

How Laws Promote Economic Opportunities

A Review

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Abstract

This paper presents a comprehensive review of the literature on how legal frameworks, regulations, and rights influence women's economic opportunities. Drawing on the Women, Business and the Law 2024 framework as a reference point, the paper adopts a life cycle approach to examine how legal frameworks and policies shape women's roles as economic actors across different stages of their working lives. It highlights strong evidence showing that the abolition or reform of gender-discriminatory laws can enhance women's economic empowerment by shifting both legal constraints and embedded social norms, although the magnitude and

nature of these effects vary across contexts. Persistent gaps are identified in key areas such as pension systems, childcare legislation, and protection against gender-based violence. The review underscores that legal reform alone is insufficient: advancing women's economic opportunities requires a combination of well-designed laws, their effective enforcement, and complementary policies that address informal institutional barriers. Nevertheless, legal reforms can serve as a meaningful first step toward ensuring better economic opportunities for women.

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Women Business and the Law

World Bank

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1. Introduction

Law can be a transformative tool for achieving gender equality. When well-designed and enforced, legal frameworks have the power to reshape institutions, expand women's economic opportunities, and challenge deeply entrenched social norms. By defining rights and responsibilities, regulating behavior, and influencing expectations, the law plays a central role in enabling women's full participation in the economy and in enhancing the well-being of families, communities, and society at large. Yet, in many contexts, legal systems continue to reflect and reinforce structural gender inequalities, often mirroring the very norms they should help to dismantle ([Christopherson et al., 2022](#)).

Legal barriers that restrict women's economic participation not only limit individual potential but also suppress broader economic and social development. As [World Bank \(2012\)](#) underscores, advancing gender equality can drive productivity gains, yield intergenerational benefits, and foster more inclusive and accountable institutions. Crucially, these benefits are not zero-sum. Empirical evidence shows that legal reforms strengthening women's agency, such as property rights, divorce regulations, and freedom of movement, facilitate women's entry into the labor force without displacing men, as no consistent substitution effect has been observed ([Fruttero et al, 2023](#)).

From a macroeconomic perspective, legal gender equality has the potential to foster cross-country income convergence over time ([Sever, 2025](#)). Estimates show that achieving gender equality in the labor force could boost the long-run GDP per capita by 19 percent on average across countries ([Pennings, 2022](#)), ranging from 8.8 percent on average for OECD countries¹ to 50 percent on average in the Middle East, North Africa and South Asia regions ([Fluchtmann et al., 2024](#), and [Devadas and Kim, 2020](#)). Increasing gender equality in economic opportunities and participation could raise global GDP growth by up to 2.5 percent annually, with developing economies benefiting most from improved opportunities and developed economies from greater equality in outcomes. What is more, estimates show that the economic gain from reducing the gender gap in labor force participation, leadership positions, unpaid care work, and political representation would be around USD 12 trillion globally ([Woetzel et al, 2016](#)).

Building on insights from [WBL\(2024\)](#) and its ten-indicator framework, this paper revisits and synthesizes empirical literature linking the abolition or reform of gender-discriminatory laws, rights, and regulations to a broad range of women's economic outcomes. The [WBL\(2024\)](#) framework offers a rigorous and structured basis for analysis, aligned with internationally recognized standards. These global commitments emphasize the importance of legal and

¹ Reducing disparities in labor force participation and working hours simultaneously.

institutional reforms in promoting gender equality and women's economic empowerment. The ten [WBL\(2024\)](#) indicators capture key dimensions of legal rights and protections, including mobility, workplace rights, pay equity, parenthood, and entrepreneurship; making it a coherent and policy-relevant tool for assessing progress. Using this framework, we classify literature according to each legal domain. First, we identified evidence that assesses the effect of legal reforms on specific economic outcomes. Then, we integrate broader empirical findings to examine how legal frameworks shape women's labor force participation, income generation, and economic agency.

This paper contributes to the literature by synthesizing and analyzing empirical evidence on the intersection of laws, rights, and regulations affecting women's economic opportunities to provide evidence-based insights for policy makers while also identifying research gaps, thereby contributing to both academic understanding and practical efforts to promote gender equality and through it foster inclusive economic growth.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 reviews the motivation for this paper. Section 3 describes the methodology adopted, including the search strategy and the inclusion/exclusion criteria. Section 4 presents a review of current literature discussing the relevance of legal gender reforms. Section 5 presents the review of literature by indicator. Section 6 concludes.

