ADVANCING WOMEN’S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT: GOVERNMENT LAWS AND REGULATIONS AND BUSINESS POLICIES LANDSCAPING STUDY SUPPLEMENTAL ANNEXES

USAID WOMEN’S ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

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SUPPLEMENTAL ANNEXES

ANNEX A: Key Terms and Definitions (in main Government Laws and Regulations and Business Policies Landscaping Study)

ANNEX B: Key Resources

ANNEX C: Women’s Legal Advocacy Organizations and Coalitions

ANNEX D: Design, Methodology, and Limitations

ANNEX E: Documents Consulted for Literature Review

ANNEX F: Classification of Evidence

ANNEX G: Evidence Tables

ANNEX H: Selected International Conventions and Agreements Supporting Gender Equality
ANNEX B: KEY RESOURCES

The key resources used for each of the five sections of the Government Laws and Regulations and Business Policies Landscaping Study are presented in Table B1.

**TABLE B1: KEY RESOURCES BY SECTOR**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESOURCE</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>WEBSITE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FAMILY LAW AND PERSONAL STATUS LAW</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LAND RIGHTS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scalise, Eliza, and Renee Giovarelli. 2019. “What Works for Women’s Land and Property Rights: What We Know and What We Need to Know.” Research Consortium.</td>
<td>Reviews the evidence on women’s land and property rights, based on online literature and academic databases as well as discussions with global and national practitioners, researchers, and activists.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Duguid, Fiona, and Nadya Weber.</td>
<td>2016. “Gender equality and women’s empowerment in co-operatives: A literature review.” International Cooperative Alliance (ICA).</td>
<td>Findings from 165 published and unpublished reports, briefs, newsletters, websites, etc. were reviewed to identify how participation in various types of collectives intersects with increased empowerment of women informal workers.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### GENDER BUDGETING, GENDER WAGE GAP, TAXATION, AND PENSIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blundell, Jack.</td>
<td>2021. “Wage responses to gender pay gap reporting requirements.” Center for Economic Performance. No.1750.</td>
<td>This paper uses both firm-level reported data and employee survey data to analyze the impact of the UK government’s policy requiring employers to publicly report gender pay gap statistics.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elson, Diane.</td>
<td>2006. “Budgeting for Women’s Rights Monitoring Government Budgets for Compliance with CEDAW.” United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM).</td>
<td>This groundbreaking report provides a framework for applying a rights approach to budgets with a gender perspective and defines the requirements of good budget performance in the planning, formulation and execution stages. It also identifies elements that require a critical assessment, including budget allocations, and defines standard principles for non-discriminatory economic and budgets policies.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stotsky, Janet.</td>
<td>2020. Using fiscal policy and public financial management to promote gender equality: International perspectives. Routledge: New York City, NY.</td>
<td>This book examines how fiscal policy and management can promote gender equality in developing as well as developed countries, with an emphasis on low-income developing countries. Case studies and other empirical evidence show what works to reduce gender gaps in education, health care, access to infrastructure, and economic empowerment. It provides policy recommendations appropriate to each level of development.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stotsky, Janet.</td>
<td>2016. “Gender Budgeting: Fiscal Context and Current Outcomes.” International Monetary Fund (IMF) Working Paper WP/16/149.</td>
<td>Provides an overview of policies and practices associated with gender budgeting across the world, with examples of the most prominent efforts in each region.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### ORGANIZATIONAL AND BUSINESS POLICIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Summary</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EDGE Certification.</td>
<td>This website provides information on Economic Dividends for Gender Equality (EDGE), a global assessment methodology and business certification standard for gender equality.</td>
<td></td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal Pay International Coalition (EPIC).</td>
<td>This website provides information on the Equal Pay International Coalition (EPIC). Led by the ILO, UN Women, and the OECD, EPIC is</td>
<td></td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source</td>
<td>Description</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID. n.d. <em>Engendering Industries Resources and Tools.</em></td>
<td>This website provides resources and tools for promoting gender equality in the workplace in sectors dominated by men. Developed by USAID’s Engendering Industries program.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFC. 2016. “SheWorks: Putting Gender-Smart Commitments into Practice at the workplace.”</td>
<td>This report consolidates the knowledge, best practices, and lessons learned during the two-year SheWorks program, a partnership of private companies facilitated by the IFC. It captures the progress made by SheWorks member companies in six commitment areas: women in business leadership and management; recruitment and retention of female talent in the workforce; effective anti-sexual harassment mechanisms; supporting women in the value chain as employees and entrepreneurs; measuring and reporting on progress; and leadership’s public commitment to women’s employment as a smart business strategy. (Link)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO. 2020. “Empowering Women at Work: Company Policies and Practices for Gender Equality.” ILO: Geneva.</td>
<td>This report examines how companies can implement policies that promote a future of work anchored in gender equality. It provides guiding frameworks for company policies to promote gender equality in the workplace, with 38 positive examples. (Link)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN Women’s Empowerment Principles</td>
<td>This website provides information on the Women’s Empowerment Principles (WEPs), offering guidance to businesses on how to promote gender equality and women’s empowerment in the workplace, marketplace, and community. Established by UN Global Compact and UN Women, the WEPs are informed by international labor and human rights standards and are grounded in the recognition that businesses have a stake in, and a responsibility for, gender equality and women’s empowerment. (Link)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>the only multi-stakeholder partnership working to reduce the gender pay gap at global, regional, and national levels. It supports governments, employers, workers, and workers’ organizations to make coordinated progress towards the goal of equal pay.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IFC. 2016. “SheWorks: Putting Gender-Smart Commitments into Practice at the workplace.”

This report consolidates the knowledge, best practices, and lessons learned during the two-year SheWorks program, a partnership of private companies facilitated by the IFC. It captures the progress made by SheWorks member companies in six commitment areas: women in business leadership and management; recruitment and retention of female talent in the workforce; effective anti-sexual harassment mechanisms; supporting women in the value chain as employees and entrepreneurs; measuring and reporting on progress; and leadership’s public commitment to women’s employment as a smart business strategy. (Link)
# ANNEX C: WOMEN’S LEGAL ADVOCACY ORGANIZATIONS AND COALITIONS

## TABLE C1. WOMEN’S LEGAL ADVOCACY ORGANIZATIONS AND COALITIONS, BY TOPIC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ORGANIZATION</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>WEBSITE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>LEGAL REFORM</strong></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equality Now</td>
<td>Equality Now is an international organization staffed by lawyers who collaborate with local communities to promote systemic change of laws that discriminate against women.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Federation of women lawyers in Kenya (FIDA)</td>
<td>FIDA-Kenya is a premier women’s rights organization in Kenya that has offered free legal aid to over 3,000,000 women and their children, over the course of 34 years. It is a membership organization with over 1,400 women advocates, lawyers, and law students in Kenya.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indians for 4 Social Change</td>
<td>Indians for 4 Social Change is a large international organization with a focus on advocating for women’s legal rights, created by members of the South Asian diaspora.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The International Association of Women Judges (IAWJ)</td>
<td>The International Association of Women Judges (IAWJ) is a non-profit, non-governmental organization whose members represent all levels of the judiciary worldwide and share a commitment to equal justice for women and the rule of law. Created in 1991, the IAWJ has a membership of over 6000 in 100 countries.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LAND RIGHTS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource Equity</td>
<td>Resource Equity supports governments, donors, private corporations, NGOs, local advocates, and others in developing actionable pathways between law and practice for women, by providing a range of services to strengthen women’s rights to land and resources.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stand For Her Land</td>
<td>Stand For Her Land is an inclusive, collaborative effort of a diverse group of allies including civil society leaders, grassroots organizations, development agencies, social enterprises, and innovators. The global steering committee includes Landesa (Secretariat), Global Land Tool Network Partners, Habitat for Humanity, the Huairou Commission, and the World Bank. These core partners aim to provide resources, tools, and support for national and local advocacy in focal countries, with a coalition of local and national-level actors driving change on the ground.</td>
<td>(Link)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| The Landesa Center for Women’s Land Rights | The Landesa Center for Women’s Land Rights exists to help women thrive equally. The center is building a movement to promote gender-equal rights to the world’s most fundamental resources, through:  
  * Gender-equal rule of law on land, from grassroots to global levels; and  
  * Capacity development for governments and civil society partners. | (Link) |
| **TAXES AND PENSIONS** | | |
| Global Alliance for Tax justice (GATJ) | The Global Alliance for Tax Justice (GATJ) is a global coalition in the tax justice movement. They campaign for progressive and redistributive taxation systems nationally, and for a transparent, inclusive, and representative global system of tax governance internationally, to ensure the right of developing countries to tax part of multinational corporations’ global profits generated in their economies. Created in 2013, GATJ represents hundreds of organizations, as the coordination hub of regional tax justice networks in Asia (Tax & Fiscal Justice Asia), Africa (Tax Justice Network Africa), Latin America (Red de Justicia Fiscal de América Latina y el Caribe), Europe (Tax Justice- | (Link) |
Europe), and North America (Canadians for Tax Fairness & FACT Coalition).

