% (2012)</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>15% (2015)</td>
<td>2% (2012)</td>
<td>42 women judges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>27%/25%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>75% with 25% in senior positions</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
National commitments include the introduction of quotas that has effectively increased gender parity in public life, strong legal and policy commitments to gender equality more generally including in public life, several awareness raising activities, and some effective training and outreach programmes for women to facilitate their access to the public sphere. However, given the gap registered compared to men’s participation, overall, there is considerable room for improvement to offer consistent practical efforts to engage directly with women and prepare them for public life, as well as challenging the stereotypes that ultimately block their involvement. The OECD notes that although female participation has increased, overall worldwide they are still far from equally represented. Stereotyping is a major barrier, including norms about women’s capacity for leadership and public office and there are also practical restraints, such as work environments that do not meet the needs of women in relation to caring responsibilities and less access to the financial and social support that is necessary to progress.

**The Gender Gap in Public Leadership**

Gender equality in the public workforce helps both to maximize talent and to improve the quality, reach and targeting of public services. It ensures productivity and growth (OECD 2016). Women’s participation in public life is an area in which significant changes have occurred in UfM countries. Even in countries with higher representation in Parliament, there may be a lack of female participation within senior positions in Government and advisory bodies, local government, and the judiciary. Women’s representation in Parliament amongst the UfM countries is still at 30% or lowers for many countries except in Algeria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, Germany, Netherlands, Slovenia, Spain and Sweden. In addition, research indicates that the portfolios allocated to women are often in the areas considered more ‘feminine’ and rarely are women appointed to more powerful decision-making departments (finance, defence, security etc.). The situation in the southern Mediterranean countries is well behind the worldwide average, with most countries having much less than the 20% representation. However, progress has been made as in Algeria. UfM countries have appointed several women ministers, female ambassadors, and some have elected female mayors in major cities. The presence of women in traditionally male-dominated ministries, such as Ministries of Interior and Justice, has increased over the past decade (OECD 2015).
Quotas

Quotas have been adopted by many countries in various forms, focusing mainly on gender quotas for political candidates or seats that are specifically reserved for women. Quotas can be formulated in different ways – minimum requirements, set targets, framed in a gender-neutral way (i.e. a minimum of 40% of either gender), reserved seats, or restricted to selection and listing of candidates, as well as voluntary or legislated, and with or without sanctions. The nature and implementation of quotas is a factor that will contribute to their effectiveness. It is undeniable that countries who make use of legally binding quotas see a significant increase in women’s participation, this has been shown to be the case in UfM countries. However, the use of voluntary targets are an excellent alternative as this can lead to a greater commitment or “ownership” towards participation and less of an attitude that the positions were not ‘earned’ by women who are filling quotas.

Quotas are generally more embraced in the EU than in southern Mediterranean. However, Tunisia, Egypt, Jordan, Morocco and the Palestinian Authority have started to adopt gender quotas (voluntary party quotas, reserved seats and legislated gender quotas and there has been a rise in women’s participation as a result (OECD 2015). An example of best practice is in Spain, whereby quotas are gender neutral (no more than a 40/60 gender ratio) and they are spread across functions - local, Congress of Deputies, European Parliament and Regional Parliament – and in Finland, where quotas of 40% are imposed across a range of functions, including government committees, advisory boards, working groups, municipal bodies, and other executive and administrative bodies.

Quotas continue to be an area for debate. Women are being asked to ‘prove’ themselves in ways that men aren’t – there is still an assumption that women may not have the skill (as opposed to the reality that they have not been given fair representation). One approach to combat this, taken by certain countries such as France, is to implement financial sanctions. However, this does not guarantee a commitment to gender equity and may even lead to people doing the bare minimum or even simply choosing to bare the costs. As an alternative, some countries have embraced the concept of voluntary quotas combined with greater transparency in order to increase commitment to the targets that they set and to be held accountable in the public arena by reputation.

Quotas are not the only measure available to countries that wish to improve gender equality in public leadership (OECD). The government can create incentives by restricting access to funds and other forms of support to parties that are failing in other respects – such as not promoting their female candidates or not establishing gender equality (in the absence of strict quotas).

Other Measures to Expand Women in Public Life

Another, but possibly most crucial layer to promoting the participation of women in public life is to pursue specific activities that foster this change. Whereas changes in the law – in particular, quotas – and other activities such as research and awareness raising are important, it is in taking these commitments one step further by actively engaging with women to promote participation that ensures these changes are implemented. UfM countries are making changes within public bodies to better accommodate the realities of women’s lives (see below in relation to work/life balance). A range of successful programmes have been introduced that actively encourage women to network and be engaged in public life, these include networking opportunities, training platforms for sharing information and experience, and a more gender aware approach to recruitment.

However, despite these successes, there is a call from countries and civil society organisations to do more to change the context in which women work as these new ways of working are likely to drive forward change more effectively. There is a lack of other specific programmes that are engaging with women directly. Women may be employed in the public sector because of job security and working hours but do not hold leadership positions - they are missing public policies, business environments that are conducive to promoting leadership (see section on corporate leadership), opportunities for external training, programmes for building leadership capacity, and education aimed at promoting
this aim. Specific programmes are needed to really engage with women and meet their needs so that they are better able to step into these public positions. Without this, women are blocked from the workplace for reasons that have nothing to do with their value in the workplace. Instead, public bodies miss out on the skills and contributions of women.

The OECD (OECD 2016) notes that advancement in the public arena is linked to earlier parliamentary and junior ministry experience. The OECD also recommends a number of strategies to recruit and retain women:

- Sponsorship
- Mentoring
- Building confidence
- Leadership development programs
- Access to networks
- Cultivating women’s interest to run for office
- Actively recruiting women

Programmes that provide personal and work development opportunities for women, challenging public perceptions of their role and contribution to their societies can help to boost the self-confidence of women, empower them and help them realise their potential to achieve success in personal and public life (ODI, forthcoming).

Box: OECD framework on gender equality in public life

The OECD, under the leadership of the Directorate for Public Governance and Territorial Development, works to advance Gender Equality in Public Life through supporting member and partner countries in implementing OECD Council’s Recommendation on Gender Equality in Public Life (2015). Within this framework, the OECD promotes the following priorities:

- Good governance and accountability for gender equality (at national and local levels)
- Gender-responsive policies, laws, statistics
- Gender equality in public employment;
- Access to justice for women – with special focus on ending gender-based violence;
- Gender balance in leadership in public institutions (at national and local levels);
- Women’s participation in political decision-making at the legislative, executive and judicial levels, specifically by;
- Making legislatures transparent, equitable and gender-sensitive and;
- Empowering (actual and potential) women parliamentarians and strengthening their capacity and skills at the national and local levels and;
- Improving public consultation capacity of parliaments and women’s CSOs in law-making processes.

In order to achieve the above the OECD leads and supports a number of key actions:

- Participatory governance reviews – also including legislative reviews;
- Documentation and sharing of good practices;
- Policy dialogue opportunities for increasing public sector’s awareness, sensitivity and capacity to implement gender equality provisions, including peer-to-peer dialogue;
- Capacity building of women already and/or potentially covering public officials’ posts (women in public administrations, parliaments, executive and judiciary, as well as
women running for elections);  
- Development of tools for policy implementation and monitoring – including development of gender equality indicators - while looking at actual impact on men and women’s lives; 
- Gender-responsive and sex-disaggregated data collection.

**Work-Life Balance**

Structural efforts are needed to ensure that public institutions are fostering an environment guaranteeing work-life balance and promoting share of households’ responsibilities and reconciliation policies, also for men. This includes promoting work-life balance through flexible working (all the way up to the most senior levels), law and policy to prevent harassment and discrimination, provision and or incentives for accessible, affordable and quality care services for dependent people (children, elderly and people with disabilities), holding parliamentary business (such as meetings) during reasonable hours and rearranging schedules to accommodate care responsibilities (OECD 2016).

Improving information and technology services can ensure that employees are better able to work from alternative locations, including introducing voting using technology. This ensures that working parents can participate in public life even when they need to be at home or elsewhere due to family or other responsibilities. This must be accompanied by a change in culture that allows people to work from elsewhere when it is not necessary for them to be in the office – as opposed to insisting that they are visible and present when they could be working from elsewhere. It also requires a change in culture that doesn’t insist that people work overtime and excessive hours.

These changes are being embraced by UfM countries, with evidence of both small and large changes in this regard. For example, Spain introduced telematics (virtual) voting, there is widespread protection against harassment and discrimination in all UfM countries, many countries are providing better childcare facilities, and paternity and maternity leave are being supported. However, more could be done in relation to flexible working, providing support for care responsibilities, and shifting into a culture where the realities of women’s (and parent’s more generally) lives are better understood and accommodated.

**Women’s Political Engagement**

Further, a key element of ensuring women reaches top-level positions and parliamentary representation is to foster women’s political engagement more generally. In the North as in the South of the Mediterranean, women are unlikely to choose a career in public life if they have not first been encouraged to take an interest and are not already actively engaged citizens. An OECD report demonstrates that MENA countries have effectively adopted specific initiatives that increase the engagement of citizens, including women, in the policy making process (OECD 2015). The effective strategies identified include:

- Providing education or training on policy and politics in general (Egypt, Lebanon, Jordan, Tunisia, Morocco and the Palestinian Authority).
- Designing consultation activities geared towards and attended only by specific groups (e.g. women or men only, female or male immigrants only, female or male elderly persons only – Egypt, Jordan, Morocco).
- Offering translation services or multi-lingual consultation mechanisms (Jordan, Tunisia,
• Supplying resources to support specific groups that are least engaged in the policy-making process (Egypt, Jordan and Morocco).

The EU, having more fully embraced quotas and gender mainstreaming, would also benefit from adopting measures that promote political awareness and engagement in order to ensure that the formal requirements have full effect. EU countries have reported introducing a range of interventions to increase political engagement, including setting up networks and engaging with civil society organisations.

Research, Campaigns and Awareness Raising

In order to ensure that gender parity in public life is obtained, there must be a) an understanding of the current situation and the needs of women and b) a strong social, political and cultural drive towards supporting change. Research, campaigns and awareness raising contribute both to building this understanding of the status quo, gaps, and areas of need, as well as influencing both citizens and decision makers to understand the benefits of promoting the aim of gender parity and stronger participation for women in public life. In addition, follow up is needed with regard to women who have got into the relevant decision-making posts so that UfM countries better understand their experience of being in the posts as well as the experience of people who did not ascend.

Research and monitoring is a key element of strengthening accountability while keeping gender issues in the spotlight. It is also a way of ensuring that issues that may affect the progress of women in public bodies are identified. UfM countries are pioneering the practice of research and monitoring in a number of different ways, including setting up national observatories for monitoring the implementation and impact of policy and legislation. Other approaches include research that engages with the public, which can be combined with awareness raising, and engaging with academics to produce research.

A recent report found that evidence-based advocacy underpinned by action research findings can provide important support to women’s political engagement, particularly in challenging institutional, legal and policy contexts through gradual and localised approaches and by leveraging CSOs networks, as the British Council’s Women Participating in Public Life project in Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Libya, Morocco, Palestinian Territories and Tunisia demonstrated (ODI, forthcoming).

Box 5: Examples of Programs to promote change in promoting women in public life

**Morocco** - promoting women’s leadership in local authorities through their training promoted by the Local Government Directorate (DGCL)

**Turkey** – Gender Equality and Gender Training Programs organised to exchange knowledge and experience with officials working in public institutions/organisations

**Germany** - In a bid to convince more women to become active in local politics and to network local government politicians across parties, the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth set up the *Helene Weber College* to provide a forum within which committed female politicians in local government can exchange experience. It also offers prizes whereby women receive individual coaching and mentoring

**Tunisia** – the *Youth and participation in political and public life project* encourages young people of both sexes aged 15-29 to manifest their desire to invest in public and political sphere. Training sessions for women in the field of participation in political life, preparation for elections – includes human rights, policy and administrative management of municipalities and regions, communication and electoral techniques.
Training sessions in the regions, interviews and collection of testimonies from women who aspire or participated in political life are the main materials of this project.

**Algeria** – involvement of civil society, particularly in rural areas, through the launching of a campaign to encourage greater women political participation (Centre d’information et de documentation sur les droits de l’enfant et de la femme). In addition, the national strategy for the integration and promotion of women and its multisector action plan which is implemented in coordination with the different actors involved in women’s issues.

