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Follow-up to the Fourth World Conference on Women and to the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly, entitled “Women 2000: gender equality, development and peace for the twenty-first century”: implementation of strategic objectives and action in critical areas of concern and further actions and initiatives

Ensuring and strengthening access to justice for all women and girls, including by promoting inclusive and equitable legal systems, eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices, and addressing structural barriers

Report of the Secretary-General**

Summary

The present report is submitted pursuant to Economic and Social Council resolutions [2022/4](#) and [2025/3](#) and provides an overview of key factors influencing women’s and girls’ access to justice. It outlines progress made and persistent obstacles, and examines the arrangements needed to advance the full and effective implementation of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action and gender-responsive implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (General Assembly resolution [70/1](#)). The report concludes with recommendations for consideration by the Commission on the Status of Women.

* [E/CN.6/2026/1](#).

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I. Introduction

1. In accordance with its multi-year programme of work (2026–2029), the Commission on the Status of Women, at its seventieth session, will consider as its priority theme “Ensuring and strengthening access to justice for all women and girls, including by promoting inclusive and equitable legal systems, eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices, and addressing structural barriers”.

2. Access to justice is a right guaranteed under international law and reflected in national legislation around the world. The denial of that right undermines human rights, peace and sustainable development. Without equal access for women and men, there can be no justice, thereby eroding rule of law principles of equality, accountability and fairness. For women and girls, barriers to justice entrench inequality.

3. As the world grapples with polycrises, marked by widening income inequality, growing conflict, the erosion of democratic norms, climate change and disparate digital transformation, ensuring access to justice has never been more critical. Action to ensure such access is particularly urgent for women and girls, amid pervasive pushback on women’s rights. The right of women and girls to have access to justice is increasingly threatened precisely when it is most needed, as progress towards achieving Sustainable Development Goal 5, on gender equality, remains stalled.

4. In the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Member States pledged to guarantee equal access to justice for all and to establish legal frameworks that promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination.¹ Those commitments are rooted in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women.

5. Under the terms of the Convention, States Parties are required to ensure that women enjoy and exercise all human rights and freedoms on an equal basis with men. It obliges States to ensure women’s access to legal protection and remedies through competent national tribunals and public institutions, affirming that State Parties shall accord to women equality with men before the law.² In 2015, the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women adopted its general recommendation No. 33 (2015) on women’s access to justice, explicitly defining access to justice as a fundamental element of the rule of law and good governance, encompassing justiciability, availability, accessibility, good quality, the provision of remedies for victims and the accountability of justice systems.

6. Through the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, which was adopted by consensus by the Fourth World Conference on Women (the thirtieth anniversary of which was marked in 2025), the Convention was reinforced and Member States were urged to remove gender bias in the administration of justice. In the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, Conference participants called for the establishment of affordable and accessible mechanisms, including legal aid. Governments and non-governmental organizations were called upon to promote women’s legal literacy and to make information on remedies widely available.

7. Member States have made progress in fulfilling their international obligations and commitments and expressed determination to do more. In 2024, States reported that ensuring women’s equality and non-discrimination under the law and access to justice was one of their top priorities in the preceding five years. Some 90 per cent of Member States reported that they had strengthened laws, implementation and

¹ Sustainable Development Goals 16 and 5, respectively. See also, Goals 1, 3, 8, 10, 11 and 13.

² Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, arts. 2, 3 and 15.

enforcement measures to combat violence against women over the same period (see [E/CN.6/2025/3/Rev.1](#)). The Working Group on discrimination against women and girls has noted that more than 40 countries have amended and rewritten their constitutions in the past decade to incorporate provisions aimed at advancing women's and girls' rights (see [A/HRC/56/51](#)). Research shows that autonomous feminist movements and women's rights organizations have been critical in advancing such reforms around the world.³

8. Despite this important progress, women and girls still struggle to gain access to justice. Women globally face greater barriers to justice than men in nearly 70 per cent of the countries surveyed.⁴ Justice infrastructure often fails to uphold the rights of women and girls, who face challenges such as discriminatory laws, inaccessible justice mechanisms, weak implementation and restrictive and patriarchal norms. Failures of justice that threaten the lives of women and girls are often met with impunity – and sustained by it.

9. Globally, women have 64 per cent of the legal rights of men,⁵ as discriminatory legal frameworks continue to prevail. Globally, 54 per cent of countries lack consent-based legal definitions of rape,⁶ while 72 per cent allow child marriage in all or some circumstances, an issue that disproportionately affects girls.⁷ More than 45 countries retain at least one provision in their legislation regarding nationality that discriminates on the basis of gender,⁸ and 44 per cent of countries do not have legislation that mandates equal remuneration for work of equal value, the absence of which contributes to gender pay gaps.⁹ Such deficits also blunt the law's ability to signal and socialize new norms, resulting in lost opportunities to drive change.

10. The implementation of legal frameworks continues to lag, as resources and norms fail to keep pace. As a result, even where formal equality – equal treatment before the law – is achieved, substantive justice – fairness in outcomes – remains out of reach for many. Power imbalances, in settings ranging from the household to the State level, often restrict women's access to justice and perpetuate impunity. For women and girls in conflict-affected settings and rural or otherwise underserved areas, access may be determined as much by such circumstances as by any law. Traditional justice systems,¹⁰ which are relied upon by women around the world, can also produce discriminatory outcomes. A multidimensional understanding of justice – one that recognizes justice as constitutive of the dignity, freedom, voice, and agency of women and girls – reveals how deeply barriers to justice persist.

³ Daniela M. Behr and others, “Empowering change: assessing the role of democracy, civil society, and women's rights groups in advancing legal gender equality”, Policy Research Working Paper, No. 10788 (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 2024).

⁴ United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN-Women) and United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), “Annual report 2023: gender justice platform”, 2024.

⁵ World Bank, *Women, Business and the Law 2024* (Washington, D.C., 2024).