**GENDER WAGE GAP**

EPIC acts at the global, regional, and national levels to support governments, employers’ and workers’ organizations, and other stakeholders to take concrete steps to reduce the gender pay gap. EPIC accelerates progress towards gender pay equity by raising awareness, sharing knowledge, embracing innovation, and scaling up initiatives and programs that have yielded positive results. The Coalition also provides support to improve legislation, build capacity, and strengthen monitoring and enforcement.

The EPIC Secretariat comprises the ILO, UN Women, and the OECD. Steering Committee members include: Canada, Egypt, Iceland, Jordan, New Zealand, Panama, South Africa, Switzerland, the International Organisation of Employers (IOE), and the International Trade Union Confederation (ITUC). Other EPIC stakeholders include: Australia, France, Germany, Israel, Republic of Korea, Peru, Portugal, United Kingdom, and other national workers' and employers' organizations, as well as a number of private sector companies and civil society organizations. EPIC also includes Equal Pay Champions—influential individuals who advocate for equal pay in their personal capacity.

(Link)
ANNEX D: DESIGN, METHODOLOGY, AND LIMITATIONS

DESIGN
Both primary and secondary data collection were used to answer this landscaping study's research question: What are proven and evidence-based existing approaches that governments, private sector entities, civil society organizations, and societies are using to build capacity to develop, reform, implement, and enforce governmental policies, laws, and regulations, as well as international organizational and business policies, to increase women’s economic power and gender equality? Based on the literature review, a typology was developed to explain and identify the approaches with the strongest evidence base of effectiveness that advance women’s roles in the economy. These interventions were then ranked according to an evidence-ranking criteria, which categorized them as proven, promising, and high-potential based on the quality and availability of evidence. Key informant interviews were conducted and used to cross-check and complement findings from the literature review.

METHODOLOGY
Secondary data collection in the form of an extensive literature review was initially conducted and was followed by primary data collection through key informant interviews, with subject matter experts, researchers, and practitioners with expertise in one or more of the five main topics: family law; land rights; labor force participation; fiscal policy; and organizational and business policies.

SECONDARY DATA COLLECTION: LITERATURE REVIEW
Literature was identified using several strategies: Internet and database search, literature suggested by Banyan Global, and the consultant’s own networks and contacts. In addition, articles or reports that contained literature reviews were used to identify additional relevant resources. The search for relevant literature focused on identifying robust, evidence-based research that could provide further insights into the impact of legal reforms, policies, regulations, and organizational and business policies on women’s economic empowerment. Key search terms used included: gender, empowerment, women’s economic empowerment, randomized control trials (RCT), and quantitative analysis.

The main databases used for the literature review included the following:

- IDEAS and REPEC (Research Papers in Economics)
- National Bureau for Economic Research (NBER)
- Social Science Research Network (SSRN)
- World Bank’s Open Knowledge Repository
- USAID DEC

In total, over 230 reports, articles, studies, books, and other resources were reviewed, most of which are cited in the landscaping study.
The literature review included a review of reports, impact and performance evaluations, and studies from a broad cross-section of international donors, multinational agencies, women’s organizations, and private sector entities including the International Labor Organization (ILO), International Finance Corporation (IFC), World Bank (WB), International Monetary Fund (IMF), UN entities and departments, IFPRI, ICRW, Data 2x, and USAID.

The review also included research from universities and research institutions, such as the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI), UN-WIDER Institute for Development Economics Research, and the National Bureau for Economic Research (NBER).

In addition, articles published in over 50 different peer-reviewed journals were identified, including the American Economic Review, Feminist Economics, Fiscal Studies, Journal of Development Economics, Journal of Political Economy, and World Development.

The studies employed a mixture of research designs. Although RCTs are often considered the gold standard for causal inferences, it is not feasible to implement RCTs on all topic areas; other methodologies such as correlations analysis (based on regression models) are better suited for large scale multi-country studies. In other cases, quasi-experimental analysis or qualitative descriptive methods are more appropriate. Mixed-methods analysis that combined quantitative and qualitative assessment techniques provided the most useful insights on gendered effects and evidence for this literature review.

PRIMARY DATA COLLECTION: KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEWS

The consultant conducted 16 interviews with 19 key informant experts and “thought leaders” from international donor agencies, NGOs, research institutes, international finance institutions, and academia, including independent consultants.

Key informant interviews were conducted in June through July 2021, with a total of 19 individuals across 12 organizations in three regions (Africa, Europe and North America). Most of the interviews were recorded and detailed notes were taken.

LIMITATIONS

Key limitations for identifying evidence for laws and policies that support WEE included:

Most individual county studies were conducted for a small group of countries, resulting in limited geographic and regional diversity. Several countries and regions were overrepresented in the available studies that used robust quantitative data analysis techniques. The majority of studies were conducted in a handful of developing countries, namely Ethiopia, India, Peru, Rwanda, South Africa, and Uganda. Rwanda and South Africa are often seen as outliers, however. It is unclear how generalizable the results from these country contexts are for other developing countries. The limited geographic and regional diversity of existing studies led to difficulties in generalizing single-country study results.

Disadvantages of evidence-based rigorous methodologies. Quantitative data analysis techniques identify statistically significant correlations or associations between two or more different data items.
However, the causal link between these data items is often difficult to prove. In other words, quantitative analysis is useful for identifying the relationships between characteristics, but less useful at identifying the underlying causes. In contrast, qualitative data analysis is better suited to identify why a certain outcome occurs, but only for a small sample. The strengths and weaknesses of the main methodologies used by the studies reviewed for this landscaping study are as follows:

1. **Randomized control trials (RCT)** are considered the most robust methodology for identifying causal links. But it is seldom possible to replicate the strict conditions required by a pure RCT, once experiments are moved from the laboratory into real world conditions where the idealization assumption seldom holds. Moreover, RCTs tend to provide very limited explanations for the patterns of outcomes observed—a big disadvantage for understanding the underlying causes for observed gendered effects.

2. **Difference-in-differences (DID) estimation** is a popular way to estimate causal relationships. For a specific intervention or treatment (often, the passage of a law), DID estimation compares the difference in outcomes, before and after the intervention, between groups affected by the intervention and unaffected groups. It is an appropriate method to use when the interventions are conditional on time and group-fixed effects.

3. **Qualitative studies** provide rich insights into individual or group experiences but are not easy to generalize. Qualitative studies are better suited at uncovering the underlying causes for differences in outcomes for women and men.

The combination of RCTs or other rigorous quantitative analysis techniques with qualitative data collection—a mixed methods approach—is likely to produce results that offset the limitations of focusing only on either quantitative or qualitative research, potentially providing actionable recommendations.

**Lack of indicators and tools to adequately capture nuanced WEE effects.** Quantitative studies often capture WEE effects in terms of “women’s labor force participation,” “access to mobility,” and “access to childcare”; but due to constraints of data availability or budgets, they are unable to investigate the quality or the catalytic potential of these effects. As a result, it is often unclear if an example of WEE is actually economically empowering or not.

**Skewed sampling of men and women; treating the household as a unit.** Sex-disaggregated data is often lacking or limited, and the need for a representative sample of both men and women may be overlooked during activity design and assessment. Studies often treat the household as the unit of analysis: information obtained from the head of household is considered to represent all household members, on the assumption that households pool resources completely. This approach fails to take into account the power dynamics within households that may affect intervention outcomes.

**Additional limitations** in the studies assessed include:

1. **Sampling bias.** Quantitative data analysis results are contingent on the representativeness of the sample included in the analysis. In large scale, multi-country studies it is difficult to capture the existing heterogeneity of the population. For example, data for each economy included in the World
Bank’s WBL report is collected from the largest business city only.² This data may be even less representative where there are differences in laws across locations, especially in federal economies. In the case of the US, these results are distorted: the WBL data is collected in New York City, which mandates maternity and paternity leave, while the federal government does not mandate either form of parental leave. In addition, other studies are limited by small sample sizes, the lack of credible counterfactuals, lack of attention to endogeneity and selection bias, and possible response bias specifically on questions of domestic violence and empowerment.

2. **Long term impact and sustainability.** The interventions that have been rigorously evaluated are fairly recent, and long-term impacts and sustainability of interventions are not known.

