From promises to action:

Addressing discriminatory social institutions to accelerate gender equality in G20 countries

Report prepared by the OECD Development Centre
for the W20 Japanese presidency

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About this report

This report was prepared by the OECD Development Centre at the request of W20 Japanese presidency. It analyses progress made and remaining challenges across the ambitious W20 gender equality objectives, by adopting a "Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI[1]) lens" which takes discriminatory social institutions (laws, norms and practices) into account.

Building on the SIGI approach and data, the first part of the report provides an assessment of progress while identifying the main challenges and a set of proposed indicators for three of the four W20 pillars[2] (labour equity, financial equity and governance) to monitor countries' paths towards the achievement of W20 targets across all G20 countries. It concludes by proposing policy recommendations for the next W20 presidency. The second part of the report provides country profiles for G20 members[3] which highlight the main legal and social norms challenges for each country and offer examples of good practices, as well as contextualised policy recommendations. For each country, data and information are based on the SIGI country profiles, the Gender, Institutions and Development Database (GID-DB), as well as most recent OECD and external sources found for the three pillars.

Introduction

In their December 2018 declaration "Building Consensus for Fair and Sustainable Development", G20 leaders reaffirmed their commitment to supporting the 2030 Agenda and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and emphasised a gender mainstreaming strategy across the G20 agenda (G20, 2018). As G20 countries represent two-thirds of the world's population, 85% of global gross domestic product and over 75% of global trade, their commitment is essential if progress is to be made globally on the SDGs. For example, India alone represents 28.5% of the total achievement gap on SDG 5 on Gender Equality (Sachs, J. et al., 2019). Indeed, as reflected in the Osaka Summit G20 leaders' communiqué in June 2019, gender equality and women's empowerment remain central to achieve sustainable economic growth, while leaders undertook commitments to take further action to "end all forms of discrimination against women and combat stereotypes" (G20, 2019).

The Women 20 ("W20") under the G20 Japanese presidency has set a concrete and ambitious strategy for G20 countries to achieve gender equality by "Closing the Gender Gap for New Prosperity". In line with Agenda 2030 and the SDGs, the W20 recognised that women's economic empowerment also requires women's social advancement. This includes taking into consideration women in all their diversity, as women and girls are not a homogenous group. They have different interests and constraints based on their education level, ethnicity, age, disability, sexual orientation, gender identity, religion/belief, economic status or place of residence. While the main objective of the W20 under the Japanese presidency was to advance the G20's 25x25 target (to decrease the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% by 2025), it has proposed that this focus be extended to four pillars: labour equity, financial equity, digital equity and governance.

[1] The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) is the OECD Development Centre's cross-country measure of discrimination against women in social institutions (formal and informal laws, social norms and practices) across 180 countries.

[2] Due to unavailability of data on laws, social norms and practices related to digital equity for most of the G20 countries, this report does not cover the digital equity pillar.

[3] The report does not include a country profile on European Union.

Yet, progress to date has been slow in these areas while too little emphasis has been placed on the role social norms and legal frameworks play across the pillars proposed by the W20. As highlighted by the OECD Development Centre's SIGI 2019 Global Report, no SDGs can be achieved without attention to social institutions, i.e. laws, social norms and practices. At the current rate of progress, it will take 200 years or 9 generations to achieve SDG 5 on gender equality. An approach which considers social norms has potential to accelerate progress across the four pillars set out by the W20.

Indeed, social institutions related to gender define what is legally and socially feasible for women and men to do, and can act either as barriers or agents of change. As such, they determine outcomes for women and girls in areas as diverse as education, employment, governance and finance. Standard policies and reforms will only have limited traction unless cultural, social and religious norms are taken into account. Indeed, the statutory legal system can be thwarted by parallel structures embedded in society. In other words, where customary laws and social norms still largely determine communities' and individuals' behaviours, standard policies to promote gender equality are insufficient to create the necessary social transformation.

Setting up indicators and monitoring progress

The OECD has a long track record in monitoring progress on gender equality. In 2013, all OECD member countries signed the official OECD Recommendation of the Council on Gender Equality in Education, Employment, and Entrepreneurship (2013 OECD Recommendation),[4] and in 2015 countries signed the OECD Recommendation of the Council on Gender Equality in Public Life (2015 OECD Recommendation).[5] These Recommendations have provided the foundation for how the OECD evaluates progress on gender equality in its Member and Key Partner Countries, and in 2017 a full report assessing progress was delivered to the OECD Council and released to the public (OECD, 2017b; OECD, 2017c). More recently, the OECD, together with the ILO, has prepared a progress report for the Japanese G20 presidency on women's participation in the labour force of the G20 (OECD/ILO, 2019).

The SIGI, which is used as the framework for this G20 assessment, is an official data source for monitoring SDG target 5.1 (End all forms of discrimination against women and girls everywhere) using SDG Indicator 5.1.1 ("Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex").[6]

Based on the SIGI, the OECD Development Centre has designed a set of proposed indicators for three of the four W20 pillars to monitor countries' paths towards the achievement of W20 targets (although the list of these indicators is not exhaustive). This report does not cover the digital equity pillar as information on laws, social norms and practices related to digital equity are unfortunately not available for most of the G20 countries. Proposed indicators for the other three pillars – labour equity, financial equity and governance – are composed by four sub-indicators monitoring (i) reduced gender gaps in outcomes, (ii) evolution of the legal framework, (iii) changes in social norms and attitudes, and (iv) shifts in discriminatory social practices (see Table 1).

[4] OECD Recommendation of the Council on Gender Equality in Education, Employment, and Entrepreneurship: www.oecd.org/els/2013-oecd-recommendation-of-the-council-on-gender-equality-in-education-employment-and-entrepreneurship-9789264279391-en.htm.

[5] OECD Recommendation of the Council on Gender Equality in Public Life: www.oecd.org/gov/2015-oecd-recommendation-of-the-council-on-gender-equality-in-public-life-9789264252820-en.htm.

[6] UN Women, the World Bank Group and the OECD Development Centre are co-custodian agencies for monitoring SDG Indicator 5.1.1.

Table 1. Selected W20 indicators

Sub-indicators	Labour equity	Financial equity	Governance
Outcome	Gender gaps in labour force participation	Gender gaps in access to financial product and services	Gender gaps in the share of seats in parliaments and corporate leadership including management and boards
Legal framework (Set of laws internationally defined as minimum standards to …)	Protect women's workplace rights and provide incentives for women to work	Protect women's access to financial products and services and enhance women's financial inclusion	Protect women's political rights and enhance their representation in both private sectors' governing boards and local/national governments
Social norm	Social expectations on women's role in the household and the economy	Attitudes towards women's role in financial decision-making	Attitudes towards women's political and managerial leadership
Social practice	Time spent on paid and unpaid care work	Formal financial institutions' discriminatory practices towards women[7]	Barriers and trends in women's political and private sector leadership

Note: the list of indicators shown here is not intended to be exhaustive

While the above W20 indicators provide a broad picture on the level of achievement of each of the three W20 pillars, the four sub-indicators identify potential bottlenecks. Indeed, identifying which social norms and practices reinforce legal discrimination or weaken the implementation of legal reforms provides an overview of where challenges remain and what further actions are needed.

Looking at both the *de jure* and *de facto* discrimination reflects how political commitments have been translated into legal reforms, and to what extent gender-responsive policies and programmes have ensured the enforcement of those legal reforms and reduced discrimination on the ground. It is in light of this framework that this report analyses progress and challenges in the G20 countries across the ambitious W20 gender equality objectives.

Where do we stand? Main progress and challenges for the way forward

This section provides an overview of the progress and challenges made in all G20 countries across three pillars: labour equity, financial equity and governance. The following sections take stock of where we are, using various indicators and providing a narrative explanation for the underlying dynamics of the highlighted inequalities. Each section concludes with areas of progress and remaining challenges when it comes to legal frameworks, social norms and practices in all of the G20 countries. A list of recommended actions for the W20 is included in the last part of the report.