2. Motivation

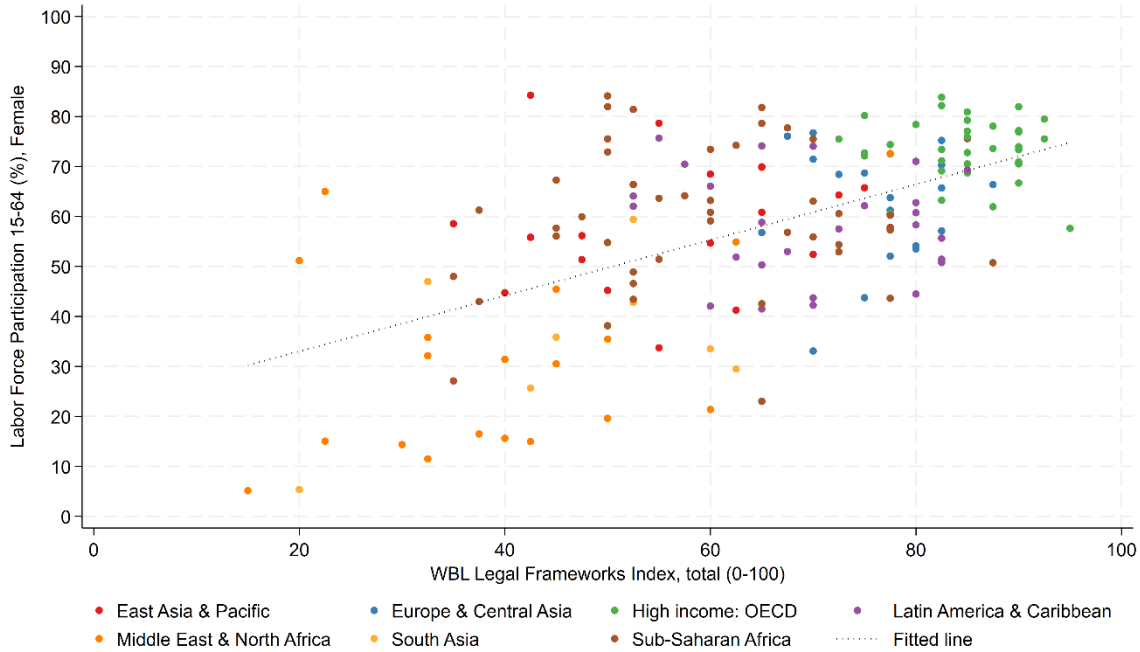
The World Bank's *Women, Business and the Law (WBL)* project underscores that the abolition or modification of discriminatory laws and regulations, and the establishment of enabling regulatory environments could be the first step for policy makers to pave the way for transformative economic and institutional outcomes. According to [WBL\(2024\)](#), 3.9 billion women face legal barriers that restrict their ability to participate in the economy worldwide, and in 37 countries women have less than half of the legal rights enjoyed by men, which affects nearly half a billion women.

The transformative potential of policies that prioritize gender equality can be glimpsed in Figure 1, which compares the WBL legal framework overall index (scored from 0 to 100) with the rate of female labor force participation for women aged 15-65.

This simple exercise reveals a statistically significant relationship, showing that a one-point increase in the WBL legal framework overall index is associated with an average increase of 0.46 percentage point in female labor force participation at the country level after controlling for real GDP per capita. In a similar exercise, [Hyland et al \(2020\)](#), using panel data from 190

economies over 40 years, also showed that legal gender equality is associated with higher female labor force participation and even with a smaller gender wage gap.

Figure 1: Female Labor Force participation vs WBL Legal Frameworks Index



Source: Authors using WBL V2.0 data and World Bank’s World Development Indicators (WDI)

Notes: Female labor force participation rate for ages 15-65 expressed in percentages. WBL Legal Index V2.0 corresponds to the overall legal frameworks index. Both series are for year 2023 for 169 countries. A one-point increase in the WBL Legal index is associated with an average increase of 0.48 percentage points of female labor force participation at country level. Correlation is statistically significant at the 1% level ($p < 0.001$), with a 95% confidence interval for the effect size ranging from 0.34 to 0.62 percentage points controlling for real GDP per capita (in constant dollars of 2021) for year 2023 or the latest available after year 2020.