3. **Limited use of monitoring and evaluation.** Many interventions did not include a monitoring and evaluation component to rigorously assess the intervention’s effectiveness.
ANNEX E: DOCUMENTS CONSULTED FOR LITERATURE REVIEW

FAMILY LAW REFERENCES


Atske, Sarah, A.W. Geiger, and Alissa Scheller. 2019. “The share of women in legislatures around the world is growing, but they are still underrepresented.” Pew Research Center. (Link)


Harper, Caroline, Rachel Marcus, Rachel George, Sophia D’Angelo, and Emma Samman. 2020. “Gender Power and Progress: How Norms Change.” Advancing Learning and Innovation on Gender Norms (ALIGN) and Overseas Development Institute (ODI). (Link)

Hoeffler, Anke, and James Fearon. 2014. “Conflict and Violence Assessment Paper.” Copenhagen Consensus Center. (Link)


Open Contracting Partners and Value for Women. 2020. “How to empower women-led businesses and make public procurement more inclusive.” Insights Report. (Link)


LAND RIGHTS REFERENCES


Larson, Anne L., Iliana Monterroso, and Pamela Cantuarias. 2019. “Gender and the formalization of native communities in the Peruvian Amazon.” Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR). (Link)


Pieters, Janneke and Stephan Klasen. 2020. “Randomization for women’s economic empowerment? Lessons and limitations of randomized experiments.” World Development. 27(104820). (Link)


Reemer, Thies, and Maggie Makanza. 2014. “Gender Action Learning System Practical Guide For Transforming Gender And Unequal Power Relations In Value Chains.” Oxfam and Novib. (Link)


Scalise, Eliza, and Renee Giovarelli. 2019. “What Works for Women’s Land and Property Rights: What We Know and What We Need to Know.” Research Consortium. (Link)


USAID. 2021. “Women’s Economic Empowerment And Equality, Land Rights, And Agricultural Engagement In The PepsiCo Potato Supply Chain In West Bengal.” (Link)


**LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION REFERENCES**


Díaz, Mateo-Berganza, María Mercedes, and Lourdes Rodríguez Chamussy. 2016. “Cashing in on Education: Women, Childcare, and Prosperity in Latin America and the Caribbean.” (Link)


Fairtrade International. 2015. “Sustainable Development Goals and Fairtrade: The case for partnership.” (Link)


Stampini, Marco, Maria Laura Oliveri, Pablo Ibarrarrán, Diana Londono, Ho June (Sean) Rhee, and Gillinda M. James. 2020. “Working Less to Take Care of Parents? Labor Market Effects of Family Long-Term Care in Four Latin American Countries.” IZA Institute for Labor Economics Discussion Paper, IZA DP No. 13792. (Link)


World Bank 2018. “Identification for Development (ID4D), Flyer.” (Link)


**FISCAL POLICY**


Budlender, Debbie, Daniela Casale, and Imraan Valodia. 2010. “Gender Equality and Taxation in South Africa.” In Caren Grown and Imraan Valodia, eds., Taxation and Gender Equity: A Comparative Analysis of Direct and Indirect Taxes in Developing and Developed Countries. New York: Routledge. (Link)


Grown, Caren, and Imraan Valodia. 2010. Taxation and Gender Equity: A Comparative Analysis of Direct and Indirect Taxes in Developing and Developed Countries. New York: Routledge. (Link)


Philippine Commission on Women (PCW). n.d. “PCW, National Economic Development Authority (NEDA) and the Department of Budget and Management (DBM) issue new guidelines on gender-responsive planning and budgeting.” Accessed June 7, 2021. (Link)


ORGANIZATIONAL AND BUSINESS POLICIES REFERENCES


Danone. 2018. “Exhaustive Social Data 2018.” (Link)


Gap Inc. 2016. “Integrity is always in style: Our worldwide code of business conduct.” (Link)


International Finance Corporation (IFC). 2016. “SheWorks: Putting Gender-Smart Commitments into Practice at the workplace.” [Link](#)


Scott, Katie. 2017. “EY US sees 38 per cent of new fathers take six weeks or more paternity leave.” *Employee Benefits*. [Link](#)

The Global Business Certification Standard For Gender Equality Edge Certification. n.d. [Link](#)


UNDP. n.d. The Gender Equality Seal Programme. [Link](#)


The consultant used a framework for evaluating evidence developed together with Banyan Global. Using this framework, evidence was categorized into three levels: proven, promising or potential (Table F1).

The “proven” category indicates strong evidence of clear beneficial effects. These results were based on multi-country and longitudinal analyses, peer-reviewed articles, randomized control trials (RCTs), quasi-experimental studies, and external evaluations. In some cases, several individual or regional studies all indicate similar findings (in published research or studies conducted by internationally recognized institutions).

The “promising” category indicates strong evidence of promising beneficial effects. These results were based on a sufficient body of evidence drawn from one or more country-level studies, internal assessments, or evaluations undertaken by implementing organizations, as well as project-specific reports that demonstrate a correlation between outputs and outcomes.

The “potential” category indicates a positive trend identified in the research which has not been well studied or has resulted in mixed effects. These results were based on several reports indicating positive trends or impacts from newer innovations, but no systematic reviews or analyses. The trends or impacts are largely anecdotal or qualitative.

When determining levels of evidence, several factors were taken into consideration: the number of studies on the topic; the design and quality of the studies; target population (whether the studies represent an appropriate range of participants and settings to be generalizable in a given context or within a given population); and expert opinions. The examples of interventions provided are categorized based on the availability and robustness of evidence (as explained in Table F1). Other interventions that may be considered successful but have not been studied in a robust way (because they are newer or lack representative data) were either not reported or were ranked as promising or potential.

### TABLE F1. EVIDENCE CATEGORIES, DESCRIPTION, AND CRITERIA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CATEGORY</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
<th>CRITERIA</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proven</td>
<td>Strong evidence of clear beneficial effect</td>
<td>Good evidence based on multi-country or longitudinal analyses, peer reviewed articles, randomized control trials (RCTs), quasi-experimental studies, and external evaluations; or several individual or regional studies that give similar findings (published research or studies conducted by internationally recognized institutions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promising</td>
<td>Strong evidence of promising beneficial effect</td>
<td>Sufficient body of evidence drawn from one or more country-level studies, internal assessments, or evaluations undertaken by implementing organizations, and project-specific reports that demonstrate a correlation between outputs and outcomes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Potential</td>
<td>Positive trend with limited or mixed effects, not well studied</td>
<td>Several reports indicating positive trends or impacts from newer innovations, but no systematic reviews or analyses. The trends or impacts are largely anecdotal or qualitative.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## ANNEX G: EVIDENCE TABLES

### TABLE G1. FAMILY LAW

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>SPECIFIC ISSUE/SOURCE</th>
<th>METHODOLOGY</th>
<th>RESULTS</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PROVEN EVIDENCE</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Legal reform to family law increases women’s access to financing.</td>
<td>Multi-country: What forms of legal gender discrimination and cultural gender norms are related to differences in bank account penetration? Demirguc-Kunt, Klapper, and Singer 2013. (Link)</td>
<td><strong>Quantitative analysis.</strong> A 95-country regression analysis using World Bank’s Financial Inclusion (Findex) Data from 2011.</td>
<td>Women are less likely than men to own an account or to save and borrow in countries where women face legal discrimination in their ability to work, to head a household, to choose where to live, to inherit property, or where they are required by law to obey their husband. Gender norms are also significantly related to women’s use of financial services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Legal reform to family law is associated with higher levels of women’s business ownership and women’s labor supply.</td>
<td>Multi-country: What are the cross-country patterns in the association between gender-discriminatory legislation and various indicators of women’s economic agency? Htun, Jensenius, and Nelson-Nuñez 2019. (Link)</td>
<td><strong>Quantitative analysis.</strong> Regression analysis on longitudinal data from the World Bank’s WBL database from 2014 and 2016, covering 143 and 173 economies, respectively.</td>
<td>Women’s legal capacity is the strongest predictor of the share of women with bank accounts, the share of women who participate in firm ownership, and women’s labor force participation. Laws permitting discrimination in wage work are associated with larger wage gaps between women and men. Generous parental leave legislation is associated with smaller wage gaps, but only in economies with a large formal sector, which include the most developed countries.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do laws that discriminate against women influence their engagement in the economy? Islam, Muzi, and Amin 2019, 822–44. (Link)</td>
<td><strong>Quantitative analysis.</strong> Regression analysis using the World Bank’s Enterprise Survey data for 59,000 firms across 94 economies.</td>
<td>Suggestive evidence indicates that limited access to finance, property ownership, business registration, and the labor market are important ways that legal gender disparities disempower women in the private sector.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PROMISING EVIDENCE</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Digital ID systems accompanied by reforms increase women’s agency.</td>
<td>Senegal: A national identity card law enacted in 2016 introduced smart cards that combined voter and civil IDs using biometric information; it also reformed requirements for married women applying for ID cards. Hanmer and Elefante 2019. (Link)</td>
<td><strong>Qualitative review</strong> of provisions of Décret No. 2016-1536 Portant Application de la Loi No. 2016-09 Instituant une Carte d’Identité Biométrique CEDEAO, Article 1.</td>
<td>A married woman is no longer required to have her husband’s name on her ID card. A wife no longer needs to provide supporting documentation to establish her husband’s name; procedures are the same for both men and women.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pakistan: Linking the new biometric ID card to enrollment in the Benazir Income Support program (BISP), a cash transfer program for the poor, was intended to provide women with legal identification and to promote women’s empowerment. Cheema, Hunt, Javeed, Lone, and O’Leary 2016. (Link)