⁶ UN-Women and United Nations, *Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals: The Gender Snapshot 2024* (New York, 2024).

⁷ United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, “How marriage laws can contribute to protecting every girl's right to education”, 7 March 2025.

⁸ Catherine Harrington, “Gender discriminatory nationality laws and the principle of gender-equal citizenship”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁹ UN-Women, “The crucial role of legal frameworks in advancing gender equality: latest on SDG 5, target 5.1: end all forms of discrimination against women and girls everywhere”, 2024.

¹⁰ As defined by the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women in its general recommendation No. 33 (2015) on women's access to justice, the present report uses “traditional justice systems” to refer to religious, customary, Indigenous and community justice systems.

11. Progress is possible; achieving it requires a focus on access to substantive and participatory justice outcomes for women and girls, centred on the fundamental human rights to non-discrimination and equality, and an understanding of systemic exclusion and power asymmetries. The laws, policies, practices and other structural barriers referred to in the priority theme can either drive or inhibit access by women and girls. Political will, dedicated public financing, social mobilization, the gathering and use of evidence, as well as innovation, will be required in order to overcoming such challenges, and efforts must be constantly informed by the lived and diverse realities of women and girls.

II. Parallel roads: justice needs and justice mechanisms

12. Experts have compared the challenges faced by women and girls in gaining access to justice to a two-way highway: legal problems move in one direction, while justice mechanisms move in another. When these roads run parallel to each other, realities and remedies do not meet,¹¹ whereas their intersection enables justice. These dynamics require an understanding of how laws, other structural barriers, implementation gaps, traditional mechanisms and crisis or conflict settings affect women's and girls' access to justice.

A. Legal frameworks

13. Around the world, legal frameworks directly or indirectly discriminate against women and girls. Data reported for Sustainable Development Goal indicator 5.1.1, which measures whether legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor gender equality, show that no reporting country has yet closed legal gaps in the four areas assessed: overarching legal frameworks and public life, violence against women, employment and economic benefits and marriage and family. The information available for 2024 indicates that 54 per cent of countries have legal gaps in all four areas.¹²

14. Family and personal status laws can entrench systemic and systematic gender inequality. Surveys have found that women are more likely than men to face family-related legal issues.¹³ Clawback clauses in 22 national constitutions exclude the application of non-discrimination principles in matters of personal and/or customary law, including as relates to marriage, divorce, custody and inheritance.¹⁴ Where women lack equal rights to transmit nationality to their spouses and children, the resulting discrimination can increase statelessness, heighten socioeconomic human rights violations, fracture family unity and deepen intergenerational poverty. Upon marriage dissolution, the majority of jurisdictions lack adequate provisions for spousal maintenance and the equitable distribution of matrimonial property.¹⁵ Discriminatory inheritance laws affect approximately 250 million women,¹⁶ and 59

¹¹ Deliberations of the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

¹² UN-Women, "The crucial role of legal frameworks in advancing gender equality".

¹³ Paul Prettitore and Sandie Okoro, "Measuring the gender justice gap", Brookings, 21 June 2018.

¹⁴ See <http://constitutions.unwomen.org>.

¹⁵ Hyshyama Hamin, "From discrimination to justice: reforming family laws to achieve gender equality", expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

¹⁶ Ibid.

per cent of the countries reviewed have “low, very low or no protection at all”¹⁷ of women’s land rights as one key factor leading to discriminatory inheritance laws. This legal context erodes economic equality for women and girls, leaving them more vulnerable to poverty. Of particular concern are the ways in which discriminatory family and personal status laws have undermined women’s agency, making it difficult to escape situations of abuse. In contrast, research indicates that since 1970, more than 600 million women have gained access to economic opportunities because of family law reform, thus reflecting its transformative impact.¹⁸

15. Since the adoption of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, Governments have made notable progress in passing and strengthening laws to address violence against women and girls. By 2023, 84 per cent of countries had passed laws on eliminating and responding to domestic violence, according to research by UN-Women.¹⁹ While those laws were a tremendous step forward in legally shedding the notion of domestic violence as a private matter, only 104 of 164 countries²⁰ have enacted comprehensive legislation that integrates criminalization, prevention, survivor-centred measures for empowerment, protection and support consistent with global and regional standards. Emerging areas, such as addressing violence that occurs through or is amplified by the use of technology, present new legal gaps that disproportionately affect women and girls,²¹ thereby denying them equal protection under the law.

16. Gaps also persist in employment law. Since the Sustainable Development Goals were adopted in 2015, more countries have enacted legal provisions that prohibit at least some aspects of sex- or gender-based discrimination in employment.²² Nevertheless, the rate of progress remains slow. Many countries still restrict women from certain jobs or do not offer protection to caregivers aimed at preventing their discrimination at work.²³ This reality, viewed in conjunction with the 708 million women citing unpaid care responsibilities as their primary barrier to labour force participation,²⁴ highlights the relationship between the law and the economic empowerment of women. Prohibitions on some forms of retaliation for seeking justice and reporting harassment exist in 60 per cent of countries, yet few protect against all types of adverse action, such as disciplinary measures, harassment or dismissal.²⁵ Meanwhile, the evidence required for presentation in discrimination and harassment cases is often held or controlled by employers, which compounds power imbalances.²⁶ Women and girls working in the informal economy are often completely excluded from legal protection.

¹⁷ Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, SDG Indicators Data Portal, available at www.fao.org/sustainable-development-goals-data-portal/data/indicators/5a2-women-s-equal-rights-to-land-ownership.

¹⁸ Daniela M. Behr and Julia C. Braunmiller, “Changing laws, changing lives: family law reform as a catalyst for economic prosperity”, Global Indicators Brief, No. 30 (World Bank, 2025).

¹⁹ UN-Women, “Facts and figures: ending violence against women”, 24 November 2023.

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ UN-Women, “Repository of UN-Women’s work on technology-facilitated violence against women and girls”, March 2025.