**Egypt** - The Creation of "The Political Qualification Center for Women" that had worked for about three years, during which several political development programmes were implemented for women to encourage them to engage in political action through the sensitization programmes for women’s political rights.

**Jordan, Morocco, Egypt** – have established units to embed gender equality in public sector human resources management processes to improve recruitment and progress of women in the public sector (OECD 2015).

**Palestine** – training for female council members and women leaders, a capacity building program for female employees in the public sector to enhance their leadership skills.

**Political and Economic Crisis**

Economic and political difficulties hinder women’s progress in public life. Stretched resources, savings and/or cuts in public services, and a freeze on employment in the civil service all mean that women are less likely to ascend.

Political unrest in Southern Mediterranean countries and the economic crisis in both the EU and MENA have created an enormous burden on countries in the region. Southern Mediterranean countries affected by conflict (whether in their own country or adjacent countries) are under tremendous economic and social strain that hinders their ability to provide the support and services that they would like in order to empower women. In general, however, although women are marginalised from key decision-making positions, they are nevertheless playing a critical role in the political transition process within southern countries.

The main issue in the EU was the economic crisis. Cutting down public expenditure and in public services has been the most common reaction to the crisis in Europe, which impacts on the ability of countries to provide the services to address the crucial issue of women in public life. Research shows that cuts in public spending tend to have a disproportionate negative impact on women and thus undermine gender equality. Lay-offs and wage cuts in the public sector have a big impact on women, because they constitute the majority of public sector employees. 69.2% of public sector workers in the EU are women. Cuts in services and benefits may be particularly felt by women, because women are more dependent on public services such as childcare than men, and because various benefits play a more important role in their overall income. In addition, when savings are being made, funding for women’s rights and gender equality is often among the first to be reduced. To date, no country has assessed the impacts of the proposed cuts in public spending from a gender perspective, neither of the individual measures nor of their cumulative impact. In some countries, women’s organisations have conducted independent gender impact assessments of the proposed austerity budgets. For example, in the UK it has been estimated that women are hit twice as hard by cuts in benefits and changes in taxation.

**Recommendations**

**General Commitments**
• Promote an understanding of the current situation and the needs of women in political life, through research, information systems and data production.

• Develop a stronger case on the benefit of more women in public life and the positive impact of different levels of representation on decision-making and performance.

• Work towards shifting targets to 50/50 as opposed to the critical mass of 30%.

• Promote a strong social, political and cultural drive towards supporting change, through advocacy and awareness campaigns.

Accountability/Implementation

• Country commitments should be backed up with monitoring against concrete indicators (impact indicators included).

• Independent evaluations and qualitative research on lived experience in order to check that the policy changes are having a real impact in the field. Engagement at a local level to hold public bodies accountable to properly implement policy, such as grassroots monitoring (not to be confused with grassroots awareness raising).

• Ensure that women have access to parliamentary and other leadership roles that do not limit them to ‘women’s’ issues or responsibilities so that women are not stereotyped at a horizontal level. Also, address issues of work/life balance.

• Expand commitments to voluntary or compulsory targets so that women’s representation greatly increases. In addition, review legislative frameworks to remove indirect discrimination of women that prevents their advancement.

• Implement systems of monitoring and transparency in relation to recruitment at all levels in public office.

• Evaluate the impact of quotas (which could be referred to as ‘legally binding targets’), promoting their effectiveness and encourage the use of legally binding quotas at least on the temporary basis. Adopt the use of sanctions alongside quotas.

• In the absence of quotas, implement a system of voluntary codes and targets alongside transparency and publishing progress towards these goals.

Engaging with women

• Introduce measures to engage with women who are in decision-making posts and review their needs, experiences and any gaps or barriers identified (research, programmes that make work/life balance easier, mentoring and training on leadership...etc.).

• Implement leadership development programmes in a range of contexts – from University level to Parliament and expand women’s networks.

• Encourage women to enter diplomacy, try to become heads of department, vice presidents, chairs, other positions of responsibility, and, to run for office.

• Promote through media, positive stories of women’s engagement in public life and their contributions to society so as to promote role models for women.

Engaging with men

• Male attitudes need to be targeted through awareness and training on gender sensitivity and the advantages of gender diversity. Engage with men to challenge notions of masculinity that promote men as leaders above women and traditional perceptions and gender’s roles.
Engaging directly with policy makers to challenge their practices in terms of recruitment and development of women as well as gender sensitive policy and practice. Raise awareness amongst policy makers of the importance of gender mainstreaming and women's leadership.

B. Women’s Corporate Leadership

Key findings

- Women are still under-represented in top corporate jobs and on boards. EU countries range from 19-30% whereas MENA countries range from 5-14%.
- Although some countries have introduced quotas and other measures such as Governance Codes and public targeting setting, for the most part they have not been embraced.
- There appears to be a lack of training and mentorship for women to promote them to leadership positions. However, there is some good practice, including specific interventions for training women for business in rural areas.
- Accessible and affordable care services for children, elderly and people with disabilities need to be incorporated in business structures where possible. Work/life balance policies are necessary for men to promote the sharing of households and care responsibilities.
- A number of barriers exist to women’s economic participation, meaning that women face difficulties to reach the corporate heights that would lead to obtaining senior management roles.
- Lack of progress in this area should not be confused with failure to address economic empowerment and gender equality in other ways.

Overview

Worldwide, women are still under-represented in top corporate jobs. According to OECD data in 2009, women on average occupied only 10% of board seats in listed companies of 35 countries. In UfM countries gender balance has not been achieved and progress in this area is slow. In Europe in 2014, the proportion of women on the boards of the largest publicly listed companies in the Member States reached 20.2%. In the Middle Eastern and North African region, there are approximately 260 local and international companies committing to the promotion of gender equality through their membership in the UN Global Compact. However, women-held board seats reach only 1% (ADB 2015). This low representation can be partially explained by women’s low economic participation.

Regarding women in Senior Management, some advances have been made in the southern Mediterranean, with a higher number of female CEOs than in previous years. Notably, a few years ago there were no female CEOs of telecom companies and today there are 3, one of which is Orange in Jordan. In Morocco and Tunisia, the Presidents of employers’ association are women. However, the current situation with regard to women’s corporate leadership remains poor. One of the main reasons for this is continued lack of economic activity more generally combined with the fact that
when women are involved and leading businesses this is more likely to be at the level of microfinance or informal work. Lack of leadership is also reflected in the absence of women in trade unions and employee collectives, suggesting that in general women do not have power to influence economic decision-making. The situation is similar in Europe, where women are widely underrepresented in senior management and leadership. This includes a lack of representation within trade unions and collectives and therefore limited influence on working conditions more generally.

**Box 6: Women on boards in the region**

**Morocco**: 5% women on boards of public companies. Based on the findings of a study conducted by the Moroccan Institute of Directors in 2013, presence of women directors at the 500 large enterprises including 75 listed companies is 11% of directors on board. (OECD 2014).

**Egypt**: The percentage of women on corporate boards was 6.7 per cent in 2011, down from 7.6 per cent in 2010. For the top 30 listed companies (EGX 30) there were 7.5 per cent of board members who were women in 2010, and this fell to 6 per cent in 2011. Forty per cent of EGX 30 companies have at least one woman board member. (ILO 2015).

**Jordan**: A study in 2010 found that of the top 50 listed companies, 14 per cent had women board members, primarily concentrated in the banking and services industries. (ILO 2015)

**Tunisia**: A 2010 survey found that 37 per cent of 30 companies surveyed had women board members and the overall percentage of women board members was 5.3 per cent. (ILO 2015)

**France**: 29.7% women on board of directors in Forbes Global 500 Companies – the leader in Europe for gender parity. 12% on supervisory board or board of directors of largest quoted companies

**Germany**: 18.9% on supervisory boards; 5.8% on executive boards. Although numbers have increased there has been a slow down

**Italy**: 22% women on boards of publicly listed companies (June 2014 up from 10% in July 2012)

**Spain**: 19.3% of the total board members in the largest publically listed companies (IBEX 35)

**The ‘Leaky’ Pipeline**

The concept of the ‘glass ceiling’ for women is widely known. However, perhaps a better way of explaining the fact that women are not reaching top level positions in the corporate world is ‘the leaky pipeline’ (ILO 2015). Instead of there being one invisible barrier, there are in fact a number of barriers along the path to senior positions, which means that women are dropping out of the race at different levels and for different reasons, or a combination of these reasons. For example, women may have difficulties relating to accessing finance, work-life balance, corporate cultures that do not accommodate their needs, and undervaluing of women’s work as well as the roles and sectors in which they are most commonly found (for example, STEM, which is male dominated is a more lucrative sector) (OECD 2014).

There is evidence that the pay gap between women and men happens at all levels, from first job to senior management (EC 2011). Linked to this is a ‘glass wall’ phenomenon whereby women are actually segregated within occupations by being responsible for some management function instead of others (such as human resources and public relations) and not others (operations and sales) (ILO 2015). Addressing women in corporate leadership means addressing this leaky pipeline from graduation to recruitment through to progression from management into senior positions.
A strong business case can be made for increasing the representation of women on boards, in senior management and in corporate leadership. Performance is improved, the talent pool widened, and new competencies and understanding is brought to the corporate environment (OECD 2014).

**Measures for Redressing the Balance**

The OECD report (OECD 2014) suggests a number of measures for increasing women’s corporate leadership that include:

- Challenge and transform attitudes and work environment.
- Promote women’s entrepreneurship.
- Support human rights and non-discrimination.
- Ensure the health, safety and well-being of all women and men workers.
- Promote education, training and professional development for women.
- Implement enterprise development, supply chain and marketing practices that empower women.
- Promote equality through community initiatives and advocacy.
- Measure and publicly report on progress to achieve gender equality.

As can be seen, there is considerable overlap with issues related to women’s economic empowerment as many of the issues that affect women economically also affect their ability to access leadership positions – for example, care responsibilities, rights and non-discrimination, and community initiatives. Economic empowerment has been a stronger area of focus for UfM countries as evidenced in their reports. However, there are also several effective measures that relate specifically to women’s corporate leadership that are being adopted. It is also important to highlight the measures that are specific to women’s corporate leadership. These include changing working conditions (such as family friendly policies), training, promoting transparency, and raising awareness of female talent.

**Quotas**

As is the case with women’s participation in public life, a number of countries have adopted compulsory/legally binding or voluntary quotas or ‘targets’ for women on boards due to the fact that they are very effective at achieving gender balance much faster than allowing change to happen of its own accord. However, this is a very polarized issue. Such quotas have also been extended to women in management and other positions (for example, in the case of Germany). As with public leadership, it has been suggested that many women themselves are opposed to quotas, as where quotas are in place they may be perceived to not have achieved their position through merit and talent (ILO 2015). Nevertheless, without quotas progress remains slow amongst UfM countries.

As an alternative to the controversial use of quotas, the OECD (OECD 2016) suggest using measures such as regulatory reforms, disclosure, reporting on gender equality within the organisation, and other tools. Guidance such as the G20/OECD Principles of Corporate Governance the OECD Guidelines on Corporate Governance of State- Owned Enterprises encourage these measures as well as invite companies and public bodies to consider the costs and benefits of boardroom quotas.

These requirements should also be accompanied by other policies that enable women to engage in corporate life. Effective complimentary policy measures include (ILO, 2015):

- Exposing women to all company operations and functions.
• Executive training for women.
• Assigning women managers visible and challenging tasks.
• Mentoring schemes.
• Top level management support for a gender equality strategy.
• Recognition and support for women.
• Making corporate culture more inclusive of both women and men.
• Awareness training for senior managers on the business case for more women in management.
• Flexible working arrangements for men and women (time and place).
• Setting of targets and tracking progress.

Box 7: Good practices in the region

**Egypt**
Companies are participating in the Gender Equality Model Egypt (GEME) initiative launched by the government in partnership with the United Nations and other international organizations. GEME provides private firms with the training to document gender disparities, take corrective action in particular cases, and institutionalize gender equality. Firms self-select into the project, but GEME requires that their human resource departments have sufficient resources so they are able to implement gender equity policies and monitor the results. Ultimately, third-party auditors monitor the firms' human resource practices with an impact evaluation component that determines best practices for use throughout Egypt.

**Spain**
Corporate governance reports must include information on measures that have been taken to seek to include in its board women that would achieve a balanced representation of women and men, as well as measures that have up for the selection procedures are not implicitly biased against the selection of female directors.

The initiative "More women, better companies" promotes the balanced participation of women and men in positions of high responsibility.