**Mixed Methods analysis.** Household survey data and qualitative interviews.

Within four years of the launch of the Biometric ID card, there was an overall increase of 72 percent in the issuance of these ID cards to the adult population and a 94 percent increase in women’s enrollment. Women with digital IDs reported that their families respected them more, which increased their self-confidence in sharing their opinions on household matters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Multi-country: Using a compiled database of women’s property rights and legal capacity covering 100 countries over 50 years, this paper analyzes the triggers and barriers to reform. Hallward-Driemeier, Hasan and Bogdana Rusu 2013. (Link)</th>
<th><strong>Quantitative analysis.</strong> Regression analysis of longitudinal data covering 100 countries over 50 years.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A clear “CEDAW effect” is found in the data. The momentum created by international conventions, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), increased women’s political representation at the national level, mobilization of women’s networks, and women’s labor force participation in sectors that provide a voice for women, which are positive forces for change.</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>2. <strong>International agreements</strong> such as CEDAW can be leveraged to reform discriminatory family laws. United Nations Development Fund for Women 1998. (Link)</th>
<th><strong>Qualitative Analysis.</strong> Case Studies of how CEDAW was leveraged to increase political will for legal reform supporting gender equality (as outlined in CEDAW).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Botswana: The Botswana Citizenship Act was passed in 1984, conforming citizenship law with Tswana customary law: the nationality of a child born in Botswana would be determined exclusively by the father’s nationality. (Botswana’s constitution allowed for mothers to pass their nationality to children born into a marriage, but this part of the constitution was repealed.) In 1993, the government considered a referendum to change the constitution to permit sex discrimination. In preparation for CEDAW ratification in 1995, the Citizenship Act was finally amended giving equal rights to men and women with respect to the citizenship of their children. Japan: CEDAW was ratified in 1985, and several pieces of legislation were enacted at that time to bring Japanese law into conformity with the Convention. Most importantly, the 1984 amendment to the Nationality Law conferred Japanese nationality on the children of Japanese women. Australia: According to the constitution, the federal government’s powers to legislate are limited and restricted to certain areas. Before CEDAW was ratified in 1984, the government was prohibited from passing</td>
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</table>
national legislation regarding sexual harassment in employment. After CEDAW ratification, the Australian Government passed this law, relying on CEDAW ratification for authority. The court upheld the Sex Discrimination Act, agreeing that CEDAW ratification had effectively expanded the authority to pass national laws regarding women’s human rights.

### POTENTIAL EVIDENCE

| Company initiatives | New Zealand: In the 1990s, the private sector became increasingly concerned about high rates of domestic violence and the costs associated with it, including loss of employees and high rates of absenteeism. World Bank (WBL) 2020. | Qualitative review | Several companies voluntarily enacted policies to support victims of domestic violence. This influenced the Government of New Zealand to enact the Family Violence Act in November 2018, repealing its Domestic Violence Act of 1995. The new act introduces, for the first time, ten days of paid leave for victims of domestic violence, giving them time to leave their partners, find new homes, and protect themselves and their children. |

### TABLE G2. LAND RIGHTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>SPECIFIC ISSUE/ SOURCE</th>
<th>METHODOLOGY</th>
<th>RESULTS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROVEN EVIDENCE</td>
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<tr>
<td>I. Formalizing women’s land rights through joint-titling increases women’s decision-making and use of land.</td>
<td>Ethiopia: A USAID-funded study evaluated the impact of the Ethiopia Land Tenure Administration Program. First-level certification provides titles and certicates, while second-level certification includes mapping individual plots and boundaries for improved land use management and administration. Persha, Grief, and Huntington 2017. (Link)</td>
<td>Quantitative analysis. Impact evaluation using panel data collected from 4,319 households, using DID regression design coupled with matching to examine the impact of second-level certification across a range of household-level outcomes.</td>
<td>Joint documentation of marital property rights (i.e., titles, certificates) increases women’s land rights. Second-level certification provides women with additional assurance and documentation of their rights, and thus may increase women’s willingness to engage in short-term, temporary transfers of land rights. This includes an 11-percent average increase in the likelihood of female-headed households (and a 12-percent average increase in the likelihood of widows) feeling more secure about entering into credit-based business transactions when the transactions occur with a holder of a land certificate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rwanda: During the post-genocide period, the government embarked on a land tenure reform (LTR) program that</td>
<td>Mixed methods analysis. Quantitative analysis based on household survey data from the</td>
<td></td>
<td>With co-titling, women generally participate in land use decisions that require each spouse’s legal consent, though not on the daily management of the land or its produce.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Musanze District. Qualitative analysis based on semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions. The study notes that the persistence of social norms and culturally biased gender ideologies affect the implementation of land-related laws and policies.

**Peru:** This project compares influence on household decision-making in communities with differing land tenure. The land reform of the 1960s-70s made only some communities eligible for plot titling. The titling process was exogenous and independent of both household and community characteristics, hence unbiased. Wiig 2013:104-119. (Link)

**Quantitative analysis.** Regression analysis based on 1,280 rural households' data in which men and women were interviewed separately. Co-titling had a significantly positive impact on women’s decision-making.

**Ethiopia:** A USAID-funded study evaluated the impact of the Ethiopia Land Tenure Administration Program. Second-level certification is viewed as providing women additional assurance and documentation of their rights, and thus may increase women’s willingness to engage in types of short-term, temporary transfers of land rights. Persha, Grief and Huntington 2017. (Link)

**Quantitative analysis.** Impact evaluation using panel data from 4,319 households, using DID regression design coupled with matching to examine the impact of second-level certification across a range of household-level outcomes. Female-headed households and widows felt more secure about earning an income from their land by entering into credit-based business transactions, as a holder of a land certificate.

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### 2. Formalizing women’s land rights

through documenting and demarcating land increases women’s land tenure security.

- **Ethiopia:** A USAID-funded study evaluated the impact of the Ethiopia Land Tenure Administration Program. Second-level certification is viewed as providing women additional assurance and documentation of their rights, and thus may increase women’s willingness to engage in types of short-term, temporary transfers of land rights. Persha, Grief and Huntington 2017. (Link)

**Quantitative analysis.** Impact evaluation using panel data from 4,319 households, using DID regression design coupled with matching to examine the impact of second-level certification across a range of household-level outcomes. Female-headed households and widows felt more secure about earning an income from their land by entering into credit-based business transactions, as a holder of a land certificate.
**Rwanda:** Evaluating the effects of the national land tenure regularization (LTR) program in Rwanda

Ali, Deininger and Goldstein 2014: 262-275. ([Link](#))

**Quantitative analysis** using spatial fixed effects regression analysis. The authors adopted a spatial discontinuity design and administered a short survey to some 3,500 households on both sides of the boundaries of the four pilot cells.

The LTR program improved land access for legally married women (about 76 percent of married couples), with better recordation of inheritance rights without gender bias.

Women’s land investment increased by 19 percent, roughly twice the effect for male-headed households. The evaluation identified the need to include non-formally (common-law) married women when designing a formalization program.

Preliminary evidence shows that the program increased rural households’ welfare by freeing farm labor for more productive uses. It improved investment and maintenance of soil conservation measures—particularly for women, indicating the effects of tenure insecurity.

However, the program led to an erosion of rights by non-legally married women, in accordance with legal provisions but in contravention of informal practice and possibly also traditional concepts of equity. It prompted female household heads to deprive daughters of their legally guaranteed rights to inherit land—or at least declare their intention to do so—thus ignoring the law and siding with tradition, most likely because of doubts about systems of old age support that would allow them to confidently transfer land to girls. Changes in program design can address only some of these issues, supporting the notion that such change is rarely smooth or linear.