²² Jody Heymann and Amy Raub, “Realizing equal legal rights and access to justice for all”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ International Labour Organization (ILO), “Statistical brief: the impact of care responsibilities on women’s labour force participation”, October 2024.

²⁵ Heyman and Raub, “Realizing equal legal rights and access to justice for all”.

²⁶ ILO, “Strengthening access to labour justice for women”, observer paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

17. Laws that disproportionately affect the poorest, such as those criminalizing informal work, begging, homelessness or the non-payment of fines,²⁷ have an especially adverse effect on women and girls,²⁸ who are overrepresented among the poor.²⁹ Convictions under such laws contribute to rising rates of incarceration for women and girls worldwide (see [A/HRC/56/61/Add.3](#)), particularly for those belonging to racial minority groups, which often sets off a vicious cycle that reinforces their exclusion from legal protection.

B. Structural barriers and social norms

18. Structural barriers to justice for women and girls are systematic, society-wide phenomena, afflicting women as a group.³⁰ Such barriers stem from social structures and can be formal, as is the case of the laws discussed above, or informal, such as social norms.³¹ Discriminatory social norms influence who can have access to justice and benefit from the rule of law. Such norms can affect the deliberation of facts, discourage women from reporting violence or limit women's representation within the judiciary.³²

19. Discriminatory social norms can also lead to discriminatory laws or reduce compliance with the legal frameworks designed to advance gender equality. As noted by the Working Group on the issue of discrimination against women in law and in practice, "no matter how strongly the law is drafted, it is filtered through the biases and limitations of the individuals and institutions, public and private, responsible for grounding it in reality".³³ For example, while 51 of 92 countries had passed laws prohibiting female genital mutilation by 2024 (see [A/79/514](#)), enforcement is constrained, particularly where such practices retain social support.

20. Structural discrimination compounds the barriers to access to justice faced by women and girls on the basis of income level, racial or ethnic identity, Indigenous status, religion or belief, sexual orientation or gender identity, disability, HIV status or refugee or migrant status, among other factors. The overlapping nature of the identities of these groups increases their vulnerability to harm and heightens their protection needs. Fear of retaliation or further marginalization deters many from even approaching justice actors, for example, in situations where the legal capacity of women with disabilities may automatically be questioned or where status- or conduct-based criminalization related to diverse sexual orientation and gender identity increases the risk of self-incrimination.³⁴

²⁷ See also, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, art. 11.

²⁸ Penal Reform International and Women Beyond Walls, *From Poverty to Punishment: Examining Laws and Practices which Criminalize Women Due to Poverty or Status Worldwide* (2025).

²⁹ UN-Women and United Nations, *Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals: The Gender Snapshot 2025* (New York, 2025).

³⁰ S. Laurel Weldon, "Structural barriers and access to justice for women and girls", expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

³¹ Ibid.

³² UNDP, "The transformative power of women in the judiciary", observer paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

³³ See [A/HRC/35/29](#); in 2019, the Working Group was renamed Working Group on discrimination against women and girls.

³⁴ Thilaga Sulathireh, "Access to justice for LGBTIQ+ people", expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

C. Implementation gap

21. While laws that guarantee equality and non-discrimination are a necessary part of the justice access equation, the full sum depends heavily on implementation and service delivery. In spite of their varied personal circumstances, women and girls often face common barriers to justice, including in relation to costs, distance, language, low level of legal literacy, time poverty linked to care responsibilities, bias and stigma. These constraints deepen in different ways across the life course, leaving girls and older women in particular confronting unique and often underrecognized barriers to justice.

22. Girls face distinct and often overlooked obstacles in gaining access to justice services, including impediments such as the absence of child-centred and gender-sensitive procedures among justice actors. Child marriage and early pregnancy are barriers to girls claiming their rights where, as legal minors, they can find themselves dependent on the very individuals who may be harming them – a challenge in both civil and traditional justice systems. The combined legal, psychological and economic support needs of girls often go unmet³⁵ owing to a shortage of age-appropriate services for girls that are informed by an awareness of children’s neurological development. Recognizing girls as a distinct legal and developmental group, and not as “women-in-training” but as rights holders with unique pathways and vulnerabilities, remains critical.³⁶

23. Older women frequently face the accumulated effects of lifelong gender-based discrimination and economic disadvantage. They often lack the resources and institutional support to effectively assert their rights.³⁷ Gendered ageism undermines their credibility, leading to the dismissal of complaints, especially in cases involving violence, neglect, health rights, pension and property entitlements. Such abuses are pervasive, yet often underreported due to shame, stigma and the fear of reprisals.³⁸

24. Independent research shows that for both men and women, the supply of justice services has not kept pace with the demand for justice solutions.³⁹ Some challenges include low budgets, capacity-constrained justice actors, poor intrasectoral and intersectoral coordination and political interference in matters of enforcement. Women and girls face compounded challenges, as entrenched patriarchal norms and systemic discrimination persist within justice institutions (formal and traditional). Gender bias also frequently intersects with other identity-based discrimination at all stages of the justice chain.

25. The justice sector also remains largely male-dominated at decision-making levels. The absence of female justice actors reflects structural gender imbalances and, as evidence from some contexts shows, can discourage women from engaging with

³⁵ United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), “The role of laws and justice systems in protecting girls from child marriage”, observer paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

³⁶ United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC), “Access to justice for women and girls alleged or recognized as having infringed criminal law”, observer paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

³⁷ Tanvi Patel, “Towards equitable justice: overcoming structural barriers faced by older women in accessing inclusive legal systems”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

³⁸ Ibid.

³⁹ Daniela Barba and Alejandro Ponce, *Disparities, Vulnerability, and Harnessing Data for People-Centred Justice: WJP Justice Data Graphical Report II* (Washington, D.C., World Justice Project, 2023).

justice systems and thus affect legal outcomes.⁴⁰ Research suggests that women’s participation in the judiciary can influence decisions in the domains of employment discrimination, sexual harassment and gender-based violence, although findings remain context-specific and should be considered within broader institutional constraints.⁴¹ Closer attention to who holds decision-making power within courts, and across the justice system more broadly, is important to understand how the law is interpreted, applied and enforced in practice.