Training programmes developed by the IWEO (Institute of Women and for Equal Opportunities) enables women to assume management responsibilities of any type and size of company, including management committees and boards of directors.

The IWEO in collaboration with the Spanish Confederation of Business Organizations (CEOE) is developing a project called “Promociona” promoting the following:

- Sensitizing companies and business organizations to the importance of using all the talent available.
- Training a significant number of talented women to improve their access to positions of greater responsibility and supporting them to assume positions at top decision-making level.

_Source: International Labour Organisation’s report on Women in Business and Management Gaining Momentum (ILO 2015)_
Barriers to Improving Corporate Leadership

All UfM countries describe a continued cultural resistance to women’s participation and as such more is needed on shifting culture and attitudes. Country reports and the literature on MENA and the EU cite several barriers these are:

- An informal labour market where women have a strong presence but at the expense of having a stronger presence in formal markets at every level.
- Patriarchal sexual division of labour that favours men in the workforce and women in the home. This means that women are not being socialised to be part of the labour market—particularly when women get married and have children – women being primarily assigned to domestic and care roles, also other forms of unpaid work such as working on family farms.
- Longer schooling of women.
- Less access to training and even where there is training it is not suitable to their particular needs.
- Discrimination’s attitudes.
- Women are marginalised in the depressed labour market.
- Protectionism aimed at limiting the freedom of women to move freely, particularly in cities and industrial areas.

Recommendations

General Commitments

- Development of toolkits for implementation around specific targets with measurable indicators that are voluntarily adopted and promoted by the Government to corporate institutions. Use voluntary targets that are then formally monitored and enforced once committed to – these have worked for OECD countries.
- Interventions should take the following format for both public bodies supporting the expansion of women’s leadership and corporate bodies themselves:
  1. Roadmap
  2. Self-Awareness
  3. Implementation
  4. Impact Indicators
  5. Performance Indicators
  6. Monitoring of implementation and progress towards goals or targets

Accountability and awareness

- Improve transparency of public commitments and public reporting by companies.
- Consider how to challenge the attitudes of existing corporate leaders in order to better value women’s participation at in management and corporate leadership.
- Consider awareness raising and trainings of women and men in the economic and social benefits of corporate diversity, including gender diversity in management, corporate leadership and on boards.
• Develop awareness raising initiatives using role models and take into consideration the situation of women belonging to vulnerable groups.

**Developing talent**

• Increase participation in trade unions and employer’s associations, as well as to foster social dialogue and cultural change through it.

• Support training and personal development programmes for women that have a specific focus on strengthening women leadership.

• Preparing women for leadership involves encouraging participation and leadership in other contexts – school (early education, secondary schools and universities), clubs, sport, the media, and at home – whereby women and girls are encouraged to take leadership roles and avoiding sexual division of labour. This requires challenging the existing culture and engaging with leaders in these other contexts – also, engaging with parents, teachers, education boards and authorities at all levels of the educational systems, including religious authorities when appropriate.

• Continued measures to improve working condition and work-life balance for all men and women for example childcare and care of other dependant person, transport, flexible working hours

• Promote networks and synergy amongst women in leadership so that they raise each other up.

• Develop programmes that encourage leadership amongst women in different contexts – for example, a programme for rural women, disabled women, and recent graduates.
Chapter 5
Women’s Economic Empowerment

THE PARIS MINISTERIAL DECLARATION, 2013

I. Equal rights of women and men to participate in the political, economic, civil and social life

A. Ensuring gender equality in employment by granting equal access to full employment, equal pay and social protection; by promoting healthy, safe and harassment free working environment; by ensuring safe transport to and from work; by combating involuntary part-time work as well as by providing conditions to reconcile family and work life, including paid maternity and paternity leave, strengthened pregnancy and maternity protection for women in the workplace, equal division of care and household chores between women and men, child care and of other dependent persons.

B. Improving women’s employment in the private sector by addressing mismatch between skills taught in schools and what the labour market demands; by guaranteeing equal access to good quality education, by promoting women’s education and training in scientific and technical universities and similar institutions, introducing life-long learning programmes for women and encouraging private companies to introduce training programmes for graduate women; by encouraging the private sector and foundations to invest in programmes and capacity building for women-owned enterprises and career development opportunities for women and girls; and by supporting the recruitment, retention and advancement of women and girls in science, technology and innovation through transparent criteria.

C. Promoting women’s entrepreneurship, self-employment and economic independence and empowerment by undertaking legislative, administrative, social and educational measures to provide women with full and equal access to and control over economic resources, in particular to ownership of land and property, including through inheritance; to credits, loans, information, as well as to natural resources and knowledge about technologies; and by encouraging financial institutions to apply a gender perspective to their products and services and to provide micro-credits to women.

PRIORITY ISSUES COVERED, DECIDED BY THE WORKING GROUP ON ECONOMIC PARTICIPATION

1) Policies to reduce informal work: these should include social protection and policies that support employment as it was considered that if informal work is reduced employment is likely to increase and vice-versa if good measures to foster employment are promoted they will reduce informal work.

2) In terms of entrepreneurship measures in favour of women’s access to finance and to markets should be adopted. Access to markets should include international markets and how women’s companies can evolve to reach international markets. Access to finance should not solely relate to micro-finance but also include loans that can enable small, medium and large companies to grow and prosper.

3) Policies that promote work-life balance should include child and elderly care, paternity leave, domestic work and part-time work. They should be specifically included as they can have a positive impact on women’s participation to the economy.
Within UfM countries, women continue to experience more obstacles than men to accessing both business and employment opportunities with a labour market. For many, this is exacerbated by a labour market that is harder to access and less stable due to economic austerity and political transitions (UNW 2016). Despite higher levels of women in high education, the rate of

**Key findings**

- Women’s economic empowerment is an area in which all countries are strongly committed to making progress. However, there are mixed assessments within UfM countries about how much progress has been achieved.

- Political crisis and economic difficulties have strongly impacted on the ability of countries to respond to all the needs of women. On the other hand, some countries perceive themselves to have achieved equality.

- Overall, there are a range of innovative approaches being adopted by UfM countries in order to redress the balance, even in the context political (for example, lack of gender mainstreaming), cultural (for example, gender stereotyping) or economic barriers.

- In addition to measures that directly attempt to empower women economically, other complementary measures were described that help to foster an environment of change. They include: education, promoting equal opportunities, research and monitoring.

- The context of conflict and other strong political influences cannot be forgotten. Jordan in particular describes an economic crisis due to the Syrian conflict and influx of refugees that has led to extreme pressure. This challenges their ability to further their progress towards women empowerment.

- It is impossible to completely eradicate informal economy, which constitutes the main revenue source of great part of population, particularly in the southern Mediterranean countries. Instead, it is more realistic to adopt measures and tools to valuate women work and support capacity building programmes to allow the transition from informal to formal enterprises.

- Women’s entrepreneurship should not be an option that is only driven by necessity. Projects should ensure that women are able to build thriving and sustainable businesses and there should be more opportunity to build larger scale enterprises, particularly in relation to access to finance.

- It is essential for a legal framework that aims to protect women to avoid *protectionism* whereby women become marginalised from the labour market (night work forbidden for women as an example).

- There are a range of approaches available to countries such as: maternity leave, support and protection of women’s employment; paternity leave; adoption leave; childcare; flexible or part-time working; remote working; support and job protection for parents with a sick child. These measures concern both women and men and have a positive impact on families. However, they are particularly essential for women. At present, such measures are not being fully adopted.

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**Overview**

Within UfM countries, women continue to experience more obstacles than men to accessing both business and employment opportunities with a labour market. For many, this is exacerbated by a labour market that is harder to access and less stable due to economic austerity and political transitions (UNW 2016). Despite higher levels of women in high education, the rate of
participation in the labour market in Jordan is only 13.2%, in Algeria only 19.4%, in Morocco 25% and in Egypt 18.4% (the rate has been fluctuating), and in rural areas of Tunisia a rate of only 18.5% (though this improves in urban areas at 39.8%). In EU countries, gender gaps in employment have narrowed in recent years, with women representing almost half of the employed workforce (46%).

Where women are participating in the labour market, their roles continue to be more limited than those of men. Women are more concentrated in informal employment or small businesses and microenterprises. The opportunity to expand into larger scale businesses – ones that have the potential to create more jobs – are limited. UfM countries are pursuing initiatives that support women to move out of informal employment, that help women to access opportunities in microenterprise and small business (in recognition that this is still a worthwhile option for many women), but also to expand the opportunities offered to women including better access to finance and support to grow larger businesses.

**Economic Participation**

UfM countries describe economic participation as a complex issue that incorporates a number of factors that combine to impact on women’s access to opportunity and ability to thrive. The barriers to participation described by UfM countries in their reports include:

- Weak economies or economies in crisis.
- Social norms and cultural traditions.
- Stereotyped division of roles.
- Laws and regulations not being fully enforced.
- Absence of a gender friendly workplace (nursery, transport, flexible working hours).
- Lack of opportunity in rural areas due to lack of job opportunities, skills and education, poor local economies, and lack of adequate transport that would allow women to seek work elsewhere.

In particular, parenthood affects men and women’s employment in disproportionate ways. Women are more often involved in child and elderly care duties when care services are lacking or not meeting the needs of full-time working parents. In this respect, little progress has been made within UfM countries and is an area that calls for greater attention.

**Crisis and the impact on Economic Empowerment**

The political crisis situations that have occurred in MENA countries, such as the impact of conflicts and political transitions on surrounding countries, has negatively affected the possibility for women’s economic empowerment. The economy suffers and fewer job opportunities become available (WB 2013).

In both MENA and the EU, economic concerns are impacting the situation of women. In MENA, economic growth has fallen in the region due to reductions in tourism and exports and raised import prices, the drain on resources of conflict and instability, lack of jobs, and other forms of social unrest (ETF 2014). In Europe there is a precarious economic situation, which gives rise to similar concerns relating to unemployment and public services (UNW 2016).
Legal Frameworks

There is a strong recognition within all the country reports that women’s economic empowerment is vital for sustainable development and the economic wellbeing of nations (this is particularly emphasised in the country reports of Tunisia, Morocco, Palestine, and Algeria). To this end, there is a legal and policy structure that reflects gender equality in each country. This includes government departments that promote the rights of women, laws that establish gender equality, constitutional protection of women’s rights, and national strategies to promote gender equality both generally and in specific contexts (see section on public leadership). However, The Council of Europe’s 2014 Report on the Euro-Mediterranean region (CoE 2014b) suggests that inadequate legal protections remain a significant barrier, beyond simply issues of equal pay.

Laws that tackle women’s economic empowerment specifically have been introduced in the UfM countries with some success but their impact depends on implementation and other complementary measures. An example of best practice in relation to legal frameworks is Spain’s Organic Law for Equal Opportunities, which promotes a range of equality protections in relation to the labour market.

Further, all country reports contained evidence of either national employment strategies and/or laws relating to equal treatment and non-discrimination. In France, the law of August 2014 that promotes rebalancing in favour of women in business has had limited success in practice despite, for example, obligations to creating internal action plans in relation to gender. Although there may be formal requirements, these do not necessarily translate into practice, mainly because culture and social norms can continue to resist change, particularly relating to stereotyped job roles and creating more gender friendly work environments. One example of best practice is Turkey, which has introduced employer subsidies to encourage women’s employment.

Box 8: Examples of good practices in relation to legal frameworks

Spain

Equal treatment and opportunities between women and men in the labour field is subject to special attention by public authorities, as evidenced by the regulation contained in Organic Law 3/2007, developed by the Strategic Plan for Equal Opportunities and other measures contained in the national Employment strategies and annual Employment Plans, as well as in different legal provisions.

Organic Law 3/2007, and its implementation through the Strategic Plan for Equal Opportunities, are focused on equality of treatment in the labour field:

Axis 1 of the Strategic Plan: Priority given to “equality between women and men in the work sphere, and the fight against wage discrimination”.

Goals:

- Prevent sex discrimination when accessing employment.
- Promote equal treatment and opportunities in companies.
- Fight against the gender pay gap.
- Promote female entrepreneurship.
- Promote equal treatment and opportunities in the public sector.
- Promote the employability of women belonging to especially vulnerable groups.

The Spanish Employment Strategy 2012-2014: aimed at promoting employment of active population, as well as increasing participation in the work market, improving productivity and quality in a sustainable job market based on equal opportunities, and social and territorial cohesion. The sixth goal of the document is to “promote gender equality in the labour market”.