Different studies have analyzed the economic opportunities that arise from removing legal constraints for women on their economic participation, and how those reforms could shape broader economic and development opportunities. Some examples are [Amin and Islam \(2015\)](#), who find that legal frameworks promoting gender equality in hiring processes contribute to greater female workforce participation in 58 developing countries; [Cuberes and Teignier \(2016\)](#), who estimate the aggregate economic effects of gender gaps in entrepreneurship and workforce participation, demonstrating that legal and institutional barriers generate an expected income per worker loss of around 10 percent in the short run; and [Field et al. \(2021\)](#), who demonstrate that policy reforms mandating women’s direct access to their wages strengthened their financial control and, in turn, boosted their labor force participation.

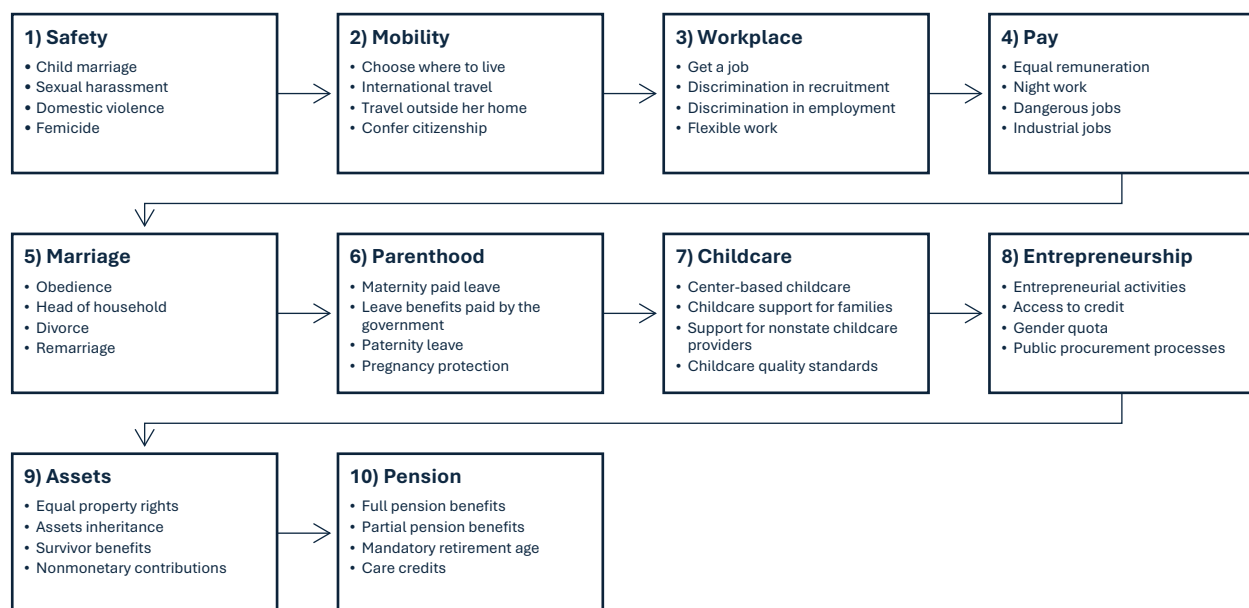
Understanding the extent of legal barriers for women on economic outcomes is essential for informing policy decisions that promote gender equality and through it economic and inclusive growth. This paper addresses this need by examining existing evidence on the effects of gender discriminatory laws and regulations on women's economic participation using the structured framework of [WBL \(2024\)](#), which provides a systematic way to assess gender-related legal barriers across multiple dimensions.

3. Methodology

The [WBL \(2024\)](#) framework offers a comprehensive evaluation of legal barriers faced by women globally, analyzing ten key domains that shape an enabling environment for women's economic opportunities through a life-cycle approach: 1) Safety, 2) Mobility, 3) Work, 4) Pay, 5) Marriage, 6) Parenthood, 7) Childcare, 8) Entrepreneurship, 9) Assets, and 10) Pension, with each one of them disaggregated into four subtopics (Figure 2).

These domains were chosen based on economic evidence and statistically significant associations with women's economic empowerment guaranteeing structure, policy relevance and comparability. They also align with international legal frameworks, such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and ILO (International Labor Organization) conventions, both of which highlight critical aspects of gender equality in economic participation [WBL \(2024\)](#).

Figure 2: WBL indicators by topic and subtopic



Source: Authors using [WBL\(2024\)](#)

Notes: Previous editions of the report assessed fewer categories, primarily focusing on the eight original indicators. Childcare and Safety were included in the 2024 edition.

