Gender Mainstreaming for an Inclusive, Peaceful, and Just Society

GEAC G7

Japan

Gender Equality
Advisory Council
Report

2023

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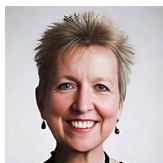Report

2023

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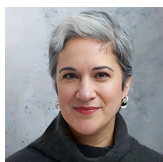Past Chair, 2022 GEAC

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Foreword by the GEAC 2023 Chair

Sawako Shirahase

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We are living in a time of many challenges: environmental destruction, political disputes, wars, crimes, poverty, displacement, and pandemics. There is no guarantee that all small children, girls and boys, can rest peacefully at night. Some of them can no longer afford to dream of the future. Why is this the case? Who is responsible? It is obvious that we must work together to tackle problems in which our most vulnerable—including children and women—are most likely to be victims. Gender inequality is one of the greatest social challenges shared by all countries, and it is inextricably connected with nearly all other global problems. We must address why such gender inequality has persisted for so long, and we should act aggressively against its root causes and worldwide manifestations.

I am very pleased to present the 2023 report of the Gender Equality Advisory Committee (GEAC), which was organized in conjunction with the meeting of the G7 leaders in Hiroshima. The GEAC's fourteen experts came together and dedicated their energy, time, and expertise to discuss gender inequality from multiple perspectives, share best practices, and identify actionable solutions. Without their enthusiasm and participation, this report would not have been possible. I would also like to express my special gratitude to the GEAC Secretariat, a small but very efficient team.

Our main theme for the 2023 GEAC is "Gender Mainstreaming for an Inclusive, Peaceful, and Just Society." This theme emerged from the conviction that gender equality is not only a women's issue, but one shared by all people worldwide. By tackling gender inequality, we can address a wide range of social, economic, and political problems. I know that this is not an easy task, and I cannot see any instant solutions. But I do know that it is time to work together to resolve this global challenge.

Introduction

Gender Mainstreaming for an Inclusive, Peaceful, and Just Society

Sawako Shirahase
Chair, 2023 Gender Equality Advisory Council

Inequality is a persistent and pervasive worldwide phenomenon, appearing in different patterns and degrees throughout virtually all domains of human activity and experience. Gender inequality is not merely a specific manifestation of inequality: it is fundamental to disparities in areas such as economic opportunity, health and safety, education, political participation, and resilience to crises from war to climate change. Indeed, one can view almost any social problem from a gender perspective. Far from being an ad-hoc "women's issue," gender equality can drive breakthroughs in long-lasting social problems and contribute to an inclusive society that ensures human rights, security, and well-being to all.

In May 2023, the G7 meeting was held in Hiroshima, Japan. At this same time, the Gender Equality Advisory Council (GEAC), comprised of gender equality experts from 12 countries in the G7 and beyond, established as its theme "gender mainstreaming for an inclusive, peaceful, and just society." Gender mainstreaming aims to include a gender perspective at all levels and all stages of policy development, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation. It is key to crafting transformative policies and achieving the goal of a gender-equal society. The idea of gender mainstreaming was first introduced in the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action (1995) and further conceptualized as a policy-focused strategy by the United Nations Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) in 1997.[1] Gender mainstreaming includes gender-specific activities and affirmative action to combat consequences of discrimination. Further, gender mainstreaming aims not just to increase women's participation within existing mechanisms, but rather to take into account the experiences, perspectives, and priorities of all genders to achieve an inclusive, peaceful, and just society.

There are almost no social systems independent of gender, yet these very systems were constructed on the basis of rigid gender norms and biases. Such biases—many of which remain unconscious—both reflect and perpetuate gender inequality. For example, which gender do you imagine when talking about national leaders? We cannot deny the persistent biases in portrayals of men and women in particular roles; such images are perpetuated in the media, in school textbooks, and now—thanks to biased algorithms—in artificial intelligence. It is therefore insufficient to implement a few gender policies without also making direct and intentional efforts to identify and address gender biases and transform gender norms. Only through combining gender mainstreaming with gender-transformative policies can we begin to address gender inequality at all levels, in all of its manifestations.

Gender and sex are closely intertwined and associated with each other, and in quite a few cases, the two terms are used interchangeably—even in government and international statistics. This report follows the UN Development Programme,[2] UN Women,[3] Canadian Institutes of Health Research,[4] World Health Organization,[5] European Institute for Gender Equality,[6] and others by defining "sex" as the biological and physiological characteristics of males and females; "gender," meanwhile, is a social construct and encompasses the norms, roles, relationships, and opportunities that society associates with being male or female. Although most of the data cited in this report is, technically speaking, collected and disaggregated by biological sex, ultimately this report is concerned with gaps in gender: how women and men, girls and boys, experience inequality as they move through society. This report therefore uses the term "gender" throughout in order to emphasize the serious consequences of socially constructed inequalities—even though, for example, when we compare the mean wage of female workers with that of their male counterparts, we call it a "gender wage gap."

In collecting and constructing data, we must be clear and intentional about what data are being collected, and what are being left out. For instance, despite the important and welcome advance in awareness and advocacy for LGBTQIA+ rights, as well as increasing attention to the importance of SOGI (Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity), data collection and analysis have not always kept apace of social and human rights developments. More generally, it is critical that we scrutinize social problems and issues from the innovative perspective of diversified criteria—that is, through disaggregated data that recognizes the intersectional nature of inequality.

Japan is characterized by a high degree of gender inequality. According to the Gender Gap Index (GGI) established by the World Economic Forum, Japan ranks 125th out of 146 countries—its lowest recorded level since the establishment of the index in 2006 and a decline of nine points since 2022.[7] The GGI offers a composite score based on four criteria: economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, health and survival, and political participation. While Japan has made strides in closing gender gaps in education and health, it ranks near the bottom in both economic participation (123) and political empowerment (138). These findings are echoed by the G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps, included in this report, which show that Japanese women lag behind their counterparts in other G7 countries in indicators related to entrepreneurship and to leadership, both in political office and in the private sector. And while Japanese schoolgirls outperform their male counterparts in the rest of the G7 in tests of mathematical proficiency, their high school educational achievement has not translated to tertiary degrees in STEM programs or higher labor force participation rates.
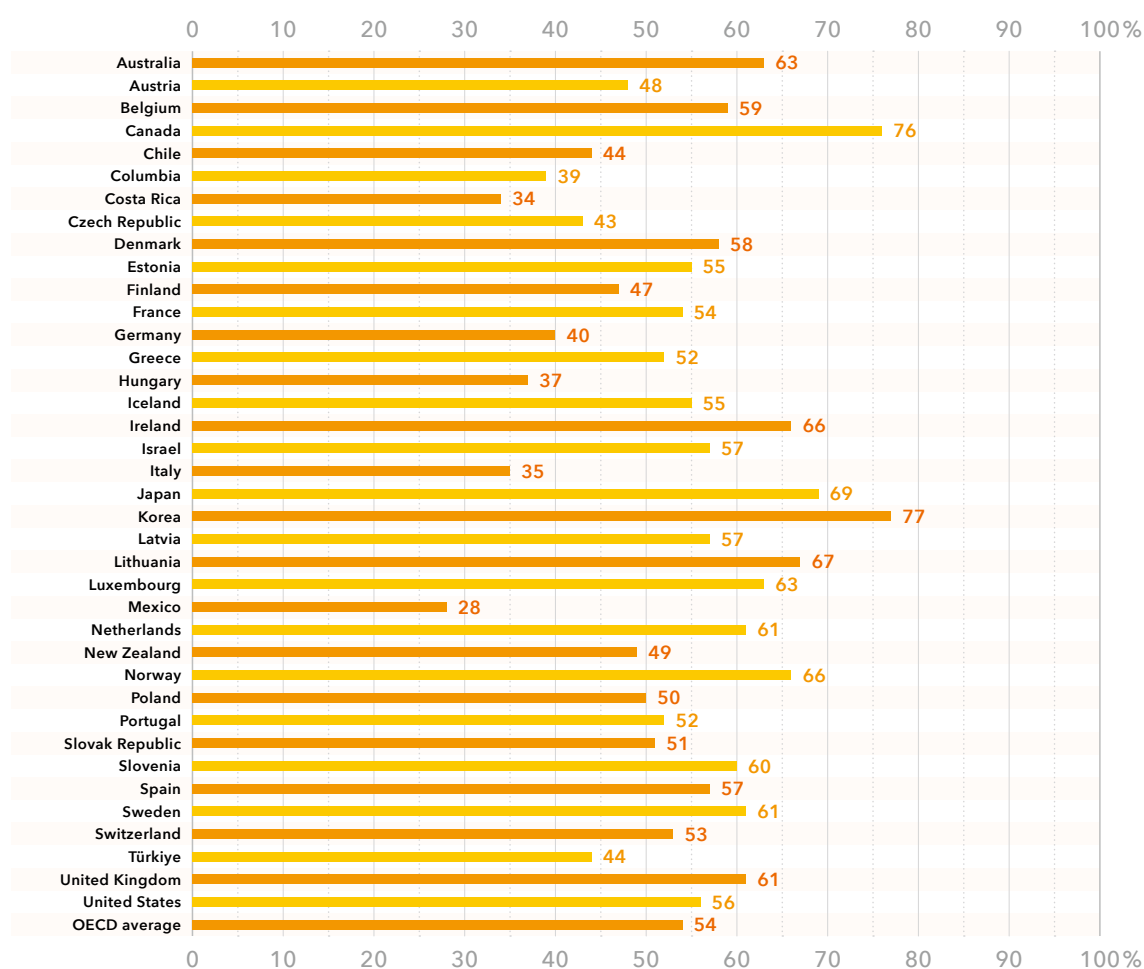
It is impossible to identify a single root cause of these gender gaps, but a few key trends are clear. First, the gender gap in unpaid care work in Japan is the highest in the G7 and is closely connected with conventional gender relations within family, work, and politics. We have seen that, despite advances in gender equality in other domains, care work still has the capacity to reinforce gender inequality, with implications for fundamental systems and relationships far beyond the household sphere. Second, a lack of female leaders in work and in politics reflects and perpetuates gender inequality in society. Gender roles and expectations—including those regarding caregiving—inhibit women leaders; at the same time, there are fewer women in leadership positions to advocate for the very transformative policies needed to create a gender-equal society. Third, Japan is the world's most aged society: the percentage of the population aged 65 and over was 29.1% in 2023.[8] While women in Japan enjoy a level of health and life span higher than Japanese men, the gender gap in pension income is greater in Japan than any other G7 country. Finally, the COVID-19 pandemic has worsened gender inequality in Japan. Women, already more likely to be employed in part-time jobs with less stability, lost and left their jobs at higher rates than men. Single-mother families suffered most, as women lost their jobs while they had to take care of their children.[9]

The challenges of unpaid care work, male-dominated leadership structures, demographic change, and the COVID-19 pandemic may be especially apparent

in Japan, but Japan is far from unique. Not a single country has closed its gender gaps in wages, unpaid care work, or political leadership. Moreover, the twin forces of a low birth rate and an aging population are becoming increasingly urgent in a number of other countries, both in the G7 and beyond. These demographic shifts will, in turn, have repercussions for paid and unpaid care work, and the gender wage gap for working-age women may translate into gaps in pension income and economic security in old age. Throughout this report, you will find that these themes emerge again and again, in different countries and in different contexts.

Some domains—most notably education—show the promise of gender mainstreaming and an overall increase in gender equality. For instance, the gender gap in attaining higher education has not simply decreased, but in many cases has reversed in favor of women.

Percentage of 25-34 year-old women who attained tertiary education (2022)

Country	Percentage
Australia	63
Austria	48
Belgium	59
Canada	76
Chile	44
Columbia	39
Costa Rica	34
Czech Republic	43
Denmark	58
Estonia	55
Finland	47
France	54
Germany	40
Greece	52
Hungary	37
Iceland	55
Ireland	66
Israel	57
Italy	35
Japan	69
Korea	77
Latvia	57
Lithuania	67
Luxembourg	63
Mexico	28
Netherlands	61
New Zealand	49
Norway	66
Poland	50
Portugal	52
Slovak Republic	51
Slovenia	60
Spain	57
Sweden	61
Switzerland	53
Türkiye	44
United Kingdom	61
United States	56
OECD average	54

As shown in the figure above, OECD countries—Japan included—on average show higher rates of women ages 25–34 attaining tertiary education than their male counterparts. However, once enrollment data are limited to four-year colleges, the corresponding figure for women in Japan becomes lower than that for men.[10] In fact, 56.6% of male high school graduates in Japan have attained a four-year degree, while only 50.7% of female ones have done so.[11]

This progress should be celebrated, yet education alone has not been sufficient to address gender gaps in other areas. Highly educated women earn less than men with equivalent educational attainment in every OECD country: on average, tertiary-educated women earn 76% of the wages of their male counterparts.[12] Gender variations in field of study have repercussions for future careers and lifetime earnings: across all OECD countries, women are more likely to study fields related to education, health, and social sciences, while men can be found in highly compensated areas related to science, engineering, mathematics, and technology. Furthermore, women are more likely to work in lower-paid or part-time jobs, resulting in a career trajectory that is less stable and has fewer opportunities for progression or advancement.

Data can describe *what* is happening, but it is up to policymakers, researchers, and civil society to ask the critical question of *why*. *Why* do women still often default to a part-time job as the best way to reconcile family responsibilities with work? Why are women held to an ideal that asks them to be home to welcome children at the end of the school day? Why do assumptions persist that a male breadwinner supports the family economy, and that only when his earnings are not large enough, the wife works to earn supplementary income? Such role expectations are based on conservative gender attitudes and could lead to a male-dominated labor market based on high segregation by gender in various job categories. Such a story is particularly pertinent to Japan, but it is shared by almost all nations to varying degrees.

To accelerate gender equality in every area, we must act strategically. In keeping with the theme of "gender mainstreaming," the 2023 GEAC identified four fundamental pillars to address gender inequality: (1) economic empowerment, (2) education, (3) peacebuilding, and (4) data. Practically all manifestations of gender inequality can be connected to at least one of these domains. Critically, these themes are not simply "women's issues," but societal ones.

First, **economic empowerment** addresses the basic reality that gender equality cannot be attained without financial resources. At an individual level, labor force participation and financial decision-making power form the basis for giving women real power to make decisions about their lives. Without economic independence, women cannot fully exercise independence in family, work, and politics. More broadly, public budgets offer a powerful tool for addressing gender inequality, provided that gender is mainstreamed across all budgetary domains and considered in all stages of budget creation, monitoring, and analysis. It is also necessary for policymakers to collaborate more closely with the private sector and encourage more gender-lens investing, which can have larger and more substantial impacts for both individuals and society. Potential pathways include offering private capital to women entrepreneurs, investing in businesses that offer products or solutions aimed at improving the lives of women, and policies that promote gender equality in the boardroom and executive suite.

Second, we cannot ignore the importance of **education** in improving lives, creating opportunities, and transforming perceptions, behaviors, and biases related to gender roles. Even if women's educational gains have not yet closed the gender pay gap, they have nonetheless led to meaningful improvements in health and well-being for girls, women, families, and communities. Yet rigid gender norms continue to impact educational access and achievement, contribute to inhospitable learning environments, and foster conditions leading to school disengagement and drop-out. Such conditions are further aggravated by school disruption and displacement, whether due to conflict, climate change, or a global pandemic. Gender mainstreaming in education therefore requires not simply improving gender parity in education but also using education to change perceptions and attitudes toward all genders.

Third, in the face of increasing war and armed conflict around the globe, **peacebuilding** calls attention to the fact that war's victims tend to be socially vulnerable people such as children, women, and the elderly. For those of us in Japan, which experienced two atomic bombs, the immediate loss of untold thousands of women and children, and the devastating aftereffects of nuclear radiation, the importance of peacebuilding continues to feel urgent. Yet peacebuilding is not only central to ensuring the safety and well-being of women and children. Time and time again, research has demonstrated that peace agreements are stronger and longer lasting when women are fully integrated into the peace process; countries with

greater gender equality, moreover, are less likely to instigate or experience armed conflict. In other words, gender mainstreaming not only within peacebuilding, but within all aspects of society, can create a safer, more peaceful world.

Finally, we emphasize the importance of **data** in assessing gender inequality, tracking progress, and holding leaders accountable. True accountability requires high-quality, internationally harmonized, and accessible data. And because different countries have their own historical, political, and cultural backgrounds, we need mechanisms that foster international collaboration between policymakers, researchers, and civil society. The G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps, first published in the 2022 GEAC Report, offers a critical step in the right direction, yet much work remains to ensure that relevant data is collected and accessible—and that gender statistics have reliable and consistent funding.

Before closing this introduction, I would like to share my excitement in hearing such good news that Professor Claudia Goldin, an economic historian and labor economist, won the Nobel Prize for Economics. She has made immense contributions to our understanding of women in the labor force and the reasons that the gender pay gap has persisted for such a long time. I still remember how inspired I was when I read her book, *Understanding the Gender Gap: An Economic History of American Women* (1990), during my time as a graduate student. We still struggle to get rid of the substantive gender gap in work and family, and behind the scenes, an overrepresentation of women's involvement in care work and an underrepresentation of female leaders remains critical. I hope our GEAC 2023 report can help you better understand and become a driving force in the path to gender equality.

1 International Labour Organization, "Definition of Gender Mainstreaming." Available at: https://www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/gender/newsite2002/about/defin.htm
See also United Nations, Office of the Special Adviser on Gender Issues and Advancement of Women, *Gender Mainstreaming: An Overview* (New York, 2002). Available at: https://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/pdf/e65237.pdf

2 United Nations Development Progamme, *Human Development Report 1995* (New York, 1995). Available at: https://hdr.undp.org/system/files/documents/hdr1995encompletenostatspdf.pdf

3 UN Women, "Important Concepts Underlying Gender Mainstreaming." Available at: https://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/pdf/factsheet2.pdf

4 Canadian Institutes of Health Research, "How to integrate sex and gender into research." Available at: https://cihr-irsc.gc.ca/e/50836.html

5 Bulletin of World Health Organization, "Differentiating sex and gender in health research to achieve gender equity." Available at: https://cdn.who.int/media/docs/default-source/bulletin/online-first/blt.22.289310.pdf?sfvrsn=3f6337dc_1

6 Council of Europe, "Sex and gender." Available at: https://www.coe.int/en/web/gender-matters/sex-and-gender#20

7 World Economic Forum, *Global Gender Gap Report 2023* (Geneva, 2022). Available at: https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2023.pdf

8 Japan, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications. Available at: https://www.stat.go.jp/data/topics/pdf/topics138.pdf

9 Gender Equality Bureau, Cabinet Office of Japan, White Paper on Gender Equality 2021, Fig I-SF-16. Available at: https://www.gender.go.jp/english_contents/about_danjo/whitepaper/pdf/ewp2021.pdf

10 In Japan during the 1970s and 1980s, girls were more likely to enroll into the two-year junior college, rather than four-year academic programs.

11 Gender Equality Bureau, Cabinet Office of Japan, "White Paper on Gender Equality 2020 Summary," Figure I-4-1. Available at: https://www.gender.go.jp/english_contents/about_danjo/whitepaper/pdf/ewp2020.pdf

12 OECD, "The persistence of gender gaps in education and skills: Gender gaps in labour market outcomes: Employment rates and wages," OECD iLibrary, Figure 21. Available at: https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/sites/34680dd5-en/1/3/1/index.html?itemId=/content/publication/34680dd5-en&_csp_=84042831e2796e3dbd529f3148909734&itemIGO=oecd&itemContentType=book#section-d1e1209-5e803978f6

Themes

1. Economic Empowerment
2. Education
3. Peacebuilding
4. Data

1. Economic Empowerment

The Issue

Ensuring women's economic empowerment is a moral and strategic imperative, and it is instrumental to realizing gender equality. Women, families, communities, businesses, economies, and entire nations benefit when women participate in labor markets and share financial decision-making. Financial independence can make women less vulnerable to intimate partner violence,[1] and increasing women's economic power has been linked to higher school attendance for children and improved health outcomes for families.[2] Countries with higher female labor force participation are less likely to exhibit internal conflict or international violence.[3] Companies with women in leadership roles perform significantly better on financial metrics and environmental, social, and governance (ESG) factors.[4] Closing the gender gap in the global workforce could unleash an additional $5.3 trillion to global GDP,[5] catalyzing inclusive and sustainable economies.