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The Spanish Strategy for Employment Activation 2014-2016 includes in its guiding principles the guarantee of effective equal opportunities and non-discrimination in the labour market, paying special attention to groups with greater needs. For this purpose, axis 4 focuses on equal opportunities in employment access, including actions to promote equality between women and men in employment access, permanence and promotion as well as reconciliation of personal, family and working life.

The Annual Plan on Employment Policy sets each year the goals of the previous two strategies. The Spanish Strategy on Corporate Social Responsibility 2014-2020 establishes measures such as the need to promote diversity in the workforce, by means of an equal opportunities policy, supporting initiatives such as the “Business Equality” Label (also in Act 3/2007, 22 of March).

Regulatory provisions in employment affairs:
- Royal Decree-Law 11/2013 of 2/8 for the protection of part time employees and other urgent measures in the economic and social orders (passed as Law 1/2014 of 28/2, with the same title). It reviews, in compliance with case-law regarding this issue, the access mechanisms to Social Security benefits for people working on part time contracts to prevent any indirect discrimination.
- Royal Decree-Law 16/2013 of 20/12 on measures to favour stable hiring and improve workers’ employability. It sets forth measures to promote job stability.
- Pursuant to Regulation (EU) No 1303/2013 of the European Parliament and of the Council laying down common provisions on the European structural and investment funds (ESIFs) 2014-2020, the opinion on equality has been added as a requirement to when elaborating the Spanish operational programmes funded with structural funds.
- Pursuant to Title IV of Organic Law 3/2007 of 22/3, actions to eliminate or reduce gender gaps in the labour field have been implemented and developed: promoting women employability, job security, self-employment, etc.

Turkey

Legislative amendments aim to increase the employment of women through encouraging the employment of women by subsidizing the employer premiums; the number of women who benefited from this was 149,589 by August 2014.

Measures to Complement Legal Frameworks

Despite the provision of labour laws, the World Bank Report (WB 2013) acknowledges that that this is not on its own sufficient to address inequality. For example, it points out that:

- The enforcement of anti-discrimination laws is uneven.
- Equal pay provisions are undermined by inequalities in nonwage benefits, such as child and family allowances, which usually are paid to the husband.
- Laws that require firms to pay for maternity leave and child care facilities are functioning as disincentives to hiring women (nb: this indicates a need for further protection/culture change).
- Pension laws mandate a retirement age earlier for women than for men, reducing women’s pensions and their career advancement.
- Women are banned from working in certain industries that are deemed dangerous, hazardous, or morally harmful to their reputation.
- Women also often are barred from working at night.

All of these factors place restrictions on women that limit their economic participation and call for equality laws that cover a range of factors, as well as their subsequent implementation, thus
further underlining the best practice of Spain, which has addressed inequalities at a number of levels through their laws. Additionally, the implementation of laws must be accompanied by actions that support women’s participation in a range of contexts, such as employability programmes, access to quality education, research to understand women’s needs and the effectiveness of interventions, monitoring of progress in this area, skills matching (including expanding vocational training), and building strong support structures and networks. UN Secretary-General’s high level panel on women’s economic empowerment recommended this comprehensive approach, pointing out that progress means addressing a range of needs just as much as ensuring legal protection (UNSG 2016). A number of these interventions have been adopted by UfM countries. In particular, access to education and equality in education have been improved and monitoring and research is being expanded. Skills matching has been acknowledged as essential, particularly in times of economic crisis where the job market is more limited. In addition, networks, support, and training are being implemented.

### Box 9: Examples of Measures to Complement Legal Frameworks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Has a new legislative project on equal pay - The Equal Pay Act that includes a requirement for companies with 500 and more staff to disclose in their status reports the policies they have put in place to advance women and their impact and their activities to ensure equal pay for women and men. It is gives individuals the right to access information about pay differentials, e.g. the metrics/criteria applied in calculating the individual's own pay and pay for comparable work as well as the grading/pay category of this comparable work. Companies are to be called on to assume responsibility for eliminating any proven pay discrimination by means of binding procedures (in co-operation with staff and labour representatives).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>The Equal Pay Programme addresses a serious problem in Finnish working life. On average, women's pay based on regular working hours is about 17% less than men’s. The Government and the central labour market organisations have taken on a commitment to promote equal pay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>In 2013 it was determined, inter alia, the preparation of the first report on Gender wage gaps by branches of activity, with a view to evaluate the wage differences in the various economic activities. In 2014 a Resolution of the Council of Ministers (RCM) determined its discussion in social dialogue which led to the drafting of recommendations proposed by the Government with the objective of eliminating wage differences without objective justification. The theme had sequence in RCM adopted on this subject in 2015, in particular, has created a free technical support to provide to available companies for the implementation of a strategy for the elimination of these differences. It should be noted that, after a growing trajectory since 2005 until 2012, in 2013 there was the first breach of these differences that, according to Eurostat data, fell from 14.8% to 13%, therefore below the European Union average (16.4%). - Two online tools for the analysis of the gender pay gap in companies were developed – Self Assessment Survey on Equal Pay between Men and Women in Companies and Gender Pay Gap Calculator – which are available on CITE’’s website: <a href="http://calculadora.cite.pt/index.php/welcome/home">http://calculadora.cite.pt/index.php/welcome/home</a> - The Gender Pay Gap Calculator allows the measuring of the gender pay gap within the companies and the identification of concrete situations of pay gap between women and men, allowing knowing whether or not these differences are explained by objective factors or by the variable sex. - The companies’ awareness of their own gender pay gap situation will enable them to tackle the underlying causes and correct the gaps uncovered.</td>
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1 CITE - Commission for Equality in Labour and Employment
Reducing the Informal Economy

Unprotected and informal employment is a continued problem in the whole UfM area but particularly in the southern Mediterranean where women are overwhelmingly represented in the informal economy. Microfinance has been one way to promote women’s economic engagement in MENA. Many countries emphasised approaches that involved microfinance as a key element in their fight against poverty. However, there is also a sense that it could be reinforcing the informal economy as it continues to emphasise the kind of work that women do in an informal market at a level of small, local projects built on personal relationships. This can put other forms of economic empowerment in the shadows, such as promoting ‘talent pipelines’ for women to engage in the corporate world and reach higher levels of responsibility and empowering women to build larger businesses (OECD 2014).

As such, there is a difficult balance for MENA countries – overall, a move towards reducing informal work is desirable. However, by supporting women in informal work and making it more visible this can help to protect women and bring them into more formal structures. In addition, the kind and ways of working that women are involved in within the informal economy may better meet their needs. To balance these considerations and address women’s needs, some countries have adopted measures that embrace women’s economic activities at different levels so that women’s work is recognised and supported more generally.

Informal employment is also a problem within EU countries, particularly in relation to domestic work and informal care duties (UNW 2016). One way of combatting this is to take measures to formalise informal work, as in Germany, and to improve working conditions as in Morocco’s strawberry sector.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Box 10: good practices to Reducing the informal economy</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Morocco</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Germany</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Entrepreneurship

Women’s entrepreneurship is growing in UfM countries at the level of small business and microfinance, with far fewer female lead businesses on a larger scale. In this respect entrepreneurship in some sense reflects what is happening within corporate leadership – women are not reaching the upper ends of the entrepreneurship scale and instead are concentrated at the lower end. These small businesses and microenterprises do have a positive impact on women’s lives and help women to be economically empowered. However, women need more options and opportunity so that the full potential of their entrepreneurial spirit can be realised. This would benefit UfM countries in many ways, ensuring that talent and economic opportunity are being properly utilised and potential maximised, ensuring that women are running businesses that give them sustainable financial security and independence, and opening up the possibility of creating more jobs.

Entrepreneurship is both a route out of and an extension of the informal economy at the level of microfinance and small businesses. On the other hand, it also encompasses larger business projects. This fact is often lost in the country reports, with very few countries specifically addressing measures for larger scale investment and entrepreneurial activity. The biggest danger of this is that entrepreneurship is confused with women entering microfinance out of necessity. Some countries have adopted positive measures on funding and financial support for SMEs that have the potential to become larger, with a focus on smaller ventures, tailored financial services, or providing guarantees to access to credit.

In 2012, the percentage of women entrepreneurs active in EU was only 31%. In MENA, Approximately 12%– one in eight - adult women are active in entrepreneurship, compared to nearly one in three men (OECD, 2013).

Microenterprises as a form of entrepreneurship are one of the main tools used for economic development in southern countries in relation to women. Some good practice exists in the region, such as projects that give women’s initiatives visibility and space, which directly combats the intense protectionism of women that keeps them out of public spaces. However, one issue with this kind of entrepreneurship is that it has been adopted by many women as a matter of necessity (UNW 2016). A report on Europe found that one of the main drivers to entrepreneurship is economic necessity due to unemployment (EC 2014) and lack of support available to women if they find themselves unemployed. The danger of this is that entrepreneurship out of necessity does not support the development of thriving businesses.

Some countries have adopted several measures that support microenterprise target for rural women at the same time as developing skills, building capacity for leadership, and expanding co-operatives. Such an approach means that women’s entrepreneurship – whether microfinance or otherwise - is supported to be thriving and sustainable. This approach includes fostering skills and promoting access to entrepreneurial activity. Training is a key element of this. Other measures include programmes to support women entrepreneur initiatives in any phase, access to support networks such as the Chambers of Commerce, and matching women with existing structure and opportunities as well as promoting existing enterprises.

Another area that needs to be addressed with regard to women’s entrepreneurship is access to finance. The majority of financial interventions continue to be around microfinance (particularly in MENA) or small businesses (particularly in the EU). However, access to microfinance (which often has a high interest rate) or starting a small business is not always the better solution for women when pursued as the only option instead of out of entrepreneurial spirit (OECD 2012). Nevertheless, it should not be used as an alternative to opening up other lines of financing and credit within traditional banking models – in other words, it should not be women’s only and last resort.

Lessons can be drawn from this in relation to all opportunities for women in relation to finance and entrepreneurship – where women are at an economic disadvantage, they may be excluded from the
kinds of financial support that would help them to thrive as entrepreneurs. The OECD recommends that banks tap into the full potential of female entrepreneurs and their business potential by creating tailored solutions for women that overcome three key issues: credit history, collateral and business experience, all of which tend to be limited in the case of women entrepreneurs and are keystones to traditional models of lending (OECD 2013).

**Box 11: good practice in relation to promoting opportunity for women**

**Tunisia**
Will support female entrepreneurs who will create between 3,000 and 4,500 job positions by 2020. This support program is to select 50 projects to a minimum in each region. The adoption of a national development policy and promotion of female entrepreneurship that will change the general framework for entrepreneurs through actions covering 6 axes namely:
- The creation of a conducive institutional and legislative framework,
- Improving human capital and encouraging the use of new technologies,
- Improving access to financing,
- The establishment of appropriate support services,
- Facilitating market access and value chain constitution,
- The dissemination and promotion of entrepreneurial culture.
CNFCE (National Chamber of Women Entrepreneurs) plays an important role in supporting women who wish to start their own projects, particularly in the ranks of young graduates.

**Algeria**
In the field of employment, the action plan for the promotion of employment and the fight against unemployment was approved in 2008 and aims to create a competitive economy that creates wealth and jobs one hand and instill a culture of entrepreneurship as a concept destined to gradually replace the mentality of wage labor. And in this regard, a number of tax and special tax measures were introduced to encourage businesses to preserve existing jobs and create new and improve the effectiveness of different employability devices including those for youth.

In the area of employment, the 2010-2014 five-year program has devoted a budget of about 350 billion dinars to support the employability of university graduates and vocational training institutions and supporting the creation and financing various temporary jobs devices.

**Morocco**
*Casa Pionnières*, is cited as a successful case of women’s ‘business incubator’ (an organisation providing technical and financial support to women’s businesses). The business incubator selects proposals, and provides office space and career mentoring through the early critical years of business development. Due to its success, the model was replicated in Rabat in 2009. Between 2006 and 2010, the incubators contributed to the development of some 50 companies in diverse sectors including tourism, training and childcare. The incubators also lead campaigns in universities and colleges to encourage female entrepreneurs. (GSDRC 2013)

**Finland**
- The Equal Pay Programme addresses a serious problem in Finnish working life. On average, women’s pay based on regular working hours is about 17% less than men's. The Government and the central labour market organisations have taken on a commitment to promote equal pay.