In order to identify, select, and analyze relevant and high-quality academic published literature that aligns with the categories outlined in [WBL \(2024\)](#), focusing on understanding the effect of laws and legal reforms across different outcomes, two research questions were used: i) How the abolition or modification of gender discriminatory laws and rights has impacted economic, social, and institutional outcomes for women?, and ii) Is there additional empirical evidence that supports or contributes to the results observed?

Based on these two research questions, the literature reviewed by subtopic includes **evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks**, which examines empirical evidence on the effects of laws, rights, and regulations over women's economic outcomes; as well as **additional evidence** which focuses on empirical evidence from randomized controlled trials (RCTs), experiments, quasi-experimental studies, targeted programs and impact evaluations not necessarily linked a to specific legal or regulatory framework, but aligned with the subtopic under consideration.

Even though this paper rigorously reviews academic literature using WBL's ten-indicator scheme and their respective subtopics to systematically present evidence on the effects of

legal and regulatory frameworks, and empirical evidence on each one of them, it is presented as an evidence review.

3.1. Search strategy

The search strategy involves four traditional academic databases: Google Scholar, Scopus, Web of Science, and JSTOR, in addition to nine advanced tools or platforms based on Artificial Intelligence (AI) to identify relevant literature including SciSpace, Connected Papers, Inciteful, Consensus, Zotero, Litmaps, Semantic Scholar, Scite and Scopus AI by Elsevier.

As for the keywords used, “legal”, “regulation”, “legal reform”, “rights”, “law”, “legal gender reform”, “gender inequality”, “women business and the law” and a combination of these search words with the ten indicator topics included in [WBL \(2024\)](#). Additional search terms such as “impact evaluation”, “experiment”, “policy”, “outcomes”, “RCT”, “empirical”, and “effects” were also incorporated.

We restricted our search to articles published from the year 2000 onward to reflect the research interest on this topic prompted by global policy efforts such as the Millennium Development Goals and to capture the latest advancements in terms of empirical methods and data quality. To focus on publications from 2000 onward, filters were applied. The primarily language used was English; however, it was possible to identify studies in other languages such as French and Spanish.

3.2. Inclusion and exclusion criteria

The *inclusion criteria* for the literature review focus on studies directly related to the ten indicators included in [WBL \(2024\)](#), incorporating both empirical and theoretical research that examines the effect of legal gender reforms over different outcomes. Studies employing quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method approaches are considered, with a particular emphasis on quantifiable impacts. Only peer-reviewed journal articles and working papers from renowned institutions² are included to ensure the credibility and relevance of the reviewed material.

² The working paper repositories considered to extract relevant literature include the National Bureau of Economic Research (NBER), the CEPR Discussion Papers from the Centre for Economic Policy Research, the SSRN (Social Science Research Network), the IZA Discussion Papers from the Institute of Labor Economics, RePEc (Research Papers in Economics), the World Bank Policy Research Working Papers, and the IMF Working Papers. Additionally, repositories from leading academic institutions, such as the Cowles Foundation Discussion Papers (Yale University), the Brookings Institution Working Papers, the Harvard University Working Papers, and the Oxford Economics Papers, were included.

The *exclusion criteria* eliminate publications unrelated to the ten indicators, studies without relationship to legal frameworks or policy implications, or consist of non-peer-reviewed content such as blogs, opinion pieces and editorials.

4. Insights on the Relevance of Legal Gender Reforms from WBL-Based Evidence

Following the methodology described earlier, this section compiles evidence from studies that draw on WBL data and from analyses reflected in its reports, to assess the importance of legal gender reforms on women's economic outcomes, showing that such reforms are not only a matter of fairness but also foster job creation and economic growth. For example, [Christopherson et al. \(2022\)](#), drawing on evidence from countries such as Iceland and Rwanda, demonstrate that eliminating legal barriers significantly boosts women's labor force participation and household well-being. [Gonzales et al. \(2015\)](#) find that restrictions on property rights and professional opportunities directly limit women's economic engagement, and that lifting these barriers not only narrows gender gaps but also accelerates growth—highlighting the need for reforms that ensure equal opportunities within diverse cultural contexts.