The way capital is deployed shapes the economy and society. Financial resources determine which priorities are addressed, what solutions reach scale, and when ideas go unexplored. Yet in practice, these resources are not distributed equally:

- In many countries, women lack **financial independence** due to restrictions on property rights, inheritance, and access to banking. Even in countries that guarantee equal rights, women have lower rates of labor force participation and face a sticky gender pay gap.[6] Women also take on the majority of unpaid care work, leading many to accept part-time or lesser-paid jobs compatible with caregiving. In fact, nearly 70% of women across the G7 work part time. These economic disparities persist throughout the life course, with significant gender gaps in pension income (see **Dashboard** for data on unpaid care work, part-time employment, and pension income).

- **Public budgets** do not consistently address the impact on and needs of women. Fiscal austerity practices that defund social programs, policy

responses to the COVID-19 pandemic, and even investments in physical infrastructure have left women behind.

- **Decision-making power in venture capital and investment firms** is held predominantly by men, who are less likely to provide capital to women-owned, women-led businesses or companies that provide products aimed at women. A new generation of women-led funds faces similar barriers to raising capital, further perpetuating the gender finance gap.

Despite important gains over the past decades, at the current rate of progress it will take 151 years to close gender gaps in economic participation and opportunity.[7] Meaningful change requires robust financial commitments and policy action to foster women's economic empowerment through public-sector gender-responsive budgeting, international development assistance,[8] climate finance, and policies designed to encourage private-sector investment in women-owned, women-led businesses.

Facts and Figures

Opportunity cost of gender-based inequality

- Increasing female employment rates in OECD countries to match that of Sweden would boost GDP in those countries by over $6 trillion.[9]

- If women and men had equal levels of entrepreneurship, global GDP could rise by 3% to 6%, boosting the world economy by $2.5–$5 trillion.[10]

Access to private and public funding

- Less than 1.3% of the $69.1 trillion in global financial assets under management are managed by women and people of color.[11] In emerging markets (excluding China), 92% of investment decision-making in private equity and venture capital is concentrated among men; in developed markets, it is 90%.[12]

- Barely 2% of venture capital goes to women-led startups globally,[13] although companies founded by women deliver twice as much revenue per dollar invested.[14]

- Out of 190 countries, only 26 have women finance ministers, and 17 have women leading their central banks—in other words, just 11.3% of these policymakers are women.[15]

Gender Mainstreaming and Economic Empowerment

Addressing gender gaps in economic participation and opportunity requires a multifaceted response, with gender mainstreaming in the public sector accompanied by regulations to promote gender equality in the private sector.

Labor force participation and care work
The global labor force participation rate for women aged 25–54 is just over 63%, compared to 94% for men.[16] Women are less likely to work in formal employment and therefore enjoy fewer opportunities for financial decision-making, business expansion, and career progression. Even as women's educational attainment continues to rise, women's labor force participation rate lags due to a range of social, cultural, and economic factors. The unequal distribution in care work plays a significant role.[17] Providing childcare to women could add $3 trillion to global GDP, and expanding the childcare workforce to meet current needs could create 43 million jobs globally.[18] Public investments in child- and elder care can reduce deficits more effectively than austerity policies, as such services would boost employment, earnings, and economic growth—bringing benefits to all.[19]

Gender-responsive budgeting
A gender-responsive budget aims to ensure that resources are distributed equitably, address gender inequalities, and provide benefits to all people, regardless of gender. Gender budgeting encompasses a range of practices, including revenue generation, allocation of funds, and budgetary analysis.[20] Since 2018, the GEAC has called upon G7 leaders to integrate gender-responsive budgeting into all domains of government spending; this call has been repeated by all successive GEACs, as well as the Women7, IMF, OECD, and the Public Expenditure and Financial Accountability Program (PEFA). To date, five G7 countries have some form of gender budgeting (Canada, Germany, France, Italy, and Japan), while two do not (Great Britain, United States).

Private investment
A gender-smart investing strategy focuses on opportunities along the value chain, including women-founded and women-owned businesses, companies with policies that foster gender equality among employees, and businesses that offer products and services that enhance women's economic participation and well-being. Venture capital and private equity are key levers for economic growth, innovation, and

prosperity through entrepreneurship. To leverage this potential, collective action must be taken to overcome gender bias in capital allocation and ensure equal opportunities for women-led fund managers and companies.[21] For example, bilateral and multilateral development finance institutions can play a pivotal role in providing crucial investment capital to female fund managers, de-risking their first fund to demonstrate the investment case and thereby crowding in additional private capital.

Leadership in financial decision-making

Studies show that women investors are twice as likely to adopt a gender-smart investing strategy and invest in women-led companies.[22] More broadly, gender diversity in investment decision-making benefits businesses, economies, communities, and the planet. For example, of the top 1000 companies in the United States, firms with greater gender diversity (defined as female CEO or Chair; more than 20% women on the board; and greater than 25% women in management) outperformed other firms, with greater return and less risk.[23] The IMF has found that banks with higher shares of women board members had higher capital buffers, a lower proportion of nonperforming loans, and greater resistance to stress.[24] And while 16% of venture capital general partners in Europe are women, management teams comprised mostly of women outperformed all-male teams by more than 9%.[25]

Public sector spending can similarly benefit from increasing the number of women with decision-making power. Evidence from the IMF suggests that gender diversity in central banks is associated with greater monetary and financial stability, as well as driving decision-making in areas such as climate change finance.[26] Even as women currently lead the European Central Bank, International Monetary Fund, World Trade Organization, and US Treasury, women still lack broad representation in financial policy-making: only 26 countries have women finance ministers, and 17 have women leading their central banks—in other words, just 11.3% of these policymakers are women.[27]

Case Studies and Best Practices

Gender-responsive budgeting in Indonesia

Indonesia's Women and Children Friendly Village Program (Desa Ramah Perempuan dan Peduli Anak) exemplifies the transformative power of government policies to empower women through gender-responsive budgeting. Launched by Indonesia's

Ministry of Women Empowerment and Child Protection in 2021, the program brings together national, regional, and local financing for villages to create programs and infrastructure that ensure the rights and well-being of women and children. Villages are evaluated according to ten indicators, including the allocation of village assets for programs empowering women and children, women's representation in village government, female entrepreneurship, and reducing violence against women and children. After an initial pilot phase of ten villages, the program now includes 156 villages and ten subdistricts. The relatively new program has already shown promising outcomes: 138 villages have established childcare programs, women are increasingly involved in village budget planning, and many women hold roles as paralegals and gender-based violence counsellors.

2X Challenge to invest in women-led businesses
Launched at the 2018 G7 Summit by the development finance institutions (DFIs) of the G7 member states, the 2X Challenge aims to raise investments that provide women with improved access to leadership opportunities, quality employment, finance, and products and services that enhance economic participation. This flagship initiative has evolved into 2X Global, a global industry body for gender finance that includes more than 130 member institutions (including DFIs, fund managers, financial institutions, corporate investment actors, and philanthropies) and a community of over 3,000 leading professionals, representing more than $20 trillion in assets under management. The 2X Challenge has exceeded all investment goals, raising over $27.7 billion. In addition, the 2X Investment Criteria set global standards for gender-smart finance and have been adopted by a wide spectrum of capital providers. 2X Flagship Funds, another outgrowth of the 2X Challenge, recognize funds that commit to gender equality, both in terms of leadership and within the investment portfolio.

European Commission: Gender balance in corporate boards
Across the European Union today, women make up 8% of board chairs and 31.5% of all board members.[28] A milestone achievement within the EU's Gender Equality Strategy 2020–2025 is the Directive on Gender Balance in Corporate Boards, adopted in November 2022. This Directive sets a goal of 40% women in non-executive director positions or 33% women in all director positions at the top of each stock-listed company. EU countries must be in compliance with this directive by 2026; currently only one-third of EU countries meet this target.

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

Implement initiatives to support women's full participation in the rapidly changing global economy. Take action to ensure that women reach their full potential in the labor force by addressing educational disparities and sociocultural barriers, particularly with respect to digital literacy. Recognize that women are responsible for the majority of unpaid care work, which prevents them from full economic participation. Develop, fund, and support high-quality universal care systems.

Institute gender-based analysis, gender-responsive budgeting, and gender auditing as guiding principles throughout policy development and implementation. Mainstream gender through all domains of government spending to ensure the equitable distribution of resources. Provide targeted funding for initiatives fostering gender equality, both domestically and abroad. Increase direct flexible funding to women's rights organizations and women-led grassroots organizations, both domestically and through development assistance.

Implement measures to encourage gender-smart investment in the private sector and provide women entrepreneurs with equal access to private funding. Create a fund of funds and back multistakeholder initiatives like the 2X Challenge, 2X Ignite, and European Women in VC to provide catalytic anchor investment in women-led funds with gender-smart investing strategies to build the market and mobilize private capital. Provide multilateral development finance institutions (DFIs) and development banks with the mandate to invest in gender-smart first-time fund managers and impactful financing structures, such as nonprofit investment clubs providing capital for local, women-owned micro, small, and medium-sized enterprises (MSMEs).

Commit to expanding the participation of women in financial decision-making, both in the private and public sectors. Implement measures that increase the involvement of women in politics and government offices tasked with budget development and implementation, which will help ensure that funding decisions account for the needs and priorities of all genders. Advocate for private-sector initiatives that encourage greater participation of women in corporate leadership.

1 Anna Cameron and Lindsay M. Tedds, "Gender-based violence, economic security, and the potential of basic income," Discussion paper, School of Public Policy, University of Calgary, 30 April 2021. Available at: https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/107478/1/MPRA_paper_107478.pdf
See also Dana Harrington Conner, "Financial freedom: Women, money, and domestic abuse," *William & Mary Journal of the Law,* vol. 20, No. 2 (2014), pp. 339–97. Available at: https://scholarship.law.wm.edu/wmjowl/vol20/iss2/4

2 Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, "Women's economic power." Available at: https://www.gatesfoundation.org/our-work/programs/gender-equality/womens-economic-power

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2. Education

The Issue

Quality education is fundamental to achieving gender equality worldwide. Education contributes to the health, safety, and well-being of individuals, families, communities, and nations, as well as to environmental sustainability. Education allows people of all genders to achieve their full potential: it saves lives by reducing poverty, maternal and infant mortality, early marriage, and unintended pregnancies, and it protects young people from risk factors that can affect their future. Harmful gender norms can be addressed both in and through gender-transformative education, which equips all members of the educational community to examine critically and transform the underlying social structures, policies, and norms that perpetuate gender inequalities.[1]

Educational gains from the past decade are encouraging, but much work remains to be done. Despite a marked increase in the number of countries achieving gender parity in primary and secondary school enrollment,[2] the number of boys and girls out of school remains unacceptably high, at 250 million—including 122 million girls and 128 boys—an increase over 6 million since 2021.[3] The factors that inhibit girls and boys, women and men from participating fully in education, and which increase the likelihood of disengagement and drop-out, are highly gendered, with differential impacts:

- **Access and participation:** Girls face significant barriers to education in many places, most notably and egregiously in Afghanistan. Even where legal frameworks guarantee girls' equal access to schooling, gender norms that attribute a disproportionate role to women and girls in unpaid care work restrict the time available for them to participate in education and learning.[4] At the same time, boys in many settings are at greater risk of repeating grades, underachievement, and drop-out due to gender norms, poverty, and the need to work.

- **Achievement and professional training:** Despite the fact that girls' academic achievement in mathematics and science is equal to or higher than that of boys in most countries, lack of confidence impedes many from pursuing a career in STEM-related fields.[5] Disparities in access to technology and digital skills education disproportionately affect women's trajectories in the labor market, as many jobs increasingly require competency in these areas. Older women are particularly vulnerable to technology-driven changes in labor markets, in a context in which the age of retirement on a full pension is increasing in many G7 countries.[6] Moreover, the low share of women among AI professionals—and their corresponding lack of participation in the creation of AI models, training data sets, algorithms, and smart devices—perpetuates gender biases in artificial intelligence.[7]

- **Crisis and conflict:** Crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic, climate change, war and insecurity, and backlash against women's rights risk deepening gender-based disadvantage. The number of refugees is growing around the world at a staggering rate, as is the number of children experiencing educational disruption due to extreme weather events. Regardless of the cause, displacement exacerbates gender disadvantages for girls.

- **Gender norms and discrimination:** School activities and certain subjects may be perceived to conflict with expressions of masculinity, while school-related bullying and gender-based violence—such as harsh discipline and corporal punishment for boys, verbal and sexual abuse for girls—negatively affect learning outcomes.[8] LGBTQIA+ students are especially vulnerable to school violence and bullying.

As learners progress through the life cycle, gender disparities and inequalities in education feed disparities and inequalities in careers and life. It is of critical importance that policymakers promote gender equality in and through education by investing in comprehensive, lifelong learning and continuous professional development for all genders and all ages, and that they commit to gender-transformative education at all levels.

GEAC Statement on Education in Afghanistan

Between 2001 and 2018, the number of girls and women enrolled in education in Afghanistan increased tenfold (from almost zero to 2.5 million in primary education alone), and literacy rates nearly doubled (from 17% to nearly 30%).[9] Since the Taliban takeover in August 2021, the *de facto* authorities have suspended female participation in secondary school and higher education, overturning two decades of rapid progress in girls' access to education in the country and putting at risk an entire generation. Today, 1.3 million girls and young women are barred from accessing education beyond the primary level; 100,000 women have been forced to abandon their university studies. If current restrictions remain, it is estimated that Afghanistan will face a shortage of more than 11,000 qualified primary and secondary school teachers.[10] **The GEAC calls for the immediate repeal of these decisions and for the international community to take strong measures aimed at ensuring that Afghan girls and women can exercise fully their fundamental right to education.**

Facts and Figures

Access and participation

- The gross enrollment rate of girls in primary education increased by less than half a point per year between 1995 and 2019. At current rates, getting every girl into primary school will not happen until 2050.[11]

- Boys are more likely than girls to repeat primary grades in 130 of 142 countries with data, indicating poorer progression through school.[12]

- Two out of three people aged 15–24 not in employment, education, or training are young women.[13]

Crisis and conflict

- 58% of forcibly displaced children in crisis-affected countries are out of school. Of the 72 million out-of-school children in countries affected by crises, 53% are girls. Gender disparities in access and transition are most evident in high-intensity crises.[14]

- Since 2022, the number of school-aged children affected by extreme weather events related to climate change (e.g., floods, drought, cyclone) has increased by 18.7 million. Women and girls are disproportionally affected by climate-related emergencies: they are more likely to be out of school or experience educational deprivation.[15]

Attainment and achievement

- Women make up almost two-thirds (63%) of all illiterate adults.[16]

- In 2016–18, women represented only 35% of higher education graduates in STEM fields. In 15 out of 94 countries, at most one in four graduates were women, including in high-income countries such as Chile, the Republic of Korea, and Switzerland.[17]

- The gender divide begins at a young age: Grade 8 boys were more willing to pursue a mathematics-related occupation than their female schoolmates in 87% of the education systems participating in the 2019 Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study.[18]

Addressing discrimination in and through education

- Half of the 47 Council of Europe member states do not address sexual orientation, gender identity, gender expression or variations of sex characteristics in their curricula.[19]

- More than one in three learners globally report experiencing bullying in the past month, with impacts on educational outcomes as well as health and well-being.[20] LGBTQIA+ children are at particular risk.[21]

Gender Mainstreaming and Education

Efforts must continue to improve gender parity in education: among learners throughout the life course; among teachers and educators at all educational levels and settings; and among school administrators and leaders. For example, targeted efforts are needed in educational fields dominated by one gender, such as STEM and certain Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programs, as well as levels in which there are strong gender imbalances in the teaching profession, including early childhood care and education.

Achieving gender equality in education requires the adoption of a strong gender lens in situation analyses, policies, plans, and systems aimed at overcoming barriers to full participation in quality education and ensuring equality of access and inclusion. Gender mainstreaming becomes especially important in times of crisis, when multiple organizations, ministries, and stakeholders must mobilize rapidly to address educational impacts and the particular risks faced by women and girls. Furthermore, data collection and usage, particularly regarding intersectional data (such as socioeconomic status, ability, ethnicity, geographical location, migration status) must be strengthened to ensure that policies and programs are evidence-based and target the most vulnerable learners. Specific attention should be paid to the needs of LGBTQIA+ learners to ensure their right to education.

More broadly, gender mainstreaming in education requires a gender-transformative approach that unlocks the potential of learners in all their diversity to identify,

examine, and address the root causes of inequality and oppression, challenging and changing harmful gender norms, attitudes, and practices. Policymakers and educators must embed a transformative approach across the full spectrum of education systems—including in policies, pedagogies, curriculum and learning resources, and learning spaces—in a lifelong learning perspective that begins with the earliest years.

Case Studies and Best Practices

Digital skills development for women and girls
The Skills Coalition of the EQUALS Global Partnership for Gender Equality in the Digital Age works to equip at least 60% of women and girls with digital skills by 2030, through collaboration between 42 partners in government, civil society, multilateral organizations, and the private sector. Joint programs such as Her Digital Skills and the #eSkills4Girls fund provide access to free, gender-transformative foundational IT skills training and e-mentoring, and to funding for local training initiatives.

Bringing together refugee education, skills development, and gender-transformative learning in Kenya
The Government of Kenya, together with partners (including the Government of Japan, UN Women, and several private sector companies), is implementing a comprehensive program aimed at fostering women's economic empowerment in refugee and host communities through training, mentoring and coaching, and employment in non-traditional fields for women such as the automotive industry, manufacturing and engineering, masonry, electrical wiring, and community policing and protection. The program includes the provision of quality gender-based violence services as well as business and financial skills training.

Program H and gender-transformative education
Evidence-based gender-transformative programming such as Program H has been adapted in over 40 countries and named a best practice by the UN Population Fund and the World Bank. Launched by Equimundo and partners in 2002, Program H encourages critical reflection about rigid norms related to manhood and the transformation of stereotypical gender roles among young men aged 15–24. Findings from 14 impact evaluations across 12 countries, including Brazil, India,

Rwanda, the United States, and Viet Nam, note that the program led to more equitable gender attitudes and reductions in use of violence among participants.

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

Invest in gender-transformative educational programs that work with learners from the early years through higher education and adult learning to instill knowledge of fundamental rights and combat gender stereotypes, gender-based violence, discrimination, and unconscious bias. Promote the critical examination of social norms and gender inequalities, including harmful masculine gender norms, both within and beyond the learning environment, and train teachers on gender-transformative pedagogies. Remove gender stereotypes and bias from curricula and learning materials, such as textbooks that disproportionately feature women in caregiving and domestic roles. Support countries to increase the availability and use of disaggregated data, gender assessments, gender budgeting, and other means to inform planning, costing, and implementation of gender-transformative education and reach the most marginalized.

Ensure that girls and women have access to the opportunities of digital transformation and the development of climate-resilient economies. Invest in programs focusing on STEM competencies, AI skills, digital literacy, and leadership for women and girls, and train teachers on gender-transformative STEM pedagogies. Implement measures to address the "leaky pipeline" from school to workforce by developing and instituting high-impact formal and non-formal learning interventions on STEM coupled with training in entrepreneurship and confidence-building. Expand mentoring and role model-based programs.