26. In a criminal context, shortcomings in service delivery contribute to low reporting rates of violence by women and girls. Although global data remain limited, a 2025 report based on 12 countries, across all five regions, found that national justice funding for women experiencing violence was inadequate.⁴² The police, an entry point for many survivors of violence, can fall short of implementing gender-responsive policing that meets the needs of women and girls: constrained resources and institutional cultures may normalize gender-based discrimination; discourage bystander intervention in the workplace;⁴³ and lead to less perpetrator-focused action and enforcement. In the courtroom, where witness testimony can be decisive in the absence of other corroborating evidence, the testimony of women and girls continues to be assessed without adequate consideration of credibility standards⁴⁴ and is influenced by non-trauma-informed notions of what constitutes a “good” or “bad” witness.⁴⁵

27. Research has shown that attrition in the criminal justice chain is usually not random and happens at predictable process chokepoints.⁴⁶ Faced with retaliation risks, internalized stigma, community pressure to withdraw cases and the fear of impunity, women and girls may choose not to report crimes. Many women in both low- and high-income settings inherently do not trust justice systems or expect accountability, and victim-survivors frequently anticipate disbelief or inaction.⁴⁷ These dynamics reinforce cycles of impunity, and the most serious forms of violence, including femicide, often go unpunished.

28. The establishment of specialized gender justice mechanisms is important but there are challenges in ensuring effective implementation. One-stop centres have shown some promising results, but their effectiveness depends on context-specific design; sustained financing; integration into the justice system; coordinated, multidisciplinary teams; and robust evaluations that also consider alternative

⁴⁰ UNDP, “The transformative power of women in the judiciary”.

⁴¹ Ibid.

⁴² UN-Women and others, *Financing Women’s Justice Needs: Global Perspectives on Violence against Women, and a Case Study on Uganda* (2025).

⁴³ Jane Towsnley and Gerry Campbell, “A gender responsive approach to policing and the wider justice systems”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁴⁴ Adila de las Mercedes, “International credibility standards: the impact of stereotypes and prejudices in cases of sexual violence against women”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁴⁵ Bonita Meyersfeld, “Diffusion of international legal frameworks on women’s rights to national laws and local initiatives”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁴⁶ Nalini Singh, “Women’s access to justice in Fiji: evidence and insights”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁴⁷ S. Majumdar, “Working paper: police as an entry point to end violence against women and girls: lessons from civil society organizations funded by the UN Trust Fund to End Violence against Women”, UN-Women, January 2020; and Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), *Gender Equality in a Changing World: Taking Stock and Moving Forward, Gender Equality at Work* (Paris, 2025).

approaches. The instituting of specialized domestic violence courts has had successful outcomes⁴⁸ but such courts can also encounter challenges linked to resources and justice system integration. In police settings, while women’s police desks can provide valuable support,⁴⁹ such mechanisms may similarly grapple with operational and institutional constraints. Heavy workloads and secondary trauma among service providers may result in high staff turnover, reducing the quality and continuity of service delivery. Well-structured referral mechanisms linking helplines, community counselling, shelters and legal and health services remain critical to provide timely, survivor-centred support.

29. Globally, many needs related to justice fall under the umbrella of everyday administrative practice and administrative justice. Government bureaucracies administer the processes through which rights related to housing, education, healthcare, immigration and employment are realized. Public agencies act as the gatekeepers of legal entitlements that “can mean the difference between homelessness and shelter, precarity and security, life and death”.⁵⁰ When these institutions fail to deliver because of insufficient resources, complexity or bias, the consequences are most serious for groups that are already disadvantaged, often women and girls. The lack of a birth certificate can heighten the risk of child marriage,⁵¹ or a wrongful pension denial can trigger a harmful series of consequences, undermining other rights and deepening gender inequality.

D. Traditional justice systems

30. In the area of access to justice, the lived reality of women and girls includes legal pluralism and the use of traditional justice mechanisms. Legal pluralism is a global phenomenon⁵² that is present in some form across all regions. It is estimated that 80 per cent of the population in developing countries utilizes traditional justice systems.⁵³ Such structures frequently fill gaps where State justice mechanisms are absent or inaccessible, often stemming from legal-political arrangements shaped by colonial legacies.

31. Traditional justice systems have been described by independent experts as “pathways or fences”,⁵⁴ as such mechanisms can offer greater physical and cultural accessibility. They are often cheaper, faster and have the potential to grant local recognition of harms suffered, including for claims that may not be recognized under formal law but that reflect moral obligations within a community.⁵⁵ Such mechanisms are also not static and can change over time.

⁴⁸ *Handbook for Legislation on Violence against Women* (United Nations publication, 2010).

⁴⁹ Lisa Denney, “Tool 2: policing and gender”, in *Gender and Security Toolkit* (Geneva, Geneva Centre for Security Sector Governance, Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe – Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights and UN-Women, 2019).

⁵⁰ Rebecca L. Sandefur, “Access to justice for women and girls and administrative practices”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁵¹ UNICEF, “The role of laws and justice systems in protecting girls from child marriage”.

⁵² Fareeda Banda, “Legal pluralism and women’s rights”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁵³ See www.un.org/ruleoflaw/thematic-areas/access-to-justice-and-rule-of-law-institutions/informal-justice/.

⁵⁴ Celestine Nyamu-Musembi, “Are local norms and practices fences or pathways? The example of women’s property rights”, in *Cultural Transformation and Human Rights in Africa*, Abdullahi A. An-Na’im, ed. (Zed Books, 2002).

⁵⁵ Ibid.