Labour equity

One of the main objectives of the W20 under the Japanese presidency is to advance the G20's 25x25 target – to reduce the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% by 2025 compared to 2012 – agreed at the 2014 Summit in Brisbane. In 2018, further progress occurred in most G20 countries towards achieving the 25x25 target, but gender gaps in labour force participation still remain substantial in some

[7] Formal financial institutions include banks, credit unions, microfinance institutions, post offices and other bodies which offer deposit, checking and saving accounts and are regulated by a governmental body; an example of discrimination at a formal financial institution may be a requirement for a husband's or guardian's agreement when opening a bank account.

countries (OECD/ILO, 2019). The gender pay gap is still important in most G20 countries, particularly across low-paid jobs, managerial positions and part-time work (OECD/ILO, 2019).

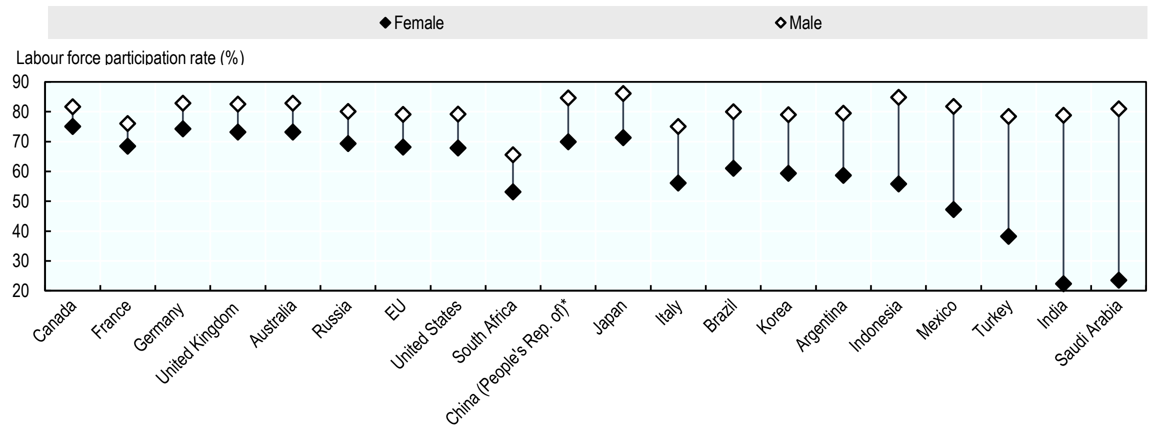
In addition, the W20's "Menu of Action"[8] aims to "remove systemic legal and social barriers in the labour market and provide solutions for achieving gender equality." The SIGI highlights the importance of a strong legal framework that does not discriminate against women in the workplace, as well as the negative impact that traditional social norms and practices, for example those related to gender roles in the household, has on women's active participation in the labour market.

The report's analysis on the labour equity pillar highlights progress made as well as the persistence of gender inequalities in the labour market in G20 economies, especially with regards to the legal frameworks, social norms and practices that discriminate against women.

Where are we?

Women continue to participate less than men in the workforce across all G20 countries. In 2018, the average labour force participation rate of women of the G20 was 59%,[9] representing a gap of 21 percentage-points compared to that of men (80%[10]). At the country-level, the gaps are highly varied and range from approximately seven percentage-points in Canada to 57 percentage-points in Saudi Arabia (see Figure 1). Between 2012 and 2018, all countries, with the exception of India and Mexico, have increased their female labour force participation rates, with the most progress taking place in Japan where women's participation increased from 63% in 2012 to 71% in 2018, followed by Turkey (from 32% to 38%) (OECD/ILO, 2019). With regards to the 25x25 target, between 2012 and 2018, the gender gap in labour force participation rate decreased in all G20 countries, except in the Russian Federation (hereafter Russia) (OECD/ILO, 2019). About half of the G20 members are on track to meet the 2025 goal, notably in Japan, Argentina, Brazil and Korea with large reduction. However, achieving the goal remains challenging in some countries including Mexico and Saudi Arabia (see Figure 2). Continued efforts are therefore needed for all G20 countries to achieve the target by 2025.

Figure 1. Women's participation in the labour force is less than that of men in all G20 countries, 2018

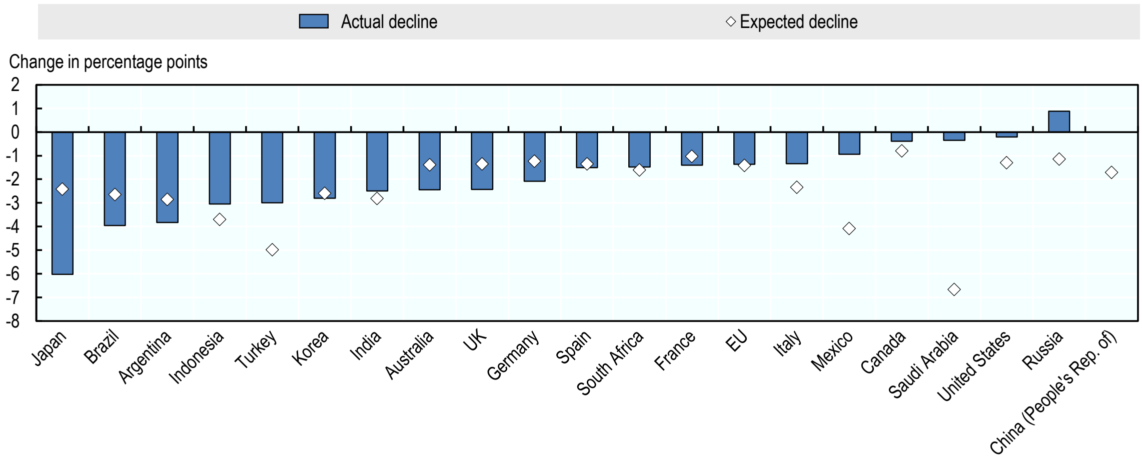


Note: Share of the population aged 15-64 participating in the labour force. The figure includes the most recent data available (2018) for all of the G20 countries with the exception of China for which data is dated 2012 (*).
Source: OECD, and ILO (2019), Women at Work in the G20 countries: progress and policy actions since 2018, www.oecd.org/g20/summits/osaka/G20-Women-at-Work.pdf.

[8] W20's Menu of Action: https://w20japan.org/pdf/W20_MoA.pdf.
[9] Calculation does not include China for which 2018 data is not available.
[10] Calculation does not include China for which 2018 data is not available.

Gender segregation in the labour force both in terms of positions as well as sectors contributes to gender pay gaps which favour men in all G20 countries (OECD, 2017b).[11] For instance, the gender pay gap in Italy stood at 6% in 2016, meaning that on average, for every Euro earned by men in Italy, women earned 94 cents. In other G20 countries however, the disparity was much larger, as in 2017 the gap was 35% in Korea and 18% in Indonesia, Canada, and the United States (OECD/ILO, 2019).

Figure 2. Actual versus expected decline in gender gap in labour force participation, 2012-2018



Note: The actual decline refers to the observed change in the gender gap between 2012 and 2018 (2015 for India). The expected decline refers to the decline that would occur by 2018 (2015 for India) if there was a linear decline in the gender gap from 2012 onwards to reach the target of a 25% decline in the gap by 2025. For China, no recent data are available to calculate the actual decline in the gender gap and the data for 2012 have been projected to calculate the expected decline in the gender gap. The data refer to the population aged 15 and over for India and 16-64 for the United Kingdom and the United States.
Source: OECD calculations based on national labour force surveys and, for China, census data.