WBL data has been instrumental in understanding how legal frameworks influence women's economic empowerment. [Tertilt et al. \(2022\)](#) show how gender-discriminatory laws hinder women's labor force participation, emphasizing that legal reforms promoting gender equality are essential for improving women's economic engagement and fostering societal development. [Sever \(2022\)](#) highlights that countries that remove laws that discriminate against women could attain more inclusive and higher economic growth. [Sever \(2025\)](#) builds on this by highlighting the global significance of gender-equal legal systems, demonstrating that such reforms enable poorer countries to reduce the income gap with wealthier nations and promote economic convergence. [Hyland et al. \(2020\)](#) show that equitable laws lead to higher labor force participation and reduced wage gaps for women. [Pande and Roy \(2021\)](#) further argue that gender-equal laws shape cultural norms, which in turn influence labor market outcomes. [Meunier et al \(2017\)](#) present evidence on a statistically significant correlation between greater legal gender disparities and low numbers of new female entrepreneurs with stronger negative impact on sole proprietors. [Gonzales et al. \(2015\)](#) show that restrictions on property, credit, and employment significantly limit women's economic opportunities.

WBL data also provides a crucial foundation for analyzing the impact of legal frameworks at the global, regional, and country levels. Research utilizing WBL data consistently shows that while legal reforms have played a significant role in reducing gender disparities, their

effectiveness varies based on political, social, and economic contexts. [Hyland et al. \(2021\)](#) illustrate this variation through case studies in the Democratic Republic of Congo, India, and Spain, showing that while Spain witnessed measurable progress, institutional weaknesses and cultural barriers limited the impact of reforms in India and the Democratic Republic of Congo. Similarly, [Goldin \(2023\)](#) highlights that legal progress in the United States in the 1960s and 1970s was essential in narrowing gender gaps, yet these reforms faced resistance and had uneven effects depending on marital status and employment type. Expanding on this, [Hyland, Islam, and Muzi \(2023\)](#) document how discriminatory labor laws in the Democratic Republic of Congo reinforce employer bias against women.

WBL data has also served as a basis for examining specific policy areas shaping women's economic outcomes. [Anukriti et al. \(2023\)](#) investigate the role of childcare laws in shaping labor market participation, finding that such legislation leads to a measurable increase in women's workforce engagement over time. Similarly, [Alonso-Almeida \(2014\)](#) identifies childcare provisions as a key determinant of women's workforce participation across occupational levels, emphasizing the importance of supportive family policies. [Ubfal \(2024\)](#) assesses the challenges faced by women entrepreneurs, showing that despite progress in legal access to business and finance, restrictions on credit and property rights remain pervasive. [Banerjee et al. \(2024\)](#) analyze social protection programs in developing countries, focusing on benefit distribution and targeting challenges in the informal sector. Using WBL data, they highlight gaps in parental benefits, including low maternity leave support and limited access for informal workers. [Neumayer and Plümper \(2021\)](#) find that restrictions on women's economic rights, such as limited property ownership, restricted access to financial resources, or barriers to employment, undermine their financial ability and personal decision-making power, making it harder for them to migrate compared to men from the same countries. [Htun et al. \(2019\)](#), using WBL data, find that restrictions on women's legal capacity are significant predictors of asset ownership and labor force participation, while discrimination in wage work and parental leave regulations are associated with both the size and direction of gender wage gaps. Finally, [Hyland and Sheng \(2022\)](#), drawing from WBL's longitudinal data on maternity and paternity leave in 190 countries over five decades, show that disparities in parental leave allocation, particularly limited leave for fathers, correlate with lower female labor market participation, even where maternal leave has expanded.

Another critical dimension explored through WBL data is the role of political and civil society engagement in driving institutional change. [Behr et al. \(2024\)](#) show that democratic governance and active civil society movements strongly correlate with legal advancements in gender equality. Their findings emphasize that women's rights organizations are particularly influential in securing key legal provisions, including maternity leave and

inheritance rights. Moreover, their study suggests that reforms are more successful when civil society activism works in tandem with democratic institutions, highlighting the importance of grassroots advocacy and legislative action. Similarly, [Kim \(2022\)](#) examines the impact of women's political representation, finding that female legislators are strongly associated with the advancement of more equitable laws. Their influence is most effective in countries with strong legislative authority and democratic governance. These findings stress the crucial role of institutional and civic support in translating legal reforms into meaningful social and economic progress.

5. Literature Review, by Topic

This section synthesizes regulatory and additional empirical evidence on how the domestic legal environment affects women's economic opportunities. To provide a structured analysis, the literature review follows the ten indicators outlined in [WBL \(2024\)](#): 1) Safety, 2) Mobility, 3) Work, 4) Pay, 5) Marriage, 6) Parenthood, 7) Childcare, 8) Entrepreneurship, 9) Assets, and 10) Pension.