32. Traditional justice systems can also be affected by entrenched patriarchal norms, such as a low number of female decision makers and discriminatory outcomes that fail to align with international, regional and possibly domestic rights frameworks. As with the formal justice system, women and girls can face substantive discrimination in areas related to the family, including marriage, inheritance and property rights, as well as domestic violence. Older women in particular struggle to gain access to or claim land as traditional practices frequently privilege male relatives and discount women's lifelong contributions. The ability of women and girls to strategically navigate plural legal systems, with different justice forums serving different needs,⁵⁶ can be highly constrained and undermine access to justice for rural women.⁵⁷

E. Crisis, conflict and post-conflict settings

33. In 2024, 676 million women and girls were living within 50 kilometres of a deadly conflict, the highest number recorded since the 1990s,⁵⁸ and the increased scale of conflict has led to increased levels of unmet justice needs. The proliferation of conflicts has been accompanied by a shocking disregard for international humanitarian law and international human rights law. The number of conflict-related sexual violence violations documented by the United Nations has increased by 87 per cent in just two years.⁵⁹ Independent human rights experts appointed by the United Nations have called attention to grave violations of international law. There is an urgent need to uphold international legal obligations, including by complying with the provisional orders and determinations of the International Court of Justice, and to prevent and punish crimes, especially those that disproportionately target women and girls.⁶⁰

34. In conflict and crisis settings, including in contexts affected by natural disasters, both formal and traditional justice systems may be weakened or non-existent, or become deeply politicized. Access to justice may be limited physically as previously safe spaces become unsafe, courts and police stations are destroyed and justice sector professionals flee, while the risk of retaliation rises. Civil society organizations often attempt to fill gaps, with some making innovative use of technology to gather data about women's justice needs, while others engage through interventions such as alternative dispute resolution. However, they also contend with security threats. Women human rights defenders who report violations and abuses by State actors and armed groups, including in relation to their work with the United Nations, can face retaliation, surveillance and criminalization. Gender-based violence increases with the outbreak of conflict,⁶¹ as do crimes such as theft and corruption. Women in detention face an even greater struggle to gain access to justice as systems collapse and the risk of violence against them increases. Women and girls in marginalized situations, including those with disabilities, living with HIV, or of diverse sexual orientation and gender identity, are at greater risk in the close quarters of refugee and displacement settings. Special procedures mandate holders and investigative bodies of the United Nations play an important role by documenting violations in conflict

⁵⁶ Banda, "Legal pluralism and women's rights".

⁵⁷ Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, general recommendation No. 34 (2016) on the rights of rural women.

⁵⁸ UN-Women and United Nations, *Progress on the Sustainable Development Goals: The Gender Snapshot 2025*.

⁵⁹ UN-Women, "Facts and figures: women, peace and security", 20 October 2025.

⁶⁰ Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), "UN experts warn international order on knife's edge, urge States to comply with ICJ Advisory Opinion", 18 September 2024.

⁶¹ Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, general recommendation No. 30 (2013).

and crisis situations and in so doing, keeping public attention focused on the need for justice.

35. Women and girls, who often experience overlapping types of discrimination, harm and crimes, have a right to truth, justice, reparations and guarantees of non-recurrence. Transitional justice processes should comprehensively address sexual and gender-based violence by ensuring the full and meaningful participation of women from diverse backgrounds and by responding to the gendered aspects of the root causes of conflict and abuse.⁶² Administrative reparations programmes, for example, can reach more women and girls, be made more relevant through co-creation, and produce more timely results than judicial systems can.⁶³ Regional and international courts can provide avenues for accountability when national systems fall short, advancing jurisprudence on gender-based crimes and helping to uphold States' obligations under international law. The negotiation of a convention based on the draft articles on prevention and punishment of crimes against humanity would present States with an opportunity to close legal gaps in the architecture of atrocity prevention and punishment by⁶⁴ codifying and enumerating crimes that disproportionately affect women and girls, including reproductive violence, forced marriage, slavery crimes and institutionalized regimes of systematic oppression amounting to gender apartheid. Historical reparations for mass violations of human rights, such as slavery or the forced sterilization of Indigenous women, are also essential to acknowledge enduring harm, address persisting structural inequalities and advance meaningful justice and reconciliation.

III. Convergence: meeting women's and girls' justice entitlements

36. Overcoming challenges relating to access to justice for women and girls requires that the parallel roads of justice needs and justice mechanisms discussed above intersect. Achieving that convergence demands a whole-of-society approach that is shaped by evidence-based drivers of change: effecting institutional change in justice systems to meet women's and girls' needs; involving autonomous feminist movements and civil society; strengthening legal aid and fostering empowerment; and leveraging technology and digital innovation, as well as research and evidence. At their core, such efforts are about creating the conditions that allow women and girls to exercise their agency and make informed justice choices.

A. Institutional change in justice systems

37. Advancing system reform requires transformative legal reform. Such reforms concern not only the substance of legislation but also the related processes and impact, including by recognizing the bidirectional relationship between law and society. Reforms meaningfully co-created by Governments with the participation of women's rights organizations and movements tend to produce a greater impact. Successful examples include technical support to ensure that nationality laws do not discriminate against women, the integration of gender equality principles into constitution-making and the exclusion, in relevant legislation, of general amnesty

⁶² United Nations, "Guidance note of the Secretary-General: transitional justice – a strategic tool for people, prevention and peace", 2023."

⁶³ Deliberations of the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025; see also, United Nations, "Guidance note of the Secretary-General: reparations for conflict-related sexual violence", June 2014.

⁶⁴ See General Assembly resolution [79/122](#).

provisions for perpetrators of grave human rights violations.⁶⁵ Gender impact assessments, laws for which budget lines have been allocated and post-enactment monitoring can help to ensure that legal changes advance substantive rather than merely formal equality.⁶⁶ Legislative audits also help in identifying and removing discriminatory laws.

38. Meaningful reform is also driven by how institutions work together to solve legal problems. Fragmentation across justice chains undermines outcomes for women and girls, who may have to navigate a number of poorly coordinated agencies,⁶⁷ which is an experience that often retraumatizes victim-survivors of violence. Whole-of-government, comprehensive justice strategies⁶⁸ that engage relevant ministries and bodies, national women's machineries, human rights commissions and the judiciary (while respecting their independence) can strengthen coherence and accountability across the system.