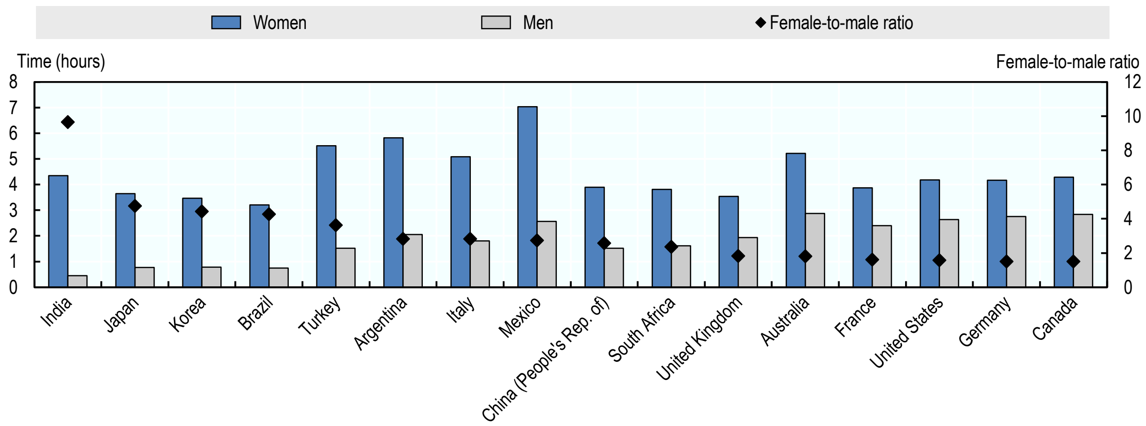
In addition, women are more likely to work in low-level jobs and part-time employment (OECD, 2019d). On average, women's part-time incidence rate is 20 percentage-points higher than for men in G20 countries.[12] For instance, in 2017, the gender gap in terms of part-time work incidence amounted to 19 percentage-points in Canada, 32 percentage-points in the United Kingdom, and reached 36 percentage-points in Germany (OECD/ILO, 2019). Part-time work allows for a certain degree of flexibility in hours worked and may make it easier for women to juggle their multiple responsibilities: in some cases, it represents an alternative to opting out of the workforce after becoming a mother. However, part-time workers often have less job security, lower pay, fewer opportunities for training and promotion and a higher poverty risk, thus the incidence of part-time employment among women in the G20 remains an important concern. Finally, an important parameter determining the quality of work is whether the part-time work is "involuntary" or "voluntary" (OECD, 2019c).

Women's lower rate of labour force participation and overrepresentation in part-time employment are partly explained by the share of caring and reproductive roles they perform in the household. Unpaid care work includes raising children, caring for sick or elderly family members, managing household tasks and volunteering in the community. This work limits the time available for paid work, education and leisure and further strengthens gender gaps in terms of access to resources and opportunities. Data from the OECD's

[11] Due to differences in the definition, coverage and calculation, data on gender pay gaps is not fully comparable across all G20 countries.
[12] 2017 average from OECD and ILO, 2019. This figure excludes China, as data from 2017 is unavailable.

Gender, Institutions and Development Database (OECD, 2019b) indicates that in all G20 countries,[13] women spend more time doing domestic and care-related tasks than men (see Figure 3). This ranges from one and a half times more in Canada, Germany and the United States, to nine times more in India.

Figure 3. In the G20 women spend more time than men on unpaid care work, 2019



Note: Data for Indonesia, Russia and Saudi Arabia are not included.
Source: OECD (2019), Gender, Institutions and Development Database, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Social norms influence this dynamic, and they vary throughout the G20. For example, in 2019, in Indonesia, 32% of the population disagreed with the statement "it is perfectly acceptable for any women in their family to have a paid job outside the home if she wants one" (OECD, 2019b). This percentage is similarly high in India and Saudi Arabia, where 25% and 22% disagree with this statement respectively (OECD, 2019b). On the other hand, Canada is the best performer in this respect as approximately 0% of people feel it is unacceptable for women to work outside of the home, followed by Australia, Italy, and the United States, where only 1% do so (OECD, 2019b).

One way of addressing unpaid care work is to develop policies that not only recognise, but also reduce and redistribute household responsibilities (Elson, 2000). For example, it is important to ensure that affordable childcare options are widely available (OECD, 2017b). G20 countries are promoting better family leave policies and work-life balance, with many countries increasing their childcare provisions. An area that needs to be further strengthened is ensuring care leave provisions for both women and men, and encouraging men to take more responsibility for unpaid care work, in order to help reduce women's responsibilities in this domain (OECD/ILO, 2019).

Social norms and workplace practices should further encourage fathers to work part-time when needed for the well-being of the family (OECD, 2019c). An important step includes engaging men to shift attitudes (OECD, 2019c). Research shows that fathers who take paternity leave are more likely to be involved in childcare related activities, to the benefit of child development and well-being (Huerta, M., et al., 2013). In addition, fathers making use of their paternity leave contribute to the recognition and redistribution of unpaid care work, promoting more gender equal roles in the family and shifting attitudes that define 'care' as something gendered (Gaag, N. van der, et al., 2019). In line with the OECD's 2013 Gender Recommendation, countries increasingly recognise that fathers' participation in unpaid care and housework is a key strategy for achieving gender equality. For example, Japan and Korea provide the longest father-specific leaves among OECD countries (leave periods are about one year). Although taking

[13] Data is unavailable for Indonesia, Russia and Saudi Arabia.

such leave for fathers is not yet the norm, Korea is encouraging more fathers to do so by providing – subject to certain conditions – 100% wage replacement up to a threshold of KRW 2 500 000 (around USD 2 300) for three "daddy months" (OECD, 2017c; Kim, H., 2019).

Finally, in recent years, sexual harassment has gained public attention as the #MeToo movement and others like it swept the globe. More women are coming forward to share their experiences of harassment, which often occurs in workplaces. Despite legislative frameworks protecting women from sexual harassment in the workplace in most G20 countries, this is sometimes not enough to ensure that it does not happen in practice. This is the case in the United Kingdom, where one in three women have experienced sexual harassment in the workplace. Research shows that sexual harassment prevents women from fulfilling their potential and sometimes leads them to prematurely exit the labour force (McLaughlin, H., et al., 2017). Some governments and government-funded bodies[14] have been proactive in collecting data about sexual harassment at work as an important preliminary step to encouraging or mandating employers to provide trainings and informational materials to employees. There are also campaigns in certain countries, like Australia, which aim to prevent harassment in the workplace by sensitising both employers and employees.

Legal frameworks, social norms and practices have the potential to drive or change gender-biased labour outcomes. While there is notable progress in terms of legal frameworks and government actions to promote labour equity across the G20, challenges remain in the form of legal loopholes and inadequate enforcement of the law which allow discriminatory social norms to continue to prevent women from fully participating in the labour force and achieving their potential.

Main progress

Progress made towards the 25x25 target is uneven, yet there are some positive aspects which may facilitate progress towards this target and labour equity more generally in the G20:

- To date, 17 countries[15] have ratified ILO Convention No. 100 on equal remuneration and No. 111 on discrimination in employment and occupation.
- All G20 countries, except the United States, have adopted measures to offer paid maternity leave schemes at the national level, and only five countries[16] do not offer at least 14 weeks of paid maternity leave to women workers. In addition, 12 countries[17] pay 100% of maternity leave benefits. Of course, it is important that countries offer paid paternity leave or fathers-reserved parental leave in tandem with maternity leave, to help avoid the risk of discrimination against (potential) mothers at the time of hiring.
- All countries protect women's employment security when they are on maternity leave, though protections vary (for example, depending on contract type).
- Paid paternity leave is available in more than half of the G20 countries[18], and seven countries[19] grant paid parental leave benefits.
- 15 countries[20] provide legal protection from sexual harassment in the workplace, and various campaigns exist to increase awareness about the issue.

[14] As in Australia, France, Japan and the United Kingdom.
[15] United States has not ratified ILO Convention No. 100 and No. 111. Japan has not ratified ILO Convention No. 111.
[16] Argentina, Indonesia, Mexico, Saudi Arabia and the United States.
[17] Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Russia, South Africa, Turkey.
[18] Argentina, Australia, Brazil, China, France, Indonesia, Italy, Korea, Mexico, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Turkey and United Kingdom.
[19] Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Korea Rep. and Russia.
[20] Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Italy, Korea, Mexico, South Africa, Turkey, United Kingdom and United States.

