

Human Rights of Women

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Introduction

The Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action represents a historic milestone in the global pursuit of gender equality and women's empowerment and has galvanised governments, international organisations, and civil society to commit to concrete measures to transform promises of equality into tangible realities.

The Strategic Objectives for Human Rights of Women specifically highlight the urgent need to protect and promote women's rights as fundamental human rights. They call for the elimination of all forms of discrimination and violence against women and girls, advocating for their full and equal participation in political, economic, and social life. Moreover, they underscore the imperative to reform legal frameworks, enhance access to justice, and foster an environment where women's rights are universally recognized and upheld.

Over the past three decades, significant strides have been made towards these goals within the ECE. Legislative reforms, multinational treaties, and grassroots movements have collectively advanced the cause of women's human rights. However, persistent challenges and emerging threats continue to hinder progress. This background paper aims to assess the status of the Beijing Platform for Action (BPfA) on its 30-year anniversary, highlighting the successes, identifying the gaps, and proposing recommendations for future action, ensuring that the legacy of the Beijing Platform for Action continues to inspire and guide global efforts towards a more just and equitable world for all women.

BPfA in the context of Universal Declaration of Human Rights, CEDAW and other tools

The framework for human rights is democracy and the rule of law as set forth in the **Universal Declaration of Human Rights**. Article 29 states that “everyone shall be subject only to such limitations as are determined by law solely for the purpose of securing due recognition and respect for the rights and freedoms of others and of meeting the just requirements of morality, public order and the general welfare in a democratic society”. Women, and women's organisations, thus claim the respect and dignity of others. Furthermore, Article 30 draws the line for our action: “Nothing in the Declaration may be interpreted as a right for a state, a group, or person, to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth in the Declaration”. This is the foundation of the women’s movement, a just platform for action.

The **UN Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)** was adopted in 1979 as an international bill of rights for women, noting that “discrimination against women violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity, is an obstacle to the participation of women, on equal terms with men, in the political, social, economic and cultural life of their countries, hampers the growth of the prosperity of society and the family and makes more difficult the full development of the potentialities of women in the service of their countries and of humanity”. In fact, CEDAW is the first and the only human rights treaty

that obliges States to modify and abolish social attitudes and cultural patterns and practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either sex or stereotyped roles for men and women.¹ We reaffirm the importance of CEDAW as the cornerstone for women's human rights and dignity and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action as a roadmap for eliminating discrimination of women and girls of any kind or in any group.

The **Belém do Pará Convention** (or the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment, and Eradication of Violence against Women) was adopted by the Organization of American States in 1994. It was the first legally binding international treaty that criminalises all forms of violence against women, especially sexual violence. It was a ground-breaking agreement, calling for the first time for the establishment of mechanisms for protecting and defending women's rights as essential to combating the phenomenon of violence against women's physical, sexual, and psychological integrity, whether in the public or the private sphere, and for asserting those rights within society.²

In the European Union, the **Treaty of Amsterdam** entered into force in 1999, giving the legal basis for women's rights and later strengthened in Article 8 of the **Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union** (TFEU), which commits both to eliminating inequalities and promoting the principle of equality between women and men in all their actions. In addition, the **European Institute for Gender Equality** (EIGE) was established in 2006, becoming fully independent and operational in June 2010, publishing the first version of the Gender Equality Index in 2013 based on sex-disaggregated data.

The **Council of Europe Istanbul Convention** was opened for signing and ratification in 2011. It has four aims: Prevention, Protection, Prosecution and co-ordinated Policies, and is the most comprehensive international treaty on violence against women, providing a definition of gender in line with Beijing documents. It is based on the understanding that violence against women is a form of gender-based violence that is committed against women because they are women. It is ratified by 38 states and the EU. GREVIO is the body of independent experts responsible for monitoring the implementation by the parties of the Istanbul Convention.

The Beijing Platform for Action is reflected in **Agenda 2030** and the **Sustainable Development Goals**, underscoring that the advancement of women's rights and gender equality is a fundamental prerequisite for achieving global sustainability, economic growth and peaceful societies. This is specifically acknowledged in Goal 5: Gender Equality as well as horizontally across other goals. In particular, Target 5.1 is "End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere", with the relevant indicator of "Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex", aligning directly with Strategic Objective I.1. Furthermore, Target 5.c is "Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels" with the indicator "Proportion of countries

¹ See articles 2(f) and 5(a), CEDAW.