Empower female refugees and girls in crisis-affected regions by funding and implementing measures to ensure educational access and opportunity. Recognize that there is no substitute for formal education, and that the impacts of displacement due to war, climate change, the COVID-19 pandemic, and other crises have disproportionally impacted educational participation for women and girls. Support the efforts of intergovernmental organizations, NGOs, and grassroots organizations working to ensure educational access and continuity.

Address gender-based barriers to educational participation, engagement, and achievement for boys and girls, men and women. Recognize that harmful gender norms contribute to the unacceptably high number of girls and boys out of school, and that boys in many regions are at particular risk of educational disengagement. Provide predictable and multi-year funding, targeting investments to build system capacity to address gender inequalities and exclusion. Promote policy and legislative changes that overturn gendered barriers to education and restrictive social and gender norms, attitudes and practices (including through age-appropriate CSE and sexual and reproductive health services). Ensure that learning environments are safe and inclusive for all and respond to learners' holistic education, health, and safety needs.

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3. Peacebuilding

The Issue

Gender equality is central to prospects for peace and security. The security of women is one of the most reliable indicators of peaceful states, and research has overwhelmingly demonstrated a correlation between gender inequality and conflict.[1] The well-being of women and the well-being of nations go hand in hand.

More than two decades ago, the United Nations Security Council adopted Resolution 1325 on Women, Peace, and Security (WPS). The resolution was a watershed moment for the UN: it addressed for the first time how women experience conflict, and it recognized women as full and equal partners in all phases of conflict resolution, negotiation, and peacebuilding. The WPS framework aims to integrate women's experiences, perspectives, and expertise into four pillars: (1) recognizing the role of women in the **prevention** of conflict; (2) **protection** of the physical and mental well-being and rights of women and girls during and after conflict; (3) **participation** of women in peace processes and peacekeeping operations; and (4) ensuring that women and girls have equal access to **post-conflict relief and recovery** efforts.

The promise of the WPS framework remains significantly unfulfilled. Despite evidence that women's meaningful participation contributes to more durable peace, and despite the importance of their perspectives and on-the-ground experiences in mediation and negotiation, women continue to be severely underrepresented in peace processes: between 1992 and 2019, women made up a mere 6% of mediators, 6% of signatories, and 13% of negotiators globally.[2] Significant gaps remain between the adoption of the WPS framework and its effective integration into government policies, including policies on Ukraine, Sudan, Afghanistan, and other conflict zones. Furthermore, conflict-related sexual violence is pervasive and disproportionately affects women, while efforts to combat this violence, end impunity, and bring perpetrators to justice have been scandalously inadequate.

The exclusion of women undermines efforts not only to build peace and security, but also to strengthen democracy and the rule of law. Growing attacks on women and LGBTQIA+ politicians, activists, journalists, and human rights defenders, feminist and women's rights actors and organizations pose direct threats to democracy and must be countered by investments in gender equality.

To increase peace and security and stem democratic backsliding, G7 leaders and UN member states must lead by example, invest in, and promote the full implementation of international human rights law and the Women, Peace, and Security agenda. Doing so requires action in four domains: strengthening WPS National Action Plans, providing direct support to grassroots women's groups, ending impunity for conflict-related sexual violence, and including women at all levels of climate policy and action.

Facts and Figures

- Between 1992 and 2019, women made up 6% of mediators, 6% of signatories, and 13% of negotiators globally.[3]

- Although up to 50% of peace agreements fail within five years of signature,[4] women's participation in negotiations increases the probability of a peace agreement lasting at least two years by 20% and a peace agreement lasting 15 years by 35%.[5]

- Women and girls account for 94% of UN-verified cases of conflict-related sexual violence committed in 2022.[6]

- In an analysis of more than 2,000 peace agreements signed between 1990–2023, only 21% contained references to women, girls, and gender. 6% contain at least one provision that specifically addresses violence against women.[7]

Gender Mainstreaming and Peacebuilding

The WPS framework provides a robust, evidence-based roadmap for gender mainstreaming in all aspects of building peace. Too often, foreign and defense policies targeted to conflict and crisis are devoid of any meaningful WPS component. The roles of women in peace and security can no longer be consigned to the periphery of foreign policy and divorced from crisis to be resolved or conflict to prevent. The inclusion of women is essential to advancing democratic principles, comprehensive security, the protection of human rights, and all aspects of peacebuilding. In Russia's ongoing assault on Ukraine, for example, women's full engagement in all aspects of defense, from the security sector and humanitarian assistance to political decision-making in government and reconstruction, should not be considered an option, but a necessity. In Afghanistan, the restoration of women's access to their rights is core to every aspect of the country's future. Any strategic policy on Afghanistan must include the full and meaningful participation of Afghan women, including the distribution of humanitarian assistance and engagement with the Taliban.

WPS National Action Plans, developed in conjunction with civil society, are important tools for operationalizing the WPS agenda at the national and local levels to accelerate the full implementation of UN Resolution 1325. The most impactful National Action Plans (NAPs) represent a fundamental change in how governments approach peace processes, conflict prevention, protection of civilians, and humanitarian assistance by ensuring that a gender perspective and women's engagement are woven into the fabric of all actions. Nearly 110 countries have adopted NAPs, but their implementation and level of collaboration between government and civil society varies considerably. NAPs are successful if inclusively designed, effectively monitored and evaluated, adequately funded, and fully supported politically. Information on how governments fund WPS activities is limited, but available data suggest that only about 25% include allocated budgets for implementation, monitoring, and evaluation.[8]

Beyond including women in official peace processes, it is important to recognize the major role that women play in informal peacebuilding efforts, leading local mediation initiatives and facilitating dialogue. Women are often the first to recognize and respond to violence and growing radicalization within their communities. Time and again, women have demonstrated their capacities to build trust, ensure

that the needs of marginalized groups are represented, forge compromise, act as honest brokers, and catalyze public support for agreements once they are reached. Furthermore, local actions are key to addressing the human security needs of people living in conflict areas, ensuring human rights, and fostering reconciliation so that peace can be realized. Yet more often than not, the serious efforts of women-led grassroots groups are dramatically under-resourced and disconnected from official talks. There is a clear case for bringing the voices, perspectives, on-the-ground experiences, and initiatives of civil society and community peace builders to the official peace tables. A more coherent and purposeful connection between official negotiations and unofficial efforts would yield more tangible results in peacebuilding.

Gender mainstreaming in peacebuilding also requires that sexual violence in conflict receive the same attention as other threats to peace and security. After Resolution 1325, the UN Security Council adopted five additional resolutions related to sexual violence, recognizing that it is not simply an inevitable result of armed conflict, but can constitute a war crime, a crime against humanity, or an act of genocide.[9] Rape is used as a tactic of war and calculated to humiliate, dominate, instill fear, and forcibly displace women and their families. Greater action needs to be taken on this global scourge, which extends from pervasive Russian attacks on women in Ukraine to the military junta's campaign of violence in Myanmar, attacks on civilians by armed actors in Sudan, and far beyond. Efforts to address and eliminate conflict-related sexual violence must be integrated into all activities related to building, restoring, and maintaining peace. In addition to initiatives that aim to prevent and intervene in sexual violence, post-conflict reconstruction must include the physical and mental health needs of survivors of sexual violence and provide a framework for justice, holding perpetrators to account and offering survivors reparations such as compensation, rehabilitation, or restitution.

Climate change is the ultimate threat multiplier and a defining threat to peace and security. Women's leadership, experiences, and perspectives are sorely needed in managing climate-related security risks. The UN has recognized the nexus between gender, climate, displacement, and security, and a handful of NAPs include references to climate change. Tensions and violent conflict, including sexual violence, are growing in communities from Central America to the African Sahel, and they are exacerbated by vanishing natural resources (especially water scarcity), extreme heat, drought, and flooding. For example, in Somalia, 50% of the cases of sexual violence

documented in 2022 affected women and girls displaced by climate shocks.[10] Responsive climate actions are required to tackle the crisis before it grows worse.

Case Studies and Best Practices

Colombia Peace Accord

The 2016 Colombia Peace Accord negotiated with the FARC, the largest rebel group insurgency, came after 50 years of civil war that had taken a tremendous toll on the Colombian people in death, massive human rights violations, kidnappings, land displacement, and a large population of internally displaced persons. Women played a prominent role in the peace process: several held influential roles in the High Commission for Peace Office; two served as negotiators. A Sub-commission on Gender, a new innovation, was created and made clear the gendered dimensions of the war. The commission heard testimony of women victimized by the war and included this testimony in their work. The final agreement contained a gender perspective on a range of critical issues (e.g., property rights) and explicitly denies amnesty for sexual violence and other crimes against humanity. There is still a long road ahead in implementing the agreement, but the leaders of the peace process created a model for integrating the experiences and expertise of women.

Philippines: Agreement on Bangsamoro

By 2014, the Philippines had experienced forty years of armed conflict between government forces and the Moro Islamic Liberation Front, who were fighting for independence. Women participated in both formal and informal negotiations, representing both sides in the high-level negotiations and in civil society actions that influenced the process and final agreement. Women were involved at the highest levels, both leading the negotiations and heading the office of the presidential advisor on the peace process. There was an intensive outreach to civil society to ensure their inclusion in the process, as well as a public national consultation to ensure that the public understood the issues. The Agreement on Bangsamoro was also a model peace process.

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

Ensure the full implementation of the Women, Peace, and Security framework in all programs and policies targeted to resolving conflict. Adopt, implement, fully fund, and evaluate National Action Plans on Women, Peace, and Security, and strengthen collaboration between government and civil society on NAPs. Commit to the early inclusion of women in peace negotiations, including agenda setting before formal negotiations begin. Increase the number of women engaged in peace processes and integrate gender training into all aspects of peacekeeping operations.

Fund frontline women's organizations and ensure their direct, meaningful participation in peace and conflict prevention, negotiation, resolution, peacebuilding, and post-conflict reconstruction. Prioritize direct, flexible, sustained funding to women's organizations. Identify and adopt existing good practices for direct funding such as, where possible, channeling funds through embassies. When direct funding is not possible, provide funds to grantmaking organizations or intermediary funders with access to smaller and local women's organizations. Provide funding to local organizations, organizations outside of urban areas or capital cities, and newly established organizations, which may not have relationships with governmental or multilateral funders. Focus on trust building as a foundation for effective funding of women's organizations and peacebuilding efforts. Simplify application and reporting requirements for funding and providing capacity-building opportunities focused on fundraising and financing to women's organizations.

Combat impunity for violations of women's rights and commit to the prevention and eradication of rape and sexual violence used as a weapon of war. Adapt existing domestic legislative frameworks and renew commitments to fund international bodies mandated to ensure that all human rights violations, especially conflict-related sexual violence against girls and women, are properly investigated, prosecuted, and punished. Bolster the consistent and expedient use of UN sanctions, particularly the designation criteria and the subsequent listing of sanctioned individuals, to prevent and curb sexual violence in armed conflict and address the impunity of perpetrators. Support survivor-centered approaches that address the physical and mental health, safety, and dignity of survivors, and adopt the Murad Code to support survivor-centered gathering of evidence related to conflict-related and systematic sexual violence.

Address security implications of climate change with gender-responsive actions. Invest in women's participation in climate adaptation and mitigation and support opportunities for women's political leadership and contributions to peace. Support and fund women's organizations that fulfill climate crisis-response capacities within their communities, including by providing rapid funding at the onset of crisis. Recognize climate change in WPS National Action Plans and integrate specific commitments to gender-responsive climate action. Increase data collection and documentation of the gendered impacts of climate events, the related impacts of climate change and conflict, and women's contributions to responding to these intersecting crises. Condemn reprisals against women climate leaders and land defenders and support local and national organizations focused on climate response and justice in conflict-affected and insecure contexts.

1 Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace, and Security, *Women Peace and Security Index 2023/24: Summary* (Washington, DC, 2023). Available at: https://giwps. georgetown.edu/the-index/

2 Council on Foreign Relations, "Women's Participation in Peace Processes." Available at: https://www.cfr.org/womens-participation-in-peace-processes/

3 Ibid.

4 United States Institute of Peace, "New Evidence: To Build Peace, Include Women from the Start," 11 March 2021. Available at: https://www.usip.org/publications/2021/03/new-evidence-build-peace-include-women-start

5 Marie O'Reilly, Andrea Ó Súilleabháin, and Thania Paffenholz, "Reimagining Peacemaking: Women's Roles in Peace Processes" (International Peace Institute, 2015). Available at: https://www.ipinst.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/IPI-E-pub-Reimagining-Peacemaking-rev.pdf

6 Report of the United Nations Secretary-General on Conflict-Related Sexual Violence (S/2023/413).

7 University of Edinburgh, PA-X Gender Peace Agreements Database (Accessed 17 October 2023). Available at: https://www.peaceagreements.org/search

8 Report of the United Nations Secretary-General on Women and Peace and Security (S/2022/740). Available at: https://www.securitycouncilreport.org/atf/cf/%7B65BFCF9B-6D27-4E9C-8CD3-CF6E4FF96FF9%7D/S-2022-740.pdf

9 S/RES/1820 (2008), S/RES/1888 (2009), S/RES/1960 (2010), S/RES/2106 (2013), and S/RES/2467 (2019). See also "Security Council Resolutions on Women, Peace and Security." Available at: https://peacemaker.un.org/wps/normative-frameworks/un-security-council-resolutions

10 Report of the United Nations Secretary-General on Conflict-Related Sexual Violence (S/2023/413).

4. Data

The Issue

Gender statistics are central to the development, implementation, monitoring, and advancement of gender-responsive policies and programs. As UN Secretary-General António Guterres declared at the April 2023 meeting of the World Data Forum, "Today in the 21st century, data represents what oil represented in the 20th century—a driver of development and progress."[1] Defined by the United Nations as "as statistics that adequately reflect differences and inequalities in the situation of women and men in all areas of life," gender statistics encompass all stages of the data value chain,[2] including the kind of data to be collected, the methodologies deployed, and the eventual analysis and use of this data.[3]

Despite their importance in policy-making, gender statistics are rarely prioritized in data collection, and the financial resources devoted to them remain inadequate at both the national and international levels. The gender data gap presents a significant barrier to developing and implementing evidence-based policies that foster gender equality and uplift the lives and well-being of women and girls worldwide. As Caroline Criado Perez has observed, "The gender data gap isn't just about silence. These silences, these gaps, have consequences. They impact women's lives every day."[4] Currently, only 42% of the data needed to monitor the gender-specific dimensions of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) are available,[5] and disaggregation by sex and other dimensions—including age, race, ethnicity, migration status, ability, wealth, and income—are not consistent in monitoring frameworks.[6] Despite increases in Official Development Assistance for gender equality in recent years, funding for gender statistics has seen a concerning decline.[7] Yet funding is only part of the problem: high-income countries do not have better statistical coverage of SDG indicators than low-income countries. Even when data are collected, they are not consistently reported.[8]

Bold action is needed to address gaps in the production and use of gender data, particularly on key gender equality concerns such as offline and online

violence against women, women's paid and unpaid work, women's leadership and decision-making, and the gendered impacts of climate change. Policymakers must provide both funding and public statements in support of timely, inclusive, robust, transparent, and publicly available data collection to create a culture of accountability in closing gender gaps and inform policy design and interventions. By increasing technical capacities and investments to produce an integrated base of data and evidence, it will be possible to make meaningful and lasting changes in the lives of women and girls, men and boys everywhere.

Facts and Figures

- Gender data systems are underfunded by approximately $450 million per year.[9]

- Only 20% of the data needed to measure gender-environment related SDGs are available.[10]

- Only 45% of the data needed to measure women's unpaid care and domestic work are currently available.[11] Standard household surveys capture 75% of men's economic activity, but only 30% of women's activity.[12]

- 80% of the data needed to measure intimate partner violence against women are available, but there is currently no data on sexual violence against women and girls by persons other than an intimate partner.[13]

- In 2020, less than 10% of countries reported data related to female access to contraception, and less than 5% of countries reported data related to menstrual material usage.[14]

Gender Mainstreaming and Data

Mainstreaming gender into statistics entails not simply ensuring that data directly related to the needs of women are collected, but also that sex-disaggregated data are produced, analyzed, and considered as the basis of every policy decision. Furthermore, gender biases and gender equality concerns must be taken into account during all stages of data collection, analysis, and dissemination.

Gender mainstreaming requires political will, commitment, and adequate technical skills at all levels of government and in all institutions that produce official statistics.[15] The development of gender statistics should be specified within legal frameworks of official statistical systems, with explicit requirements for sex-disaggregation and the incorporation of a gender perspective in national statistics laws and policies. National statistical offices need to work with international and regional organizations and agencies, as well as academic and research institutions, to mainstream gender in the development and revision of concepts, definitions, and methods of collecting data.

At the same time, more effort is needed to mainstream statistics into gender equality activities. User-producer dialogues should be fostered between national statistical offices and relevant stakeholders, including grassroots women's groups. These dialogues can increase the accessibility of gender statistics and result in the dissemination of gender data in formats that better address users' needs.

Growing demand for gender data and improved technology have fostered the emergence of promising new data sources, tools, and methods, including citizen-generated data, big data, satellite imagery, and geospatial data. Data collected by these non-traditional approaches can augment official sources such as household surveys and administrative data, address complex crises and challenges, and improve service delivery.[16] In particular, citizen contributions to data can fill critical data gaps for marginalized groups, especially women. Such work can ensure that their experiences are reflected in data, thus advancing fairness, inclusiveness, openness, accountability, and transparency in statistics and in public policy. In Ghana, for example, the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS), Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection (MGCSP), and German Development Corporation (GIZ) have piloted a mobile web-based platform that can be used by citizens to generate data on gender-based violence, enabling effective transmission of information on hard-to-collect data.[17]

There are various initiatives at global and regional levels aimed at improving the production and use of gender statistics. Since 2016, UN Women has implemented the Women Count program, a multi-stakeholder global strategy that is creating a radical shift in how gender statistics are used, produced, and promoted to inform policy and advocacy on gender equality. The Gender Data Portal of The World Bank offers a wealth of sex-disaggregated data and compelling visualizations of gender data, facilitating the use of data for policy decision-making.[18] Data 2X, a civil society organization, partners with organizations in government, civil society, and academe to improve the production and dissemination of gender data. At the regional level, the Africa Programme on Gender Statistics works with countries and development partners to increase attention to the promotion, production, and use of gender statistics as an important tool for measuring and supporting progress towards achieving the SDGs and Agenda 2063, Africa's development master plan.

Case Studies and Best Practices

Using national gender statistics to bolster the care economy
Since 2017, UN Women has supported the Government of Kenya in its efforts to improve the planning, coordination, production, and use of gender statistics. As a result, gender statistics are now recognized as a key priority in Kenya's national development plan, including the creation of the first Gender Sector Statistics Plan.[19] In 2021, Kenya conducted its first time-use survey, which led to the recognition of unpaid care and domestic work as a key priority in Kenya's Fourth Medium-Term Plan for 2023–2027. Together with Kenya's State Department for Gender, UN Women supported a National Care Work Needs Assessment, which drew on the results of the survey to map out the economic benefits of investing in care services.[20] The findings will inform the development of Kenya's first National Care Policy in 2023.

Collaborating to create powerful new gender indices that monitor gender equality
Given the multiplicity of measures and variety of data and data sources, assessing overall progress toward gender equality presents a complex challenge; moreover, composite measures to assess progress towards gender equality have been limited in scope. To address this problem, UN Women and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) have produced two indices: the Women's Empowerment Index (WEI), which measures women's power and freedoms to make choices, and

the Global Gender Parity Index (GGPI) which assesses gender disparities in key dimensions of human development. Combined, these indices offer a comprehensive assessment of countries' progress in achieving gender equality. Their report finds that women are empowered to achieve, on average, only 60% of their full potential, as measured by the WEI, and 28% less than men across key human development dimensions, as measured by the GGPI.[21] Indonesia has since reached out to UN Women and UNDP for support to replicate the index at the national level, with the possibility to disaggregate the indices at local level and by sub-groups, to inform national policies. This collaboration demonstrates the power of partnerships to increase the production and use of gender statistics.