39. Although justice systems are often viewed as reactive,⁶⁹ their preventive and dissuasive effects are critical, but diminish where impunity prevails. Capacity strengthening along the justice chain and through early protective and procedural measures, for example, protocols for the handling of cases relating to violence, can support timely preventive interventions and reduce harmful gaps. Independent and accountable administrative justice mechanisms and mediation services, whether instituted by the Government or community-based, can resolve non-criminal disputes before they escalate, thereby alleviating pressure on courts while protecting rights. Prevention also depends on awareness. Through legal literacy initiatives,⁷⁰ school curricula and public information campaigns, women and girls, as well as men and boys, gain greater awareness of their rights and the confidence to claim them and overcome structural barriers, including harmful norms.

40. Adequate and sustained Government funding is an underlying driver of women's and girls' access to justice. The availability and level of public financing determines whether justice institutions and services can reach those most at risk of exclusion. Investment shortfalls often translate into weak protection of rights and limited accountability for discrimination. Laws, justice policies, institutions and budgets are interlinked, and advancing women's and girls' access to justice requires investing in those areas in a holistic manner.⁷¹ Waiving fees and simplifying procedure where possible also helps to reduce costs for the user. Further, encouraging innovative approaches through dedicated funding, pilot initiatives and partnerships can identify scalable justice solutions.

⁶⁵ UN-Women, *Shaping the Law for Women and Girls: Experiences and Lessons from UN-Women's Interventions* (New York, 2022).

⁶⁶ UN-Women and Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Gender-Responsive Law Making: Handbook for Parliamentarians No. 33* (2021).

⁶⁷ Patsili Toledo Vlasquez, "Femicide/feminicide and access to justice for women and girls: a contribution to CSW70", expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁶⁸ *Ibid.*

⁶⁹ Deliberations of the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁷⁰ OHCHR, "Applying the human rights framework to address women's access to justice", observer paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁷¹ UN-Women and others, *Financing Women's Justice Needs*.

B. Autonomous feminist movements and civil society

41. Autonomous and broad-based feminist movements are an important driver of progress in the area of women's and girls' access to justice. According to independent research, strong, independent women's movements are statistically the most consistent predictor of Government action to address violence against women.⁷² Such movements not only encourage States to adopt laws and other reforms of the judicial sector, but also broaden the meaning of justice by shaping public agendas and demanding institutional accountability.⁷³ Their work can positively contribute to invalidating harmful narratives that sustain discriminatory social norms, thereby strengthening collective agency for justice reform. In politically and socially sensitive legal-religious contexts, such movements have combined institutional engagement, attention to religious knowledge, strategic action and sustained advocacy in order to advance change.⁷⁴

42. Strategic litigation has been used by autonomous feminist movements and civil society to drive legal redress and reform. In a context marked by an ever greater number of international, regional and arbitral forums,⁷⁵ strategic litigation can address individual and collective human rights violations, the latter being particularly key for climate justice. Such litigation can also mobilize public opinion and has advanced a broad range of rights for groups such as Indigenous Peoples, detained persons, persons with disabilities,⁷⁶ women human rights defenders and women seeking to fulfil sexual and reproductive health rights. Litigation can challenge harms tied to private sector corporations and land use, including those having gendered effects on local communities. Where the separation of powers is strong and courts remain independent, strategic litigation can act as a bulwark against a gender backlash. Litigators must, however, weigh risks such as regressive precedent, enforcement challenges, evidentiary constraints and the length and cost of proceedings.⁷⁷

43. Feminist organizing also helps to ground international and regional standards within national contexts. Through civic contestation and mobilization campaigns, women's rights advocates play a critical role in translating international legal frameworks into locally resonant concepts,⁷⁸ undertaking what is described as the vernacularization of international law.⁷⁹ Regional agreements on access to justice, often advocated for by transnational feminist networks, have also been essential in diffusing model justice policies across borders.⁸⁰ Nevertheless, such groups face growing threats as a result of gender backlash dynamics and limited funding. Restrictions on civic space hinder the ability of feminist movements to mobilize and drive efforts to push for access to justice.

⁷² Mala Htun and S. Laurel Weldon, *The Logics of Gender Justice: State of Action on Women's Rights Around the World* (Cambridge University Press, 2018).

⁷³ Ibid.

⁷⁴ Deliberations of the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁷⁵ Claudia Martin, "Strategic litigation and women's and girls' access to justice, particularly in the context of gender-based violence", expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁷⁶ Ibid.

⁷⁷ Deliberations of the CSW EGM (September 2025).

⁷⁸ Htun and Weldon, *The Logics of Gender Justice*.

⁷⁹ Sally Engle Merry, "Transnational human rights and local activism: mapping the middle", *American Anthropologist*, vol. 108, No. 1 (March 2006).

⁸⁰ Htun and Weldon, *The Logics of Gender Justice*.

C. Legal aid and legal empowerment

44. Around the world, legal aid has been shown to improve legal outcomes.⁸¹ Grounded in international law and frameworks as well as regional agreements, legal aid for women and girls supports the substantive realization of their rights. In addition to its inherent value, there is also a strong business case for legal aid: research has shown that the absence of legal aid can lead to a “false economy”,⁸² resulting in the costs of unresolved problems shifting to other areas of government spending, such as healthcare, housing, child protection and incarceration.⁸³

45. While the provision of legal aid is an obligation of States, the amount of government funding available for legal aid is often lacking and is sometimes limited to criminal matters. The unmet need for legal aid is commonly related to civil cases,⁸⁴ which includes a shortage of lawyers with specialized training in responding to gender-based violence.⁸⁵ At the policymaking level, there can also be a lack of systematic coordination and engagement with civil society organizations that deliver legal aid on the ground.⁸⁶

46. Civil society organizations, and especially women’s rights organizations, play an important role in increasing access to justice for women and girls by raising legal literacy, supporting health referrals and other socioeconomic services, conducting local oversight to improve judicial service provision and providing advice and representation, including for alternative dispute resolution. Rooted in communities, such organizations can identify at-risk groups of women and girls, such as women with disabilities, older women and girls, who may struggle to gain access to services.