**Portugal**
- In 2013 it was determined, inter alia, the preparation of the first report on Gender wage gaps by branches of activity, with a view to evaluate the wage differences in the various economic activities. In 2014 a RCM determined its discussion in social dialogue which led to the drafting of recommendations proposed by the Government with the objective of eliminating wage differences without objective justification. The theme had sequence in RCM adopted on this subject in 2015, in particular, has created a free technical support to provide to available companies for the implementation of a strategy for the elimination of
these differences. It should be noted that, after a growing trajectory since 2005 until 2012, in 2013 there was the first breach of these differences that, according to Eurostat data, fell from 14.8% to 13%, therefore below the European Union average (16.4%).

- Two online tools for the analysis of the gender pay gap in companies were developed – Self Assessment Survey on Equal Pay between Men and Women in Companies and Gender Pay Gap Calculator – which are available on CITE’s website: http://calculadora.cite.pt/index.php/welcome/home

- The Gender Pay Gap Calculator allows the measuring of the gender pay gap within the companies and the identification of concrete situations of pay gap between women and men, allowing knowing whether or not these differences are explained by objective factors or by the variable sex.

- The companies’ awareness of their own gender pay gap situation will enable them to tackle the underlying causes and correct the gaps uncovered.

**Work/Life Balance**

The country reports demonstrate a huge increase in legal and policy support to promote work/life balance. Across all countries the need for these measures was acknowledged, in particular in relation to childcare. The key to promoting measures that support work/life balance is to develop a portfolio of rights and protections instead of having a singular focus. This helps to create an environment that is more ‘women friendly’ and responsive to women’s needs. In Europe, women’s employment rates are much higher in countries where more family-friendly policies are in place (UNW Report 2016). Notably, Monaco listed a comprehensive range of laws that protect work/life balance and families. The need for childcare was particularly stressed in the UN Secretary-General’s high-level panel on women’s economic empowerment (UNSG 2016).

Germany, France and Spain describe a more comprehensive program of measures. Germany stands out with a specific and holistic initiative for balancing family and working life that touches upon childcare, maternity protection and leave, paternity and shared responsibility and balancing care responsibilities more generally. Paternity leave and protection of women while pregnant and after birth are key to this agenda. This includes improving the working conditions of pregnant women while women are still working and then encouraging a return to work through childcare support.

The range of possible legislative protections that are being adopted by countries include: Maternity leave and support and protection of women’s employment, paternity leave, adoption leave, childcare, flexible or part-time working, remote working, support and job protection for parents with a sick child, supplements on contributory pensions for women that have given birth two or more children.

**Turkey**

- Within the scope of “The By-Law on the Working Conditions of Pregnant or Breastfeeding Women, Breastfeeding Rooms and the Child Care Centers” working speed, density and working hours are arranged as much as possible to suit pregnant women according to their suggestions; protective measures are taken against stress caused by working conditions, working hours, working relationships, workload and fear of losing their job.

- “The By-Law on the Working Conditions of Pregnant Women at Night Shifts” provides the following: Women employees should not work more than seven and a half hours in night shifts; employers are responsible for providing transportation to women from work to the nearest center to their houses and vice versa if public transportation is not available.

- With the new regulation, women shall work as a paid part-time employee up to 2 months for the first child, 4 months for the second child and 6 months for third and other children with the condition that the child survives. In the event of multiple births, women shall use one additional month. In the event of disabled childbirth, women shall

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work as a paid part-time employee for 12 months.
- Parents who are civil servants and workers are given the right to work part-time for each child until the child reaches obligatory primary education age. In terms of planning labor and human resources in public and private sector, one of the parents shall benefit from this right for each child.
- If requested, civil servants who give birth and civil servants whose spouse gives birth are allowed up to twenty-four months without being paid from the end of maternity leave and birth date, respectively.

| France | There has been a significant effort to develop childcare services for young children 275,000 additional docking solutions for children under 3 years of which 100,000 childcare places. |
| Egypt | Companies that employ over 100 women must supply kindergarten services at their own expense |

**Avoiding Protectionism and Marginalisation**

It must be noted that some measures that seek to protect women can in fact undermine the autonomy of women and set them apart so that employers are less willing to employ women or do not respect and value their contribution. This issue was raised by MENA countries, whereas European countries focussed more on wider issues such as the gender pay gap and work/life balance. For example, in Tunisia women are prohibited from working at night for long shifts meaning they may be overlooked or viewed as unable to perform their role. Similarly, mandatory provisions for childcare as in Egypt have actually lead to employers simply restricting the number of women they employ to below 100 so that they do not meet the threshold of being forced to provide childcare. Realistically, the provision of childcare can help with work/life balance but it does very little to undermine a culture that resents the imposition of family and pregnancy obligations into working life and whereby men consistently have the trump card because their parental responsibilities are underemphasised due to gender roles. As such, transforming stereotypes and the way that we view men and women’s roles continues to be essential to progress in this area. UfM countries are approaching this in a number of ways, including awareness raising and training, expanding the pool of skills that women offer by encouraging women into non-traditional jobs, gender mainstreaming, and offering both paternal and maternal leave.

**Recommendations**

**General Provisions**
- Research into the lives and experiences of women both before and after their entry into the labour and entrepreneurial market is an essential element of understanding the needs of women and impact of interventions. This should be supported by the gathering of statistical information.

**Law and Policy**
• Remove protectionist legal and policy measures and promote women’s freedom of mobility, workplace safety, and fewer restrictions on their employment.

• Enforce legal provisions that require a workplace to meet the needs of women (and parents/carers more generally).

• Monitor and enforce equalities legislation.

• Ban exploitative lending practices.

Informal Work

• Take measures to formalise the informal work market. Develop an innovative and inviting procedural process that can be an incentive for both women and men to move out of the informal sector ensuring their sustainability, social protection and access to a bundle of financial incentives to reduce the burden of formalization.

• Support women to develop skills relevant for the formal economy: networking, negotiation, and marketing skills and because of the complexity of legal procedures to create businesses and to access to finance. The proposed measures should be supplemented by adequate support programmes to build women capacities at this regard.

• Adapt public policy in favour of women’s access to good quality employment with fair working conditions in order to open up the formal employment market to them.

• Ensure that women’s work is adequately recognized and valued, in particular if the work is executed within the family, and paid according to the applicable legislation of the relevant countries. Also, raise awareness of the benefits of women’s employment and education and the negative impact of gender discrimination, including tackling cultural barriers to growth. This is to ensure that women’s contributions are more formally recognised and therefore reduce insecure and informal work.

• Promote programs that seek to value women, by providing awareness, training, advising and coaching activities on social protection targeted at women and men, including those in the informal sector and other vulnerable occupations.

• Involve actively and systematically civil society including media and academia in this formalizing process.

• Simplified procedures for women working at home and at the informal economy to get registered.

Entrepreneurship

• Measures encouraging banks to ensure that women have access to a range of funding options, not simply for small businesses and microenterprises – including lines of credit that are tailored to the needs of women.

• Match women to existing opportunities and infrastructure, including training women to match skills that are in demand.

• Integrate entrepreneurship curricula in early education and particularly vocational training. Change the mindset towards vocational training.

• Tailored training and mentoring programmes for women, including risk management training so that women do not give up when they encounter initial failure.

• Promote “opportunity recognition” whereby women are encouraged to recognise their skills and interests and to access existing sources of support to promote their entrepreneurship.

• Actively support women-led businesses to grow into medium and large enterprises.
• Better dissemination of *regional* best practices (with similar environments), developing platforms for exchange, connecting and promoting women, enhancing opportunities for market access within the region.

**Work/Life Balance**

• Measures and incentives to ensure equal right of parental leave for women and men, including awareness raising strategy for society and by taking into account the national specific context.

• Promote women’s participation in trade unions by adopting legislative measures to regulate meetings during working hours.

• Introduce flexi-time possibilities and remote work for both parents when justified. Ensure investment to support connectivity and thus foster opportunities for flexible working and entrepreneurship.

• Adopting a holistic approach to work/life balance that includes a range of provisions. Childcare provision should be made a priority and accompanied by measures to promote an equal balance between men and women as care givers. In addition, transport should be addressed. The extent of provisions should be negotiated with the private sector as opposed to imposed as this could hinder progress.

• Improving access to support for women to assert their legal rights and promoting understanding of these rights in employers and employees.
Chapter 6
Violence Against Women and Girls (VAWG)

THE PARIS MINISTERIAL DECLARATION, 2013

A. Addressing more effectively the prevention of and response to all forms of violence against women and girls including domestic violence, sexual harassment and bullying in public spaces when it is being used to intimidate women and girls who are exercising their human rights and fundamental freedoms, particularly freedom of opinion and expression; by adopting coherent and coordinated strategies to prevent and combat all violence against women and girls; by providing appropriate mechanisms of prevention, investigation, prosecution and punishment of perpetrators to end impunity; by ensuring women’s right to equal protection by law, access to legal counselling and to justice as well as the right to adequate healthcare, including sexual and reproductive health, and reproductive rights, in accordance with the Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development, the Beijing Platform for Action and the outcome documents of their review conferences;

B. Promoting education as a tool for the prevention of all forms of violence against women by establishing trainings for all actors concerned by the fight against violence, such as public officials and civil servants, including judiciary, police, politicians, medical professionals, teachers, boys and girls at school; by engaging, educating and supporting men and boys to take responsibility for their behaviour; by creating and maintaining an educational climate that is conducive to equality and mutual respect at schools; and by recognising and addressing the important role the media can play, including the social media, in inciting, but also as a tool for social change in combating violence against women and girls;

C. Educating the trainees on judicial bodies, candidates for judges and deputy public prosecutors on the subject of “Treatment of Women Victims in Court Proceedings” in order to improve judicial protection of the rights of women victims of violence, and implementing the inter-agency partner program of prevention with a review to raising awareness of citizens and reporting violence against women;

D. Preventing and combating all forms of sexual violence and violence against women and girls, including the elimination of domestic violence, human trafficking and harmful practices such as female genital mutilations (FGM), as well as child, early, and forced marriage and ‘honour crimes’ by raising awareness among women and men, boys and girls; by raising the minimum age for marriage to meet the obligations of the UN Convention of the Rights of the Child; by reviewing, enacting and strictly enforcing laws and regulations concerning such issues and by generating social support for the enforcement of these laws in order to eliminate such practises combined with penalties for practising them;

E. Guaranteeing an appropriate framework for women victims and survivors of violence by providing appropriate support services and shelters, professional counselling, childcare and rehabilitation; by establishing telephone helplines for women and girls who are victims of violence by taking the necessary legislation and other measures to prohibit compulsory and forced alternative dispute resolution processes, including forced mediation and conciliation, in relation to all forms of violence against women and girls; and by training of medical and social care professionals, security personnel, police, lawyers and judicial authorities on the social, psychological, physical and legal risks and consequences of violence;

F. Strengthening the role of civil society organizations, in particular women’s and youth organizations, women’s rights defenders, as well as of local authorities and local communities, in the efforts to eliminate all forms of violence and discrimination against women and girls;

G. Recognizing the linkage between women’s economic empowerment and the elimination of violence; developing entrepreneurship as a tool for women to gain economic independence and rehabilitation to a life free from violence; empowering women by boosting self-confidence, bringing them together in networks and making their voices stronger to stand-up for their rights.
Overview

As both a cause and consequence of Gender Inequality, Combatting Violence Against Women and Girls is at the forefront of any gender equality agenda. The prevalence of VAWG has far reaching implications for the health, psychology and wellbeing of women, as well as the economy and society more generally. It is increasingly being acknowledged as an area of concern not only due to the violation of human rights but also due to the consequences for the development of a nation and the economic costs due to reduced public wellbeing, school achievement and productivity combined with costs of health and safety, law enforcement, public programmes and interventions. In turn, this increases poverty and reduces security and development.

The Declaration of the United Nations on the Elimination of Violence Against Women defines VAWG as follows:

*The term “violence against women” means any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women, including...*
threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivation of liberty, whether occurring in public or in private life. Violence against women shall be understood to encompass, but not be limited to, the following:

A. Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring in the family, including battering, sexual abuse of female children in the household, dowry-related violence, marital rape, female genital mutilation and other traditional practices harmful to women, non-spousal violence and violence related to exploitation;

B. Physical, sexual and psychological violence occurring within the general community, including rape, sexual abuse, sexual harassment and intimidation at work, in educational institutions and elsewhere, trafficking in women and forced prostitution;

C. Physical, sexual and psychological violence perpetrated or condoned by the State, wherever it occurs.

Violence Against Women and girls (‘VAWG’) continues to be a global problem and UfM countries are no exception to this. Across the globe it is estimated that 35% of women have experienced physical or sexual abuse or violence. In Europe, it is estimated that 13 million women had experienced physical violence in the course of a year and 3.7 million had experienced sexual violence. 43% of women had experienced some form of psychological violence by a current or previous partner (statistics cited in UNICRI 2015). In MENA, there is little reliable statistical information about the prevalence and trends in violence against women. However, surveys about women’s experience of violence illustrate the magnitude of the problem. On the other hand, political unrest has undeniably caused an increase in violence against women and girls and has left people more vulnerable and less supported as victims. The impact of VAWG is costly for countries, undermines the quality of life of women, and leads to trauma and disconnection that then results in economic marginalisation.