- More countries recognise unpaid care work. 15 of the G20 countries[21] have indeed included time-use surveys or have added time-use components to existing national surveys. In addition, two countries – the United Kingdom and Mexico – have used household satellite accounts to measure the value of care work.

Main challenges

Due to legal loopholes or inadequate enforcement of laws, women and men are still not treated in the same way in the workplace, where women tend to face a wider range of discriminations based on their gender. Furthermore, discriminatory social norms about working mothers and the disproportionate amount of time that women spend on household and caring responsibilities limit their participation in the labour market (OECD, 2019a; OECD/UNDP, 2019). More substantial progress is needed in terms of actively engaging women in the economy:

- Discriminatory laws continue to curb women's access to employment: eight countries[22] proscribe women from entering certain professions.
- With regards to women's workplace rights during maternity leave, Italy is the only G20 country that has ratified ILO Convention No. 183 on maternity protection.
- To date, only six of the G20 countries[23] have ratified ILO Convention No. 156 concerning equal opportunities and equal treatment of men and women workers. Furthermore, 12 countries do not prohibit employers asking about a woman's pregnancy or her intention to have children during the recruitment or promotion process.
- With regards to the protection of domestic workers, Argentina, Germany, Italy and South Africa are the only G20 countries that have ratified ILO Convention No. 189 on domestic workers.
- Only seven countries[24] have laws requiring equal remuneration for work of equal value and require companies to report on how they pay women and men. In addition, the monetary value of labour costs for the time spent on unpaid care and domestic work is important and should be further recognised: among the G7 economies, it ranges from 12% of GDP in Canada to 24% in Italy[25] (Ven, P. van de et al., 2018). The value of unpaid care work for the national economy also remains unrecognised in other G20 countries, although it represents a significant share of their GDP. For instance, unpaid care work in South Africa represents 14% of GDP, and reaches 33% of GDP in the People's Republic of China (hereafter China) (Ferrant and Thim, 2019). This is a key challenge, since as long as women will be carrying the bulk of unpaid care work, they will not be able to fully participate in the labour market and realise their potential.
- Three of the G20 countries[26] do not have laws which clearly define sexual harassment in the workplace; in all of the countries for which data is available, women are more likely than their male colleagues to experience sexual harassment in the workplace.
- While more statistics are available about the prevalence of sexual harassment in the workplace, they are prone to underestimation as many women do not report it. For example, less than half of the estimated number of women who experienced sexual harassment at work in Germany reported the incidents for redress.

[21] Argentina, Australia, Canada, China, France, Germany, India, Italy, Japan, Korea, Mexico, South Africa, Turkey, United Kingdom, United States.
[22] Argentina, China, India, Japan, Korea, Russia, Saudi Arabia and Turkey.
[23] Argentina, Australia, France, Japan, Korea and Russia.
[24] France, Germany, India, Italy, South Africa, United Kingdom and United States.
[25] These estimations are based on the replacement cost method: the value imputed to time spent to unpaid care and domestic cost is based on the average hourly wage of domestic workers.
[26] Indonesia, Japan and Russia.

Financial equity

The W20 aims to 'ensure financial inclusion, promote women's entrepreneurship, and accelerate access to investment and market'. Acknowledging and promoting women's economic contributions are essential to the global economy, as achieving gender parity in social institutions by 2030 could lead to a 0.4 percentage point increase in the world's GDP growth every year until then (OECD, 2019a). The W20 recognises that women-led businesses have greater difficulty in accessing funding compared to men and businesses led by men, and urges G20 countries to "establish a policy framework, ecosystem, and action plan that accelerate the development of female enterprise."

Secure access to financial resources enables women to be equal partners at the household level and to make autonomous decisions about whether to buy a home or a car, pursue an education, save for retirement or start a business. Furthermore, access to finance and financial services allows people to manage and grow their funds to meet long-term goals, as well as to have resources in case of emergencies. More efforts should also be dedicated to ensure that all groups of women, including older women and those in rural areas have entrepreneurship opportunities. While the economy would benefit from their life experience and self-confidence, it is also important that they are guaranteed adequate employment and social protections (OECD/ILO, 2019).

While access to financial services, such as a bank account, is important, it does not fully address women's needs for financial inclusion (OECD, 2019a). Although each country's situation varies, women are universally disadvantaged by pay discrimination, higher rates of financial illiteracy, lack of financial education, and a lack of assets for collaterals. This is exacerbated sometimes by discriminatory legal frameworks that do not recognise a woman as a head of household. These are important challenges, as financial institutions often require land title, statutory proof of identity and collateral to receive credit. Improving women's economic empowerment requires guaranteeing women equal access to loans, building financial literacy and offering training opportunities that understand and address the specificities of women's individual and diverse situations. Thus, financial disadvantage may be the result of a lack of gender-responsive policies and programmes; therefore, it is critical to address gender discrimination in the area of finance and enable a favourable environment for women to thrive in the finance sector to unlock their potential.

The report's analysis of the financial equity pillar highlights progress made as well as the persistence of gender inequalities in the labour market in G20 economies, especially with regards to the legal frameworks, social norms and practices that discriminate against women.

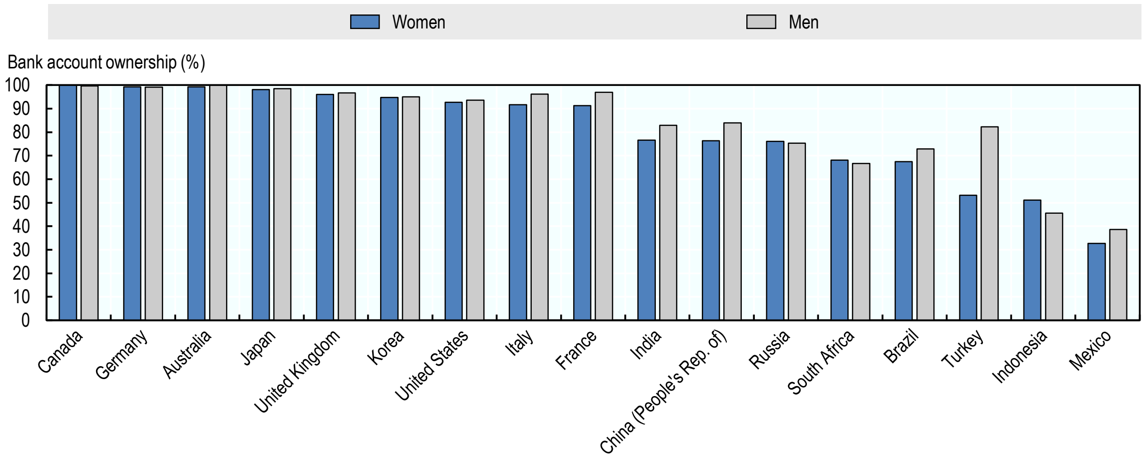
Where are we?

In almost half[27] of the G20 countries, more than 90% of both women and men have an account at a bank or another type of financial institution (see Figure 4). This is aided by the fact that in every G20 country the legal frameworks provide women and men with the same rights to open a bank account and obtain credit at a formal financial institution (OECD, 2019e). Having a bank account is associated with an increase in individual savings, a better access to consumption and productive investments, and contributes to empowering women; however, in some countries, facilitating access to bank accounts for women and men remains a distant goal (Deléchat et al., 2018). This is the case for Mexico, Argentina and Indonesia, where more than half of the population still lacks access to financial services (World Bank Findex, 2017). The gender breakdown of this indicator reveals that in most of the G20 countries there is a higher proportion of men who own an account than women. In 2017, on average, 82% of men in G20 countries had access to a bank account compared to only 78% for women, representing a gap of four percentage-points.[28] Turkey had the widest gap in 2017 at 29%, whereas Canada, Germany, Korea and Japan reached parity. On the

[27] Australia, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Korea, United Kingdom, United States.
[28] The calculation of the averages excludes the European Union.

other hand, in Argentina, Indonesia, South Africa and Russia, women were more likely than men to own an account (World Bank Findex, 2017).