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**3. Reforming inheritance laws** increases women’s investment in land, wealth accumulation, and bargaining power within the household.

**Zambia:** This study examines the connection between widows’ land inheritance rights and land investments. Does the prospect of land expropriation due to widowhood deter households from fallowing, applying fertilizer, and employing labor-intensive tillage techniques? Widow inheritance varies by village, as reported in surveys of village leaders.


**Quantitative analysis** using OLS regression model controlling for possible confounding factors. Both OLS and IV estimates show lower levels of land investment by married couples in villages where widows do not inherit.

Data sourced from the 2008 Rural Income and Livelihoods Survey undertaken by the Food Security Research Project of Michigan State University (MSU) and the Central Statistical Office (CSO) of Zambia.

Concern over prospective loss of land by the wives reduces investment in land quality, even during the marriage.
From this survey, a sample of 7,770 households are used. Data was also sourced from the 2008 survey of 1,043 village chiefs (“headmen”) in the study area. This survey was also conducted by the MSU and CSO team.

**India**: Inheritance patterns over three generations of individuals are analyzed to assess the impact of changes in the Hindu Succession Act (HSA) that grant daughters equal coparcenary (joint heir) rights in joint family property that were denied to daughters in the past. Deininger, Goyal and Nagarajan 2013: 114-141. (Link)

**Quantitative analysis**. Fixed-effects regression model using data from the 2006 round of the Rural Economic and Demographic Survey (REDS).

Sample size: 8,190 rural households with 72,655 individuals across three generations, from India’s 16 main states.

Women whose father died after the HSA in four reform states are 15 percentage points more likely to inherit land than those whose father died prior to the reform, pointing to a clear and sizable impact of the HSA on land inheritance.

HSA also affected the age at marriage for women married post-HSA: a relatively modest delay in marriage (half a year, on average) could contribute to significant improvements in women’s socioeconomic status.

**PROMISING EVIDENCE**

1. **Leveraging CEDAW ratification** increases government focus on reforms and enforcements to support women’s legal land rights and tenure, political and social rights.

   **Multi-country**: Using a new database of women’s property rights and legal capacity covering 100 countries over 50 years, this paper analyzes triggers and barriers to reform. Hallward-Driemeier, Hasan, and Bogdana Rusu 2013. (Link)

   **Quantitative analysis**. Regression model using 50 years of data from 1960-2010 for 100 countries.

   CEDAW ratification was found to have a positive impact on equal property rights for unmarried women, as well as on inheritance rights for both daughters and surviving spouses, and other dimensions of legal capacity.

   **Multi-country**: To explore the effectiveness of CEDAW. Englehart, Neil and Melissa Miller 2011. (Link)

   **Quantitative analysis**. Logistic regression model on a longitudinal sample of 149 countries (1981-2006)

   CEDAW is a positive and significant predictor of women’s political and social rights, though not of economic rights. Ratifying CEDAW correlates with country improvement on the Cingranelli-Richards (CIRI) indicators for women’s political and social rights; effects are significant in the same year as ratification, one year later, and five years later.

   **CIRI indicators for social and political rights**:
   - The right to equal inheritance
   - The right to enter into marriage on a basis of equality with men
   - The right to travel abroad
   - The right to obtain a passport
● The right to confer citizenship to children or a husband
● The right to initiate a divorce
● The right to own, acquire, manage, and retain property brought into marriage
● The right to participate in social, cultural, and community activities
● The right to an education
● The freedom to choose a residence/domicile
● Freedom from female genital mutilation of children and of adults without their consent
● Freedom from forced sterilization

**CIRI indicators for economic rights:**

● Equal pay for equal work
● Free choice of profession or employment without the need to obtain a husband or male relative’s consent
● The right to gainful employment without the need to obtain a husband or male relative’s consent
● Equality in hiring and promotion practices
● Job security (maternity leave, unemployment benefits, no arbitrary firing or layoffs, etc.)
● Non-discrimination by employers
● The right to be free from sexual harassment in the workplace
● The right to work at night
● The right to work in occupations classified as dangerous

POTENTIAL EVIDENCE

2. **Offering incentives or targeted information increases joint land titling.**

*Uganda:* A cluster-randomized experiment is used to assess the effectiveness of conditional price subsidies and information, in isolation or jointly, in improving women’s access to formal land. Cherchi, Goldstein, Habyarimana, Montalvao, O’Sullivan, and Udry 2018. ([Link](#))

**Quantitative analysis.** A study of 253 villages that were randomized into two treatments, fully crossed with each other and stratified by parish.

*Treatment 1:* Conditional subsidies vs. unconditional subsidies.

*Treatment 2:* Gender information vs. general information.

All households were shown a short educational video clip.

About 62 percent of households were willing to co-title without any intervention. Providing a subsidy for the title conditional on the wife’s name being included raised the demand for co-titling by 50 percent. Providing the educational video raised the demand for co-titling by 25 percent.
## 1. Land titling for women within groups that collectively hold land increased women’s participation in decision-making.

**Peru:** The Peruvian Government reinitiated titling for native communities (after a decade of little progress). By 2014, a number of projects had begun to finance titling. This study assesses the effectiveness of titling on women’s participation in decision-making. Larson, Monterroso and Cantuarias 2019. ([Link](#))

**Mixed Methods analysis.** Qualitative: data from 2014-2017 including:
1. A survey of 55 government agents and NGOs in charge of field data and site reports
2. 43 Key Informant Interviews and 44 focus group discussions in 22 communities (equal numbers of men and women)
3. Household surveys with 1,006 individuals in 22 communities (equal numbers of men and women)
4. Participatory Prospective Analysis (PPA) scenario-building workshops with multiple actors. One PPA had 38 women from indigenous associations around the country.
5. Review of secondary resources

Clear membership rights for women within these collectives has important implications for how women can participate in decision-making spaces to further strengthen their rights to access and use communal resources. Results from the household survey show that, in titled communities, 93 percent of men have participated in meetings related to forest use and management, while 77 percent of women indicated participating at least once. This was lower in untitled communities: 82 percent of men and 51 percent of women participated.

## 2. Land leasing groups (LLGs) may increase women’s access to land and income.

**India:** Land leasing groups (LLGs) were introduced to existing women’s self-help groups (SHGs) in 12 target communities in West Bengal, India, to overcome legal and social barriers women face to access land for production. The LLGs are the primary intervention used by the USAID PepsiCo Partnership to increase women’s access to land for crop production so they can become suppliers. USAID 2021. ([Link](#))

Reported results of an internal assessment of the first-year results of the USAID PepsiCo Partnership:

The first-year results indicate that the women’s LLGs were able to lease land independently which further enabled the women LLGs to enter the PepsiCo supply chain.

## 3. Gender mainstreaming strategies combined with agricultural certification programs can

**Uganda:** This article discusses experiences of using a community-led methodology: Gender Action Learning System (GALS). Members of Bukonzo Joint (BJ) Cooperative Microfinance are producers and traders in coffee, maize, fruits (avocados, pineapples and...)

**Quantitative analysis.** Based on a survey of BJ Cooperative Microfinance members. BJ’s total membership: 3,237 (2,399 women and 838 men). All members were GALS in some form.

102 individuals had (joint or individual) women’s land agreements; 1,362 individuals had applications in process. In total, 1,464 individuals (48 percent of households) had some form of document on women’s or joint ownership of land. Out of 2,717 households, 2,068 had signed joint certification documents and 66 women had individual ownership – 76 percent. Women previously had negligible land ownership.
increase women’s land ownership. passion fruit) and beans in the Kasese District in Western Uganda. Mayoux 2021. (Link)

For the analysis 3,057 members of the value chain were monitored; most were BJ Cooperative members.

In Kanyatsi parish, many women BJ members encountered problems, including payment of UGS 180,000 for any size of land. They applied for the land lease as a group of 10 women, negotiating to reduce the cost to UGS 67,000 each.