UfM countries are expanding the protection of victims and the range of services available but are restrained by economic, political and cultural realities. For example, lack of funding for services, focus on some aspects of VAWG as opposed to others, and continued myths and stereotypes by those who do not understand the complexities of the issue.

International, Regional and Legal Commitments

All the UfM countries have affirmed their commitments within CEDAW and other treaties and regional commitment through the UfM Ministerial Declaration on strengthening the role of women in society. They have developed institutions and policy mechanisms and strategies to ensure women’s rights in relation to gender based violence as well as women’s rights more generally. These include implementing violence against women and related strategies, working across departments and both public and private institutions to co-ordinate activities that eliminate violence, scrutinising legislation, implementing equality laws, funding shelters and other forms of service provision, and researching the extent and nature of violence combined with the impact of any interventions.

At the regional level, there are some processes and programmes that target VAWG. In Europe, EUROMED Justice III and EUROMED Police III tackle gender–based violence through programmes that deal with related issues, such as fighting human trafficking or improving access to justice. The
European Instrument for Democracy and Human rights also supports the aim of eradicating VAWG. The EU also finances a project in MENA concerning VAWG in Algeria, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco and the Occupied Palestinian Territory. There are also on-going projects supporting CSOs who are dealing with the issue of gender-based violence in all ENP countries (excluding Syria and Libya). Additionally in MENA, the AWO (Arab Women Organisation) has established a ten-year Arab strategy to combat violence against women (2011-2020) with the slogan “The right of the Arab woman to a life free of violence”. The strategy is dedicated to assisting Arab countries in setting up national plans to combat violence against women.

The first pillar of combatting VAWG is to overhaul the legal system. This includes incorporating changes in the law and backing this up with institutions that are responsible for promoting these protections. All UfM countries that provided a report have introduced legislative changes in relation to VAWG. Examples include, making commitments to building a legal framework that protects women from VAWG, introducing laws against certain aspects of VAWG such a honour killings, FGM and early marriage, and revising the definition of VAWG to include a wider range of offences. Lebanon, Palestine and the Syria, in particular, have abrogated laws which granted extenuating circumstances to murderers in cases of so-called ‘honour crimes’. Egypt, Jordan and Morocco have amended provisions which once enabled rapists to escape prosecution by marrying their victims. Several countries also passed laws to criminalize female genital mutilation. It is apparent that there are mixed results with both progress in a number of areas as well as gaps – for example, in some countries the existence of domestic violence has been confirmed but the protection is limited to the husband/wife relationship. On the other hand, there have been innovative new laws, such as the provisions that involve women being given leave from work while under protection programmes for violence.

Legal measures are generally combined with national strategies and commitments that build a framework for combatting VAWG from a number of perspectives, these include strategy that covers a range of aspects, such as prevention, protection, and support, implementation of national strategies, training of those who provide support to victims, research into the nature and extent of violence in the countries and region as a whole, mainstreaming responses across public bodies, monitoring, and other holistic approaches (see appendix).

However, the fact that laws and systems are in place does not guarantee their implementation. For example, issues of impunity may mean that stricter law enforcement is needed, more timely prosecution of cases, and harsher sentencing (OECD 2015). Another issue is that there may be a focus on one area of concern at the expense of others, such as focussing on issues such as trafficking and FGM at the expense of more common forms of violence like intimate partner violence and sexual harassment (FRA 2014).

### Box 12: examples of national strategies and legal framework

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<th>Algeria</th>
<th>Legislative changes include:</th>
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<td>- A woman is protected against any voluntary or involuntary assault at the hands of her husband (effectively confirming the existence of domestic abuse)</td>
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<td>- Defining forms of violence including domestic violence in all its forms, verbal or psychological, repeatedly affecting the dignity of the victim and affecting her physical and mental health and psychological well-being</td>
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<td>- Revising the definition of domestic violence to include a wider range of acts, such as financial abuse, economic abuse, and psychological abuse</td>
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<td>- Establishing a legal framework that protects women from VAWG, introducing laws against certain aspects of VAWG such as honor killings, FGM, and early marriage</td>
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<td>- Revising the definition of VAWG to include a wider range of offences, such as physical, sexual, emotional, and economic abuse</td>
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<td>- Promoting the implementation of national strategies to combat VAWG, including prevention, protection, and support services</td>
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<td>- Training those who provide support to victims, including legal professionals, social workers, and community workers</td>
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<td>- Conducting research into the nature and extent of violence in the countries and region as a whole, and mainstreaming responses across public bodies</td>
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<td>- Monitoring the implementation of national strategies and following up on the implementation of national strategies</td>
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psychological integrity.

- Economic abuse is prohibited so that a wife’s salary may no longer be confiscated by force, intimidation or fear.

- Introduction of a law to protect victims of sexual violence in public spaces

- Sexual harassment in the workplace is prohibited.

- Elimination of marriage by proxy and setting a minimum age of consent for marriage at 19.

**Italy**

National Plan against Gender-based Violence and Stalking; a new Law: n° 183 in force as of 10.12.2014 (publicly known as “Jobs Act”) provides for a special leave from office on behalf of women that are victims of gender violence and included in duly certified protection schemes. Therefore it is foreseen that women employed both in the public or private sector, can abstain from work for a maximum of three months, for reasons connected with the aforesaid schemes, counting on their full salary and holidays including other benefits and provisions according to their contract. The Law also contemplated that women workers on projects have the faculty to suspend their working relationship for reasons connected to their participation on a protection scheme. The Law also provides the possibility to transform the working relationship from a full time to a part-time status, as well as the opportunity for further modifications, according to the individual need of the working woman, be it in a full time working relationship, or in accordance with her requirements within her protection program.

**Turkey**

The “Law No:6284 on the Protection of Family and Prevention of Violence against Women” prepared within the Ministry of Family and Social Policies came into force in 2012. The Law includes similar regulations with the Council of Europe’s Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence against Women and Domestic Violence (İstanbul Convention), which came into force on August 1, 2014 and of which Turkey was the first party.

**Morocco**

Morocco has prepared a bill to combat violence against women, which was drafted in 2013 and presented to the Government Council who approved it the 17th March 2016. It was adopted by the 1st chamber of the parliament on July 2016 and transferred to the 2nd chamber parliament.

The key results can be monitored at the statistical level in regards to the issues of violence against women, in terms of legal cases registered in court this year, which have decreased compared with last year. According to statistical data from the various courts, 19 199 cases this year involved crimes against women including 20,541 defendants, compared to 20,488 cases recorded last year against 21,590 defendants, for a decrease of 6.29% in the number of cases and 4.86% in the number of defendants.

A number of changes are reported in the country reports, for example, Jordan has committed to building a legal framework that protects women from VAWG and Palestine has reformed the law to combat honour killing and raised the minimum age of marriage from 15 to 18.

**Key Areas of Intervention**

A number of specific areas are relevant to VAWG and addressed within the reports and literature. As one recommendations of this report is to ensure that law, policy and practice addresses all aspects of VAWG, countries should consider progress in each of these areas:
**Domestic Abuse:** this is one of the most comprehensively addressed areas within the reports and the focus of a number of interventions. Nevertheless, enforcement of legislation must be considered. In addition, poor infrastructure and resources in MENA countries and EU countries suffering from austerity has seen a rollback in protection and other services.

**Sexual Harassment:** Harassment occurs in the workplace, on streets and in private gatherings. In some countries, legislation has been introduced to ensure protection is in place. Other issues relating to sexual harassment include factors relating to body image. Specific law expands the legal base for criminalization to include new aspects of violence against women, expands the scope of criminalizing sexual harassment and tightens sanctions on the perpetrators of violence against pregnant women, or against a divorced wife in presence of her children.

**Trafficking and Sexual Exploitation:** Trafficking is rarely addressed in detail within the reports, with the exception of Spain and Portugal who outline in detail a comprehensive strategy relating to trafficking. This sparsity of information in relation to trafficking does not match up with the considerable urgency within international treaties and international institutions. Greece was cited as an example of where trafficking is not being adequately addressed. This is a particular issue as Italy and Greece are primary targets for trafficking. In Greece, the law is not properly enforced and only a small number have been convicted. Some countries such as Morocco, have initiated a process of revision of the Criminal Code in order to adapt to the international conventions ratified by Morocco, including the Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and its Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in human beings, especially women and children.

| Spain       | Law 1/1996 of 10/1 on Free Legal Assistance. Reformed in terms of victims of gender violence and human trafficking by Royal Decree-Law 3/2013 of 22/2 modifying rates regime in the field of Legal Administration and the system of free legal assistance. Women who are victims of gender violence or human trafficking have the right to free legal assistance in any process that is linked to, arising from or are a consequence of their victim status. |

**Rape and Sexual Assault:** Again, this is an area in which there is a gap within the reports with very little that comprehensively addresses the phenomenon (in contrast to domestic violence, whereby a number of mechanisms were described with the majority of the reports). In Europe, one in 10 women has experienced some form of sexual violence since she was 15 years old. Examples of progress include Spain’s new provisions that provide for protecting women from sexual violence outside of a relationship.

**FGM:** FGM continues to be a huge issue within Mediterranean countries, whether MENA or EU. In Mauritania there are staggering levels of female circumcision reaching 69.4% and in Egypt the practice is proving difficult to eradicate despite changes in legislation. EU countries are also affected by FGM. Italy and Portugal have both recently introduced a range of legal provisions to combat FGM. These laws concern the prevention and prohibition of the practice, including providing assistance to victims and data collection in order to understand the phenomenon both nationally and internationally. Portugal also outlines a campaigns strategy to raise awareness of the issue and interventions at the level of health and education.
**Early and Forced Marriage:** Again, this is an issue across UfM countries. France has recently introduced a law which states that the consent of both spouses is required regardless of individual laws and customs – this must be real and valid consent. Similarly, Egypt has introduced a law requiring consent for marriage (as well as a minimum age of 18), although this includes polygamy, which raises issues in relation to discrimination. The political crisis situation in the region exacerbates this - early marriage has been used in Syrian refugee camps with the excuse of protecting young girls.

**Particular Groups of Women:** Additionally, it is important to note that specific groups of women require different forms of intervention. UfM countries have successfully introduced measures that focus on the needs of particular groups of women in accordance with the most pressing issues in their country. For example, in Spain a number of groups in need of specialist attention have been identified and specialist interventions have been focused on these groups, including disabled women (including a new law that prevents secondary victimisation), rural women and older women. In contrast, Tunisia has particularly focussed on rural women in its policy and programs in acknowledgement that this group of women has been harder to reach and support.

**Measures to combat VAWG**

**Protection of Victims:** Protection of victims starts with having laws in place that prohibit and prevent violence. However, the next stage is to implement these laws and to provide services so that women are able to reach out for support, get access to justice, and find information and advice on how to move forward. One example of best practice in relation to ensuring that these laws are implemented is to ensure that women are supported within the legal system through free legal assistance as is the case in Spain, ensuring that there are specialist professionals on hand as with Egypt’s specialist police officers and Tunisia’s use of tools such as protocols, training and management tools to ensure that frontline staff and public bodies are able to respond appropriately.

However, in addition to this kind of legal support, arguably more important is to ensure the wellbeing and safety of victims. In Jordan, for example, there is a focus on personal safety planning and putting the victim first. Another example of putting the victim first are measures to remove the perpetrator from the vicinity of the victim, such as measures cited by Morocco which provide for exclusion orders, including the victim’s home and place of work, and in France, where the general principle is to remove the perpetrator from the home as opposed to the victim. However, examples of good practice include Algeria’s coordinated strategy between a range of stakeholders, which includes legal experts as well as health and wellbeing professionals, Germany’s vast range of support services including counselling services, and Morocco’s plan for strengthening a range of civil society organisations in order to build their capacity to respond.