The related literature was compiled using the methodology detailed in Section 3, and the findings are presented by indicator following the cycle of a woman's working life. For a summary of the evidence reviewed refer to Appendix A1, which presents a detailed overview of all the evidence included in this section.

5.1. Safety

This category includes four dimensions related to safety that affect women's outcomes, including if law addresses child marriage, sexual harassment, domestic violence and femicide.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks on child marriage*, [McGavock \(2021\)](#) evaluates Ethiopia's Revised Family Code of July 2000, finding significant reductions in the probability that marriages involved a girl under age 16, even isolating the effects of government and NGO interventions. However, the results also indicate a slight increase in the probability of marriage between 16 and 17, suggesting that some early marriages were delayed rather than prevented. [Rokicki \(2021\)](#), also analyzing Ethiopia's Revised Family Code, found reductions in adolescent birth, child marriage and sexual initiation before age 18. [Maswikwa et al. \(2015\)](#) analyzed the relationship between laws that consistently set the minimum age of marriage for girls at 18 or older and the prevalence of child marriage and teenage childbearing in Sub-Saharan Africa. The results

show that in 4 of the 12 countries studied, which had consistent legal protections and where laws set the minimum marriage age at 18, child marriage was 40% less common, as well as teenage childrearing (25%).

Additional evidence such as [Wilson \(2022\)](#) which estimates the impact of child marriage bans in 17 low- and middle-income countries, shows that raising the legal minimum age of marriage to 18 led to later marriages and first births, as well as higher chances of employment for women. [Tauseef and Deba \(2024\)](#) using data from Bangladesh find that delaying marriage is linked to greater women's agency, including increased mobility and autonomy over work and fertility decisions. These gains are largely driven by improvements in education and labor market outcomes associated with later marriage.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* on **sexual harassment**, using data from 141 countries, [Alonso-Almeida \(2014\)](#) finds that the elimination of restrictions in the workplace including laws that address sexual harassment can have a positive effect on women's labor force participation. [Blumell and Mulupi \(2023\)](#) in their analysis of 17 anti-sexual harassment policies across organizations in Botswana, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe, found no significant differences in the incidence or reporting of sexual harassment between organizations with policies and those without. A follow-up review of the policies revealed issues such as vague definitions, weak reporting mechanisms, and lack of monitoring systems.

Additional evidence such as [Folke and Rickne \(2022\)](#) shows how sexual harassment contributes to occupational gender segregation and wage inequality using United States nationally representative survey data alongside administrative records. Their findings show that harassment and wage levels vary systematically across workplaces with women reporting higher levels of harassment in male-dominated, higher-paying environments, while men report more harassment in female-dominated, lower-paying workplaces. [Au, Dong, and Tremblay \(2024\)](#) highlight the substantial economic costs of workplace sexual harassment, showing that such incidents significantly reduce firm value by eroding employee trust, productivity, and reputation. [McLaughlin, Uggen, and Blackstone \(2017\)](#) explore the career effects of sexual harassment in the United States, demonstrating that it leads to job loss, career interruptions, and long-term income penalties for women, further entrenching economic inequality. [Heymann et al. \(2023\)](#) provide a global analysis of progress in combating workplace sexual harassment, noting that while legal reforms and organizational policies have been implemented, enforcement and cultural change remain significant barriers to their effectiveness.

Regarding *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* on **domestic violence**, [Mendoza \(2024\)](#) examines the impact of intimate partner violence laws in Peru, finding that their implementation significantly decreased domestic violence rates. The study attributes these effects to increased legal protections and enhanced reporting mechanisms, which empowered women to seek help and deterred abusive behaviors. Similarly, [Gu, Li, and Peng \(2022\)](#) analyze China's 2016 Anti-Domestic Violence Law through a natural experiment, demonstrating that the legislation improved women's welfare by reducing the prevalence of domestic violence and increasing women's access to resources such as medical care and support services. *Additional evidence* analyzing the relationship between domestic violence and economic outcomes includes [Lima \(2003\)](#) who using data from Sao Paulo Brazil found that implementing the "La Maria da Penha" Law which criminalized domestic violence along with an increase in the number of police stations (and thus reducing the average minimum distance to a police station by 60%), led to a 2.7% increase in labor market participation among married women.