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**TABLE G3. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>SPECIFIC ISSUE/ SOURCE</th>
<th>METHODOLOGY</th>
<th>RESULTS</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PROVEN EVIDENCE</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>I. Greater gender equality under the law is linked to increased women’s labor force participation rate.</td>
<td>Multi-country: This study provides a global perspective of how gender discrimination in law affects women’s economic opportunity, over five decades. Hyland, Djankov, and Koujianou Goldberg 2019. (Link)</td>
<td>Quantitative analysis. Regression analysis based on longitudinal panel data from 190 economies over 50 years from the World Bank’s WBL database. The study excludes the agricultural sector, where employment is largely informal.</td>
<td>Greater gender equality under the law is associated with more women participating in the workforce; there is also some indication from the data that better rights for women are associated with a lower gender pay gap and less occupational segregation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ethiopia: This paper evaluates the impact of strengthening legal rights on women’s pursuit of economic opportunities. Ethiopia changed its family law, requiring both spouses’ consent in the administration of marital property, removing the ability of a spouse to deny permission for the other to work outside the home, and raising women’s minimum age of marriage. Hallward-Driemeier, Mary, and Ousman Gajigo. 2015. “Strengthening Economic Rights and Women’s Occupational Choice: The Impact of Reforming Ethiopia’s Family Law.” World Development 70: 260–273. (Link)</td>
<td>Quantitative Analysis. Econometric modeling using DID approach. Data from nationally representative household surveys from just prior to the reform and five years later allows for an analysis of the reform’s impact.</td>
<td>The analysis finds that, in areas where the reform had been enacted, women were relatively more likely to work in occupations that require work outside the home, especially ones that employ more educated workers and in paid and full-time jobs, controlling for time and location effects. The increase in women’s participation in these activities was 15–24 percent higher in areas where the reform was carried out.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Multi-country: This study examines the effect of gender-based legal restrictions, and other policy choices and demographic characteristics, on female labor force participation. Gonzales, Jain-Chandra, Kochhar, and Newiak 2015. (Link)

Quantitative analysis. Panel regression analysis of data from 143 countries using the World Bank’s WBL indicators of gender-discriminatory laws. Seven WBL indicators were found associated with lower women’s labor participation.

Seven factors were found to have a statistically significant effect on women’s labor participation:
1. Legally guaranteed equality between men and women, including equal property rights
2. Equal inheritance rights for sons and daughters
3. Joint titling for married couples
4. A woman’s right to pursue a profession, obtain a job, or open a bank account
5. A woman’s right to initiate legal proceedings without her husband’s permission
6. Right to sign a contract
7. A woman’s right to be head of household

Other factors, such as demographics, education, and family policies, are statistically significant in the regression analysis.

2. Improved property rights for women increase female labor supply.

Multi-country: Using a compiled database of women’s property rights and legal capacity covering 100 countries over 50 years, this paper analyzes the triggers and barriers to reform. Hallward-Driemeier, Hasan, and Bogdana Rusu 2013. (Link)

Quantitative analysis. Regression analysis using longitudinal data for 100 countries over 50 years.

The analysis found increased engagement in the formal labor market. Additionally, a clear effect of was found that ratification of international conventions, and CEDAW in particular, was correlated with increased women’s political representation at the national level, mobilization of women’s networks, and labor force participation in non-agricultural sectors.

India: This study examines the effects of the HSA reform in inheritance rights on women’s labor supply.

Heath and Tan 2019: I–41, (Link)


The HSA supported women’s ability to inherit property, increasing their lifetime unearned income and bargaining power. Women’s employment increased, especially in high-paying jobs.

Policy changes to inheritance rights can affect women’s labor force participation. Reforms that improve women’s standing within the household have a direct effect on outcomes such as children’s health and education, and an indirect effect through labor supply.

The authors found empirical support for this model, using women’s exposure to the Hindu Succession Act in India as a source of exogenous variation in their unearned income. Exposure to the Hindu
Succession Act increases a woman’s labor supply by between 3.8 and 6.1 percentage points, particularly into high-paying jobs. Autonomy increased by 0.17 standard deviations, suggesting that control of income is a potential channel for these effects. Thus, policies that empower women can have an additional impact on the labor market, which can further reinforce autonomy increases.

**Multi-country:** This study examines the effect of unequal laws on women’s participation in the private sector workforce and their likelihood to become top managers and owners of firms.

Islam, Muzi, and Amin 2019: 822–44, (Link); Amin and Islam 2015: (Link)

**Quantitative analysis.**
Regression analysis utilizing the World Bank’s Enterprise Surveys (ES) and the World Bank’s WBL (WBL) databases

The data included more than 60,000 firms across 104 economies.

Unequal laws not only discourage women’s participation in the private sector workforce, but also reduce their likelihood to become top managers and owners of firms. Limited access to finance as well as corruption effectively disempower women in the labor market.

Mandating a gender-nondiscrimination clause increased women’s employment in formal firms by 8.6 percent.

**PROMISING EVIDENCE**

1. Access to **universal childcare** is likely to increase female labor supply.

**Canada:** The effect of generous child-care subsidies plus free full-time kindergarten on the labor supply of mothers with young children.

Quebec’s new law supplemented the federal child tax benefit, as well as providing full-time free kindergarten and $5.00 CAN per day for before- and after-school day care for kindergarten and grade school children.

Haeck, Lefebvre, and Merrigan 2015:137-157. (Link)

**Quantitative analysis.**
Econometric modeling, DID approach.

The low-fee day-care policy implemented by the province of Quebec at the end of 1997 had substantial labor supply effects on the mothers of preschool children, regardless of education level, though the results for less educated mothers are less robust.

**Austria:** Does subsidized childcare reduce gender inequality in the labor market?

Kleven, Landais, Posch, Steinhauer and Zweimüller 2020. (Link)

**Quantitative analysis.** Quasi-experimental regression analysis of longitudinal administrative data covering the labor market and birth histories over more than 50 years.

The results show that the enormous expansions of parental leave and childcare subsidies have had virtually no impact on gender convergence. Economic incentives may not be able to overcome the power of existing social norms.
Identified the effects of all family policy reforms since the 1950s on male and female earnings, by mapping causal estimates into a decomposition framework to compute counterfactual gender inequality series.

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<th>POTENTIAL EVIDENCE</th>
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**2. Collective organizing of women working in the informal sector improves their working conditions and livelihoods.**

| India, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC), Colombia, Brazil: Case study analysis of collective organizations for women working in the informal sector. Main source: Duguid and Weber 2019. (Link) India: SEWA. (Link) Colombia: Business Call to Action (BCtA). (Link) |
| Qualitative analysis: Case Studies |
| India: SEWA provides informal women workers a collective voice and identity as workers (with ID cards) and increased bargaining power. DRC: Informal women street vendors acquire legitimacy (permits, permissions) through the League for Defense of Congolese Women (LDFC). Colombia: informal women coffee producers’ network with women in other municipalities to compete for regional/national/international trade. Brazil: the AMUCC waste pickers association obtained for its members a government-funded childcare center. |

**1. Increasing safe transportation options could catalyze economic opportunity.**

| Argentina: The household mobility survey for Buenos Aires is used to explore gender differences in travel patterns, combined with spatial data to show complexity of women’s daily travel. Quiros, Mehndiratta, and Ochoa 2014. (Link) |
| Quantitative analysis. Regression analysis of the 2009 Household Mobility Survey (Encuesta de Movilidad Domiciliaria, ENMODO) for the Buenos Aires Metropolitan Region, combined with spatial data. The survey provided a representative sample of 22,170 households and 70,321 people. |
| In Buenos Aires, men’s commuting patterns gave them access to 80 percent more jobs than women. |

| Jordan: This study analyzes the factors that affect the low female employment rates in Jordan. Aloul, Naffa, and Mansour 2018. |
| Mixed Methods analysis. Quantitative analysis based on an online survey of 128 respondents. This is combined with a desk review. |
| In Jordan, 47 percent of women reported they have refused a job because of lack of access to safe transportation. Another study found that transportation played a role in keeping women with limited education from the labor market. |
Women-only drivers to serve women customers is being piloted in a number of countries to address mobility restrictions on women’s labor force participation.

**Jordan:** This study examines the drivers of low female employment rates in Jordan. Kasooulu, Hausmann, O’Brien, and Santos 2019. ([Link](#))


For women with a high school education or less, the results indicate extremely low participation levels. The strongest evidence traces this phenomenon to traditional social norms and poor public transportation.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Providing accurate information and successful role models increases formalization of women entrepreneurs.</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Nepal:</strong> This paper uses institutional theory to understand the experiences of women in the informal economy and what formalization means to them. Karki, Xheneti and Madden 2020. (<a href="#">Link</a>)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Qualitative analysis.** A stratified sample of 90 individuals: 30 interviews were conducted, with 23 women drawn from the informal economy and 7 from the formal economy, in three cities in Nepal.

Access to accurate information about the cost, effort, and process of formalizing can encourage women entrepreneurs to formalize their businesses. Formalization can be promoted through role models of successful women entrepreneurs, who support other women to formalize.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Direct bank account deposits of wages, plus financial training, can increase female labor supply.</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>India:</strong> A study examined the effects of an experimental design that provided direct bank deposits and financial training to women workers. Field, Pande, Rigol, Schaner, and Moore 2019. (<a href="#">Link</a>)</td>
</tr>
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</table>

**Quantitative analysis.** Regression analysis based on experimental design, with five data sources. Baseline data: census of 14,088 households recorded as having worked for the Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Scheme (MGNREGS) in the past year. 5,851 eligible couples were identified (data from November 2013 to January 2014). Short-run survey conducted between August and December 2015. Long-run survey conducted between April and October 2017.