**Perpetrators:** In general, prevention strategies described in the country reports centre on awareness raising and changing attitudes (see below). However, there are some examples of measures to engage directly with perpetrators to challenge their behaviour, including awareness raising that specifically targets men and boys in Italy and include men in public awareness campaigns in Algeria. One example of best practice is in France where there are specific ‘accountability programmes’ for perpetrators.
Public Awareness: Cultural stereotypes continue to have a strong hold and can contribute to how women are supported in practice and whether laws are enforced. For example, in MENA countries there has been a tradition of not viewing women as a separate legal entity and this has limited the laws that are in place to protect them in terms of personal status, work, retirement and divorce (ALF 2014). This problem with stereotypes also extends to portrayals in the media (HACA 2013), which was raised by many UfM countries in their reports. Tunisia reflects the situation in all UfM countries when emphasising the link between this and women’s rights, stating that women are not sufficiently visible in the media and when they are portrayed it is in a way that reinforces old gender stereotypes (CoE 2014,a).

Public awareness campaigns in relation to prevention of VAWG are mentioned in the majority of the reports: Tunisia, Spain, Italy, Palestine, Germany, Egypt, Morocco, and Jordan. Examples of best practice include in Spain, where there is a dedicated website that gives information and statistics relating to the problem so that people have access to reliable and informative data, and Palestine, where a range of awareness raising activities are mentioned, such as retreats and workshops aimed at both public officials and civil society so that women know their rights.

**Box 13: Strategies to combat VAWG**

**Strategy**
- Implementation of national strategies such as Spain’s “National Strategy for the Eradication of Violence against Women (2013-2016)”, adopted by Agreement of the Minister Council 26/7/2013. It is an instrument merging the actions of public powers to end this type of violence. It is a consistent, coordinated and systemized unification.
- Algeria has a strategy built around prevention, protection, support, participation and partnership

**Training**
- Algeria provides training to enable local stakeholders to women victims of violence, practicing across the country, to improve the quality of their care

**Research**
- Research that explores the scale of violence against women in society, reasons, patterns and effects on women and society (Egypt/Spain) – another example is that Italy has signed a Convention with ISTAT (Italian National Statistical Institute), with a view to conducting a new national survey on “Women’s safety” and Morocco’s national survey on VAW undertaken by the national statistical institute (HCP)³. Italy’s survey focuses on providing updated estimates on physical and sexual violence, the way violence is perpetrated, consequences and risk factors with a particular focus on violence perpetrated by partners and examining psychological, economic, physical and sexual violence.

**Mainstreaming**
- Mainstreaming responses across public bodies – for example, in Egypt a unit to combat violence against women was created at the Ministry. This was followed by the establishment of branches in the security departments and police stations all

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over the country where qualified female and male officers are assigned to receive complaints about violence against women, follow-up and assist the victims in question.

**Monitoring**
- **Palestine** established a system of monitoring through the Supreme National Committee for combating Violence against Women (founded 2008) to follow policy and propose the necessary recommendations in the framework of combating VAWG. The committee is responsible for proposing and amending legislation that protect women, developing national strategy, preparing studies and research, establishing a database, and setting up a technical committee to scrutinise these developments.

**Other holistic interventions**
- Other innovations aimed at addressing VAWG in a holistic manner – for example, in **Turkey** one of the main institutional structures in combating violence against women is “Violence Prevention and Monitoring Centers” (VPMC), established in 49 provinces. VPMC’s are centers where support and monitoring services are provided to prevent violence and effectively implement protective and preventive measures. They also provide effective and prompt services worthy of human dignity, focusing on strengthening women economically, psychologically, legally and socially. It is aimed to establish VPMCs in each provinces of Turkey.

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**Violence Against Women in Conflict Zones**

The safety and protection of women and girls is of particular concern in situations of conflict and displacement. A number of UfM countries are affected by one or more of the following: armed conflict, political unrest, terrorism, influx of refugees, and political transition. The situation in Libya, Palestine, Syria and the influx of refugees due to the Syrian conflict into neighbouring countries such as Jordan have had a particularly strong impact. Numerous reports have recounted the plight of women who have been brutally killed, or abused and turned into slaves by radical groups. Unfortunately, ongoing fighting and strong antagonism between parties in conflict, together with rampant insecurity and the absence of functioning justice systems, has hindered the investigation of crimes against women in most concerned countries of the region.

Displacement, also, significantly increases women’s risk of being subjected to all forms of violence. Extreme poverty, living in unsafe camps with little privacy, or sleeping on the streets, combined with the absence of male family members and social support networks, also render women particularly vulnerable to various forms of exploitation and abuse. The majority of cases of violence perpetrated against displaced women go unreported, due to feelings of shame, a lack of resources, mistrust of authorities, and fear of social stigma (ESCWA 2015).
Violence Against Women in political transition

There have also been significant political changes in transitioning countries such as Tunisia and Egypt. In Tunisia and Egypt, political transition has halted the progress of establishing rights in relation to VAWG. Women post-Arab Spring have been sexually harassed with a degree of impunity on the grounds of indecent exposure. In Egypt, some women found themselves attacked by militant religious men who shouted that they should go home to take care of their families. Even worse, women were beaten back and subjected to electric shocks and virginity testing in order to denounce their credibility. In Tunisia, a study conducted between 2012 and 2015 by the Centre for Research, Studies Documentation and Information on Women, revealed that 53% of women were subjected to violence in public places such as on the street or in the workplace. This is discussed in detail in Egypt’s Beijing report as well as international reports – there was a rise in fundamentalism and a roll back of women’s rights. Now, there is a subsequent renegotiation of women’s rights due to regime change but with limited capacity and drive due to the number and extent of changes that have occurred and stretched resources.

Violence Against Women and Austerity

The northern countries of the Mediterranean have been subjected to other forms of vulnerability that have impacted the wellbeing and the safety of women. For many countries, the 2008 global economic crisis has slowed women’s social and economic progress, including female labour force participation. This in turn leads to greater marginalisation and vulnerability of women and undermines the progress towards eradicating violence against women. The economic crisis and policies of spending cuts and reductions in social services are undermining efforts to tackle gender violence in Europe. The impact has been noted in crisis-affected countries, notably Greece and Spain. The loss of economic and social status and mobility has clear consequences for VAW, as for example the difficulty of leaving a violent partner is clearly significantly complicated by financial limitations. In parallel, austerity measures adopted by countries have led to the deterioration of social provisions: cuts to police and the criminal justice system, cuts to charities working on domestic violence that are funded by local government and wider cuts that structurally contribute to the rise of violence affecting women and children.

Violence Against Women and Extremism

A global study on the Implementation of UN Security Council Resolution UNSCR 1325 showed that exclusion, discrimination, attacks on dignity and structural inequalities are at the basis of conflict and violent extremism (UNSCR 2014). The relationship between terrorism and violence against women has never been more pervasive. Most extremist groups use regressive gender stereotypes to recruit young men. They promise to men power in the form of dominance over women. Some use rape to create group cohesion. In open-conflict areas, economic insecurity also runs high. Widows and daughters of dead combatants are vulnerable to recruitment as messengers, spies, or weapons-traffickers—simply to keep themselves and their families alive. Young women join armed groups as a means of challenging oppressive and biased norms. The opportunity to build an idealized world today attracts many young women who feel marginalized. There is a need to better
understand the causes and motivations that lead women and girls to join extremist groups and to work with religious leaders on changing the religious discourse about the role of women.

The 2016 UfM Regional Dialogue on Women Empowerment stressed the need to recognise women’s skills, contributions, and roles as agents for social change, sustainable peace, stability and fight against extremism, as provide by the UN Security Council Resolution 1325.

**Recommendations**

**General**

- Develop concrete measures, objective and benchmarks at both a regional and country specific level.
- Coordinated work at a regional level to implement obligations.
- Review law and policy to ensure that key aspects of the international legal obligations are being addressed, identifying key gaps to be addressed as a matter of urgency.
- Where law or policy change is not viable in the context of a country, begin awareness campaigns and other activities to prepare the way for a social and cultural shift.
- Develop research, information systems and data production.

**Strengthen Commitment to Eradicating VAWG**

- Publicly challenge the notion that equality has been achieved in some countries and promote campaigns that challenge the phenomenon of sexual harassment and intimate partner violence.
- Eliminate demeaning portrayals of women in the media, at schools and in advertising and promote critical awareness of these portrayals.
- Refocus interventions on the most prevalent issues of sexual and domestic violence and ensure that these issues are monitored and reported on.
- Develop a programme of interventions – public awareness, training, stricter laws and sentencing – that make it clear that abusers will not be ignored or tolerated and will face punishment.
- Urgently support women to assert their rights and promote change through public awareness campaigns that seek to eliminate issues of honour and shame.

**Prevention, Protection, Prohibition**

- Promote, fund and allocate budgets towards VAWG projects, including identifying regional sources of funding where possible in order to coordinate approaches. Make the case for the economic benefits of doing so in the context of austerity/political transitions.
- Support the creation of rehabilitation programs for victims of violence, in particular of sexual violence, including service provision and compensation. In addition, ensure that there are adequate women’s services in relation to protection, prevention, and other forms of support.
• Monitor and gather information and data on violence against women across nations and regionally. Ensure that services are commissioned that respond to need. Calculate the economic cost of VAWG.

• Address the issue of impunity by strengthening legislation while also providing free legal aid and support for women to go through the court process.

• Develop programmes to address perpetrators.

Public Bodies and Other Stakeholders

• Training for police officers, judges, legal professionals and other professionals to ensure that laws are implemented and to be sensitive to VAWG issues.

• Mainstreaming of prevention and protection and coordinating responses across civil society organisations.

• Revise and review school and university curricula to eradicate stereotypes and combat VAWG.

• Raising awareness amongst women of their rights and pathways to support.

• Public awareness campaigns to eradicate stereotypes and involve men in challenging the phenomenon of VAWG

Regional context

• Consider the specific needs of women in conflict, including: supporting countries affected by conflict to develop their VAWG infrastructure, supporting women refugees, involving women in the peace building process, reaffirming women’s rights within constitutions, law and policy in the context of political transition, condemning the use of violence, particularly sexual violence, as a weapon of war. In addition, researching and developing better services for women affected by sexual and physical violence within conflict.

• Recognise the role of women in fighting extremism and identify the causes and motivations that lead some women to join extremist groups.

• Involve and partnering with civil society, religious leaders as well as media to prevent extremism.

• Adopt measures to address the impact of austerity measures on women. In particular, review budgets and policy programmes to ensure that women are not disproportionately affected by any cuts in expenditure. Protect shelters and vital services.
Country reports:

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AfDB. (2015) WHERE ARE THE WOMEN: Inclusive Boardrooms in Africa's top listed companies?
CGCC. (2013) The roles of Women in Terrorism, Conflicts and Violent Extremism
ESCWA. (2015) Against Wind and Tides: A Review of the Status of Women and Gender Equality in the Arab Region (Beijing +20)
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UNSG. (2016). Leave no-one behind: A call to action for gender equality and women's economic empowerment. UN Secretary General’s high-level panel on women's economic empowerment.
Annexes
### Annex 1: Employment rates among women and men

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<td>15.0</td>
<td>63.7</td>
<td>68.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt**</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>71.3</td>
<td>69.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel**</td>
<td>61.42</td>
<td>64.24</td>
<td>70.33</td>
<td>71.53</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan**</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon**</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>73.7</td>
<td>73.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco**</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>68.0</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine**</td>
<td>18.07</td>
<td>20.63</td>
<td>59.57</td>
<td>60.99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source:
* Report on equality between women and men 2014
** European Training Foundation, 2015
### Annex2: Duration or maternity, paternity (if any) leave