Using open-source geospatial data to track gender-based violence
Open-source mapping initiatives have grown significantly over the last decade, facilitated by the availability of easy-to-use open-source tools and software. Although women's participation in this area is still somewhat limited, initiatives such as GeoChicas, an international women's mapping community with members in more than 12 countries, have made significant strides in producing valuable location-based data during disasters and on femicide violence. In 2019, the group mapped all establishments such as support centers, legal and social consultancy programs, and health clinics that provide aid to women who are victims of gender-based violence throughout Latin America, providing valuable information that public authorities and women's rights organizations can use to take preventive measures and provide more targeted services for victims and their families.[22] In Senegal, where access to health care is a key challenge for women, an open mapping project produced valuable information on the access, condition, supply, and maintenance of health facilities in the Matam region.[23]

Recommendations to the G7 Leaders

Provide consistent and sustainable funding for gender data. In collaboration with development partners and private sector stakeholders, prioritize investments in gender data collection, analysis, and dissemination. Increase financial commitments for targeted data collection in thematic areas in which high-quality data is most urgently needed, including gender-based violence, women's paid and unpaid work, women's leadership and decision-making, and the gendered impacts of climate change.

Increase accessibility and use of gender data. Support and strengthen platforms that provide freely accessible gender statistics and track progress on gender equality, including the G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps and the UN Women Data Hub. Promote openness and use of gender data and involve gender equality advocates and women's rights organizations in decisions about what data are collected to ensure greater use and uptake of gender statistics to inform policies.

Support the development of technical resources and improved skills in gender statistics. Provide resources to build data literacy skills and create clear guidelines on public- and private-sector collection of gender data. Promote greater interoperability of different data sources, including through the development and use of new technologies, to address gender data gaps while ensuring safety and ethical use of the data. Foster the robust and reliable collection and use of non-traditional data, such as citizen-generated data, big data, satellite imagery, and geospatial data, to fill critical knowledge gaps.

Improve gender data disaggregation and collection of data on vulnerable and marginalized groups. Intensify efforts to collect, analyze, disseminate, and use data disaggregated simultaneously by gender and other characteristics, including age, race, ethnicity, migration status, ability, wealth, and income, in order to adopt effective and targeted policies with an intersectional lens.

1 António Guterres, Secretary-General of the United Nations, statement to the UN World Data Forum, Hangzhou, 24 April 2023. Available at: https://www.un.org/sg/en/content/sg/statement/2023-04-24/secretary-generals-video-message-the-opening-of-the-united-nations-world-data-forum

2 Open Data Watch, "The Data Value Chain: Moving from Production to Impact," 8 February 2018. Available at: https://opendatawatch.com/publications/the-data-value-chain-moving-from-production-to-impact/

3 Specifically, the UN identifies four types of gender statistics: (1) data collected and presented by sex as a primary and overall classification; (2) data that reflect gender issues; (3) data based on concepts and definitions that adequately reflect the diversity of women and men and capture all aspects of their lives; and (4) data collection methods that take into account stereotypes and social and cultural factors that may induce gender bias in the data. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, *Integrating a Gender Perspective into Statistics,* Studies in Methods, Series F No. 111 (New York, 2016). Available at: https://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic-social/Standards-and-Methods/files/Handbooks/gender/Integrating-a-Gender-Perspective-into-Statistics-E.pdf

4 Caroline Criado Perez, *Invisible Women: Data Bias in a World Designed for Men* (New York: Abrams, 2019), xi.

5 Jessamyn Excarnacion, Ramya Emandi, and Papa Seck. "It will take 22 years to close SDG gender data gaps." UN Women, 6 September 2022. Available at: https://data.unwomen.org/features/it-will-take-22-years-close-sdg-gender-data-gaps

6 Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goal Indicators (IAEG-SDG), "Data Disaggregation and SDG Indicators: Policy Priorities and Current and Future Disaggregation Plans," Statistical Commission, 5–8 March 2019. Available at: https://unstats.un.org/unsd/statcom/50th-session/documents/BG-Item3a-Data-Disaggregation-E.pdf

7 PARIS21, *Partner Report on Support to Statistics 2022* (Paris, 2022). Available at: https://www.paris21.org/sites/default/files/2022-11/Press%202022_WEB.pdf

8 Kathleen Beegle, Umar Serajuddin, Brian Stacy, and Divyanshi Wadhwa, "Missing SDG Gender Indicators," Policy Research Working Paper, No. 10544, (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 2023). Available at: https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/099401008102333778/pdf/IDU0948ba62905408048c609d430b3c1e874dc00.pdf

9 Data 2x, "Investment in Gender Data Accelerates Gender Equality." Available at: https://commit.data2x.org/wp-content/uploads/2022/03/Data2X-Generation-Equality-Infographic-Update-2022.pdf

10 UN Women, *Making every woman and girl count: moving the needle on gender data* (2022). Available at: https://data.unwomen.org/publications/final-annual-report-making-ever-woman-and-girl-count

11 Ibid.

12 Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, "Closing the gender data gap: how efforts to collect data about women and girls drive global economic and social progress." Available at: https://www.nytimes.com/paidpost/gates-foundation/closing-the-gender-data-gap.html

13 UN Women, *Making every woman and girl count: moving the needle on gender data* (2022).

14 Delaney Burns, Tara Grabowsky, Emma Kemble, and Lucy Pérez, "Closing the data gaps in women's health," McKinsey & Company, 3 April 2023. Available at: https://www.mckinsey.com/industries/life-sciences/our-insights/closing-the-data-gaps-in-womens-health

15 PARIS21, *Gender Statistics Module of the National Strategy for the Development of Statistics Guidelines,* 2022. Available at: https://paris21.org/NSDS-gender-module-english

16 UN Geospatial Network, *Blueprint Geospatial Landscape of the United Nations System,* 2020. Available at: https://ggim.un.org/meetings/GGIM-committee/10th-Session/documents/2020_UN-Geospatial-Network-Blueprint-Landscape.pdf

17 Statistical Service Ghana, "Terms of Reference: Citizen Generated Data—Gender-Based Violence Project." Available at: https://statsghana.gov.gh/gssmain/storage/opportunity/Terms%20of%20Reference%20-%20GENDER%20.pdf

18 World Bank Gender Data Portal. Available at: https://genderdata.worldbank.org/

19 Kenya National Bureau of Statistics and UN Women, *Gender Sector Statistics Plan* (2020). Available at: https://www.genderinkenya.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/12/Gender-Sector-Statistics-Plan.pdf

20 "Gender data shines policy spotlight on unpaid care and domestic work in Kenya," UN Women Africa, 31 August 2022. Available at: https://africa.unwomen.org/en/stories/news/2022/08/gender-data-shines-policy-spotlight-on-unpaid-care-and-domestic-work-in-kenya

21 UN Women and UNDP, *The Paths to Equal: Twin indices on women's empowerment and gender equality,* 2023. Available at: https://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2023/07/the-paths-to-equal-twin-indices-on-womens-empowerment-and-gender-equality

22 Ritoban Mukherjee, "In Latin America, Using Crowd-Sourced Maps to Improve the Lives of Women," Undark, 17 July 2019. Available at: https://undark.org/2019/07/17/feminist-maps-latin-america/

23 See https://www.hotosm.org/projects/wna-projects/ for more information.

Dashboard

The **G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps** presents robust and transparent data tracking progress toward gender equality in the G7 countries. The 2022 GEAC led the establishment of the Dashboard to illustrate the current state of gender equality through data, offering policymakers a critical tool for comparing conditions by country and allowing them to assess the impact of various policies over time.

The Dashboard is comprised of six major areas: employment and social security; education; entrepreneurship; leadership; health and well-being; and funds for development cooperation. It is based on data that have been collected by the OECD in roughly the same manner for all G7 countries; aggregate values for the G7, EU, and OECD are also provided as a reference.[1]

The 2023 GEAC is pleased to present updated Dashboard data and discussions of the Dashboard indicators,[2] and we strongly hope to sustain and expand it further so that we can continue to assess the progress of each country. Thus, it is critical that the quality and meaningfulness of the data be assured and improved. While the 2022 GEAC Report[3] presented trends on several indicators, the 2023 GEAC Report focuses on providing an international comparison of countries using the most recent available figures.

Comparable, high-quality, and reliable data are key to alleviating social problems and addressing complex issues. More important, sharing data among G7 countries and beyond is crucial to making progress: because gender equality is a common global agenda and a Sustainable Development Goal, it would be impossible to approach the problem of gender inequality without international collaboration. Each country may have unique manifestations of gender inequality, yet we can share fundamental approaches to shaping global solutions.

1 Unless otherwise indicated, all G7, EU, and OECD averages refer to unweighted averages.

2 All figures presented in this section, Dashboard, are derived from the data updated by the OECD (https://www.gender.go.jp/international/int_kaigi/int_g7g8/g7_summit_2023.html).

3 Gender Equality Advisory Council Report 2022, "A shared vision for gender equality." Available at: https://g7geac.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/03/geac_2022_a_-shared_vision_for_gender_equality.pdf

Employment and Social Security

Women's **economic empowerment** is both a driver and a consequence of gender equality. As discussed in the **Economic Empowerment** essay, women's financial independence is closely connected to a number of variables, including labor market participation, wage and pension income, and care work. Addressing gender gaps in economic participation and opportunity therefore requires a multifaceted response that brings together public- and private-sector approaches for gender mainstreaming and looks at opportunities for men and women to ensure material well-being throughout the life course.

To address gender gaps in the degree of economic empowerment, the G7 tracks six indicators that show corresponding differences between men and women: labor force participation, part-time employment, wages, unpaid care work, childcare costs, and pension income.

Labor force participation rate in percent

The **labor force participation rate (LFPR)** shows the percentage of women and men of working age (15–64 years) who are in the labor force in 2021. The figures are based on the overall number of those who are at work, without taking into account differences in the type of employment or the working hours across nations.

In all G7 countries, the LFPR of men is higher than that of women. Yet major differences are evident when comparing countries. Gender gaps are smallest in France, the UK, and Canada (6 to 7 percentage points), and largest in Italy (19 percentage points) and Japan (14 percentage points).

When comparing women's LFPR of each country, a somewhat different pattern emerges: women have the highest rates of labor force participation in Canada (76%) and the UK (75%), followed by Germany (74%) and Japan (73%). Women's LFPR is lowest in Italy (55%) and the US (68%).

These differences highlight the pressing need for policy interventions not only to bridge the gap in labor force participation between women and men, but also to boost women's LFPR more generally. For this reason, the 2023 GEAC calls upon the G7 leaders to implement initiatives to encourage and support women's full participation in the rapidly changing global economy (see the **Economic Empowerment** essay and recommendations).

2021

	0	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

Women ▬ Men

	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

CA 🇨🇦 76 — 83

FR 🇫🇷 70 — 76

US 🇺🇸 68 — 79

UK 🇬🇧 75 — 82

DE 🇩🇪 74 — 83

JP 🇯🇵 73 — 87

IT 🇮🇹 55 — 74

	0	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%

EU 🇪🇺 70 — 79

G7 70 — 80

OECD 69 — 80

	0	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%
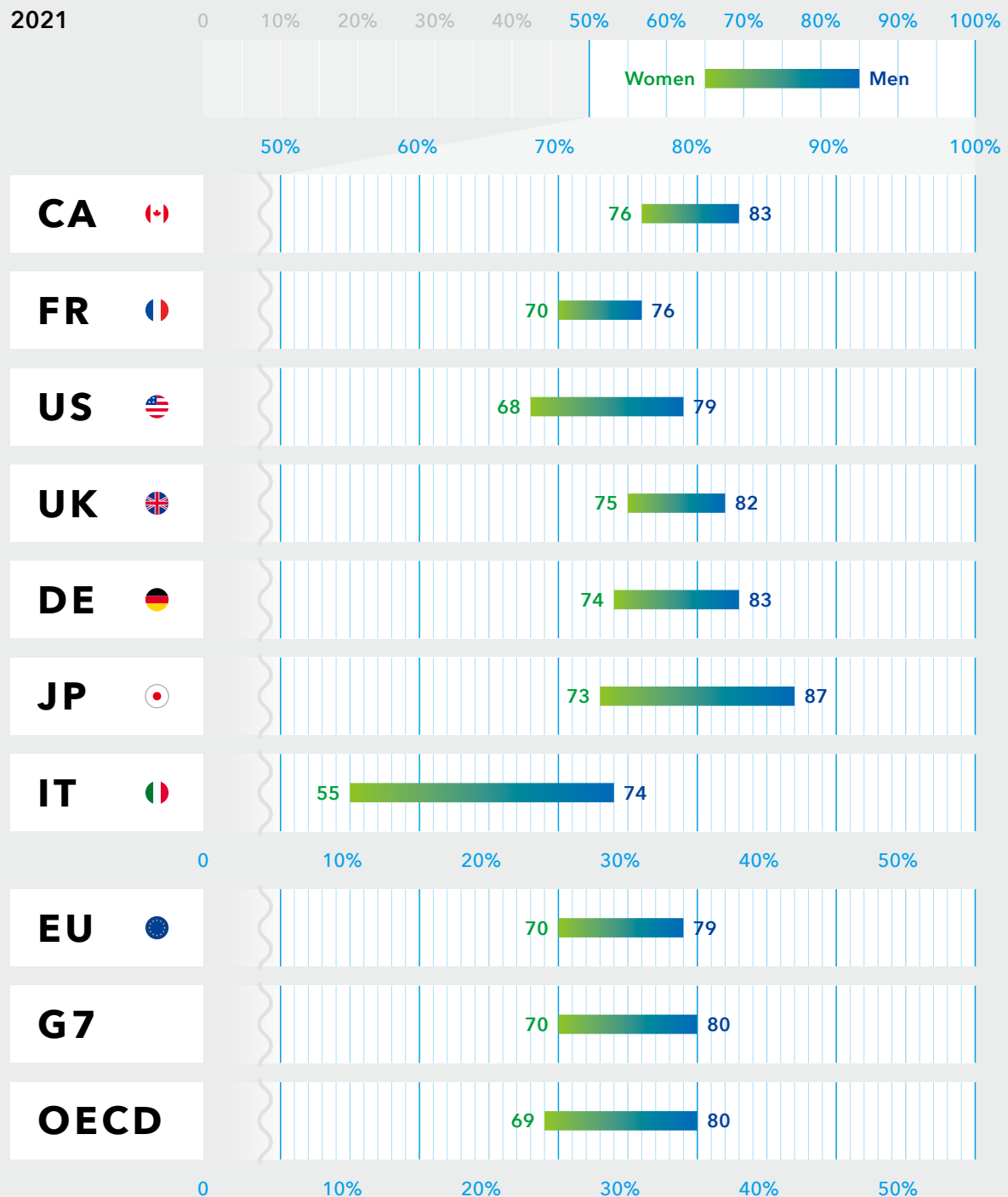
Defined as the labor force divided by the total working-age population (aged 15–64). **Source:** OECD.Stat–Labor force participation rate
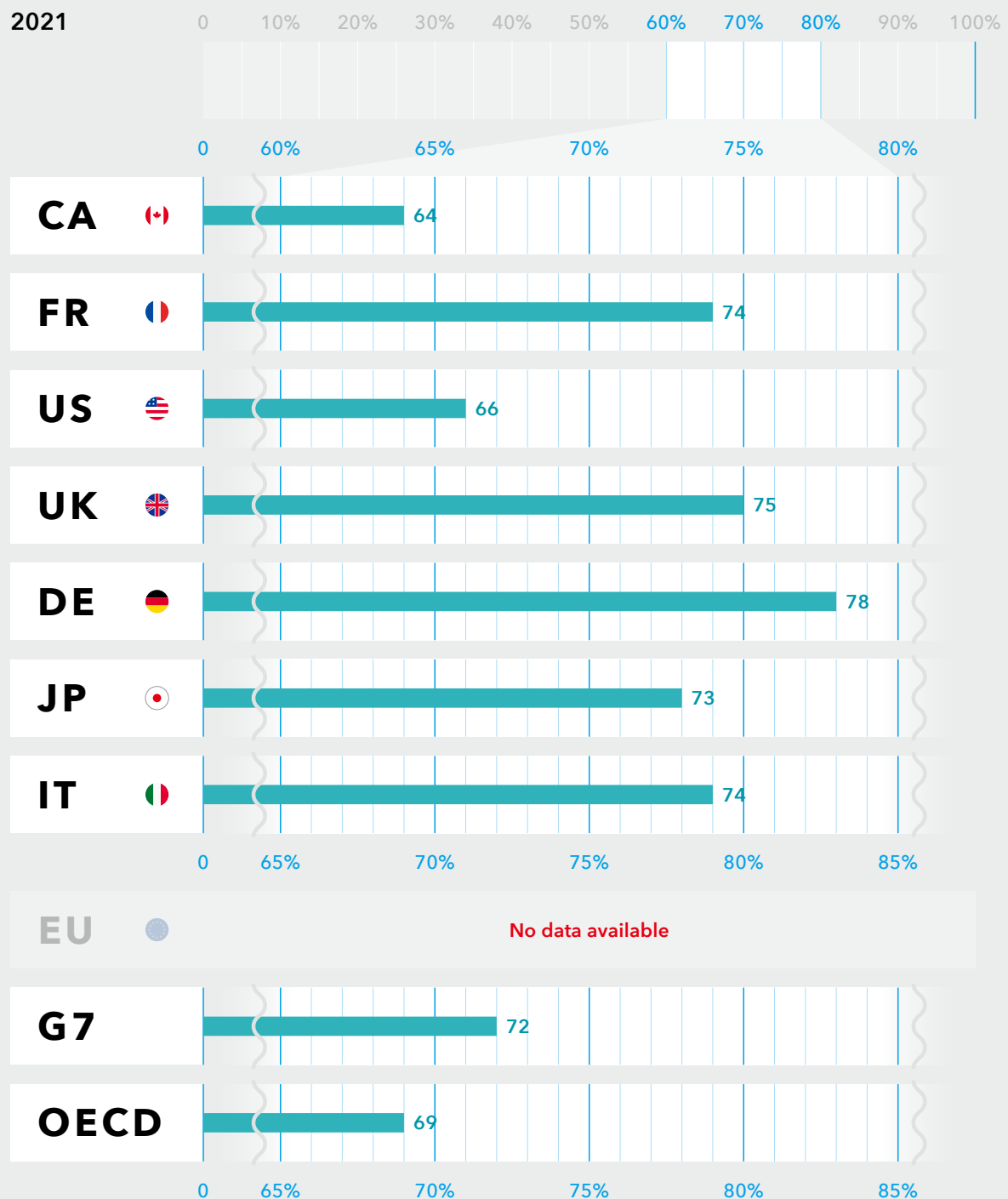
Share of women among all part-time employees in percent

The indicator **share of women among all part-time employees** describes differences in working hours. "Part-time" is defined as working less than 30 hours a week and therefore allows only a rough estimate of the actual differences in the working hours of men and women. For example, women could be working nearly 30 hours per week in one country and only 10 hours per week in another. However, both groups are included in the part-time category. More important, differences between full-time and part-time work can include more than work hours. For example, in some countries job mobility between these two modes of work is quite limited; once someone takes a part-time job, they are more likely to be trapped in unstable or marginal employment.

In all G7 countries, significantly more women than men are engaged in part-time work. However, the numbers in the respective countries vary considerably. In Canada and the US, the percentage of part-time workers who are women ranges from 64% to 66%. In France, Italy, the UK, and Japan, it is approximately 75%. Germany has the highest percentage at 78%. Despite a significant increase in women's labor-force participation in recent years, the gap in working hours remains markedly wide.