In the short run, women who received direct deposit and training increased their labor supply in both public and private sectors (relative to women offered only bank accounts). In the long run, women who received direct deposits and training became more accepting of female work, and their husbands perceived fewer social costs to having a wife who works. These effects were concentrated in households with lower levels of female work, where women worked more in the long run and became more empowered.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4. Fostering an enabling environment for paternity leave has benefits for women’s employment.</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Multi-country:</strong> Do paternity leave laws exist in developing economies? Is there a relationship with employment outcomes?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Quantitative analysis.** OLS regression model using the World Bank’s 2010 WBL data, as well as a stratified random sample of firms in 53 developing countries accessed from the

On average, mandatory paternity leave raised the proportion of women employed in formal firms by 6.8 percent.
Norway: This study explores the systematic difference in the gender wage gap between exporting firms and non-exporters. Exporters may require working particular hours or travelling at short notice, and may reward employee flexibility. If women are less flexible, exporters will exhibit a higher gender wage gap than non-exporters.

Boler, Javorcik, and Ulltveit-Moe 2018: 122-133. (Link)

Quantitative analysis based on longitudinal matched employer-employee data from the Norwegian manufacturing sector for 1996–2010. The results suggest a firm’s entry into exporting increased its gender wage gap by about 3 percentage points for college-educated workers. Norway’s legislation allowing men to take paternity leave reduced this gender wage gap.

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### TABLE G4. FISCAL POLICY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>THEME</th>
<th>SPECIFIC ISSUE/ SOURCE</th>
<th>METHODOLOGY</th>
<th>RESULTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROVEN EVIDENCE</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Individual tax filing increases women’s labor force participation.</td>
<td>Canada: The federal tax reform of 1988 replaced a spousal tax exemption with a tax credit, reducing the marginal tax rates faced by wives of high-income men. Crossley and Sung-Hee 2007: 343-365. (Link)</td>
<td>Quantitative analysis. DID regression model.</td>
<td>Switching to individual income taxation instead of family income taxation removes tax distortions for the earner in the family with the lower wage, usually the woman, creating incentives to work. Using difference-in-differences estimators, the study found a significant increase in labor force participation among women married to higher-income husbands.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sweden: The effect of tax reform on married women. Hakan 2009. (Link)</td>
<td>Quantitative analysis. Simulation modeling: Linear probability model for individual fixed effects. Sweden’s longitudinal individual level data (LINDA) was used for 1969 (a year before the reform was</td>
<td>Simulations suggest that employment among married women would have been 10 percentage points lower in 1975, if the 1969 statutory income tax system (based on joint filing) had still been in place.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
announced) and 1975 (four years after the reform).

**Czech Republic:** A study of the introduction of joint taxation in 2005, estimating its effect on married women’s labor supply in the Czech Republic. Kaliskova 2013. ([Link](#))

**Quantitative analysis.** DID and triple differences regression model, using several alternative control groups. Data from the Czech Labor Force Survey (LFS) which includes a representative sample of 60,000 individuals.

The introduction of joint taxation led to a decline of about 3 percentage points in the employment rate of married women with children. Participation declines are twice as large where the tax work disincentives were the highest, i.e., among women with high-income husbands.

**Multi-European country study including the US:** A study of the effects of individual or joint tax filing in 17 European countries and the United States. Bick and Fuchs-Schündeln 2017: 100-104. ([Link](#))

**Quantitative analysis using a calibrated macro model based on OECD data.** Only married couples without children are used in the regression estimations model, due to differences in child tax credits.

In the absence of joint taxation, the hours worked annually by females would have been increased by 113 hours in the United States, 280 hours in Germany, and 340 hours in Belgium.

2. Policies that increase the transparency of the gender wage gap can increase female earnings.

**UK:** In 2017 all private-sector firms and public-sector organizations with over 250 UK employees were required to declare the raw difference between the average hourly wages of men and those of women, on an annual basis. Blundell 2021. ([Link](#))

**Quantitative analysis.** DID regression analysis of UK’s annual employer-employee payroll data, as provided to the government.

The introduction of reporting requirements led to a 1.6 percentage-point narrowing of the gender pay gap at affected employers, primarily due to a decline in men’s wages, not a change in the composition of the workforce. In a hypothetical choice experiment, over half of women accept a 2.5 percent lower salary to avoid a high-pay-gap employer. The results suggest that women can better choose their employers based on gender wage gap information. Transparency-based policies can have a substantial impact.

**Denmark:** A 2006 law required firms to provide gender-disaggregated wage statistics. Bennedsen, Simintzi, Tsoutsoura, and Wolfenzon 2019. ([Link](#))

**Quantitative analysis.** DID regression analysis of detailed employee-employer administrative data, submitted by firms to the government.

The law reduced the gender pay gap, primarily by slowing wage growth for employees who are men. The gender pay gap declined by approximately 2 percentage points, or a 13-percentage reduction from the pre-legislation mean. The wage-transparency mandate did not affect firm profitability.

### PROMISING EVIDENCE

2. **Cash transfers to married women in poor**

**Pakistan:** The government linked the new biometric ID card to enrollment in the Benazir Income Support

**Mixed methods analysis.** Household survey data and qualitative interviews.

Pakistan’s Benazir Income Support program (BISP) had a positive and statistically significant impact, enabling women to access cash in an emergency and to vote in local and national elections, as well as to travel alone within their communities. Female beneficiaries were also found to
households can have wide-ranging WEE effects. program (BISP), a cash transfer program for the poor, in order to provide women with legal identification. Cheema, Hunt, Javeed, Lone and O’Leary 2016. (Link)

3. Quotas increase women’s political participation in national and local government, with a positive impact on WEE initiatives. South Africa: What was the effect of the 30-percent quota for female candidates introduced in 1994 on women in South Africa? Yetten 2016. (Link) Note: In 2019, South Africa had 46% women in parliament and 48% women ministers. (Link)

Qualitative analysis. Case Study methodology. The 1994 quota resulted in an increase in the percentage of women in parliament (2.8 to 27.7 percent) in the country’s first democratic elections. This contributed to establishing the National Gender Machinery (NGM) across the executive and legislature, as well as constitutional safeguards such as the Commission for Gender Equality. The resulting Domestic Violence Act of 1998 is widely regarded as one of the more progressive examples of such legislation internationally. Since political parties are driven by multiple competing agendas, gender equality may not always be a primary consideration in politics (for men or women legislators).

India: Since the mid-1990s, one-third of village council head positions in India have been randomly reserved to be held by women. Village Councils are responsible for the provision of many local public goods in rural areas. Chattopadhyay and Duflo 2004. (Link)

Quantitative analysis Regression modeling using a dataset collected by the authors on 265 Village Councils in West Bengal and Rajasthan. The analysis was based on a comparison of the type of public goods provided in reserved and unreserved Village Councils. The results show that the reservation of a council seat affected the types of public goods provided. More investment in drinking water infrastructure and better availability of public goods occurred when the council seat was filled by a woman. Leaders invested more in infrastructure that is directly relevant to the needs of their own gender.

POTENTIAL EVIDENCE

1. Gender budgeting efforts with strong support from the Minister of Finance can lead to fiscal policy changes. India (Kerala), Rwanda, and Uganda: What types of government support are needed for gender budgeting to be effectively implemented? Stotsky 2016. (Link)

Qualitative analysis. Based on case studies in Rwanda, Uganda and the Indian State of Kerala Within the executive branch of government, the leadership of the minister of finance has been essential in incorporating gender-oriented goals. Parliamentarians and parliamentary committees have sometimes been catalytic for incorporating gender budgeting.
2. Gender budgeting efforts that engaged spending ministries helped address agreed-upon goals.

*Philippines, Morocco, and Timor-Leste:* What are the key processes for institutionalizing gender budgeting?

Stotsky 2016. ([Link](#))

**Qualitative Analysis.** Based on case studies conducted in Morocco, the Philippines, and Timor-Leste.

The use of gender budget statements, budget circulars, and follow-up with the spending (and revenue) institutions of government played a vital role for the institutionalization of gender budgeting.

3. Gender budgeting can provide country-level benefits.

*Austria, Ecuador, India, Mexico, and Rwanda:* What are the country-level benefits of gender budgeting?