² [About the Belém do Pará Convention | OAS](#)

with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment".

The SDGs also address the other areas of concern that were outlined in BPfA, specifically SDGs 5.2, 5.3 and 5.6, as well as 16.2, demanding the elimination of all forms of violence against women and girls, including trafficking, sexual abuse, other types of exploitation, torture, FGM, child and forced marriages as well as ensuring access to sexual and reproductive health and rights. The SDG Methods ask for state reforms to ensure women have equal economic resources and services as well as techniques, policy and legislation for women's empowerment. The SDG's detailed targets and indicators serve as tools for measuring progress, providing clear benchmarks that help track advancements and identify areas requiring further action.

In addition, there has been EU legislation that targets specific areas of discrimination, including the Directive on Gender Balance in Corporate Boards, the Pay Transparency Directive, and the Directive on Violence Against Women and Domestic Violence, DVAWDV. The Council added the exploitation of surrogacy, forced marriage and illegal adoption as forms of exploitation covered by the EU's Anti-Trafficking Directive. In terms of national legislation, Canada has adopted the Pay Equity Act. Most recently, the UN Special Rapporteur on Violence Against Women established that prostitution constitutes a form of violence in and of itself, in violation of women's and girls' fundamental human rights.

Ongoing gaps in achieving the vision of gender equality

Reservations to CEDAW, in particular Articles 2 and 16

CEDAW permits ratification with reservations, provided that the reservations are not incompatible with the object and purpose of the Convention. Article 2, regarding policy measures to eliminate discrimination against women, and Article 16, regarding the elimination of discrimination in relation to marriage and family relations, have the highest number of reservations. Articles 2 and 16 are considered by the CEDAW Committee to be core provisions of the Convention, noting, "Neither traditional, religious or cultural practice nor incompatible domestic laws and policies can justify violations of the Convention". While most of the UNECE countries do not have reservations to these articles, it is important to note that they have direct bearing on Strategic Objective I.2, to ensure equality and non-discrimination in both law and practice.

Limited reference to CEDAW in national courts

Several states in the ECE have limited reference to CEDAW in their domestic courts, despite the fact that protection against sex-based discrimination is often stronger in CEDAW than in local law. According to a study by the European Parliament in 2011, there

is a tendency for national courts to prioritise domestic laws over international treaties like CEDAW when ruling on issues of gender discrimination.³

“CEDAW’s standard of equality is substantive equality. It is interpreted by the CEDAW Committee to mean *de facto* equality or equality of results. The achievement of substantive equality, however, entails that women are given equal opportunities, equal access to opportunities and an enabling environment to achieve equal results. Substantive equality looks beyond legal guarantees of equal treatment and inquires into the impact of interventions. Although the principle of equality is widely recognised in national constitutions and laws, there are many examples of interpretations of equality that do not result in substantive equality.”⁴

Lack of definitions for important concepts in women’s rights, e.g., rape, femicide, cyber violence, and non-state torture

The definition of rape varies widely among ECE countries, and in some cases, it may be narrowly defined or outdated. This inconsistency makes it difficult to effectively prosecute and prevent sexual violence. The absence of a consent-based definition of rape is a major issue. Some national laws still define rape based on the presence of physical violence, threat, or coercion, rather than focusing on the absence of consent, which is the standard defined by the Istanbul Convention.⁵ Without a clear, consent-based definition of rape, victims may face significant barriers in accessing justice. This can lead to underreporting of rape, low conviction rates, and inadequate support for survivors.

Worldwide statistical information suggests that in 2021 approximately 45,000 women and girls were killed by intimate partners or other family members, also indicating that femicidal violence may be much higher.⁶ Latin America and the Caribbean are at the forefront of the fight to end this brutal and extreme manifestation of gender-based violence. Between 2007 and 2017, 18 countries in these regions introduced femicide as a criminal offence. Instead, the EU-27 and the United Kingdom have no definitions of femicide in the legal context.⁷ While several EU countries have implemented a ‘Femicide Watch’ to collect and monitor data on gender-related killings, a legal definition is essential for improving data accuracy, enhancing legal responses, and ultimately preventing gender-based violence against women.