Figure 4. Men are more likely than women to own a bank account in most G20 countries, 2017



Note: Percentage of men and women respectively age 15 and above who report having an account by themselves or together with someone.
Source: World Bank Global Findex Data (2017), https://globalfindex.worldbank.org/sites/globalfindex/files/2018-08/Global%20Findex%20Database.xlsx.

Gender norms that restrict women's access to and control over income and expenditures are found to be associated with their lower demand for financial services (Demirguc-Kunt, et al 2013). While overall women seem to be confidently managing household expenses, it would seem that many women defer long-term financial decisions to their spouses because they believe men know more about investing and planning (UBS, 2019). The SIGI also points to discriminatory practices that exclude women from decision-making processes related to large household financial investments (OECD, 2019a). Clearly, women's own perceptions of their capabilities are also an obstacle to their participation in the area. They generally are found to have less experience in self-employment than men and have less opportunities than men to be in management roles, which influences their skills and levels of confidence (OECD/European Union, 2017). Yet, given that women tend to have the primary responsibility for looking after children, and take daily decisions about the allocation of household resources, it is imperative they have adequate financial skills (OECD, 2013).

On another level, logistical barriers such as long wait times in India and long distances for rural women in Mexico, Russia and Indonesia prevent women from visiting banks, setting up accounts and making transactions. Furthermore, it becomes more difficult for women to engage in financial activities if they are limited by the legislation or by cultural practices. For example legal frameworks in Indonesia and Saudi Arabia do not provide women with the same rights as men to be recognised as the head of household and legally oblige them to obey their husbands (OECD, 2019e). In Turkey, where women typically do not hold or share the title for family assets such as property, it is difficult to secure a bank loan. Moreover, in Australia, women are not as engaged in their finances as they should be, which may be due to a range of factors, such as internalised gender-based stereotypes or simply a lack of interest. Women globally are also less financially literate than their male peers and may not be as confident negotiating a contract or reading terms and conditions (OECD, 2017a).

Achieving financial inclusion requires not only to have access to bank accounts, but also access to credit from formal financial institutions. Access to credit enables investing in educational and business opportunities and using formal insurance products that allow for better management of financial risks

(Demirguc-Kunt, A., Klapper, L., Singer, D., 2017). It seems that there is a gender bias in access to credit in the G20 countries. While only 24% of women reported having borrowed money from a financial institution or used a credit card, men's proportion stands at 28%, which represents a four percentage-point gap. Beyond this figure, country-level analysis reveals more inequalities: in Italy, Saudi Arabia and Turkey, the gap is respectively 21, 19 and 18 percentage-points, while parity prevails in Argentina and Australia.[29] In Japan and Korea, however, the gap was found to be in favour of women and stood respectively at two and six percentage-points (World Bank Findex, 2017).

One explanatory factor for these trends is that women tend to source funding through informal channels (OECD/European Union, 2017). For example, analysing women-led entrepreneurship reveals that in 15 of the G20,[30] women are more likely to start their business with funding from their spouse and relatives than a bank loan (OECD, 2018a). Furthermore, women entrepreneurs tend to have smaller and less diverse entrepreneurial networks than male entrepreneurs (OECD/European Union, 2017). Even when women do seek a loan from a bank, they tend to ask for smaller amounts. This is the case in the US, where women-led businesses ask for 45% less than men-owned businesses (Biz2credit, 2018). This may be the result of women's lower levels of entrepreneurial experience, gender stereotypes or uncertainty about the lending process (OECD, 2017b).

Nonetheless, this situation can have serious consequences for the success of women-led businesses. For example, in Korea the main reasons women gave for discontinuing their businesses were a lack of finance and unprofitability (MasterCard, 2018). In this regard, the Japanese government has allocated JPY 20 billion (USD 200 million) for a fund dedicated to supporting female entrepreneurs. Only a small number of countries have implemented measures targeted at women-owned businesses, among which in the G20 figure the United States, Korea, South Africa and Indonesia. In addition, women entrepreneurs face additional challenges due to their gender in the area of venture capital and angel investment, which is predominantly male. In the United States, investors are 60% more likely to invest in male-owned businesses, even if they are presented with the same investment pitches (OECD, 2017b). However, since the 2013 OECD Recommendation efforts are being made to further investments in financial education initiatives targeted at women and girls or where women are the main beneficiaries. (OECD, 2017b).

Perceptions also matter as, in a business world mainly dominated by men, women face challenges in making their business thrive. These include gender stereotypes, lower credibility linked with their gender, or the difficulty juggling family and business demands, as in the case of Brazil (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2016). Entrepreneurship is traditionally viewed as primarily 'masculine', and despite a slow positive shift, cultural attitudes and norms still favour men entrepreneurs, which are enhanced by depictions in the media. In addition, the traditional allocation of gender roles in the household and its impact on women's work experience, network and assets may lead women to restrict their business goals and entrepreneurial activities (OECD, 2017b). For example, women who are self-employed are more likely than men to work in the service sector, and this is true in all OECD economies (OECD, 2016). Providing coaching and mentoring to women would-be entrepreneurs and inspiring a younger generation with role models of successful women entrepreneurs contributes to boosting women's confidence and shifting established perceptions.

Legal frameworks, social norms and practices have the potential to drive or change gender-biased financial outcomes. And while there is some progress, notably in removing obstacles for women to access bank loans, more needs to be done in enabling equal access to women and men to finance and in addressing gender stereotypes in the area of entrepreneurship.

[29] Based on data from 2017.

[30] Argentina, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Germany, India, Indonesia, Italy, Japan, Korea, Mexico, Russia, South Africa, the United Kingdom and the United States (data unavailable for China and Saudi Arabia).

Main progress

Improvements in financial equity means ensuring that all women and men have access to financial services including accounts, credit and information. Overall, there has been some progress, as countries have increasingly been attentive to the importance of access to credit and have been creating more favourable conditions for women to pursue entrepreneurship:

- The legal framework of all G20 countries provides women with the same rights as men to open a bank account at a formal financial institution and guarantee women's equal access to credit.
- In four countries[31] of the G20, women are more likely than men to hold an account at a financial institution.
- A number of G20 countries have also improved women's access to accounts by using new technologies. This is especially true in Indonesia and India, where digitalising payments has led to significant increases in account ownership for both men and women.
- Efforts are being made to remove obstacles for women to access bank loans. This is notably the case in China, where policies are in place to ensure that women who have gained their entrepreneurial training certification are guaranteed to obtain a bank loan without having to provide collateral on personal property.
- Many governments have sponsored microcredit and training programs. For example, Mexico's National Financing Programme for Micro-entrepreneurs and Rural Women provides preferential interest rates, loans and training for women, especially rural women who also face some of the toughest barriers to financial inclusion globally.
- In most G20 countries there is a slight increase of the number of women engaging in entrepreneurship. From 2017 to 2018, Russia and Argentina both experienced one-percentage-point increases in the percentage of women business owners (MasterCard, 2018).

Main challenges

Social norms and unequal legal treatment of women and men are still an obstacle for women to develop their financial knowledge, confidence and skills in this area (OECD, 2013). Enabling equal access for women to financial products and services is key to fostering women's economic empowerment, and removing discriminatory social norms and practices is essential for women to fully realise their potential:

- On average, 22% of women in the G20 countries lack access to formal accounts (World Bank Findex, 2017).
- Across 27 countries[32] surveyed by Ipsos in 2019, 46% of people believe that not enough is being done in business to achieve equal rights between men and women in their country; and 41% are not confident that discrimination will have ended in their country in this area in the next 20 years.
- Married women in six of the G20[33] countries are more likely to defer long-term financial decisions to their spouse rather than taking the lead.
- Discriminatory practices persist, such as banks requiring husbands' or fathers' permission to approve loan applications for women.[34]

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[31] Argentina, Indonesia, Russia and South Africa.
[32] Out of the 27 countries, 16 are G20 countries.
[33] Brazil, Germany, Italy, Mexico, United Kingdom, United States; Data unavailable for: Argentina, Australia, Canada, China, France, India, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa and Turkey.
[34] Evidence available from Turkey and India.