Stotsky 2016. ([Link](#))

**Qualitative analysis.** Based on case studies conducted in Austria, Ecuador, India, Mexico and Rwanda.

In India and Mexico, gender budgeting has led to changes in fiscal policies in key areas (education, health, and infrastructure) and contributed to the achievement of gender-oriented goals. In Mexico, the gender budgeting efforts were led by the ministry of health, contributing to progress on women’s health issues including a drop in maternal mortality and rise in life expectancy.

In Austria and Ecuador, gender budgeting has led to improved systems of accountability for public spending for gender-oriented purposes. Rwanda has successfully incorporated gender budgeting into program-based budgeting, ensuring that its goals are included in the budget process. Other countries adapted their classification systems to facilitate tracking of gender-oriented spending.

4. Paternity leave reduces the gender wage gap.

*Norway:* This study explores the systematic difference in the gender wage gap between exporting firms and non-exporters. Exporters may require working particular hours or traveling at short notice and may reward employee flexibility. If women are less flexible, exporters will exhibit a higher gender wage gap than non-exporters.

Boler, Javorcik, and Ulltveit-Moe 2018: 122-133. ([Link](#))

**Quantitative analysis** based on longitudinal matched employer-employee data from the Norwegian manufacturing sector for 1996–2010.

The results suggest that a firm’s entry into exporting increased its gender wage gap by about 3 percentage points for college-educated workers. Norway’s legislation allowing men to take paternity leave reduced this gender wage gap.
### TABLE G5. ORGANIZATIONAL AND BUSINESS POLICIES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PROMISING EVIDENCE</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Gender-friendly policies, programs, and practices support women’s employment.</td>
<td>Italy, Norway, Sweden, and the US: Company policies, programs and practices to support their employees through greater workplace flexibility, childcare assistance, paid paternity leave, enriching learning opportunities, and greater work-life integration. ILO 2020. (Link)</td>
<td>Qualitative analysis: Based on case studies developed from company self-reporting by:  - Swedbank (Sweden)  - GAP (USA)  - Danone Nutrica ELN (Italy)  - EY (USA)  - DNB (Norway)</td>
<td>Reported results include: stronger pipeline of women candidates, better motivated and more productive employees, lower absenteeism, higher retention, and greater employee satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Workplace childcare provisions provide significant business and social returns that benefit women.</td>
<td>Vietnam: What are the benefits of providing company funded childcare for manufacturing companies and their employees? IFC 2020. (Link)</td>
<td>Qualitative analysis. Based on company self-reporting of six large export-oriented manufacturing companies in Vietnam.</td>
<td>Significant business and social returns were identified for company investment in childcare support for their employees. All six companies reported reduced absenteeism and employee turnover as well as enhanced relationships with the community and commercial buyers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POTENTIAL EVIDENCE</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. Additional safety measures for overnight work increase opportunities for women’s employment.</td>
<td>Jordan: An IT firm that works with international clients put several safety measures in place, such as surveillance cameras, secure doors, and strict ID requirements for entering the building. Women can be escorted by family members, who can wait in the reception area. Women working overnight shifts could work from home. IFC and World Bank 2021. (Link)</td>
<td>Qualitative analysis. Based on company self-reporting.</td>
<td>As a result of these provisions, women working as overnight staff increased to 58 percent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ANNEX H: SELECTED INTERNATIONAL CONVENTIONS AND AGREEMENTS SUPPORTING GENDER EQUALITY

International agreements and conventions play an important role in supporting national-level legal reforms. Even when a country does not ratify an agreement or is not a party to the convention, the provisions of the agreement or convention may still be influential. At the very least, the convention or agreement carries moral authority and can be used to guide states or even prompt reform where there has not been sufficient political will to do so. Below are a selection of International Conventions and Agreements mentioned in this study, with links. To see what countries have ratified specific UN Conventions, search on the status of ratification dashboard. For ILO conventions, search under ratifications by country or country profile.

UNITED NATIONS (UN) CONVENTIONS

1. Universal Declaration of Human Rights 1948 (UDHR)
   “The UDHR promotes and encourages respect for human rights and for fundamental freedoms for all without distinction as to race, sex, language, or religion.”

2. International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESCR)
   ICESCR (entered into force in 1976) provides women and men equal rights to enjoy economic, social, and cultural rights, including rights to work in just and favorable conditions, to social protection, to an adequate standard of living, to the highest attainable standards of physical and mental health, to education, and to enjoyment of the benefits of cultural freedom and scientific progress.

   The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women CEDAW.
   Introduced in 1979, CEDAW legally binds all States Parties to fulfill, protect, and respect women's human rights; this means that states are responsible not just for their own actions, but also for eliminating discrimination perpetrated by private individuals and organizations.

3. Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)
   The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (often referred to as the Sustainable Development Goals, or SDGs) was adopted in 2015. Several SDGs explicitly include gender equality.

INTERNATIONAL LABOR ORGANISATION (ILO) CONVENTIONS

1. ILO Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention, 1948 (No. 87)

   The Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention (No. 87) was signed in 1948 and became effective in July 1950. Parties to the Convention commit to ensure the right of both employers and employees to join an organization of their choice and free from any influence of authorities (a core principle of the ILO). Furthermore, the Convention sets up general rules for organizations, including voting for officers and adopting an internal constitution. The Convention’s implementation is supervised by the ILO’s Committee of Experts. Every three
years, a State Party must report on the current state of implementation, which is reviewed and evaluated by the Committee of Experts. Additionally, the right to freedom of association is monitored by the Committee on Freedom of Association (CFA). This body investigates complaints by employers’ and workers’ organizations against States, regardless of whether the State is a party to the Convention or not. The Freedom of Association and Protection of the Right to Organize Convention is part of the 15 core conventions covered under the Generalized Scheme of Preferences (GSP) regulation.

2. **ILO Right to Organize and Collective Bargaining Convention, 1949 (No. 98)**

Collective bargaining is a key mechanism to determine wages and working conditions in a market economy. Collective bargaining refers to all negotiations that take place between an employer, a group of employers or one or more employers’ organizations, on the one hand, and one or more workers’ organizations, on the other, for (a) determining working conditions and terms of employment or (b) regulating relations between employers and workers or (c) regulating relations between employers or their organizations and a workers’ organization or workers’ organizations.

Key principles of Convention 98:

- Protect workers and unions against anti-union discrimination
- Unions are free from employers’ interference or dominance
- Promote voluntary collective bargaining through various measures

3. **ILO Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) and Recommendation No. 111.**

The principle of equal pay for work of equal value is enshrined in this convention. The right to equal remuneration applies not only in cases where men and women do the same or similar jobs, but also when they perform work that is different but of equal value, based on objective criteria such as skills, working conditions, responsibilities, and effort.

4. **ILO Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189) ILO Domestic Workers Recommendation,**

This convention sets labor standards for domestic workers. The main rights are: daily rest hours, and at least 24-hours time off weekly; entitlement to minimum wage; and choosing where to live and spend their time off. Ratifying states parties should also take protective measures against violence and should enforce a minimum age consistent with the minimum age at other types of employment. Workers have a right to a clear (preferably written) communication of employment conditions which, in case of international recruitment, should be communicated prior to immigration. They are not required to reside at the house where they work, or to stay at the house during their leave.
5. **The Violence and Harassment Convention, 2019 (No. 190) and Recommendation No. 206**

This groundbreaking convention recognizes that violence and harassment take a huge toll on individuals, businesses, society, and governments. The concept of “violence and harassment” in the world of work includes sexual harassment and covers work-related communications (including email and online platforms), work-related social events, commuting to and from work, and domestic violence within private homes when they are a place of work. Protection should cover all sectors, occupations, and types of work arrangements, including jobseekers, interns and volunteers, and persons exercising the duties of an employer.

6. **ILO Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183)**

This convention focuses on providing adequate financial and other support; protecting pregnant workers and those with newborns from discrimination; and supporting workers (both women and men) who have family responsibilities. The Convention recommends that a minimum length of maternity leave should be 14 weeks, while Recommendation No. 191 recommends 18 weeks. In addition, the ILO Workers with Family Responsibilities Recommendation, 1981 (No. 165) and the Maternity Protection Recommendation, 2000 (No. 191) call for parental leave including leave for adoptive parents.

7. **Maternity Protection Recommendation, 2000 (No. 191)**

The aim of maternity protection is to protect the health of mothers and their babies, and to minimize (and ultimately eradicate) the difficulties and disadvantages that working women face as a result of giving birth.

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3. Although the consultant reviewed the quantitative research methodology employed by the studies identified in each evidence category, the consultant relied on the authors’ calculations in good faith that the stated assumptions and conditions were met to ensure the validity of the achieved results.