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Maternity Payment (%)</th>
<th>Paid Paternity leave</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria*</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>100 % of average earnings if earning, for at least three months prior to the maternity leave, over the mandatory social security threshold</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium*</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>82 % for first 30 days, then 75 %</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria*</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>90% of average income</td>
<td>15 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia*</td>
<td>14 weeks + 24 weeks</td>
<td>100 % of the base for calculation of salary compensation, under provisions on mandatory health insurance</td>
<td>7 jours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus*</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>72 % of the weekly average of the beneficiary’s basic insurable earnings in the previous contribution year</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech* Republic</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>70% of average income in the past 12 month</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark*</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>If the mother is entitled only to benefit and not to wages, she will get 90 % of the wages</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia*</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100 % of average earnings in the preceding calendar year</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Finland*           | 105 days | 90 % for first 56 working days after birth, up to EUR 55 498; for higher salaries, the proportion is reduced  
                              • 70 % of salary after 57 days, up to EUR 36 071; beyond this level, the proportion is reduced. | 9 weeks              |
<p>| France*            | 16       | 100 % of average earnings from previous three months                                   | 2 weeks              |
| Germany*           | 14       | 100 % of average income in the past 13 weeks or three months for dependent             | No                   |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country*</th>
<th>Maternity leave</th>
<th>Remuneration</th>
<th>Maternity leave benefit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greece*</td>
<td>Public sector: 20 weeks; private sector: 17 weeks</td>
<td>Public sector: 100 %, paid by employer. Private sector: one month paid by employer; a social security allowance for the remaining period, which covers most of the wages</td>
<td>2 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary*</td>
<td>24 weeks</td>
<td>70 % of previous earnings</td>
<td>5 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland*</td>
<td>44 weeks</td>
<td>First 26 weeks: EUR 230 gross per week; following 16 weeks: unpaid.</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy*</td>
<td>22 weeks</td>
<td>80 % of average daily remuneration;</td>
<td>1 day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia*</td>
<td>16 weeks, plus two weeks if woman has visited a doctor and registered her condition before 12th week of pregnancy</td>
<td>80 % of gross salary</td>
<td>10 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania*</td>
<td>18 weeks</td>
<td>100 % of reimbursed remuneration, subject to ceilings linked to national average insured income</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg*</td>
<td>16 weeks, but can be extended if birth takes place after due date</td>
<td>100 %, granted on the basis of a medical certificate and treated as period of sick leave</td>
<td>2 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malta*</td>
<td>18 weeks</td>
<td>100 % for first 14 weeks, then EUR 160/week for remaining four weeks.</td>
<td>2 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands*</td>
<td>16 weeks.</td>
<td>100 % of salary paid</td>
<td>2 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland*</td>
<td>20 weeks + 6 weeks of additional maternity leave</td>
<td>100 % of average earnings;</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal*</td>
<td>17.1 weeks or 21.4 weeks.</td>
<td>No payment by the employer, but a social security allowance paid on the basis of 100 % of worker’s average salary if 120 days taken or 80 % if 150 days taken</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania*</td>
<td>18 weeks</td>
<td>85 % of average monthly income of previous six months, not</td>
<td>Five working days (and 10 additional working days on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Duration</td>
<td>Percentage of Salary</td>
<td>Comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia*</td>
<td>34 weeks</td>
<td>65% of mother’s daily income</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia*</td>
<td>15 weeks, starting 28 days before due date of birth</td>
<td>100% of average salary of 12 months immediately prior to date on which benefits are claimed</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain*</td>
<td>16 weeks, 10 of which are transferable to the father</td>
<td>provided that at least 180 days’ social security contributions have been paid in the previous seven years or 360 days</td>
<td>13 uninterrupted days plus 2 days where an additional child is born</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden*</td>
<td>14 weeks before or after giving birth</td>
<td>Maternity benefits paid at sick-leave level (80% of income. If not income-based, benefits are paid at basic level of EUR 20</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK*</td>
<td>52 weeks.</td>
<td>39 weeks’ maternity pay; first six weeks: 90% of salary; remaining 33 weeks: EUR 166.93/ week</td>
<td>2 weeks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algeria**</td>
<td>14 weeks</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt**</td>
<td>3 months</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Israel**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jordan**</td>
<td>10 weeks</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lebanon**</td>
<td>7 weeks</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco**</td>
<td>14 weeks</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine**</td>
<td>70 days</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia**</td>
<td>30 days</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source:
* Report on equality between women and men 2014
** Against Wind and Tides: A Review of the Status of Women and Gender Equality in the Arab Region (Beijing +20). ESCWA, 2015
### Annex3: Women in public life

#### Algeria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31.6% representation in Parliament (2012; 146 in 462)</td>
<td>Rise from 0.76% to 16.52% in five years (2007-2012)</td>
<td>20% to 50% Variable Quotas for Candidates – the more seats the higher the quota</td>
<td>Judiciary – women make up 39.53%, although in the more senior judicial positions this percentage declines (39 juges d’instruction sur 308; 35 presidentes de tribunaux administratifs sur 37; 35 de tribunaux presidentes sur 194)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In 2013 only 3 women holding ministerial positions</td>
<td>29.69% (risen from 6.89%) in the Popular Assemblies of Wilaya</td>
<td>30% - 35% for Wilaya Assemblies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 political parties chaired by women</td>
<td>Communal assemblies 30%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.4% of employees holding senior positions</td>
<td>Women must be included in roles within the parties and their institutions (The Organic Law No 12-04 of Jan 12 2012)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Egypt

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15% representation in Parliament (2015; 89)</td>
<td>13,000 represented in local government 1/8% in 2002 to 5% in 2008. 12% in 2011 to 2% in 2012</td>
<td>No more quotas Abandoned the reserved seat system in local elections Preparation of lists of qualified female candidates to participate in the legislative elections by joining the political parties electoral lists.</td>
<td>42 judges, in 2003 first woman Vice President of the Supreme Constitutional Court 43% in the administrative prosecution versus 0.6% in the higher judiciary positions Blocked from the State Council and Prosecutor roles For the first time, the number of women judges reached 5 out of 7 judges within the Supreme Council of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parliament</strong></td>
<td><strong>Local Government</strong></td>
<td><strong>Quotas</strong></td>
<td><strong>Judiciary</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27% in National Assembly</td>
<td>16 % des maires seulement sont des femmes</td>
<td>50% parity rule for candidates with financial sanctions for non-compliance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25% in Senate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Women account for 75 per cent of the number of second-rank judges, on the first level of the hierarchy, while they make up only 25% of senior judges (Conseil supérieur de la magistrature, 2014),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012; 2016: government with equal numbers of male and female ministers and deputy ministers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female ministers 50%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finland</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parliament</strong></td>
<td><strong>Local Government</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women make up 41.5% of the current government</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An equitable proportion of both women and men. This equality rule is applied to executive or administrative bodies of agencies and institutions, executive or administrative bodies of companies in which the Government or a municipality is the majority shareholder.

### Germany

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>36% representation in Parliament rising from 32.9% at the last elections</td>
<td>At municipal level, the proportion of elected women is weak. Respective rankings on women’s participation in elections have provoked a societal debate on how to increase the number of women in town councils. Compared to 2008, a number of cities have increased their proportion of women. In 2011, the average rate of female representation at municipal councils has attained 26.1 percent, ranging from 18.7 percent to 41.9 percent across the country</td>
<td>36% representation in Parliament rising from 32.9% at the last elections</td>
<td>Number of women and men judges in the Constitutional Court (appointed): Women 5 Men 11 (46%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37.5% female ministers</td>
<td></td>
<td>37.5% female ministers</td>
<td>The President of the Constitutional Court is a man.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32.1% women at leadership positions in federal government but supreme federal authorities it is 23%</td>
<td>32.1% women at leadership positions in federal government but supreme federal authorities it is 23%</td>
<td>The highest proportion is Parliamentary State Secretaries at (15 of 33)</td>
<td>Number of women and men judges in the High/Supreme Court (appointed): Women 41 Men 89 (46%) The President of the High/Supreme Court is a woman.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The highest proportion is Parliamentary State Secretaries at (15 of 33) 28% female ministers</td>
<td>Number of women and men judges in the Constitutional Court (appointed): Women 5 Men 11 (46%) The President of the Constitutional Court is a man.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Italy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31% representation in Parliament</td>
<td>12% in regional assemblies</td>
<td>No quotas although there is a requirement within local administrations that there is not only one gender represented</td>
<td>Only 1 out of 15 members of the Constitutional Court is a woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Half of the present cabinet but minority within the government at a whole (9)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Starting with the 2019 European Elections a new rule states that “upon its presentation, in each list candidates of the same sex cannot exceed its half (with rounding). In the list order, the two first candidates must belong to a different sex.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Jordan</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12% representation in Parliament (Lower House of Representatives)</td>
<td>35.9% of municipal council seats after 2011 municipalities law</td>
<td>11% of seats reserved for women</td>
<td>18% female judges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18% Ministers (largest ever)</td>
<td></td>
<td>10% members of the party – Political Parties Act 2012</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40% on Board of Commissioners of the Independent Commission for the Elections</td>
<td></td>
<td>20% quota for municipal elections – well exceeded quotas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.8% in diplomatic corps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Morocco</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21% in Parliament (17% in 2012 compared to 0.6 % in 1997)</td>
<td>14.1% female local representatives</td>
<td>60 seats reserved for women out of 395 in the lower house</td>
<td>19% of all judges are female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminization of public administration 38.6% in 2012 compared to 34.4% in 2002</td>
<td>0.79% presidents of rural councils and urban districts</td>
<td>Quotas passed for local councils (one third in regional councils), plus additional constituencies for women</td>
<td>16% in the supreme court</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase in female ministers and senior positions</td>
<td></td>
<td>2004 Family Code has increased women judges in family court</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
40% female civil servants but 16% in high level positions (has increased by only 6 points in 11 years)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monaco</th>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20.8% Parliament</td>
<td>40% Local Government</td>
<td></td>
<td>44.5% of the workforce of the Monegasque judiciary. 57.6% of female judges (2014) as well as three of the highest-level positions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>One woman out of five Government of Councillors (Ministers)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gender parity amongst ambassadors</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Palestine</th>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14% in the PLC</td>
<td>20% in local government</td>
<td>For PLC elections, at least one woman in the first 3, then 4 then every 5 candidates in a list – around 20%</td>
<td>12% judges and 11% prosecutors-general (there appears to be less access to judicial positions for women in Gaza compared to Cisjordanie)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5 women ministers</td>
<td></td>
<td>Reserved seats for women in local elections (at least 1 in 13)</td>
<td>17% Cisjordanie women lawyers (2006 up from 9.3% in 2000) and 16.3% in Gaza (up from 9.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5.4% female ambassadors (2.1% in 1992)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Gender unit at the high judicial council to be headed by a female judge</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Portugal</th>
<th>Parliament</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>After quotas came into force, women’s</td>
<td></td>
<td>In the context of the article 109º, of CRP,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
representation in parliament increased from 21.3% in 2005 to 27.8% in 2009, 26.5% in 2011 and, in last elections held in 2015, increased to 33.9%.

A Law adopted in 2006 (Organic law 3/2006, of 21 August, amended by declaration 71/2006, of 4 October 2006) requires all candidate lists for elections (including elections to the European Parliament) to have a minimum representation of 33% for women and men, with financial sanctions for non-compliance. The Law was fully applied for the first time to the local, national and European elections that took place in 2009.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spain</th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parliament (2015 elections)</td>
<td>In Regional Parliaments, there was a 44.6% of female MPs in 2015. In Regional Governments, in 2015 21.05% of women were presidents and 43.53% of them held regional ministry positions. At local level in 2015, there was 19.05% female mayors, and 35.57% female councillors.</td>
<td>At least 40% candidates for the Congress of Deputies and Municipal Elections and Regional Assemblies</td>
<td>18.2% in the Constitutional Court</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congress of Deputies 39.71%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>More than half of people making up the judicial system (64.94% women judges)– dropping in the higher positions (12.94% women in the supreme Court).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senate 41.35%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40% female ministers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41% in European Parliament</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tunisia</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Parliament</td>
<td>31% in the elected assembly</td>
<td>Principle of gender parity within candidates for the National Constituent Assembly as well as one third of the top of the lists being female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local Government</td>
<td>No female chairs of parliamentary group</td>
<td>32.8% Councillors in 2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 ministers. 28/101 members in</td>
<td>Since 2011 no woman appointed head of governorate and municipal council</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
parliamentary committees
10% in Government (down from 20%)
7% in decision making positions
2 out of 22 ministers and 1 out of 8 in the Secretary of State

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Local Government</th>
<th>Quotas</th>
<th>Judiciary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Turkey</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Parliament</strong></td>
<td>14.73% in Parliament (rise from 14.4%)</td>
<td>One woman in 26 Members of Council of Ministers (2015 elections)</td>
<td>2.9% of Mayors, 10.7% Members of the Municipal Council, 4.8% members of City Council (2014 elections)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annex 4: Women who have experienced physical and/or sexual violence by current and/or previous partner or by any other person since the age of 15 (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Last 12 months</th>
<th>Lifetime</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria*</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium*</td>
<td>2012</td>
<td>36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria*</td>
<td>2012</td>
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Source:
* Violence against women: an EU-wide survey, European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2014
** The World's Women 2015, UNW 2015