As not only working hours, but also employment stability and mobility have a significant impact on the financial security of women, the GEAC emphasizes that mobility between part-time and full-time employment should be fostered in order to develop women's long-term career prospects (see **Economic Empowerment** essay and recommendations).

2021

| | 0 | 10% | 20% | 30% | 40% | 50% | 60% | 70% | 80% | 90% | 100% |

| | 0 | 60% | 65% | 70% | 75% | 80% |

CA 🇨🇦 64

FR 🇫🇷 74

US 🇺🇸 66

UK 🇬🇧 75

DE 🇩🇪 78

JP 🇯🇵 73

IT 🇮🇹 74

| | 0 | 65% | 70% | 75% | 80% | 85% |

EU ● No data available

G7 72

OECD 69

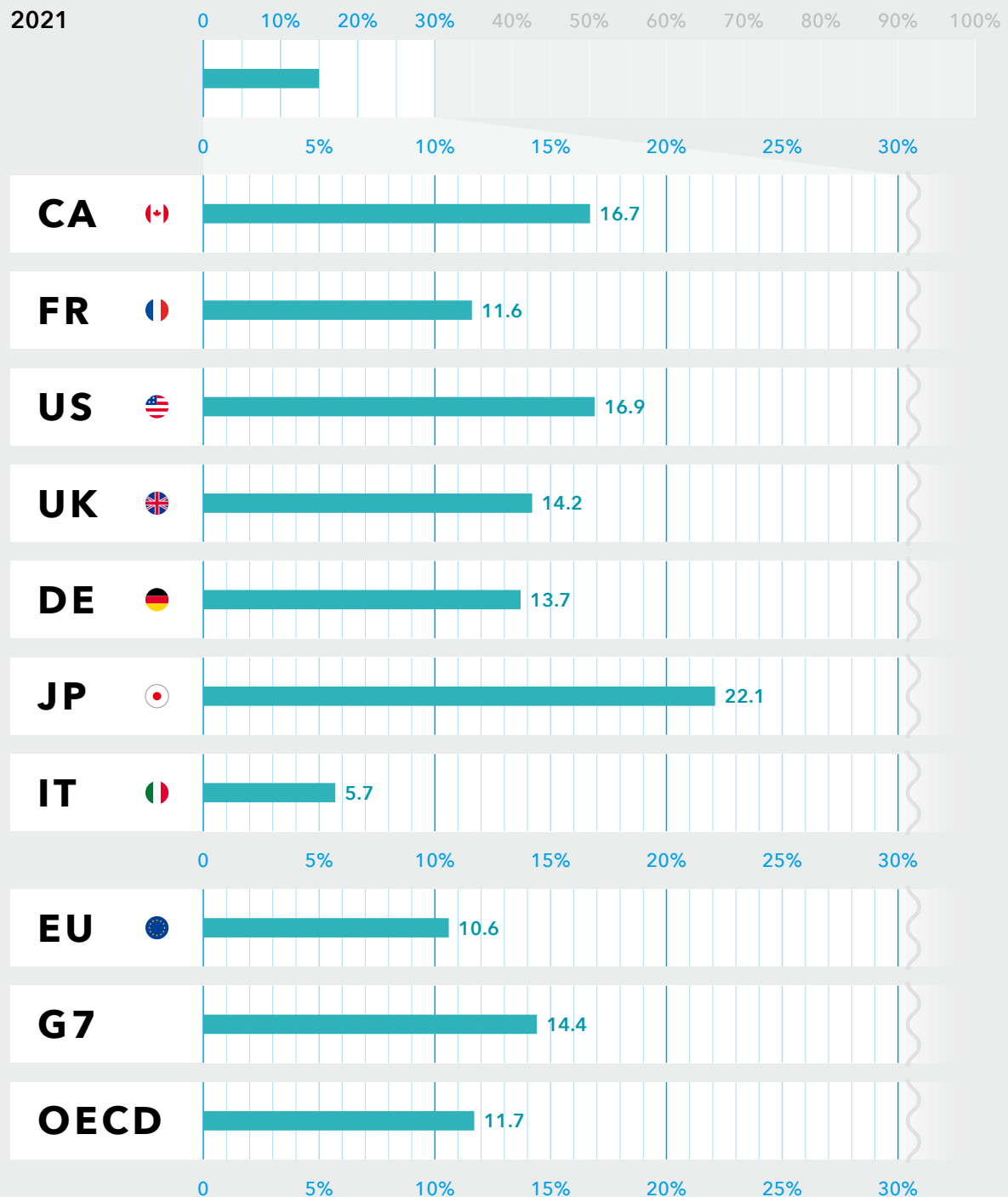| | 0 | 65% | 70% | 75% | 80% | 85% |

Defined as the share of women among all part-time employees. Part-time employment is based on a common definition of 30 or less usual weekly hours of work in the main job for the total employed population (aged 15–64). For the United States, data refer to dependent employment only and for Japan, data refer to actual hours worked. **Source:** OECD.Stat–FTPT employment

Gender wage gap in percent

The gender wage gap refers to the difference between the average incomes of men and women employed full time, expressed as a percentage relative to men. As fewer women than men work full time, this measurement does not show the difference in the weekly, monthly, or annual income of all employees. Following the previous year's recommendations, the 2023 GEAC advocates for an expansion of data to cover various types of employment, including part-time workers and those in marginal employment.

In all G7 countries, men in full-time employment earned more than women in full-time employment. Japan exhibits the largest wage gap at 22.1%, but a trend in closing the gender wage gap (from 28.7% in 2010) can be observed. Despite high rates of labor force participation, women in Canada still experience a gender wage gap of nearly 17%, suggesting that action is needed to improve these circumstances. For example, the European Commission's directive on equal pay and pay transparency, which took effect in April 2023, requires individual companies to report gender pay gaps and justify any wage differences.

As discussed in this report's essay on **Economic Empowerment**, the mechanisms that generate the gender wage gap are multiple and complex, and it is not easy to identify a clear causal relationship. The gender gap in wages is not solely derived from labor market variables; it is also associated with phenomena outside the market. Because they take on the majority of unpaid care work, women are more likely to be employed in flexible, lesser-paid jobs compatible with caregiving. Women are also more likely to experience career interruptions, and as a result, are less likely to enjoy the same opportunities for promotion and career advancement as their male counterparts. Due to gender differences in tertiary fields of study, women also have lower chances of working in well-paid STEM fields. Instead, women are concentrated in lower-compensated fields of care work, social services, and education. For this reason, the 2023 GEAC has called upon the G7 leaders to invest in programs focusing on STEM competencies, AI skills, digital literacy, climate resilience, and leadership for women and girls (see the **Education** essay and recommendations).

2021

Country	Gender wage gap (%)
CA 🇨🇦	16.7
FR 🇫🇷	11.6
US 🇺🇸	16.9
UK 🇬🇧	14.2
DE 🇩🇪	13.7
JP 🇯🇵	22.1
IT 🇮🇹	5.7
EU 🇪🇺	10.6
G7	14.4
OECD	11.7

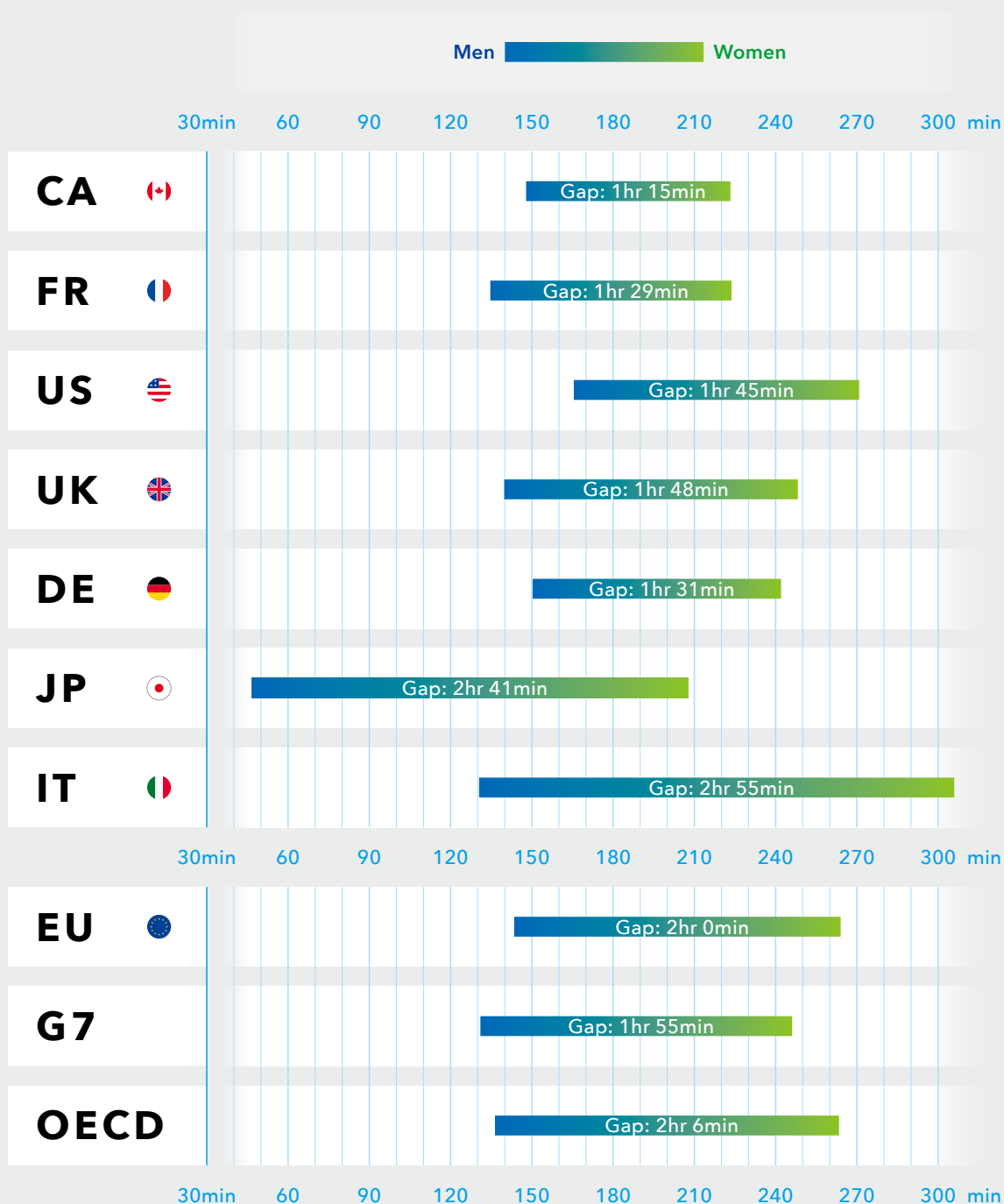Defined as the unadjusted difference between median wages of men and women relative to the median wages of men, based on gross earnings of full-time employees. The earnings pay reporting periods are weekly earnings for Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States, and monthly earnings for France, Germany, Italy, and Japan. **Source:** OECD.Stat–Decile ratios of gross earnings: Gender wage gap (median)

Gender gap in unpaid care and housework in minutes per day

Differences in labor force participation, part-time work, and wages are closely connected to differences in unpaid care and housework. In all G7 countries, women consistently dedicate more time to caregiving tasks than men do. Yet the gender gaps vary substantially between countries, ranging from 1 hour and 15 minutes in Canada, to nearly three hours in Italy. Women in Italy also dedicate almost 5 hours per day to unpaid care work, the highest duration among the G7 countries and significantly more than the EU, G7, and OECD averages.

As noted by the OECD, the data presented here serve as a placeholder due to the lack of internationally comparable data. The definition of unpaid work and the measurement of time spent in unpaid work varies by nation and across the surveys on which the Dashboard relies. The 2023 GEAC therefore calls upon the G7 leaders to invest in creating targeted, internationally comparable data on women's unpaid care work in order to make measurement and assessments more accurate and reliable (see **Data** essay and recommendations).

Men ▬▬▬▬▬ Women

| | 30min | 60 | 90 | 120 | 150 | 180 | 210 | 240 | 270 | 300 min |

CA 🇨🇦 — Gap: 1hr 15min

FR 🇫🇷 — Gap: 1hr 29min

US 🇺🇸 — Gap: 1hr 45min

UK 🇬🇧 — Gap: 1hr 48min

DE 🇩🇪 — Gap: 1hr 31min

JP 🇯🇵 — Gap: 2hr 41min

IT 🇮🇹 — Gap: 2hr 55min

| | 30min | 60 | 90 | 120 | 150 | 180 | 210 | 240 | 270 | 300 min |

EU 🇪🇺 — Gap: 2hr 0min

G7 — Gap: 1hr 55min

OECD — Gap: 2hr 6min

| | 30min | 60 | 90 | 120 | 150 | 180 | 210 | 240 | 270 | 300 min |

Defined as the time spent in unpaid work among all available time per day among 15–64-year-olds. This includes routine housework; shopping; care for household and non-household members (inc. children and adults); volunteering; travel related to household activities; other unpaid activities. Data are not always fully comparable due to differences in classifications in each national time-use survey. No trend is presented, as survey years differ widely. Data refer to 2021 for Japan, 2019 for the United States, 2015 for Canada and the United Kingdom, 2014 for Italy, 2013 for Germany, and 2010 for France. The OECD average excludes Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Czech Republic, Iceland, Israel, the Slovak Republic, and Switzerland. The EU average excludes all non-OECD EU members as well as the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic. **Sources:** OECD.Stat–Employment: Time spent in paid and unpaid work, by sex; Japanese 2021 Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities

Net childcare costs for parents using childcare facilities (as percentage of average wage)

Access to affordable, high-quality childcare is critical to enabling women's active participation in the labor force. This year, the GEAC Dashboard introduced a new indicator tracking the cost of full-time, center-based childcare, using publicly provided centers where the option exists; where childcare is locally regulated, data refer to childcare settings for a specific sub-national jurisdiction (e.g., Berlin for Germany, Michigan for the United States).

Data from 2021 show that the costs of childcare facilities in G7 countries vary widely, consuming more than a quarter of the average annual salary in Canada (28%) and the UK (27%). Parents in Italy and Germany, by contrast, pay very little for state-sponsored childcare services. The 2023 GEAC has called upon the G7 leaders to develop, fund, and support various kinds of high-quality childcare systems (see **Economic Empowerment** essay and recommendations).

2021

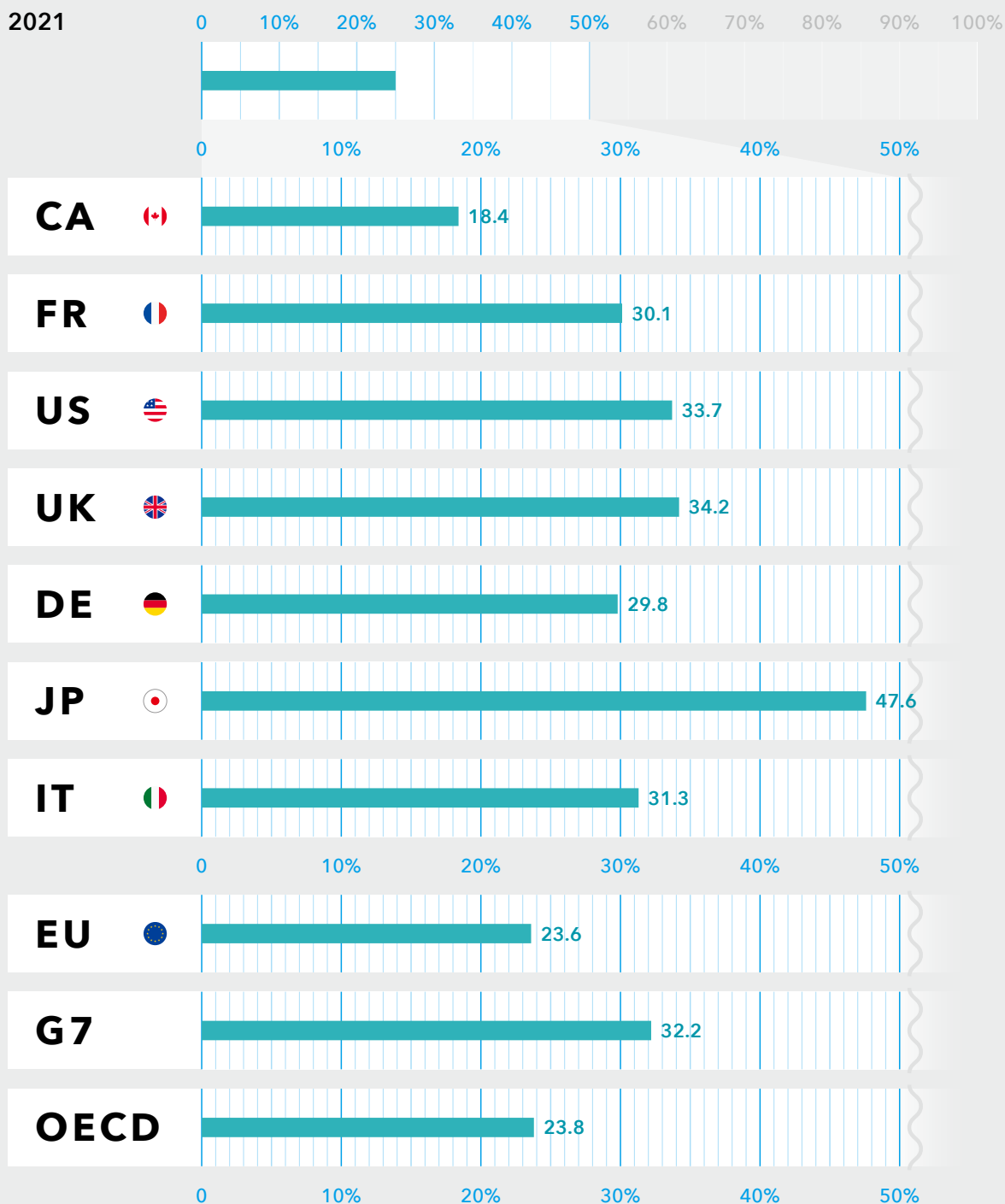|	
CA	28.0
FR	12.0
US	20.0
UK	27.0
DE	1.0
JP	11.0
IT	0.0
EU	10.4
G7	14.1
OECD	13.3
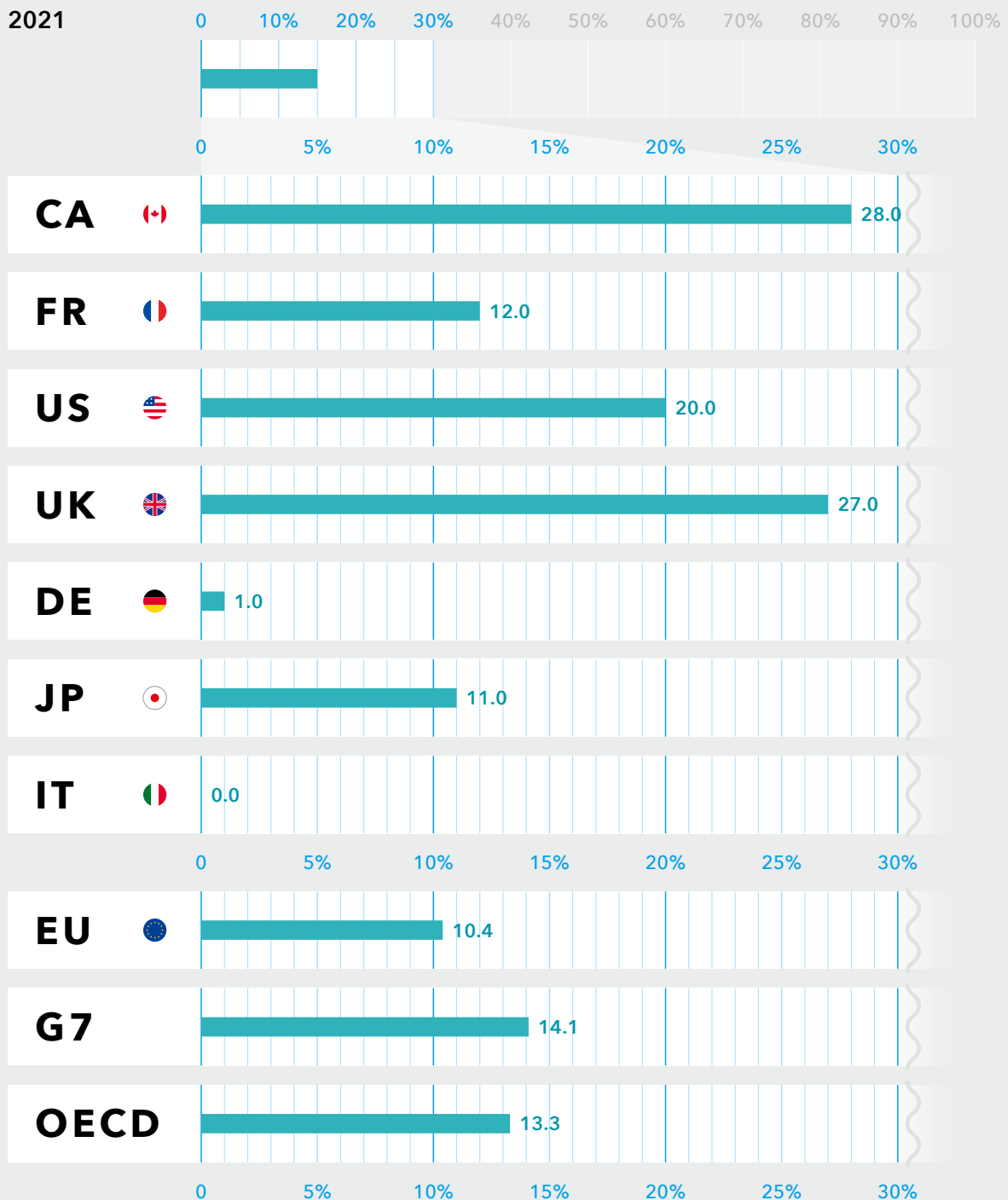
Defined as gross fees minus childcare benefits/rebates and tax deductions, plus any resulting changes in other taxes and benefits following childcare use. Data assume full-time care for a two-child family (children aged 2 and 3), with parents in full-time employment (one earning 100% and the other 67% of the average wage). Where local authorities regulate childcare fees, settings for a specific sub-national jurisdiction have been used as follows: Canada (Ontario), Germany (Berlin), Italy (Rome), United Kingdom (England), United States (Michigan). For France and Japan, national rules apply. For EU countries, see OECD (2022). The OECD average excludes Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, and Mexico. **Source:** OECD.Stat—Net childcare costs