Cyber violence against women and girls (CVAWG) has been growing at alarming rates in recent years, which can lead to serious consequences, resulting in physical, sexual,

³ [How could the Convention On the elimination of all forms of discrimination Against women \(CEDAW\) Be implemented in the EU legal framework?](#)

⁴ [CEDAW-based Legal Review: A Brief Guide](#)

⁵ [CETS 210 - Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence](#)

⁶ [Gender-related killings of women and girls \(femicide/feminicide\)](#)

⁷ [Gender-based violence - Measuring femicide in the EU and internationally: an assessment](#)

psychological or economic harm and suffering. Women and girls often end up withdrawing from the digital sphere, silencing and isolating themselves and eventually losing opportunities to build their education, professional career and support networks.⁸ According to a World Bank report, “Laws exist in only about one-third of economies, and they cover less than half of the population of children, adolescent girls, and women”.⁹ A legal instrument that acknowledges CVAWG could contribute to better implementation of policies, ensure effective enforcement, create more appropriate support for victims, encourage victims to report their experiences of such crimes and make available more data on the scale of the problem.

Non-State torture of women and girls is an emerging critical reality of concern that must be addressed, as it affects millions of women and girls. By definition, non-State Torture (NST) is committed by non-State actors in public or in private, in relationships, perpetrated within families, in human trafficking, in prostitution, in pornographic exploitation, by violent groups and gangs, dismissed as socio-cultural, traditional, or religious acts/norms, and can be committed during migration, displacement, in humanitarian and civil unrest. It includes physical torture, chemical torture (forced drugging), sexualized torture, and reproductive torture (forced impregnations and abortions). There are also forms of socio-cultural and traditional norms that UN Special Rapporteurs on torture have declared amount to torture, such as female genital mutilation (FGM) and child marriage. Sustainable Development Goal 16.2 calls for ending all forms of abuse, exploitation, trafficking and torture of children. ECE Member States must create a strategy to prevent non-State torture as well as to develop awareness and legislation to address and end all forms of non-State torture.

Lack of comprehensive strategies to achieve gender equality

The CEDAW reports of several ECE Member States identify the lack of comprehensive government strategies to address and eliminate gender stereotypes in those states. Specifically, there is no central policy coordination unit dedicated to mainstreaming gender across all governmental policies and programs, leading to fragmented efforts and inconsistent application of policies. However, it should be noted that setting up a separate gender equality department can give the perception that other institutional actors do not have the responsibility to integrate and promote gender equality. This shows the importance of understanding and implementing the strategy of mainstreaming and funding the machinery.

A comprehensive strategy includes the recognition that states bear the primary responsibility for reducing gender inequalities and empowering women. Executive, legislative and judicial branches must collaborate with independent civil society

⁸ [Combating Cyber Violence against Women and Girls](#)

⁹ [An assessment of existing laws to protect against cyber harassment](#)

organisations to monitor and evaluate the impacts of policies and strategies, which should offer flexible and contextually relevant solutions.¹⁰

Marginalised and vulnerable women

The BPfA recognizes that women may face multiple and overlapping forms of discrimination. We call on ECE countries to address these forms of discrimination by developing robust legislation to protect the rights of the most vulnerable women.

Asylum seekers and migrant women

The Istanbul Convention addresses states' obligations regarding the rights of women in migration and asylum in Chapter VII, Articles 59, 60 and 61, specifically with regard to residence status, gender-based asylum residence status and non-refoulement. All articles start with the necessary measures to be taken to ensure the rights of the women concerned, e.g., the possibility of an autonomous residence permit irrespective of the duration of marriage relationship. Gender-based violence against women should be recognised as a form of persecution and a form of serious harm, giving rise to complementary/subsidiary protection.

Furthermore, states should ensure gender-sensitive reception procedures and support services for asylum-seekers as well as gender guidelines and gender-sensitive asylum procedures, including refugee status determination and application for international protection. Finally the principle of non-refoulement in accordance with existing obligations under international law should be introduced. Women in need of protection, regardless of their status or residence, shall not be returned under any circumstances to any country where their life would be at risk or where they might be subjected to torture or inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment.