While domestic violence harms women's freedom and rights, femicides are its most extreme form, often occurring in close relationships where the abuse escalates into murder ([Zara and Gino, 2018](#)). Evidence on **femicide** highlights the intersection of legal frameworks, women's empowerment, and structural challenges in addressing gender-based violence. As for *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks*, [Moscoso \(2022\)](#) examines the case of Ecuador, revealing that the reform of the Ecuadorian penal law implemented in 2014 which increased the penalty for femicide, led to an initial increase in female homicides as a retaliation effect, likely driven by backlash from perpetrators. [Saccomano \(2017\)](#) explores femicide across Latin America, emphasizing that the persistence of high femicide rates stems from a combination of legal vacuums and deficits in the rule of law. The study argues that inconsistent enforcement and cultural resistance to gender equality limit the effectiveness of anti-femicide legislation. *Additional evidence* such as [Álvarez-Garavito \(2021\)](#) shows through microeconomic and game theory that the implementation of laws against domestic violence and femicide in Latin America and the Caribbean could reduce femicide rates by increasing the costs of crime perpetration and discouraging violent behavior against women.

5.2. Mobility

This category includes four dimensions related to mobility that affect women's outcomes, including if women are allowed to choose where to live, if they are allowed to travel internationally, if they are allowed to leave the marital home and travel domestically, and if women have equal rights to confer citizenship on their spouse and children.

No *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* could be identified related to the **ability of women in choosing where to live**; however, in terms of *additional evidence*, [Demirguc-Kunt et al \(2013\)](#) using data of 98 countries finds that in countries where women face legal restrictions in their ability to work, be head of household, choose where to live, and receive inheritance, there is less financial inclusion for women meaning they are less likely to own an account (relative to men), save, and borrow.

Evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks addressing women's ability to **travel internationally** could not be identified. As for *additional evidence*, [Shivakoti et al. \(2021\)](#) analyze migration bans in Indonesia, Nepal, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka, implemented as protective mechanisms for female domestic workers. Their findings reveal that these bans led to an increase in irregular migration, with women accepting lower wages and inferior working conditions as a result.

Evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks related to **leaving the marital home and traveling domestically** could not be found. As for *additional evidence*, [Tuccio and Wahba \(2015\)](#), using data from Jordan, analyzes the effect of return migrants from countries with discriminatory gender social norms related to women's mobility and decision making. They estimate that having a migrant returnee in the family exposed to these negative social norms while abroad reduced women's probability of being in the labor force by 11 percent.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* on women's rights to **confer citizenship to their children and spouse**, [Pant and Standing \(2011\)](#) discuss the consequences for women's unequal access to legal citizenship rights and the perception of women as second-class citizens affecting their ability to participate in the development process using the Nepali case as an example. They highlight that this restriction has negative effects on women's rights, autonomy, and socioeconomic opportunities by reinforcing patriarchal norms and restricting women's roles as equal citizens. In the same line, [De Silva-De Alwis \(2014\)](#) discusses the Egyptian Decree No. 1231 which grants Egyptian women married to Palestinians the right to pass on their Egyptian nationality to their children; however these children are not allowed to be part of the military or police or be appointed to government positions. They mention how

Egyptian women perceive that unequal citizenship laws denied access to basic rights such as education, work, and travel for their children. For Lebanon and Jordan, they discuss how women who marry non-nationals are unable to pass their citizenship onto their child or spouse which prevents them to access public services related to health, education and social security. No *additional evidence* could be identified.

5.3. Workplace

This category includes four dimensions related to workplace that affect women's outcomes, including if law allows women to get a job in the same way as a man, discrimination in recruitment based on marital status, parental status, and/or age, discrimination in employment based on gender, and if the law allows employees to request flexible work.

Anti-discrimination laws and regulations have had a transformative impact on women's labor market outcomes, particularly in addressing pay gaps. However, their impact might take time to materialize, as in many cases, these regulations need to reshape embedded societal norms. As [Goldin \(2023\)](#) demonstrate, the advancement of women in the labor market was driven not solely by legal implementations but by societal shifts in attitudes, educational attainment, and access to professional opportunities. Evidence from Colombia illustrates this interplay; constitutional guarantees of equality, anti-discrimination regulation, and institutional reforms such as political quotas, combined with increased female university enrollment and declining fertility rates, drove large gains in women's labor participation between 1960 and 2018 ([Iregui-Bohórquez et al., 2023](#)).