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Gender gap in pension income in percent

The gender gap in pension income is defined as the difference between the mean retirement income of men and women over the mean retirement income of men among pension beneficiaries. Here, the OECD lacks sufficient data to show progress over time; furthermore, the data presented were collected in different years in different countries, making it difficult to make informed international comparisons.

Across the G7, women's pensions are lower than those of men, but gender gaps vary considerably, ranging from 18.4% in Canada to 47.6% in Japan. Nearly all countries with updated data since the 2022 GEAC Report have shown a narrowing of the gender gap in pension income, including Canada, France, and Italy.

Because pension amounts are primarily linked to paid employment, it should not be surprising that women have lower pension incomes; as we have seen, women are less likely to hold full-time, stable jobs and more likely to experience career disruptions. Pension systems also vary by country, and the guarantee of income security in later life depends on how a pension system is constructed, whether a wife can benefit from the pension of her deceased spouse, or whether she is eligible for a spouse's pension after divorce. Furthermore, while all G7 countries with the exception of the United States offer pension credits for maternity periods, calculations for care-related career breaks vary considerably. The structure of pension systems is a complex issue, but nonetheless critical to guaranteeing financial security for all.

2021

		0	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%
CA	🇨🇦			18.4			
FR	🇫🇷				30.1		
US	🇺🇸				33.7		
UK	🇬🇧				34.2		
DE	🇩🇪				29.8		
JP	🇯🇵					47.6	
IT	🇮🇹				31.3		
EU	🇪🇺			23.6			
G7					32.2		
OECD				23.8			

Defined as the difference between the mean retirement income of men and women (aged 65+) over the mean retirement income of men (aged 65+), among pension beneficiaries. Data for Canada and Japan refer to 2020 and for the United States to 2019. See detailed notes in source databases. For Japan, data also include pension recipients under the age of 65, while excluding private pensions. For Germany, the previous 2022 version of the Dashboard stated a pension gap of 39.2% for 2020, but the underlying Gender Pension Gap series was revised in 2022/2023 to 29.1% for 2020. The OECD average excludes Australia, Costa Rica, Israel, Korea, and New Zealand. **Sources:** Eurostat Database–Gender pension gap by age group and for non-European OECD countries OECD (2021), Towards Improved Retirement Savings Outcomes for Women; Figure 1.1. as well as OECD calculations based on MHLW (2020), Annual Report of the Public Pension System and Statistics Canada (2022)–Income of individuals by age group, sex, and income source.

Education

Education is not only a fundamental right, but also key to ensuring the well-being and economic opportunities of individuals and communities. Digital and technical skills are especially important for the labor markets of the future, which will be profoundly impacted by the great transformations of digitization, globalization, artificial intelligence, and the development of a green economy.

The G7 has therefore decided to track education with three indicators that stand as proxies for the educational participation of women: mathematical literacy (as measured through PISA mathematics scores), proportion of women among all who attained tertiary education, and the proportion of women among all tertiary graduates in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM).

OECD PISA Mathematics Scores

Note: As the PISA assessment is administered every 3 years, the data and discussion for this indicator have not been updated since the 2022 GEAC Report. It is included here for ease of comparison with the other Education indicators.

PISA scores vary greatly between the G7 countries, with Japan performing significantly better than all others. In all G7 countries, the PISA scores of men are higher than those of women. Major differences in the gender test score gap become evident when comparing countries. The gap is smallest in Canada (4 points), followed by Germany, France, the US (between 7 and 8), Japan (10), the UK (12), and Italy (15).

The GEAC points out that, in addition to closing the test score gap between men and women, it is imperative to raise mathematical competency for all. At present, many G7 countries could make more efforts to train mathematical competencies for both women and men. The GEAC recommends significantly larger investments in this domain, taking into consideration that, due to school disruptions during the COVID-19 pandemic, test scores in 2021 could be even lower than the 2018 figures reported here.
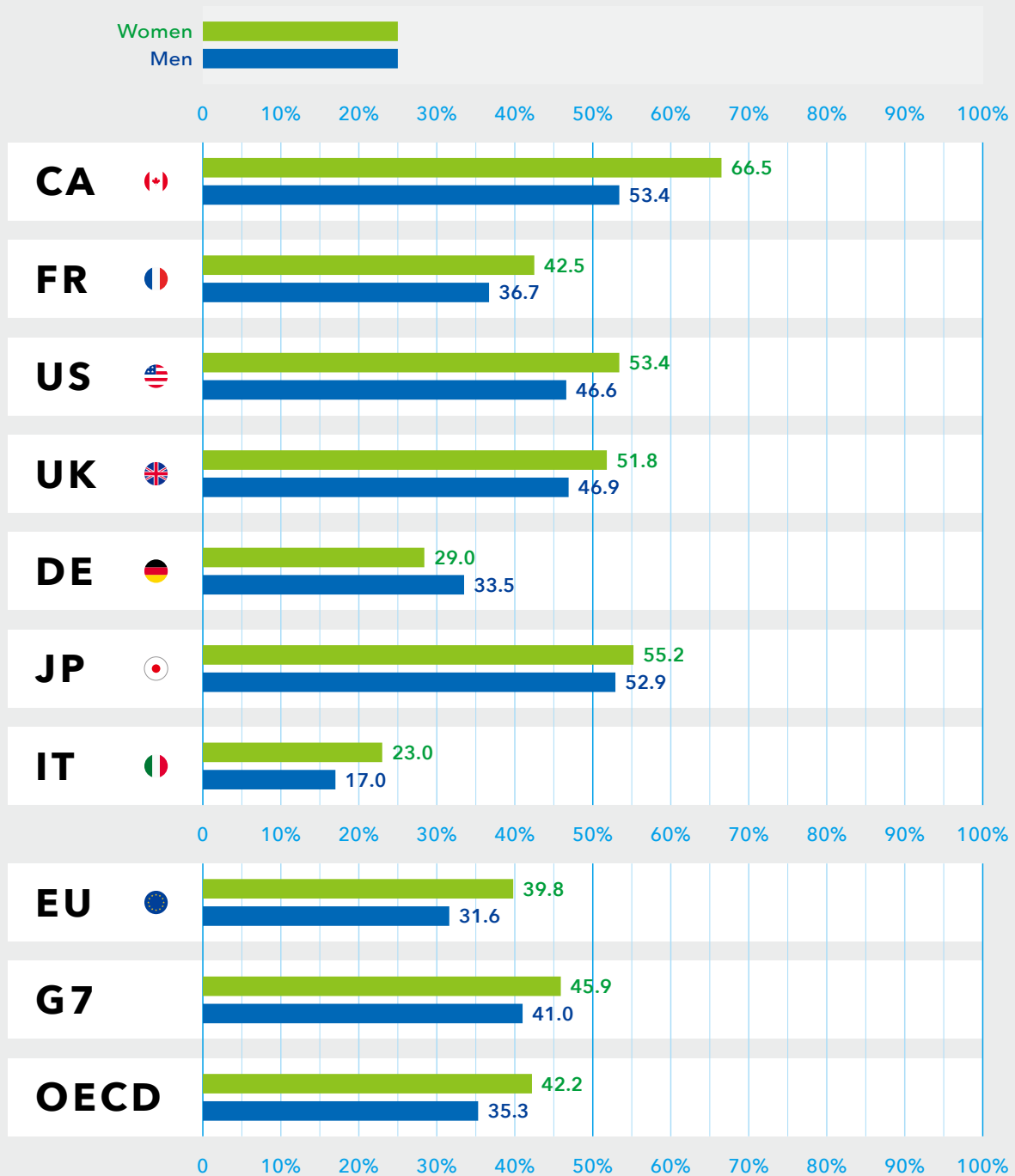
2018

	girls ▬▬ boys
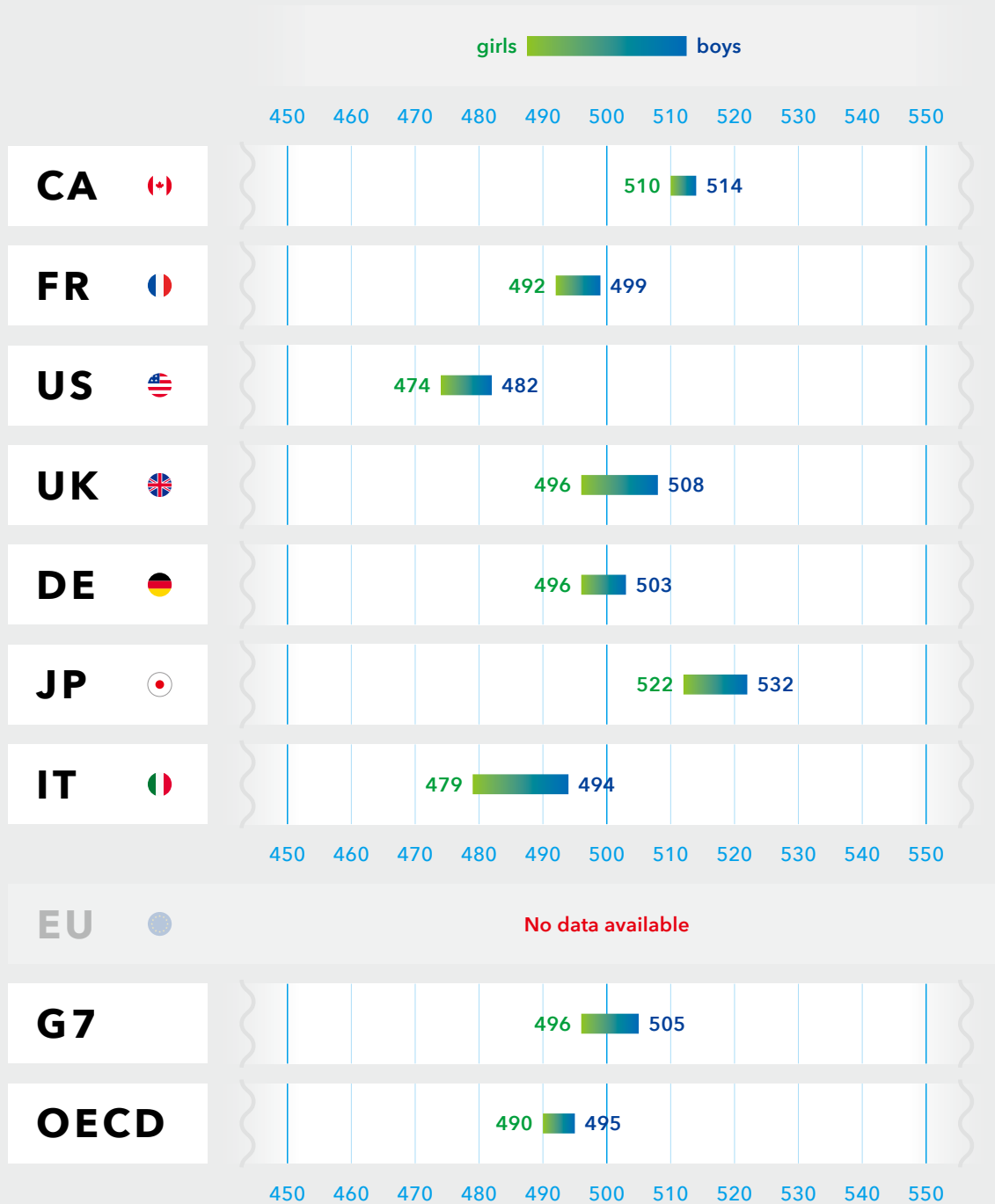
Mathematical performance, for PISA, measures the mathematical literacy of a 15-year-old to formulate, employ, and interpret mathematics in a variety of contexts to describe, predict, and explain phenomena, recognizing the role that mathematics plays in the world. PISA scores are scaled to fit approximately normal distributions, with means around 500 score points and standard deviations around 100 score points. The mean score is the measure, per country and year, and by gender. The OECD average excludes Colombia, Costa Rica, Latvia, and Lithuania. The EU average excludes non-OECD EU members (Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Malta, Romania), Latvia, and Lithuania. **Source:** OECD (2022), Mathematics performance (PISA)

Share of the population aged 25–64 who attained tertiary education

This indicator was introduced to the G7 Dashboard in 2023. In every G7 country but Germany, more women than men hold a tertiary degree. Data from 2020 show that Canada stands as a frontrunner (66.5%), while more than half of women in Japan, the US, and the UK hold post-secondary or tertiary degrees. It is worth noting that in those countries where fewer women have attained tertiary education, including Germany and Italy, the attainment rate for men is also low. It is therefore instructive not only to consider gender gaps but also to consider more broadly initiatives to increase higher education participation rates for both men and women.

2020

		Women	Men
CA	🇨🇦	66.5	53.4
FR	🇫🇷	42.5	36.7
US	🇺🇸	53.4	46.6
UK	🇬🇧	51.8	46.9
DE	🇩🇪	29.0	33.5
JP	🇯🇵	55.2	52.9
IT	🇮🇹	23.0	17.0
EU	🇪🇺	39.8	31.6
G7		45.9	41.0
OECD		42.2	35.3

The share of the population that attained tertiary education refers to graduates from ISCED 5-8 programs (see UNESCO, 2011). For Japan, this includes post-secondary non-tertiary programs. **Source:** OECD.Stat–Population who attained tertiary education, by sex and age group
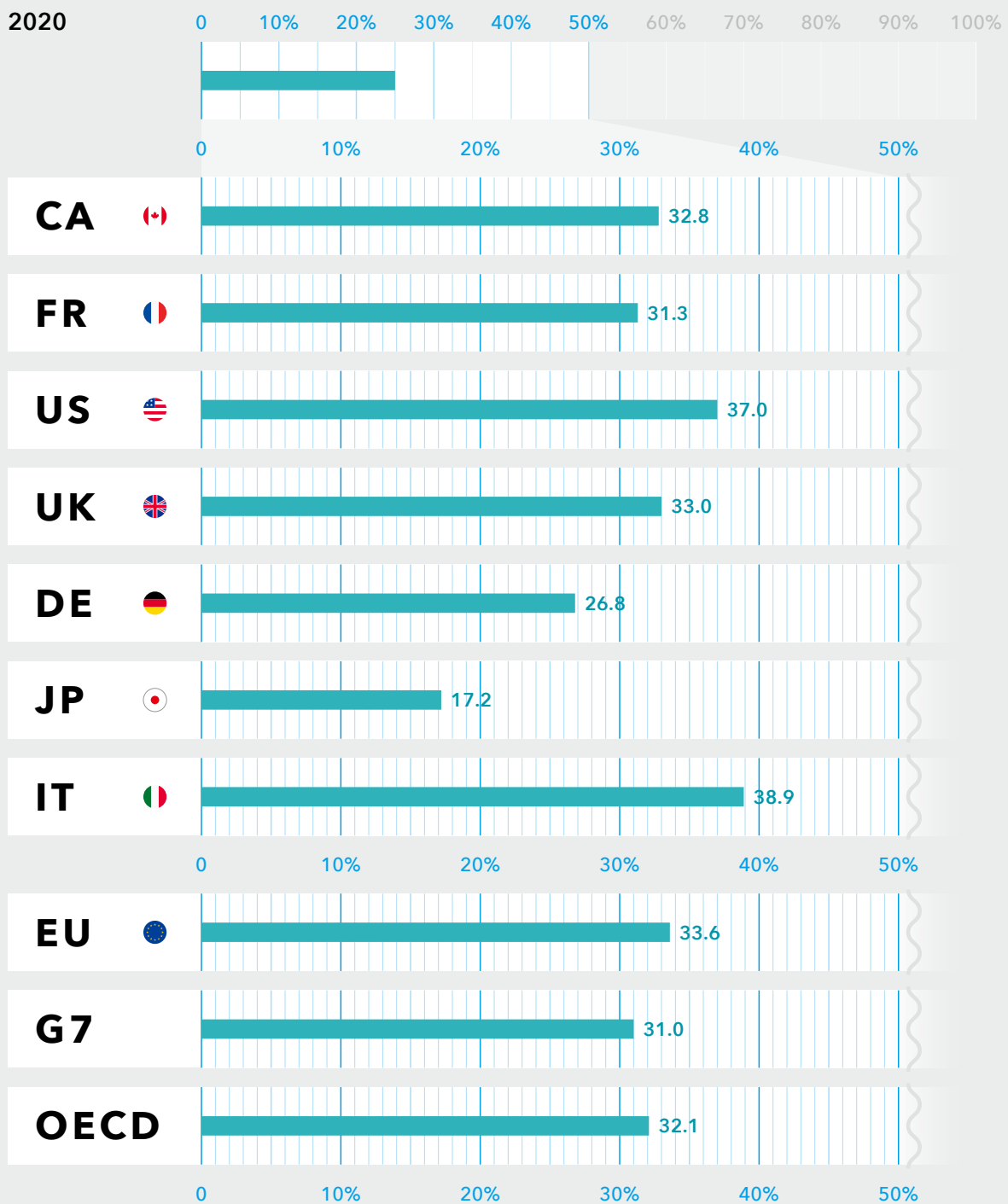
Share of women among all tertiary graduates in STEM

In all G7 countries, the proportion of women among STEM graduates is lower than that of men. A comparison with the 2022 GEAC Report reveals minimal changes in the gender STEM gap over the past year.