LGBTQ

LGBTQ individuals often face heightened risks of discrimination, violence, and social exclusion. These vulnerabilities necessitate targeted protections to ensure their rights are upheld and their safety is guaranteed, including anti-discrimination laws, hate crime legislation, and policies that promote social inclusion and equal treatment.

As ILGA-Europe noted in its Annual Review for 2024, the situation for LGBTQ asylum seekers is becoming increasingly untenable, there is a rise in anti-LGBTQ speech from officials across the region, often instrumentalising children by falsely invoking concerns for their safety, and of the 54 countries reviewed, only six of them reported no hate crime in 2023.¹¹

¹⁰ [Tackling global challenges to equality and inclusion through the gender-responsive implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development](#)

¹¹ [ILGA-Europe Annual Review 2024](#)

There is strong forward movement in banning so-called ‘conversion practices’, with Belgium, Cyprus, Iceland, Portugal and Spain all adopting legislation. Parliamentary debates and plans for bans are taking place in Finland, Ireland, Netherlands and Switzerland, while Norway has approved legislation. Malta made improved amendments to its law and three people were prosecuted under the ban. Austria and the UK both stagnated with their plans to ban the practices.

Women with disabilities

The fight for the rights of disabled women provides an example of the importance of women’s organisations to safeguard rights designated in the Convention of the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Disability policies are often gender-blind, which in reality means that they are discriminating against women. Reports show that women with disabilities in several UNECE countries are more educated than men with disabilities, but participation in the labour market is lower as are wages. Women with disabilities are also more often subject to domestic violence, especially those with intellectual disabilities. They are more often exposed for sexual exploitation and prostituted by their own family. Even health care is often not equipped to meet their needs, e.g., gynaecological examination chairs are not adjusted for women with mobility impairment.

Ethnic minorities (incl. Roma/Sinta)

As noted in the Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey conducted by the European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights in 2019,¹² Roma women face challenges as extreme poverty, exclusion and discrimination reinforce existing gender inequalities. In core areas of life, such as education, employment and health, Roma women continue to fare worse than Roma men and than women in the general population. For example, Roma children are more likely to be placed in separate classes based solely on their skin color, ethnicity, and socio-economic situation. As a result, Roma receive inferior education and endure discriminatory treatment from teachers and school administrators.¹³

Roma and Sinti people often lack legal recognition and face difficulties in accessing identity documents, which are crucial for accessing basic rights and services. Moreover, their underrepresentation in political institutions and decision-making processes means that their concerns and needs are often overlooked. This political marginalisation perpetuates their exclusion and limits their ability to advocate for their rights.

¹² [Second European Union Minorities and Discrimination Survey – Roma women – in nine EU Member States](#)

¹³ [Strategies and Tactics to Combat Segregation of Roma Children in Schools | FXB Center for Health and Human Rights](#)

Germany has documented a rise in crime against ethnic minorities, corresponding to the influx of refugees fleeing the Russian invasion of Ukraine in 2022.¹⁴

Older women

The elderly population represents a significant segment of society whose rights deserve equal attention and protection. Older persons should be able to live in dignity and security and be free of exploitation, physical or mental abuse, or stereotypes around ageism.¹⁵

Seniors have the right to make decisions about their own lives and maintain autonomy and self determination. However, age-related stereotypes and paternalistic attitudes often diminish seniors' agency and decision-making authority. The specific impacts of ageism, and age discrimination are multiplied by sexism. There are clear inequities and barriers faced by women in participating and assuming leadership roles in their communities, higher rates of poverty and the social isolation they experience, and the structural and systematic discrimination.

Social isolation and loneliness are prevalent among seniors and can have detrimental effects on their physical and mental well-being. Upholding seniors' right to social inclusion and participation is essential for combating these issues. Creating age-friendly environments that promote social inclusion and enable seniors to actively participate in their communities.

Rural women

Rural women, living and working in the countryside, are entitled to the same rights as women living in other settings. CEDAW Article 14 ensures that States shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in rural areas so that they can participate in and benefit from health care, education, social security, and development planning equally with men. ECE countries are still far behind in achieving these goals, with significant differences in ECE countries between urban and rural women's living conditions. Women often work as farmers but are not registered as owners nor do they receive payments in their own name. Many countries have legislation on equal heritage for women and men but still a son, often the oldest, is the one to inherit. Studies show that, in UNECE countries with comprehensive welfare systems, women in rural areas are unable to make full use of these systems.