Governance

The governance pillar – as defined by W20 for the purposes of this report – provides examples of measures to achieve gender equality in all levels of decision-making by 2030.

Rooted in the 2015 OECD Recommendation on Gender Equality in Public Life and driven by the OECD Working Party on Gender Mainstreaming and Governance, the OECD work on the governance dimensions of gender equality entails strategic planning and institutional drivers of gender equality; the use of broad range of government tools in a gender-responsive manner; independent accountability mechanisms; strengthening of capacities; and measures to promote gender equality in public institutions at all levels.

The Japanese G20 presidency aimed to promote women in positions of power and decision-making, both in the public and private sectors. Indeed, in G20 economies, women are less likely than men to occupy leadership positions on corporate boards and they are also under-represented in parliaments. Specifically, the W20's action plan aims to 'establish effective and transparent governance and accountability mechanisms for achieving gender equality'.

The way the SIGI looks at this dimension from a social norms perspective includes analysing the underlying drivers of women's restricted role in corporate governance in the private sector as well as in leadership in the public sector (government and/or Parliamentary representation remains predominantly the domain of men). While implementation of quotas is key to make progress in achieving gender parity in the parliaments of G20 countries, addressing social norms is equally important. In order to achieve long-lasting change, there is a need to increase social awareness of the benefits of gender-balanced representation at all levels (OECD, 2019d). Globally, half of the population declares that men make better political leaders than women do (OECD, 2019a). It is therefore also important to address social norms in this area and devise policies and measures to promote women's leadership at all levels.

The report's analysis of the governance pillar highlights progress made as well as the persistence of gender inequalities in the labour market in G20 economies, especially with regards to the legal frameworks, social norms and practices that discriminate against women.

Where are we?

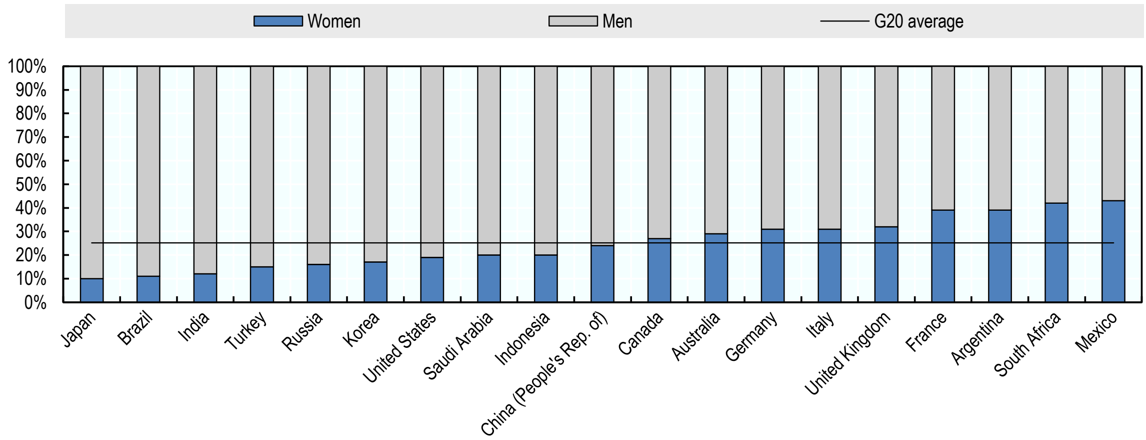
Women's equal participation in leadership and decision-making positions is not yet a reality in G20 countries in both public and private spheres. Barriers to women's advancement in public life are many: these include unpaid care and domestic work, which adds to the probability of women interrupting their careers to care for their family, as well as gender stereotyping at work, at home and in society at large, which is exacerbated by the media. Yet progress is being made, especially thanks to gender quotas and other targets which help increase women's representation in political and private sector leadership (OECD, 2017b). In particular, to address the challenge of an uneven work-life balance, which may discourage women from high-ranking leadership positions in politics, steps are being taken to introduce a range of measures to facilitate work-life balance for parliamentarians[35] for example in Canada, Germany or Japan (OECD, 2019d).

Globally, women represent less than one-third (on average 25%) of members of parliaments in G20 countries in 2019. Progress has been slow, as in 2014 this figure was 23%. Beyond these averages, there are important variations across countries: women occupy less than a quarter of seats in the parliaments of half[36] of the G20 countries (see Figure 5). However, in Mexico and South Africa, women are much more represented in the political decision-making sphere, accounting for 43% and 42% of their respective parliaments (OECD, 2019b). While Mexico has nearly achieved parity in political representation — since

[35] The term parliamentarians refers to representatives of the lower or single House of Parliament, while in some countries the term 'legislators' may be used.
[36] Brazil, China, India, Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Turkey and the United States.

a seven percentage-point increase is required for women and men to be equally represented in parliament, in Japan, a 40 percentage-point increase in women's political representation is required to achieve parity (OECD, 2019b).

Figure 5. Women are underrepresented in national parliaments in all G20 countries, 2019



Note: Political Representation is defined by the percentage of women in the total number of representatives of the lower or single House of Parliament. The European Union is not included.
Source: OECD (2019), Gender, Institutions and Development Database, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

Despite more women participating in politics, discriminatory social norms and practices towards women political leaders remain an important issue in most G20 countries. In six of the G20 countries[37], more than half of the population still thinks that men make better political leaders than women (OECD, 2019b). In addition, across the 27 countries[38] surveyed by Ipsos in 2019, 44% of respondents believe that not enough is being done in government and politics to achieve equal rights between men and women in their country. This was also identified as one of the areas where little progress will be made, as 43% are not confident that discrimination will have ended in their country in this area in the next 20 years (Ipsos, 2019). Negative perceptions towards women in leadership positions are also exacerbated by the obstacles that women face in climbing up the governance ladder: women tend to have to prove themselves more than men, and are often discriminated against at the top because of their gender. Men also tend to be less supportive of the idea of women in power, as there are more women than men who perceive both genders as equally suitable for leadership (Kantar, 2018). Women also tend to have less access to networks and connections to the business community than men, which makes financing their campaigns more difficult (OECD, 2017b; Westminster Foundation for Democracy, 2018; Hillman, 2017).

Another key challenge in ensuring that women are further empowered to be politically active is to prevent and further criminalise violence and harassment of female politicians and candidates. Whether it be in person or online, harassment and hate speech when directed towards women is often more violent and sexualised than when directed at men (and may even include death and rape threats). New research has demonstrated that in Canada and the United States, women who succeed in reaching a high status in politics are more often victims of harassment online and receive more uncivil messages (Rheault, Rayment and Musulan, 2019). This harassment serves to deter or discourage women from exercising their right to participate in politics, yet few governments in the G20 have openly recognised the problem. Furthermore, women of colour and from minority groups are often the target of sexist and racist harassment. Evidence

[37] India, Indonesia, Russia, Saudi Arabia, South Africa and Turkey.
[38] Out of the 27 countries, 16 are G20 countries.