Although Italy trails behind the other G7 countries with respect to women tertiary graduates overall, it leads the G7 in the proportion of women graduates in STEM disciplines, at 38.9%. Conversely, Japan has a high proportion of women who have attained post-secondary or tertiary education, but has the lowest proportion of women in STEM.

As the 2022 GEAC Report pointed out, it is noteworthy that differences in math test scores are far smaller than differences in the proportion of STEM graduates. It is therefore critical that countries address the "leaky pipeline" from school to workforce and institute measures to foster women's STEM education and career pathways (see **Education** essay and recommendations).

2020

CA	32.8
FR	31.3
US	37.0
UK	33.0
DE	26.8
JP	17.2
IT	38.9
EU	33.6
G7	31.0
OECD	32.1

Defined as the share of women among all those who graduate from tertiary education (ISCED 5-8) in STEM fields exclusively. The OECD average excludes Israel. For Japan, data on graduates in information and communication technologies are included in each of the other educational fields. **Source:** OECD.Stat—Share of graduates by gender in fields of education
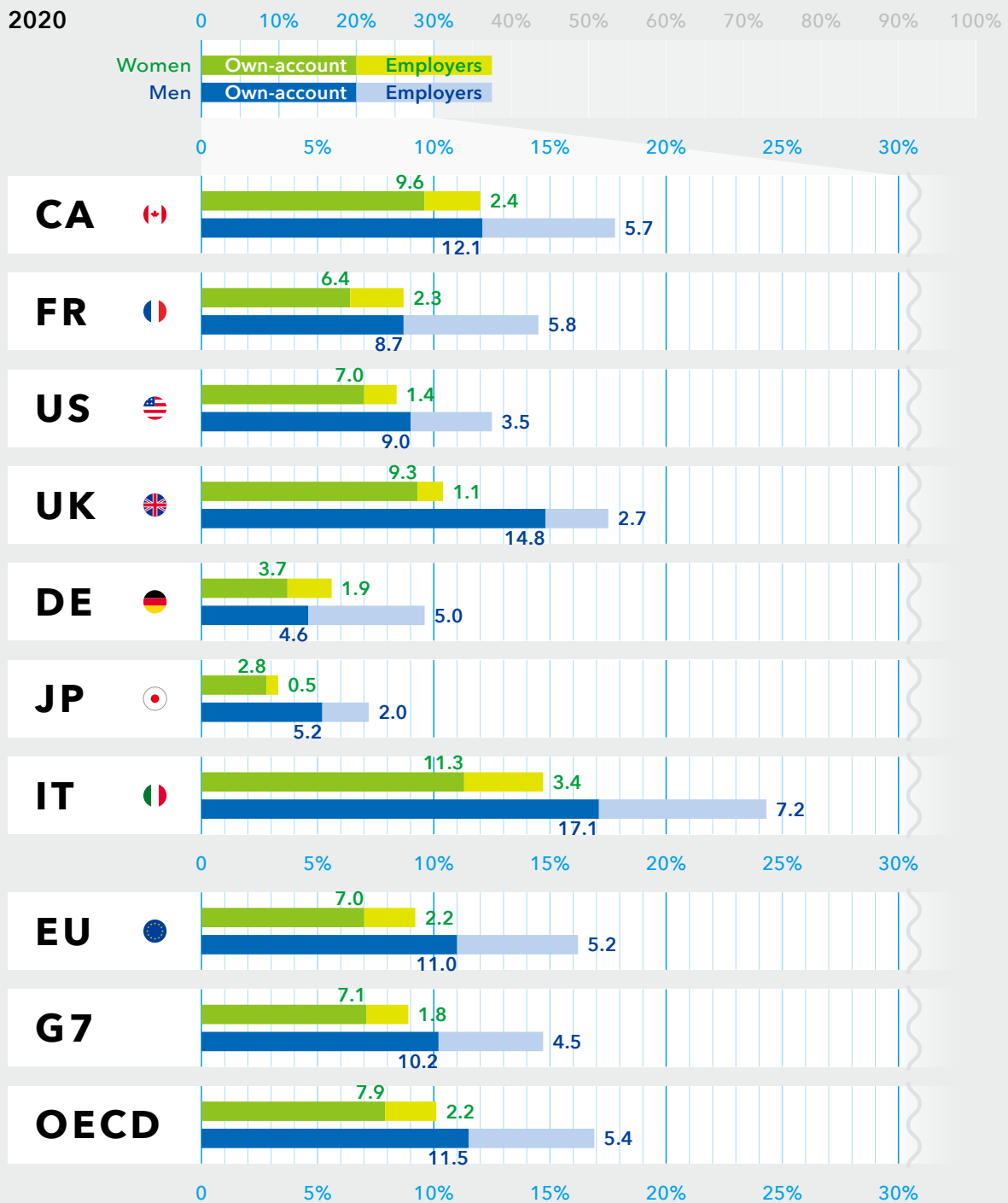
Entrepreneurship

Share of self-employed with and without employees among all employed

The labor markets of the G7 countries differ greatly in their cultures of self-employment. In Japan and Germany, relatively few men or women are self-employed; numbers in Italy, the UK, and Canada are much higher. Self-employment as such does not necessarily imply good working conditions with a secure and adequate income. Many self-employed people in solo enterprises find themselves in precarious life situations and never enter the formal wage job market.

The category "own-account" refers to self-employed individuals without employees, while "employers" indicate those who have one or more employees working for them.

Data for Canada and the UK have been updated for this year's Dashboard; all other country data remain unchanged from the previous year. Despite the wide variance in rates of self-employment across the G7, the proportion of self-employed women with and without their own employees is lower than the corresponding proportion of men. Similar patterns are evident within the EU and across the OECD. The 2023 GEAC has called for measures to bolster women's entrepreneurship through gender-lens investing (see **Economic Empowerment** essay and recommendations).

2020

	Women	Own-account	Employers
	Men	Own-account	Employers

		Women (Own-account / Employers)	Men (Own-account / Employers)
CA	🇨🇦	9.6 / 2.4	12.1 / 5.7
FR	🇫🇷	6.4 / 2.3	8.7 / 5.8
US	🇺🇸	7.0 / 1.4	9.0 / 3.5
UK	🇬🇧	9.3 / 1.1	14.8 / 2.7
DE	🇩🇪	3.7 / 1.9	4.6 / 5.0
JP	🇯🇵	2.8 / 0.5	5.2 / 2.0
IT	🇮🇹	11.3 / 3.4	17.1 / 7.2
EU	🇪🇺	7.0 / 2.2	11.0 / 5.2
G7		7.1 / 1.8	10.2 / 4.5
OECD		7.9 / 2.2	11.5 / 5.4

Defined as the share of those who are registered as self-employed among all employees and further disaggregated whether they have employees or not. Incorporated self-employed are only partly or non-included in the counts of self-employed in several countries. This may affect comparability across countries. Data refer to 15–64-year-olds, with exception of the United States, where they refer to all 16 years old or more. The OECD average excludes Colombia and Costa Rica. **Sources:** OECD.Stat–Entrepreneurship: Share of employed who are employers, by sex; OECD.Stat–Entrepreneurship: Share of employed who are own-account workers, by sex; OECD calculations based on data delivered by the United Kingdom's Office for National Statistics.

Leadership

The G7 Dashboard includes two indicators for leadership. Leadership in the economy is measured by the share of women in board seats of the largest publicly listed companies, and leadership in politics by the share of women in lower or single houses of parliament. These indicators provide important clues about the participation of women in senior positions with decision-making authority. By tracking progress over time and across countries, it is also possible to assess the impact of policy measures aimed at closing gender gaps in leadership positions.

Share of women in board seats of the largest publicly listed companies

This indicator is reported for the year 2022; comparative data from 2016 and 2021 are available in the 2022 GEAC Report. It covers a wide range of board positions, thus complicating any efforts to make international comparisons.

No G7 country has an equal representation of men and women in supervisory board positions, though France, which requires companies to have a share of at least 40% of women on their management boards, comes very close to gender parity (45.2%). Rates in Italy and the UK are nearly as high. It will be instructive to track change over time and in response to policy changes such as the European Commission's Directive on Gender Balance in Corporate Boards, adopted in 2022.

2022

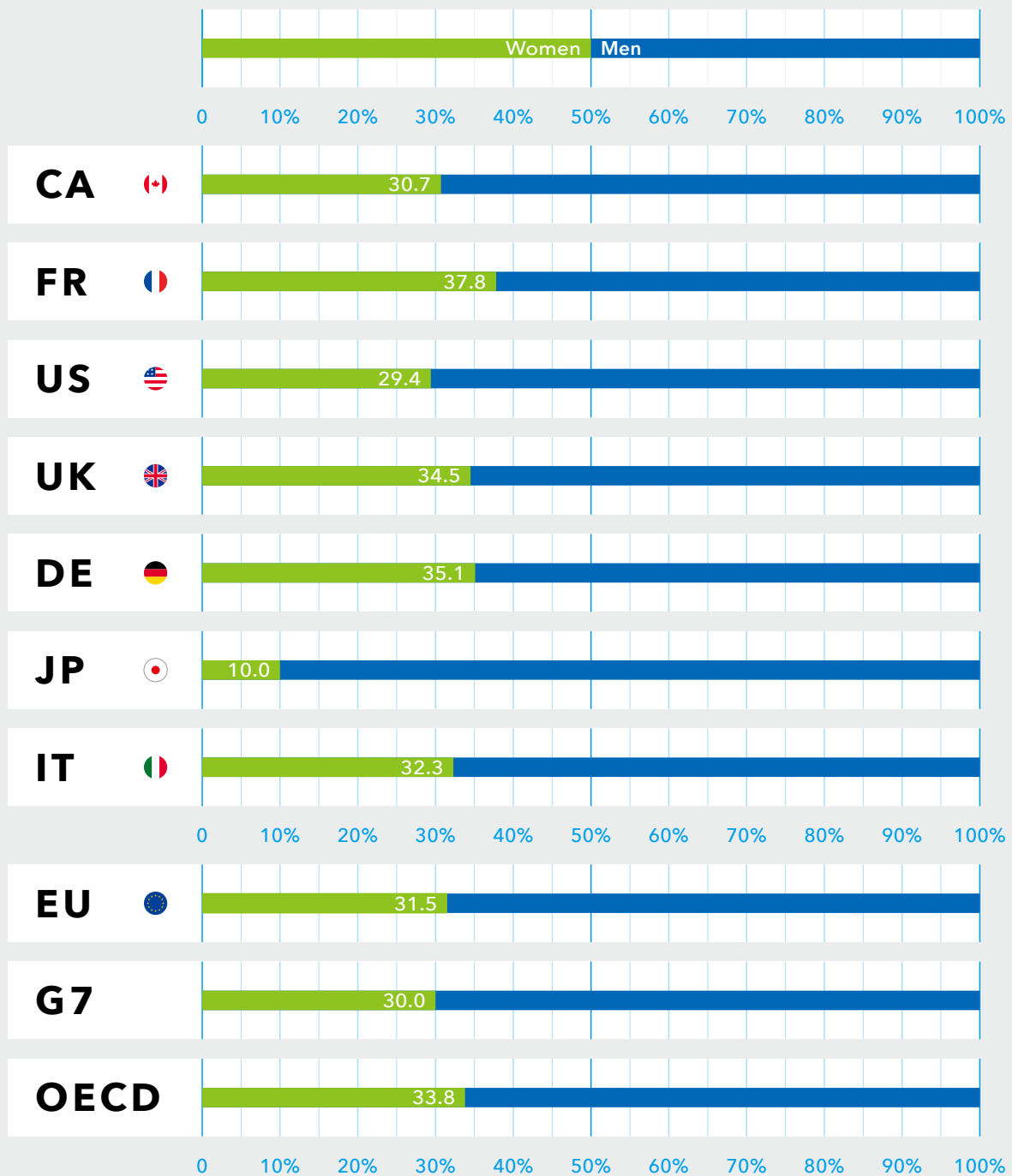|		
CA	🇨🇦	35.5
FR	🇫🇷	45.2
US	🇺🇸	31.3
UK	🇬🇧	40.9
DE	🇩🇪	37.2
JP	🇯🇵	15.5
IT	🇮🇹	42.6
EU	🇪🇺	27.7
G7		35.5
OECD		29.6
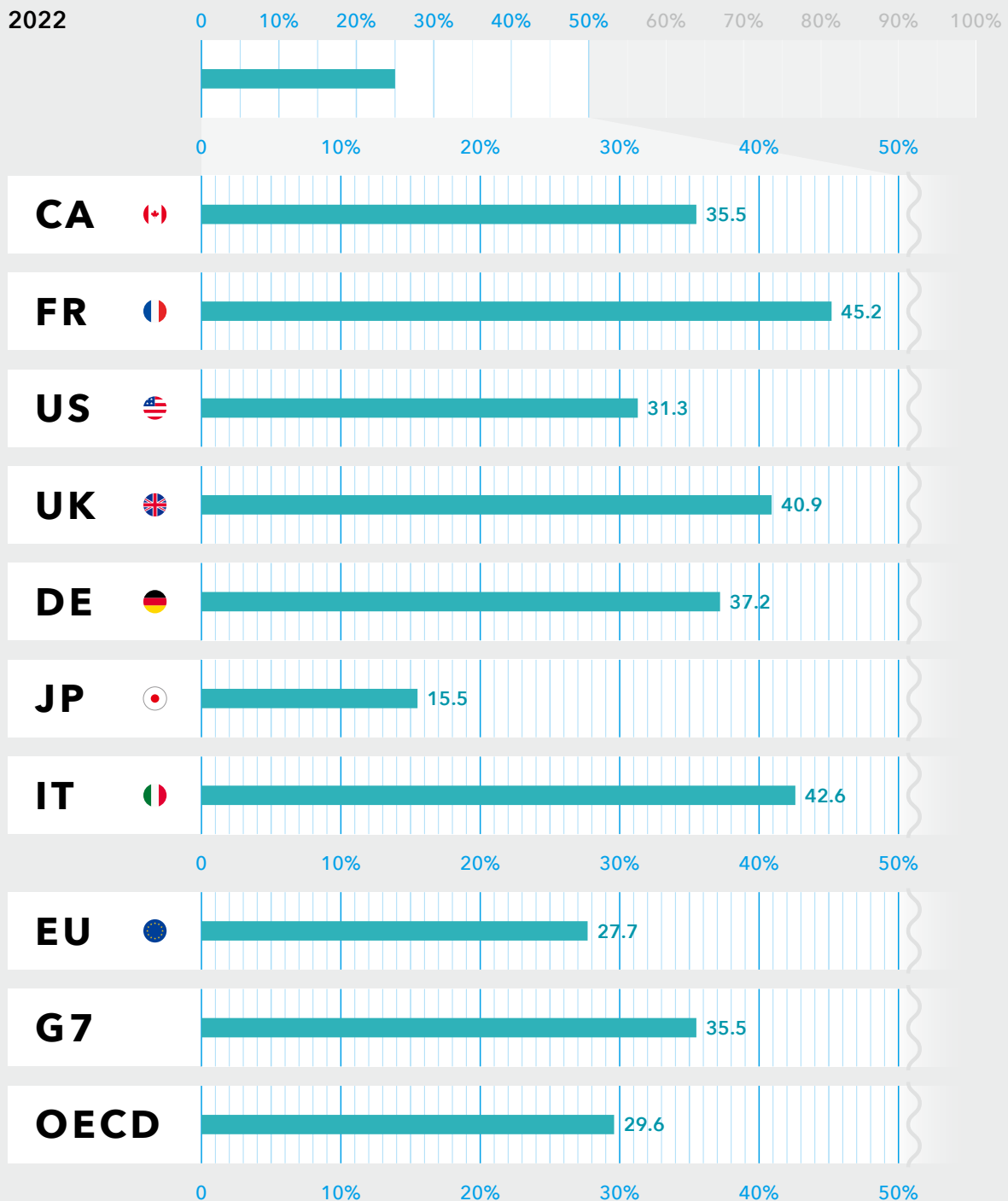
Defined as the share of seats held by women in the highest decision-making body in the given company, such as the board of directors for a company in a unitary system or the supervisory board in the case of a company in a two-tier system. For EU countries, data refer to the largest 50 members of the primary blue-chip index in the country concerned (including only those companies that are registered in the given country). For non-EU countries, data refer to companies covered by the MSCI ACWI index, with management and audit boards omitted. The OECD average excludes Costa Rica. **Sources:** OECD.Stat–Employment: Female share of seats on boards of the largest publicly listed companies; and for non-OECD EU countries Eurostat Database–Positions held by women in senior management positions

Share of women in lower or single houses of parliament

This indicator refers to all elected members in the parliaments of the G7 countries in 2023. Full parity has not been achieved in any of the G7 countries, even though France does very well, with close to 40% of parliament seats held by women. A comparison of G7 countries continues to show very large differences, ranging from 37.8% (France, as already noted) to just 10% (Japan). The GEAC recommends more detailed studies on how individual countries have made progress toward gender parity in political leadership. What can other countries learn? How can they position themselves in such a way that women and men alike can decide the future of their country?

2023

		Women	Men							

		0	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

CA	🇨🇦	30.7
FR	🇫🇷	37.8
US	🇺🇸	29.4
UK	🇬🇧	34.5
DE	🇩🇪	35.1
JP	🇯🇵	10.0
IT	🇮🇹	32.3

		0	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

EU	🇪🇺	31.5
G7		30.0
OECD		33.8

		0	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

Defined as the share of women among all elected members of lower or single houses of parliament. For the European Union, this refers to the average share in all Member Countries. **Sources:** OECD.Stat– Gender equality in parliament; and for non-OECD EU countries, IPU Parline Database.

Health and Well-being

This section of the Dashboard features two indicators: the prevalence of intimate partner violence and rates of maternal mortality. Compared to all other indicators in the Dashboard, considerable data and measurement problems restrict the interpretation of both indicators, as the OECD itself points out. Given the serious but sensitive nature of these indicators, it is especially critical that the collection and reporting of robust, reliable, and internationally comparable data be improved.

Prevalence of physical and/or sexual violence against women and girls by an intimate partner, 2018

The OECD and GEAC recognize that current data on gender-based violence are insufficient: they refer only to women and girls between the ages of 15 and 49 and exclusively consider acts of violence committed against ever-married or partnered women. Furthermore, data published in the 2023 Dashboard have not been updated since the 2022 GEAC Report. Due to a lack of available and reliable data, the Dashboard remains uncommented.