47. Paralegals and community-based justice workers have been able to reach women and girls in rural or marginalized areas and in so doing, bridge justice gaps.⁸⁷ Legal empowerment initiatives, specifically, have been shown to expand women’s knowledge of their rights and help them to shape justice service delivery through engagement.⁸⁸ A growing body of evidence shows that fairly resolving judicial problems does not always require a lawyer. A diverse and broader group of problem solvers who are focused on what works for the user, such as community-based workers, can make justice more accessible.⁸⁹ Formal recognition and safeguards would allow such initiatives to fill critical justice gaps.

D. Technology and digital innovation

48. Digital technology is reshaping judicial systems and access to justice. Technology can help women and girls, notably by facilitating their access to legal

⁸¹ UNODC and UNDP, *Global Study on Legal Aid: Global Report* (2016).

⁸² World Bank and International Bar Association, *A Tool for Justice: The Cost Benefit Analysis* (Washington, D.C., World Bank, 2019).

⁸³ Ibid.

⁸⁴ UNDOC, OECD and UNDP, “From data to action: strengthening civil justice with SDG 16.3.3”, January 2025.

⁸⁵ Salma Waheedi, “Justice for survivors of gender-based violence in the Arab region: access to information and legal support networks”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁸⁶ Ibid.

⁸⁷ Laura Goodwin and Vivek Maru, *What Do We Know about Legal Empowerment? Mapping the Evidence* (Namati, 2014).

⁸⁸ Ibid.

⁸⁹ Rebecca L. Sandefur, “Access to what?”, *Daedalus: Journal of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, vol. 148, No. 1 (Winter 2019).

information, linking victim-survivors to services and streamlining reporting. Technology can enhance justice system efficiency and transparency by establishing digital footprints and enabling service delivery at scale to meet growing demand. Technological tools also allow women to access justice systems without being physically present in court, thereby overcoming geographic challenges and often, constraints relating to care responsibilities.⁹⁰ Those advantages notwithstanding, technology is not infallible: concerns remain regarding data privacy and security, and the increasing digitization of legal services can exacerbate information barriers for some, for example for older women, who have had less exposure to digital technology. The use of artificial intelligence tools to perform risk assessment for bail determinations, sentencing recommendations and case management decisions may rely on judicial algorithms that systematically reproduce existing discrimination on the basis of gender and other grounds, such as racial bias.⁹¹ At the same time, countries and economies vary widely in their digital readiness and digital public infrastructure, shaping both the potential and risks of technology-enabled justice. Bridging these disparities – through investment, closing the digital gender gap, capacity-building, inclusive design and ensuring human rights-compliant solutions – is essential to ensuring that innovations in digital justice tools narrow, rather than widen, inequalities.

E. Research, evidence and data

49. Ethically collected research, evidence and data, from both the supply and demand sides, are critical for advancing women’s and girls’ access to justice and shaping narratives. Robust data and benchmarks supply the evidence needed to help to challenge the rollback of rights in connection with the gender backlash, including in such areas as sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights.⁹² Many countries, however, lack gender-disaggregated justice data, which limits their ability to identify inequities.⁹³ Promoting the uptake of evidence is similarly essential to improving justice outcomes for women and girls.⁹⁴

50. Research can also serve as a bridge: the process of gathering data and evidence can be highly participatory, bringing together diverse stakeholders in the justice chain and enabling the co-creation of research agendas that are grounded in community realities and innovative approaches. The provision of funding and support to national bodies, universities and local organizations for such work remains essential, both for rigour and long-term capacity.

⁹⁰ Tania Sourdin, “Technology and innovation: supporting women and justice”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁹¹ Caitlin Kraft-Buchman, “Gender bias in judicial algorithms: a global analysis of algorithmic discrimination”, expert paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁹² United Nations Population Fund, “From data to justice: the central role of legal data in strengthening justice for sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights”, observer paper presented during the expert group meeting in preparation for the seventieth session of the Commission on the Status of Women, September 2025.

⁹³ UN-Women, *Guidance Note: Framework for Measuring Access to Justice Including Specific Challenges Facing Women* (New York, 2016).

⁹⁴ Paris21 and UN-Women, *Gender Data Outlook 2024: Unlocking Capacity, Driving Change* (2024).

IV. Conclusions and recommendations

51. If power is understood as the ability to make choices, the inability of women and girls to realize their rights entrenches their disempowerment. Ensuring that women and girls can exercise their right to equal access to justice requires political will and implementing a comprehensive set of gender-responsive actions. Such an approach is anchored in the “Beijing+30 Action Agenda: for all women and girls”, which is designed to fulfil the vision of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action and accelerate the delivery of the Sustainable Development Goals.

52. The Commission may wish to urge Governments at all levels and other relevant stakeholders to take the following urgent actions to strengthen access to justice for all women and girls by 2030:

Institutional change in justice systems

Transformative law reform

(a) **Ratify or accede to, as soon as possible, all international human rights instruments and their optional protocols, in particular, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, and review all reservations to those treaties with a view to withdrawing them or narrowing their scope;**

(b) **Accelerate compliance with Sustainable Development Goal indicator 5.1.1 by strengthening legal frameworks to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination, including by eliminating and replacing discriminatory nationality laws and addressing gaps in legislation regarding gender-based violence;**

(c) **Undertake comprehensive legislative reviews of national legal frameworks so as to identify and repeal gender-discriminatory provisions that are inconsistent with international legal norms and standards;**

(d) **Strengthen the capacity of relevant Government entities, including legislative bodies, to systematically integrate a gender equality approach across all stages of the legislative process;**

(e) **Institutionalize gender-impact assessments and post-enactment evaluations for all new laws and regulations;**