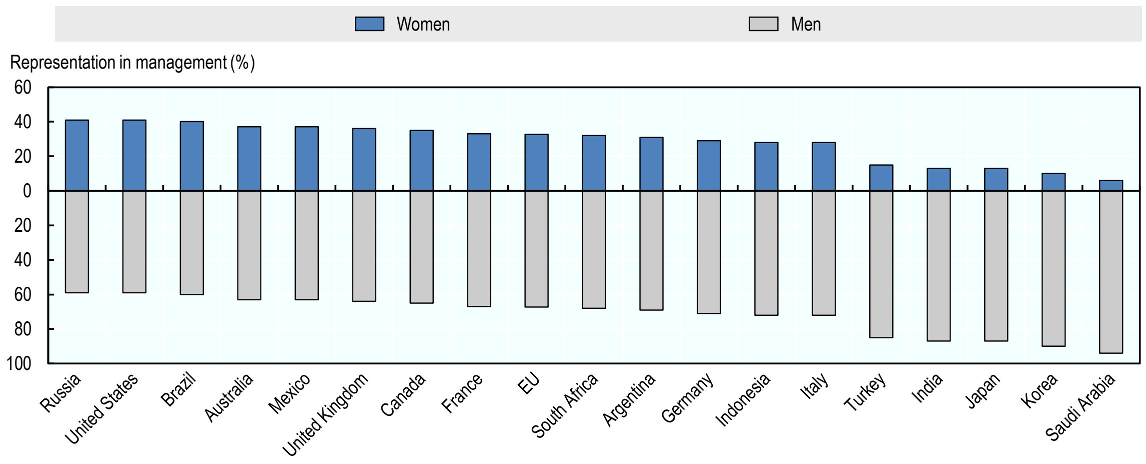
from Canada also suggests that lesbian, bisexual, and transgender (LBT+) women are also more likely to face harassment and violence (Canadian Parliamentary Review, 2017).

Media coverage can also convey gender stereotypes, which can create an atmosphere that prevents women from being more engaged (OECD, 2017b). There is a wealth of evidence of women politicians being asked questions regarding their personal life, which would be unimaginable to male candidates. For example in Brazil, there is evidence that women politicians have been critiqued based on their appearance, rather than on their proposed policies (Krook and Sanín, 2019). In other countries the simple fact of women running for office can be publicly questioned, for example in Indonesia. There are however organisations who are supporting women who seek political office and face online harassment, for example in the United States.

Gender stereotypes towards women in politics have an impact on the younger generation too, as they witness the difficulties that women encounter in the area of governance. A 2017 survey by Plan International found that girls in Australia are strongly impacted by sexism in politics. As girls grow older, fewer aim for a political career: while 75% of girls aged 10-14 think they have every opportunity to become a leader when they grow up, by the time they reach adulthood (18-25), the figure drops to only 57% (Plan International Australia, 2017). This testifies to the importance of promoting a positive image of women political leaders while addressing persisting gender stereotypes.

The private sector is no exception to the preponderance of men in leadership positions despite new research that has demonstrated the benefits associated with diverse leadership including higher share prices, and innovative decision-making and problem-solving (Egon Zehnder, 2018). Data on the gender distribution of women and men in managerial positions show an important underrepresentation of women in all G20 countries. While in Saudi Arabia and in Korea women hold respectively only 6% and 10% of all managerial positions, in the United States, Russia, and Brazil they hold 41%, 41%, and 40% of these roles respectively (see Figure 6).

Figure 6. Women are underrepresented in total management positions in all G20 countries, 2019



Note: The proportion of females and males in total management. Due to lack of recent data, China is not represented.
Source: OECD (2019), Gender, Institutions and Development Database, https://oe.cd/ds/GIDDB2019.

The "leaky pipeline" is a metaphor used to describe a phenomenon, which has been studied extensively in the United States and likely exists throughout the G20. In the pipeline, women and men begin their careers in entry-level positions, where gaps in participation are small; however, as careers progress, fewer women are represented in management and executive positions (OECD, 2017b). In fact, in all G20 countries, there are more men managers than women, and the proportion of men employed as managers is particularly high in India, Japan, Korea, Saudi Arabia and Turkey, at over 80% (OECD, 2019b). Important drivers of the leaky pipeline phenomenon include women's disproportionate responsibility for unpaid work and women's higher likelihood of working part-time (OECD, 2017b). From the organisational side, hiring and promotional practices that favour men also explain the leaky pipeline phenomenon; however very few countries are collecting data about and analysing such promotional practices (McKinsey, 2018). A good initiative is the 30% Club, which was started in the United Kingdom and aims to promote and achieve gender diversity on the corporate boards of some of the largest companies in eight of the G20 countries.[39] Enhancing gender diversity on boards and in senior management can be achieved by considering adopting measures such as voluntary targets, disclosure requirements, boardroom quotas, and private initiatives (OECD, 2015). In line with the OECD Gender Recommendations, the majority of OECD countries have initiated policies promoting gender balance on boards and in senior management, all leading to an increase in the number of women on boards. While those adopting a quota have seen a more rapid increase than those taking a softer approach such as disclosure of targets or voluntary quotas, it is important to have a wide range of measures generate change (OECD, 2017c).

Legal frameworks, social norms and practices have the potential to drive or change gender-biased governance outcomes. And while there is some progress in terms of establishing quotas and special measures to promote women's political participation, discriminatory social norms and attitudes related to women's leadership continue to limit their participation in private and public governance.

Main progress

Ensuring gender equal political representation and in the boards of private sector companies is important not only to ensure that a diversity of perspectives is taken into account when important decisions are made at the highest levels, but also to guarantee that the particular needs of girls and women are considered. Only when gender equality is achieved in political and managerial leadership will there be a better representation of the interests of the whole society (OECD, 2019d). Nevertheless, there has been notable progress in the W20 governance pillar across G20 countries:

- All countries have provided equal voting rights to women and men in all type of elections, and in all but one of the G20 countries[40], women have the same rights as men to hold public and political office in the parliament, the public administration and the government.
- Almost half of the G20 countries[41] have established quotas, incentives for political parties to include women on candidate lists, or other special measures at the national level to promote women's political participation and representation. In ten countries[42] such measures exist at the local level. Furthermore, more than half of the G20 countries[43] have at least one political party with voluntary quotas (OECD, 2019b).
- There are more women in politics today, which means that girls growing up today will have more role models in politics, and while this may be "soft" progress, it should not be underestimated.
- Specialised programmes have been created to provide women with the information they need to run for political office. For example, in Indonesia, the SWARGA project provides training programmes for candidates and MPs as well as funds activities designed to strengthen the Women's Parliamentary Caucus (Kaukus Perempuan Parlemen).

[39] Chapters in Australia, Brazil, Canada, Italy, Japan, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States.
[40] In Saudi Arabia women are prevented from serving as judges.
[41] Argentina, Brazil, China, France, Indonesia, Italy, Korea, Mexico and Saudi Arabia.
[42] Argentina, Brazil, France, India, Indonesia, Italy, Korea, Mexico, Saudi Arabia and South Africa.
[43] Argentina, Australia. Brazil, Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Korea, Mexico, South Africa, Turkey, United Kingdom.

- France[44], Germany[45] and Italy[46] have instituted a gender quota for boards of directors, requiring listed companies to include the less represented gender at least 40%, 30% and 33% of overall board representation, respectively. In addition, the Indian government has mandated that at least one seat on the board of directors of publicly listed companies be reserved for women.
- In the private sector, there has been a recent push by some governments, business leaders and shareholders to have more diversity in corporate leadership. Some initiatives, such as the 30% Club, which has chapters in eight of the G20 countries[47], seek to accelerate progress towards gender balance at the top by setting voluntary commitments.

Main challenges

Social norms and attitudes towards women in political and managerial leadership continue to put women aside. Yet, ensuring that women are involved at all levels of decision-making, both in the public and private sector, is key to ensure a wider and fairer representation of the population's needs and interests. More female as role models may help encourage young girls to consider and pursue a career in politics or in the private sector's high-decision making spheres. Yet, women continue to be under-represented in politics and managerial leadership among G20 countries:

- Gender-stereotyped media coverage serves to deter women from being more actively engaged in political life.
- Evidence from the United States and Canada shows that women politicians are more likely to face online harassment than their male colleagues.
- Minority women are underrepresented in political leadership in all of the G20 countries.
- Only four G20 countries[48] have enacted legislation to achieve gender equality on corporate boards. Yet, for such legislation to be effective countries also need to ensure removing obstacles to girls' education, so they can hold a leadership position one day. This is especially true for countries where there is a high prevalence of girls being married as children[49], which is a clear barrier to their education opportunities.