As noted in the **Data** essay and recommendations, the 2023 GEAC urgently recommends an increase in funding and support for data collection on gender-based violence, including rates of sexual violence against women and girls by persons other than an intimate partner.
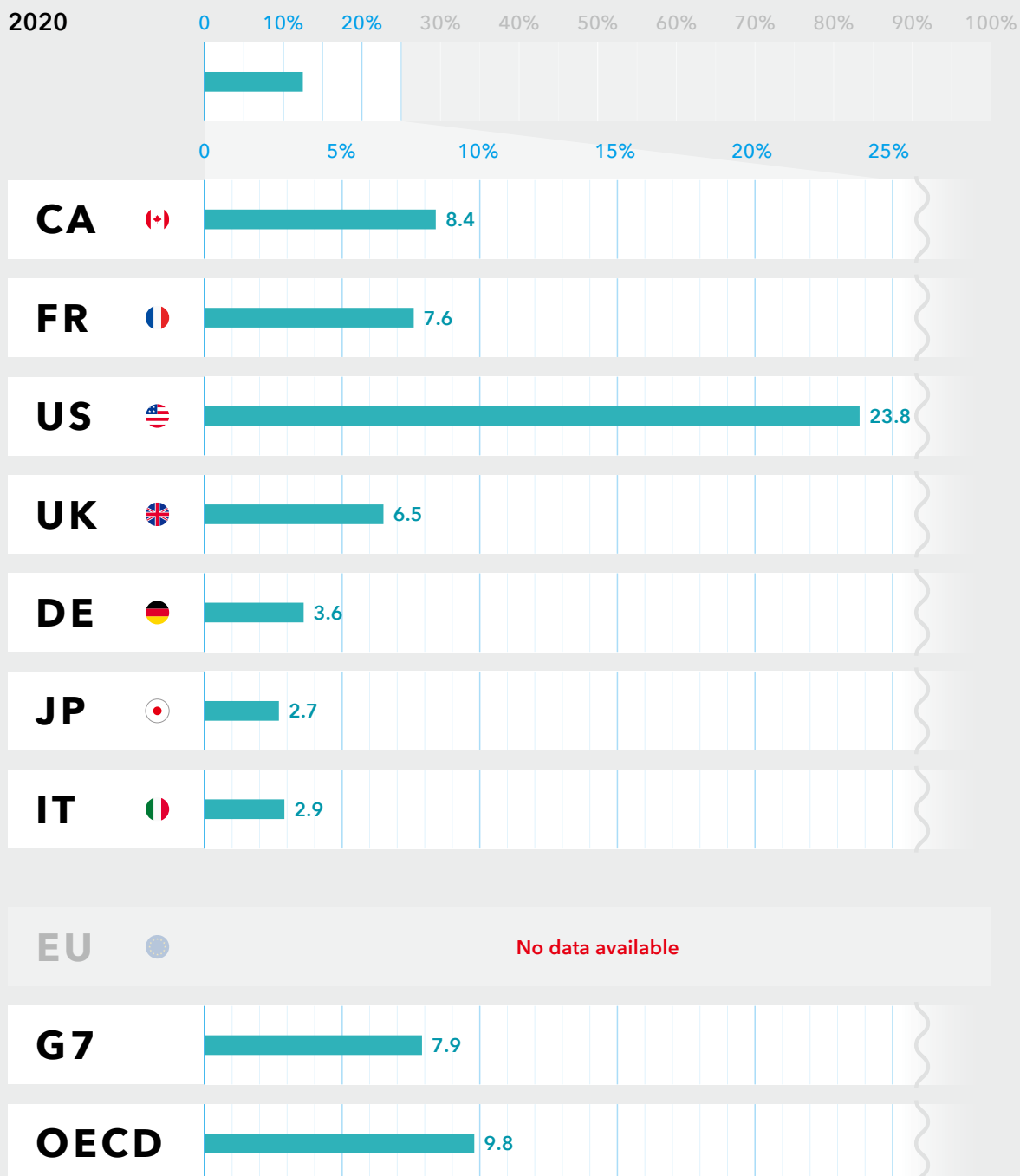
76

2018

CA	🇨🇦	3.0
FR	🇫🇷	5.0
US	🇺🇸	6.0
UK	🇬🇧	4.0
DE	🇩🇪	3.0
JP	🇯🇵	4.0
IT	🇮🇹	4.0
EU	🇪🇺	4.6
G7		4.1
OECD		5.1
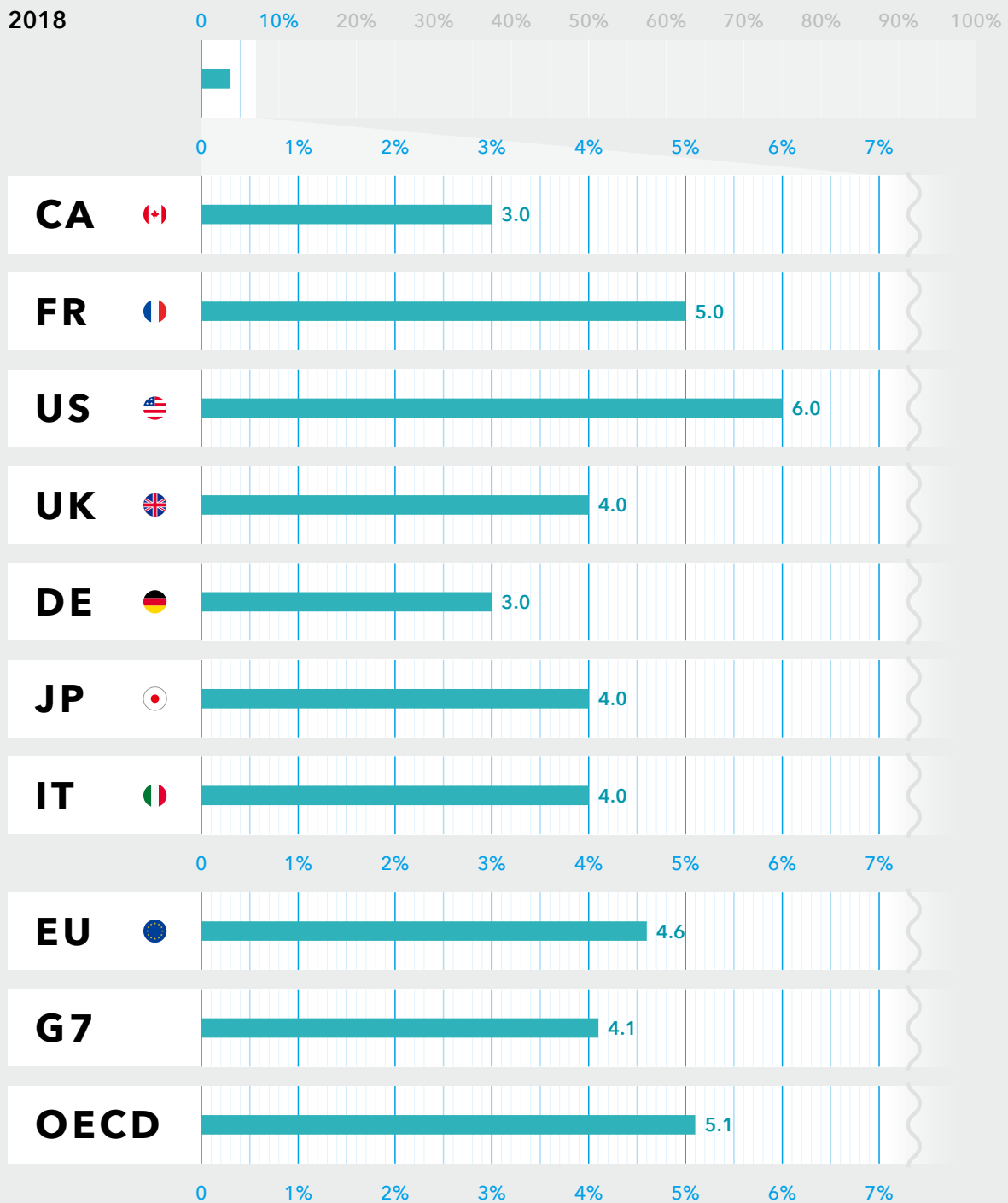
Defined as the share of ever married/partnered women aged 15–49 that have been subject to physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence (IPV) over the past 12 months. Ever married/partnered refers to women who have been married, cohabitating, or in any other formal or informal union with an intimate partner. While never married/partnered women and those above the age of 49 can still be subject to physical and/or sexual violence, the presented figures are a reflection of limitations in available data of sufficient quality. Data refer to country prevalence estimates. For Germany, data refer to the proportion of ever-partnered women aged 18–74 years. Data refer to 2018, except for Germany where they refer to 2014. **Sources:** For Germany, FRA Violence against women survey; for all others WHO (2018), Violence Against Women Prevalence Estimates

Maternal mortality per 100,000 live births, 2020 or later

The data regarding maternal mortality, like that for intimate partner violence, pose a number of interpretative challenges. As stated by the OECD, the mortality data record very small numbers, so there may be large annual fluctuations, particularly in the G7 and in countries with low population levels. In the future, this could be addressed with aggregated data for a 5-year period. The OECD also refers to further methodological limitations due to possible collection, non-inclusion, and misclassification issues.

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

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

2020

	0	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

	0	5%	10%	15%	20%	25%

Country		Value
CA	🇨🇦	8.4
FR	🇫🇷	7.6
US	🇺🇸	23.8
UK	🇬🇧	6.5
DE	🇩🇪	3.6
JP	🇯🇵	2.7
IT	🇮🇹	2.9
EU	⬤	**No data available**
G7		7.9
OECD		9.8

Number of maternal deaths, all causes, per 100,000 live births. Data refer to 2020 for most countries; for Italy, data refer to 2019, for the United Kingdom 2017, and for France 2015. The EU average excludes non-OECD EU members. **Source:** OECD.Stat–Maternal and Infant Mortality

Funds for Development and Cooperation

Share of aid activities targeting gender equality as Significant (GE1) and Principal (GE2)

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

Among all screened bilateral official development assistance (ODA) commitments, G7 countries attach quite different importance to measures that either directly or indirectly benefit women. The graph depicts the share of aid activities targeting gender equality between 2020-21, segmented into two categories: Significant (GE1) and Principal (GE2). Principal activities denote activities in which gender equality is the main objective—that is, the activity would not have been undertaken without that objective. Significant activities indicate activities in which gender equality is an important objective, but not the main reason for undertaking the activity.

While ODA for gender equality has generally increased over time, only 3% of all ODA across the G7 has gender equality as a principal objective. It is noteworthy that Canada, which has enacted both gender budgeting and a feminist foreign policy, has a total of 90% of ODA going to activities in which gender equality is either a principal (15%) or significant (75%) objective. The US has the lowest support for gender equality measures, at 17.7% total ODA.

The 2023 GEAC has called for increased funding for development assistance activities in support of gender equality, particularly for grassroots women's organizations (see **Economic Empowerment** and **Peacebuilding** essays and recommendations). In addition, greater efforts are needed to assess the impact of ODA and the amount of funds reaching grassroots organizations.

80

2020-21

Significant (GE1) Principal (GE2)

Country	Significant (GE1)	Principal (GE2)
CA	75.0	15.0
FR	41.9	4.6
US	15.6	2.1
UK	63.5	5.1
DE	42.2	2.4
JP	52.0	0.9
IT	40.0	4.6
EU	56.7	3.7
G7	36.6	3.0
OECD	No data available	
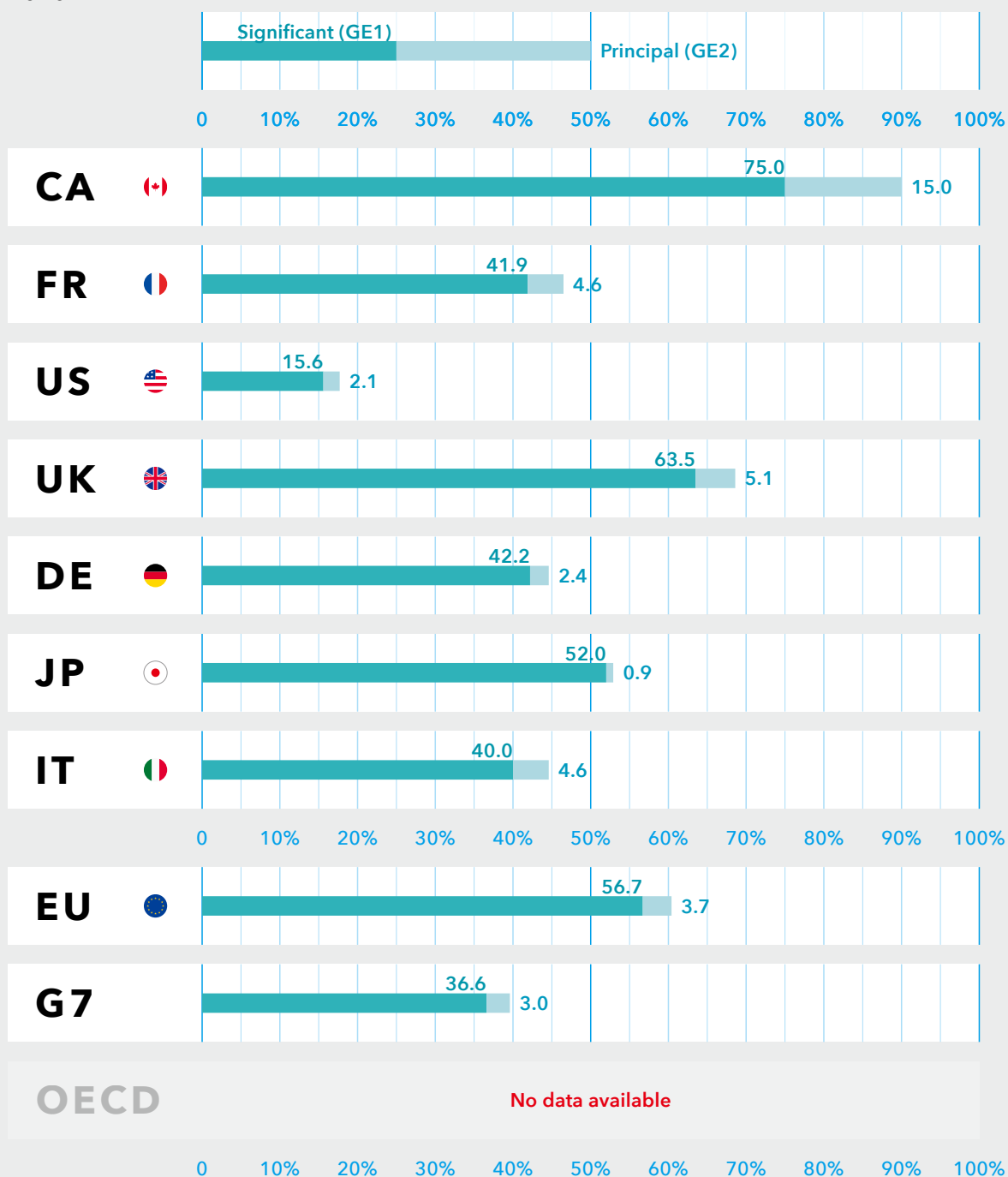
Data refer to the share of gender equality commitments among all screened bilateral official development assistance (ODA) commitments. The data on commitments for gender equality and women's empowerment is collected on an annual basis in the OECD Creditor Reporting System (CRS) using the OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) gender equality policy marker. Commitments are presented as 2-year averages in constant 2020 USD as they can be very volatile on a year-to-year basis. **Source:** OECD calculations based on OECD.Stat—Aid activities targeting gender equality and women's empowerment (CRS)

Appendix: Executive Summary

Gender Mainstreaming for an Inclusive, Peaceful, and Just Society

2023 GEAC Recommendations to the G7 Leaders
May 2023

This Executive Summary was presented by the GEAC to Japanese Prime Minister Fumio Kishida on 8 May 2023 in advance of the meeting of the G7 leaders in Hiroshima. In the ensuing months, the GEAC continued to expand upon and refine its original recommendations. In particular, it should be noted that the pillar of "Funding" in the Executive Summary is now called "Economic Empowerment" in the Final Report. The original text of the Executive Summary is reproduced here.

The 2023 G7 Summit in Hiroshima takes place at a time of multiple crises, including war and conflict, climate change, a weakening of democratic institutions, increasing global inequality, and the long-term health, economic, and social impacts of COVID-19. **Women and girls in all their diversity have been disproportionally affected:** they suffer displacement and educational disruption, they are vulnerable to gender-based violence, and they shoulder the persistent burdens of unpaid care work and economic loss from the pandemic.

We are also living during a period of profound transformation through digitization, transitions to a green economy, and globalization. **Yet women and girls have not had consistent access to the opportunities brought about by these changes.** Rather than being uplifted, they risk being left behind—resulting in ever-widening gender gaps in education, income, and leadership.

In the face of these challenges, women's movements are leading on the frontlines. They are preventing violent conflict, delivering relief and recovery efforts, and forging lasting peace. As agents of change, women are bringing innovative solutions to tackle the climate crisis, reduce poverty, and address the promises and risks of the digital revolution. **The world is more peaceful, safe, and prosperous when women, in all their diversity, drive change and participate fully in all aspects of peace and security, as well as in every aspect of social, economic, and political life.**

Gender equality is not simply a value in itself, nor is it solely a concern for women: it is central to addressing current global challenges, powering the world economy, and creating a healthy and sustainable future for all. Gender is inextricably connected to social systems and political institutions, to work and family life, to scientific discovery, cultural vibrancy, and economic progress.

The Gender Equality Advisory Council (GEAC) unequivocally advocates for the mainstreaming of gender into all policy making to achieve an inclusive and equal society, and it recognizes the intersectional dynamics of gender, such as race, ethnicity, class, sexual orientation, ability, and stage within the life course. **The 2023 GEAC calls upon the G7 leaders to make significant commitments to promoting gender equality in all areas,** including economic policy, climate change, paid and unpaid care work, access to quality sexual and reproductive health care, and LGBTQIA+ issues. The 2023 GEAC Recommendations highlight four fundamental pillars of gender equality: **Funding, Education, Peace Building, and Data.**

Beyond these four pillars, the 2023 GEAC emphasizes as an overarching theme the critical role of women's strong and persistent leadership and engagement. There will be no lasting peace, prosperity, or legitimacy for any state that seeks to limit the rights and opportunities of women. **The meaningful, direct involvement of women is therefore essential in every sphere**—political and economic, social and cultural, public and domestic.

Recommendations

Funding

Invest in gender equality, both domestically and internationally, through public-sector gender-responsive budgeting, international development assistance, climate finance, and policies designed to encourage private-sector investment in women-owned, women-led businesses.

- Implement gender-based analysis, gender-responsive budgeting, and gender auditing as guiding principles throughout policy development and implementation, such as through policies related to paid and unpaid care work.

- Increase direct flexible funding to women's rights organizations and women-led grassroots organizations, both domestically and through development assistance.

- Create a fund of funds to provide catalytic anchor investment in women-led funds with innovative gender-smart investing strategies to build the market and crowd in private capital.

Education

Promote gender equality in and through education by investing in comprehensive, lifelong learning and continuous professional training for all genders and all ages.

- Invest in educational programs that instill a knowledge of fundamental rights and combat gender stereotypes, gender-based violence, discrimination, and unconscious bias.

- Ensure that girls and women have access to the opportunities of digital transformation and the development of climate-resilient economies; invest in programs focusing on STEM competencies, AI skills, and digital literacy.

- Increase opportunities for gender-transformative learning and skills development; recognize and address the social and economic barriers to men's and boys' educational participation, engagement, and achievement.

Peace Building

Lead by example, invest in, and promote the full implementation of international human rights law and the Women, Peace, and Security agenda.

- Acknowledge as threats to democracy the growing attacks on women and LGBTQIA+ politicians, activists, journalists, and human rights defenders, feminist and women's rights actors and organizations, and recognize that investments in gender equality will serve to strengthen democracy and the rule of law.

- Combat impunity for violations of women's rights: adapt existing domestic legislative frameworks and renew commitments to fund international bodies mandated to ensure that all human rights violations, especially conflict-related sexual violence against girls and women, are properly investigated, prosecuted, and punished.

- Fund frontline women's organizations and ensure their direct, meaningful participation in peace and conflict prevention, negotiation, resolution, peace building, and post-conflict reconstruction.

Data

Provide funding and public statements in support of timely, inclusive, robust, transparent, and publicly available data collection to create a **culture of accountability** in closing gender gaps and inform policy design and interventions.

- Support and strengthen existing platforms tracking progress on gender equality, including the G7 Dashboard on Gender Gaps and UN Women Data Hub, to promote access and use of gender data.

- Provide resources for creating clear guidelines on public- and private-sector collection of gender data.

- Increase financial commitments for targeted data collection on measures in which high-quality data is most urgently needed, including gender-based violence, unpaid care work, and women's leadership.

- Intensify efforts to collect, analyze, disseminate, and use data disaggregated simultaneously by gender and other aspects of identity (e.g., age, race/ethnicity, economic status, ability) in order to adopt effective and targeted policies with an intersectional lens.

Acknowledgements