(f) **Ensure that all new laws related to the achievement of gender equality are costed and that sufficient resources are allocated to ensure their effective implementation;**

(g) **Ensure that legislative processes are participatory and inclusive by engaging civil society, including feminist groups and women’s rights organizations;**

(h) **Adopt laws and other time-bound targeted policies in order to achieve gender parity in decision-making positions at all levels of public administration and the judiciary, including through temporary special measures, where appropriate;**

(i) **Ensure the meaningful and balanced participation of gender experts in national delegations to United Nations intergovernmental processes, including in the negotiations for a convention on crimes against humanity;**

Coordination

(j) **Adopt accountable, whole-of-government justice strategies that integrate and coordinate all relevant ministries and entities involved in the administration of justice for women and girls;**

(k) **Establish effective pathways to link the police, courts, prosecution services, legal aid, child protection services, health and social service providers so as to enable timely and beneficial responses;**

(l) **Integrate justice and gender indicators into economic, peace and development frameworks at the global, regional and national levels in order to promote policy coherence and accountability;**

(m) **Enhance coordination with and strengthen regional and international human rights mechanisms, gender commissions and special procedure mandate holders;**

Prevention

(n) **Ensure that justice systems are guided by the lived realities, needs and rights of women and girls, by focusing on institutions that are accessible, timely, affordable and solution-oriented;**

(o) **Reaffirm Member State obligations in accordance with international law to exercise due diligence to prevent acts of violence against all women and girls, investigate such acts, prosecute perpetrators, punish those responsible and ensure victims' access to reparations;**

(p) **Ensure the accessibility of justice mechanisms to prevent and remedy violations of sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights;**

(q) **Ensure that administrative mechanisms and mediation services for justice delivery are gender-responsive and human rights-compliant;**

(r) **Reaffirm the role of national machineries for gender equality and national human rights institutions, where they exist, for addressing discrimination and preventing further violations;**

(s) **Ensure the provision of continuous professional development for justice system actors in order to close substantive knowledge gaps and mitigate gender bias, including on credibility assessments;**

(t) **Conduct continuous training and put in place oversight systems to ensure that officers and staff in the justice sector uphold gender equality standards and foster a culture of accountability;**

(u) **Integrate public legal education into national curricula and community learning programmes so as to promote awareness of human rights, gender equality and non-discrimination standards;**

Funding

(v) **Increase domestic allocations for a gender-responsive justice sector and strengthen systems to track and make public such allocations, in line with Sustainable Development Goal indicator 5.c.1;**

(w) **Provide resources to traditional justice mechanisms that are compliant with international human rights obligations and standards;**

(x) **Provide resources to institutions that provide trauma-informed and survivor-centred justice and social services, including shelters for victim-survivors of violence;**

(y) **Establish funding mechanisms, such as a dedicated reparations fund for victim-survivors of violence, including targeted support for marginalized populations;**

(z) **Ensure the provision of funding for institutional facilities and services for women and girls with disabilities, such as universally accessible physical infrastructure and the removal of language barriers;**

(aa) **Integrate dedicated funding for women's and girls' access to justice through gender-responsive foreign policy frameworks;**

Transitional justice mechanisms

(bb) **Ensure that transitional justice mechanisms are gender-responsive in their design and implementation, including through the provision of adequate resources to comprehensively address gender-based violations and crimes, including sexual and reproductive violence, in a survivor-centred manner;**

(cc) **Institute gender-responsive administrative reparations programmes to address the volume of need, without prejudicing avenues for judicial remedy;**

(dd) **Guarantee the meaningful participation of women, including women's organizations and organizations of victim-survivors, in all stages of transitional justice processes, including in leadership positions;**

Autonomous feminist movements and civil society

(ee) **Recognize and engage with broad-based and intergenerational feminist groups, women's rights organizations and civil society organizations as essential partners in advancing access to justice as part of a whole-of-society approach to tackling structural barriers;**

(ff) **Ensure an enabling environment for the work of women's rights organizations, including the protection of civic space and women human rights defenders;**

(gg) **Sustain core, predictable, flexible and multi-year funding for feminist groups, women's rights organizations and civil society organizations engaged in access to justice initiatives for women and girls;**

Legal aid and legal empowerment

(hh) **Ensure that effective legal aid services are accessible for all women and girls, including the availability of specialized lawyers and staff for responding to violence against women, as well as legal aid provision for marginalized groups, such as women in detention;**

(ii) **Waive fees to facilitate women's access to the formal justice system and simplify legal procedures, where possible;**

(jj) **Formally recognize, within national frameworks, non-lawyer community justice workers or paralegals, and ensure that they are subject to professional oversight and safeguards, in order to reach women and girls seeking to resolve justice problems;**

Technology and digital innovations

(kk) **Harness technology to scale-up access to justice for women and girls, while maintaining offline alternatives;**

(ll) **Address the gender digital divide by investing in connectivity, digital literacy and access to devices;**

(mm) **Develop and enforce human rights-based frameworks for digital justice, including with respect to data protection, transparency and algorithmic accountability;**

(nn) **Encourage collaboration between Governments, technology providers and civil society to promote responsible innovation in the justice field and intentional design that enhances fairness and inclusion and that includes diverse teams to develop justice-related artificial intelligence tools;**

Research, data and evidence

(oo) **Invest in national statistical systems and justice sector data collection, ensuring that data are disaggregated by gender and by other characteristics that are relevant in national contexts for comprehensive metrics;**

(pp) **Establish partnerships among Governments, national human rights institutions, where they exist, academia and civil society to understand how change happens and generate research for gender-responsive justice systems, inter alia, to co-create research agendas;**

(qq) **Institutionalize the use of evidence in policy formulation and invest in data systems as a bulwark against misinformation and to track the protection of rights, including on sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights;**

(rr) **Expand global and regional repositories of gender justice data, including a focus on femicide, that are accessible to policymakers, researchers and advocates for comparative analysis and accountability.**