Moving forward: recommended actions

While women face different types of challenges in each of the three pillars – labour equity, financial equity and governance – policy reforms can have an impact horizontally. Therefore, to achieve progress, it is important to address the challenges highlighted in this report across all pillars.

Based on the report's findings and in line with the SIGI conceptual framework, the suggestions in the below table could be useful as Saudi Arabia takes over the G20 presidency in 2020. In addition, recommended actions should take into account the 2013 and 2015 OECD Recommendations, as well as the policy messages and actions outlined in various OECD reports (OECD, 2017b; OECD, 2019d; OECD/ILO, 2019).

It is equally important to recall that women themselves should step up and realise their full potential to grow and be empowered; to take advantage of the opportunities that present themselves; and to challenge

[44] Passage date: 13 January 2011.
[45] Passage date: 01 January 2016. The law only applies to public and private enterprises on the DAX stock exchange.
[46] Passage date: 28 January 2011.
[47] Australia, Brazil, Canada, Italy, Japan, Turkey, the United Kingdom and the United States.
[48] France, Germany, Italy, India.
[49] This is the case for example in India, Mexico, and Brazil, where the percentage of girls aged 15-19 who have been, or are still married, divorced, widowed or in an informal union is 22%, 19% and 15% respectively.

established norms, stereotypes and practices in their homes and workplaces. Women's full and active engagement is essential to make rapid progress in achieving gender equality.

Labour equity	**Continue to monitor progress made on the 25x25 target**, which aims to reduce the gender gap in labour force participation by 25% by 2025. **Promote increased enforcement of anti-discrimination laws in the workplace**. This includes addressing sexual harassment, pay discrimination, and gender-based discrimination related to marital or family status, as well as physical appearance and attributes. This also entails removing discriminatory legal provisions that prohibit women from entering certain professions. **Highlight the importance of addressing social norms that confine women to care and reproductive roles**. Promote acceptance of all of the roles women and men may choose to play in the household and society. Ensure that fathers are encouraged and have equal opportunities to provide childcare and engage in other unpaid work at home. **Facilitate women's participation in the labour market**. This includes providing paid parental leave, maternity leave and paternity leave (including paid fathers-only parental leave, that the father can take at a later stage following the birth of the child), and promote shared responsibility in childcare; encouraging employers to allow employees more agency in their work arrangements, including flexible hours where the production process allows and, where appropriate, the possibility to work remotely, regardless of parental status (to lessen statistical discrimination against parents); providing a statutory right to request flexible working for all employees, which employers can reject only on serious business grounds; and providing parents with access to affordable, good quality childcare and out-of-school-hours services. **Promote further recognition of the importance of tracking unpaid care and domestic work**. Run dedicated time-use surveys, and if not possible at least ensure time-use components are added to national surveys as this data enables a better understanding of how men and women use their time and monitor changes in the division of unpaid care work. This is essential information to develop policies that reduce and redistribute the unpaid care work more equally between women and men. **Call for more investments in data.** A key challenge is to have more regular and better data collection in all G20 countries, in particular in areas where data is scarce such as on social norms and practices, as well as time use, violence against women, caregiving patterns, or the use of social services. To address current gaps in gender statistics, Paris21 and UN Women are collaborating on an initiative to increase the production and wider use of gender statistics. It is recommended to engage with this initiative, to strengthen countries' statistical systems to produce gender statistics that are consistent, high quality, timely and relevant to policy makers, academics, civil society organisations and citizens.[50] **Recommend harmonisation of gender pay gap definitions**, coverage and calculations. In particular an important recommendation would be to harmonise the earnings and income surveys, so that consistent calculations can be made, for example for the gender pay gap or income inequality.
Financial equity	**Advocate for the elimination of discriminatory laws** that do not guarantee women's equal rights to economic resources and access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, financial assets, and natural resources. **Recommend developing action plans to strengthen entrepreneurship**. This includes preventing and addressing gender-based discrimination in entrepreneurship as well as ensuring that the conditions are

[50] See: https://paris21.org/supporting-gender-statistics.

	favourable for starting and building a business and strengthening the financial and digital capacity of women's and men's enterprises, including e-commerce. **Encourage the promotion of women's entrepreneurship and positive social attitudes towards women entrepreneurs**. Profile successful women entrepreneurs in awareness campaigns and introduce gender neutral entrepreneurship education to shift mind-sets about associating entrepreneurship with men. **Promote measures to facilitate women's access to credit and entrepreneurship**. The financial sector should provide special subsidies/loans to support women entrepreneurs; invest in technology such as mobile banking, and ensure both men and women have access to the technological infrastructure necessary to benefit from this innovation; and reduce administrative burdens for men and women. **Remove barriers to access to finance for women**. This includes incentivising financial institutions to take into account the specificities and needs of women and men for the financial products they offer as well as their level of knowledge so that they are the most relevant, but also to be mindful of discriminatory social norms and practices when designing and implementing initiatives aimed at increasing women's financial inclusion, so that women-specific support does not reinforce existing barriers. Women's access to finance can be improved through loan guarantees, as well as other approaches such as improving access to public procurement markets, access to risk capital and the use of tax credits. **Encourage investment in the financial education of women**. This includes putting in place educational programmes, training and general support to boost women's financial literacy and confidence, including support networks; increasing awareness of finance sources and tools among women entrepreneurs; and developing coaching and mentoring services that equip women with the necessary skills to manage their businesses successfully, including professional advice on legal and fiscal matters. This can also include providing more advanced skills through business incubators. **Call for the development of better indicators to track progress in the area**. While the percentage of women who have accounts may be a passable proxy for financial inclusion, better indicators are needed to see if women are able to access the credit they need to achieve their life goals.
Governance	**Consider transitional or corrective measures to promote gender diversity in governance bodies.** These can include disclosure requirements, legal or voluntary quotas, parity laws, alternating the sexes on party lists as well as financial incentives for political parties. Furthermore penalties for non-compliance may be important to ensuring these measures are effective. Measures to promote gender-balanced representation at the highest level should apply to all women, including indigenous women or women from rural areas, among other groups (OECD, 2019d). Recommendation is also made that the OECD's "Toolkit for Mainstreaming and Implementing Gender Equality" is used in this regard. The toolkit was developed to support implementation of the 2015 OECD Recommendation, assisting policy makers to design gender-sensitive public policies and services and enable women's equal access to public decision-making (OECD, 2018b).[51] **Consider measures to enhance gender diversity on boards and in senior management**. This could include voluntary targets, disclosure requirements, boardroom quotas, as well as private initiatives. **Highlight the importance of changing mind-sets about women's political and managerial leadership** by running awareness campaigns to promote a positive image of women leaders. **Recommend that gender stereotypes and sexist language directed at women politicians is addressed**. This includes working with social media platforms to ensure they are upholding their standards for content and

[51] The toolkit includes a self-assessment tool, which enables policy makers in different areas to analyse their specific country and work contexts and identify gaps, weaknesses and strengths in the four main pillars of the toolkit: Institutional and governance frameworks for gender equality and mainstreaming; Gender-sensitive practices in parliaments; Gender-sensitive public employment systems; and Gender-sensitive practices in the judiciary.

	usage to address online harassment; raising awareness about the responsible use of online platforms, and the effect hateful speech can have especially when directed towards women politicians; facilitate dialogue between police and politicians about preventing political violence. **Promote data collection to track progress about whether companies have gender equality policies in place** (such as board succession, voluntary quotas, bias-reduction procedures for hiring, promotions and evaluations, flexible work arrangements, childcare arrangements, etc.); and about whether there are hiring and promotional practices that favour men. **Suggest that incentives are put in place for companies to commit to gender equality**. This includes encouraging companies to take on voluntary commitments to increase diversity in boardrooms, and create a gender certification for companies which have demonstrated a real commitment to gender equality.

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