Indigenous women

Indigenous women face persistent, systemic challenges that impact their human rights. In Canada, Indigenous women and girls are 12 times more likely than other

¹⁴ [Germany: Discrimination against Roma and Sinti on the rise | DW](#)

¹⁵ [World Report on Ageing and Health](#)

women to go missing or be murdered¹⁶; while 63% of Indigenous women have experienced violent victimisation in their lifetime since aged 15 compared to 45% of non-Indigenous women.¹⁷ As of April 2022, although Indigenous women represent only 4% of the adult female population, Indigenous women account for 50% of all federally incarcerated women and 65% of sentenced women in maximum security custodial centres across Canada.¹⁸

In seeking to redress historical discrimination, Canada has adopted a policy for Indigenous relations that favours national organisations and male-dominated First Nations leadership and excludes Indigenous women and their organisations as legitimate and equal partners in decision-making on issues that impact their rights and their lives.

The United Nations Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues acknowledges that Indigenous women face multiple forms of discrimination and several related challenges, including limited access to economic empowerment, vocational training, and capacity-building programmes and processes. Their situation makes them particularly vulnerable to food insecurity, conflict, gender-based domestic and other forms of violence, the denial of or limitation of access to property rights, and the violation of their right to inherit land.¹⁹

Women's human rights defenders (WHRDs)

As OHCHR has noted,²⁰ WHRDs are at the forefront of social justice movements leading to genuine social change, yet they face discrimination exacerbated by their gender and the nature of their activism. This includes gender-based violence and threats, defamation and slander, legal harassment and criminalization, as well as social exclusion and lack of institutional support, especially those working in conflict zones or crisis-affected areas.

Challenges

Closing the aforementioned gaps will require ECE countries to overcome important challenges formulated in patriarchy.

Meaningful engagement of women's rights organisations

Women's rights organisations are crucial advocates for gender equality. They bring essential expertise and perspectives that have historically been absent in decision-making forums. The BPfA states that equal participation of men and women in

¹⁶ [Reclaiming Power and Place: The Final Report of the National Inquiry into Missing and Murdered Indigenous Women and Girls](#)

¹⁷ [Violent victimization and perceptions of safety: Experiences of First Nations, Métis and Inuit women in Canada](#)

¹⁸ [Parliamentary Committee Notes: Overrepresentation \(Indigenous Offenders\)](#)

¹⁹ [State of the World's Indigenous Peoples | United Nations](#)

²⁰ [Women human rights defenders | OHCHR](#)

decision-making is a “necessary condition for women’s interests to be taken into account”.²¹ However, women’s rights organisations are frequently excluded from the processes of formulating and implementing legislation and policies.

This is due to the continued lack of representation of women in political and private spheres. In addition, women and minorities are often not properly represented within national women’s and human rights bodies in ECE countries. Often, when women’s rights organisations are included in policy discussion, their participation is more symbolic than substantive, with their input overlooked and sidelined.

The lack of representation also reflects structural barriers, such as limited access to funding and lack of political will. In many states, the creation of these bodies has been delayed or they are given limited capacity to investigate complaints and bring sanctions or file cases based on complaints. It is concerning that many national bodies have inadequate human, financial, and technical resources. Often, these bodies are not independent and fail to carry out their mandates.

Rise of far right and authoritarian forces

Across the globe we have seen a rise in authoritarianism and political forces that oppose anti-discrimination initiatives. Right-wing anti-gender actors as well as pro-gender relativists have stalled progress on women’s issues by holding them captive to endless discussions on the concept of gender. The ability of women to hold decision makers accountable has been undermined as civil society, particularly women’s rights organisations and feminist groups, has come under increasing pressure from these forces.

Furthermore, there are grave concerns about gender apartheid in some areas of the world, i.e., legal practices that bar women and girls from engaging in public life and denying their fundamental human rights. The UNOHCHR has stated that gender apartheid must be recognised as a crime against humanity.²² ECE Member States have a responsibility to react decisively to counter such retrogression on women’s rights.

Persisting negative stereotypes

Negative stereotypes of women persist and have even strengthened, portraying women as inherently less capable, less competent or less suited to leadership and decision-making roles compared to men. These stereotypes continue to undermine gender equality despite the fact that women are, on average, more educated than men in many ECE countries. For example, in the European Union and the United States, women have higher rates of tertiary education attainment than men. However, this educational advantage does not translate into equal opportunities in the workforce, leadership, or politics.

²¹ Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, para. 181

²² [Gender apartheid must be recognised as a crime against humanity, UN experts say | OHCHR](#)

These stereotypes flourish, in particular, in online media, which promotes, on one hand, the virtues of a “traditional stay-at-home wife and mother” while also increasingly sexualising women and girls, including through the thriving pornography industry. As we have seen so many times in the past, stereotypes and violence towards women go hand in hand. As [noted earlier in this paper](#), the CEDAW reports of several ECE states identify the lack of comprehensive government strategies to address and eliminate gender stereotypes in those states.

Lack of trust in legal systems

Finally, women lack trust in the legal systems that are intended to protect them. Women contend with persistent misogyny and discrimination in the legal and cultural system. For example, low conviction rates for human trafficking, exploitation, rape and sexual assault not only mean women are denied justice but also that they are reluctant to report crimes. Instruments for eliminating unjust pay gaps and illegitimate working conditions do not reach all women and girls, especially vulnerable groups such as migrants, refugees, and asylum seekers.

Looking forward

ECE states have made firm commitments to women’s rights by signing and ratifying CEDAW, the Beijing Platform for Action, as well as the Sustainable Development Goals. Now we must ensure that these commitments are turned into action. Putting an end to stereotypes and discriminatory practices ensures that women can fully express their human rights and freedoms, which is the foundation of all critical areas identified in the Platform for Action.

Short-term recommendations

In the short-term, it is crucial to allocate sufficient funding and resources. Women’s and girls’ rights organisations need core funding so that they can plan and continue their work. Governments must prioritise the protection of poor women, women with low education and women in marginalised groups. States should create a central policy coordination unit with the mandate to support mainstreaming gender equality between women and men in all governmental policies. Gender equality mainstreaming policies require accurate, sex-disaggregated and gender data collection. The work of civil society organisations is vital, so governments need to ensure that shadow reports are compiled. Finally, CEDAW needs to be accessible in Braille, Easy Read language, or other methods accessible through IT and AI, and be communicated.

- Secure core funding for women’s organisations and ensure they are involved in policy making at all levels
- Enact legislation on sex-disaggregated and gendered data in all State policies and programmes

- Implement a system for tracking, evaluation, and accountability to ensure outcomes are achieved; highlight intersections with other critical areas, e.g., education barriers, economic inequality, violence
- Use the roadmap provided by the Sustainable Development Goals and Methods as a tool for immediate action on gender equality and sustainability
- Use trade agreements and gender equality mainstreaming in budgets to distribute economic power to women and improving women's economic independence

Medium-term recommendations

In the medium-term, governments need to focus on capacity building for officials, enabling them to reference CEDAW protection in legal cases. The justice system must be gender-sensitive and acknowledge the transformative power of women's equal participation. Moreover, we need to hold governments accountable for violations of humanitarian law concerning women. The ECE States and the EU must fully ratify regional and international conventions and treaties that advance and protect women's rights without restrictions.

- Ratify CEDAW (all ECE Member States and EU)
- Ratify regional conventions to eradicate violence against women, such as the Istanbul Convention in Europe and Belém do Pará Convention in the Americas (Non-EU States without specific regional mechanisms should consider using the "accession" process to adhere to the Istanbul Convention.)
- Harmonise national legislation with human rights standards, principles, and guarantees set by the UN system and regional bodies, such as the European Court of Human Rights and the Inter-American Court of Human Rights
- Develop and fund training programs for law enforcement as well as officials in the justice and protection systems regarding the legal tools within CEDAW and other regional conventions

Long-term goals

In the long-term, our goal is to empower women to achieve full participation in shaping society and their own lives. We must promote the experiences of all women and girls in legislation and policy making so that women's rights are never seen as separate from human rights.

- Embed women's rights as a standing item in UN processes
- Empower women, especially the most marginalised and vulnerable, to achieve full participation in shaping society and their own lives
- Realise the dream of a truly gender-blind world