As for *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* that explicitly restrict a woman from getting a **job in the same way as a man**, no evidence could be found. However, *additional evidence*, such as [Birkelund et al. \(2022\)](#), shows through a harmonized cross-country field experiment on gender discrimination in hiring, covering six economies, that no systematic disadvantage against women in employers' callbacks, suggesting that employers do not uniformly discriminate against female applicants analyzing data within and across countries with different institutional characteristics.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* related to **discrimination in recruitment**, [Husu \(2010\)](#) analyzes Finland's gender equality law of 1987 and finds that it fails to provide appropriate sanctions to gender discrimination in current academic professor's recruitment process. [Nielsen \(2016\)](#) using Danish data also examines how department heads sometimes intentionally separate formal policies from actual hiring practices to reduce external constraints in hiring processes that ultimately contribute to

the underrepresentation of women in academia. [Van den Brink et al \(2010\)](#) also highlight, based on 971 professorial appointment reports in the Netherlands, that despite efforts to formalize and increase transparency in academic recruitment and selection, key elements of the process remain unclear. What is more, they mention that the presence of formal protocols and guidelines may reinforce gendered practices by providing a false sense of objectivity. *Additional evidence* such as [Duguet and Petit \(2005\)](#) finds through a controlled experiment, that age and family constraints affect the access to hiring interviews using data from the French financial sector. They found that the presence of children and the maternity expectations of the recruiters play an important role.

As for *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* related to **discrimination in employment based on gender**, [Bailey et al \(2024\)](#) show that federal legislation such as the 1963 Equal Pay Act and the 1964 Civil Rights Act in the United States counteracted preexisting market trends and led to gains in women's relative wages. However, they also present evidence that the implementation of these regulations reshaped the ways in which firms discriminated against women by reducing hiring and promotion of women in the medium and long run. [Di Giovan and Marcolin \(2025\)](#) analyzing the United States Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978 which was intended to stop employers from dismiss workers if pregnant, showed that this legislation had negative effects on the employment and hiring of women of fertile age. Using quasi-experimental estimation techniques, their results suggest that the law's limited ability to raise firing costs, combined with constraints from pre-existing equal pay legislation, may have restricted wage adjustments and amplified the negative effect.

Additional evidence shows negative outcomes for women as a consequence of discrimination at work. [Triana et al \(2019\)](#) through a literature review meta-analysis on the perception of discrimination at work found a negative association with job attitudes, health and physical outcomes, as well as with work-related outcomes. [Hackney et al \(2021\)](#) also found an indirect association between perceived pregnancy discrimination and increases in maternal stress, which is linked to higher postpartum depression and worse infant outcomes, such as lower birth weight and gestational age.

Another relevant aspect related to the workplace is the possibility to request **flexible work** arrangements such as flexible hours and remote work. Even though there is limited *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* addressing specifically flexible work affecting women's economic outcomes, [Kawaguchi \(2013\)](#) analyzes the effects of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act in Japan and how it affects work-life balance and its subsequent effect on women's labor market participation. Using company-level data, the study finds that the greater the number of child rearing support measures (which

include flexible working hours), the higher the rates of female retention. *Additional evidence* shows that flexible work poses positive impacts on labor market outcomes. [Bloom \(2024\)](#) applying a randomized control trial in a large Chinese multinational based in Shanghai found that working from home (WFH) did not affect employee's productivity; however, the experiment also revealed that women felt greater concerns about negative signaling by requesting WFH. Specifically for women, [Chung and van de Horst \(2017\)](#) present evidence using data from the United Kingdom, that flexible work can help women stay in employment after the birth of their first child. As [Goldin \(2014\)](#) highlights, changes are still required in the labor market to achieve gender convergence, especially related to how jobs are structured and remunerated to enhance temporal flexibility.

5.4. Pay

This category includes four dimensions related to pay that affect women's outcomes, including equal remuneration for work of equal value, if women are allowed to work at night, if they are allowed to work in a job deemed dangerous, and if women are allowed to work in different economic sectors (industrial jobs) in the same way as men. For the analysis, jobs deemed dangerous and industrial jobs were examined jointly.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* related to **equal remuneration for work of equal value**, [Bailey et al \(2024\)](#) show that legislation such as the 1963 Equal Pay Act and the 1964 Civil Rights Act in the United States contributed to the reduction of the gender wage gap over time. [Böheim and Gust \(2017\)](#) analyze the impact of 2011 Austria's gender pay transparency law and find that in larger firms, the wages of newly hired women increased more significantly than those of newly hired men following the reform. In a similar way, [Bennedsen et al \(2022\)](#) find that after a legislation change in Denmark requiring firms to present disaggregated wage statistics led to a reduction in the gender pay gap mostly by a deceleration of male wage growth.

Despite global progress towards equal pay, *additional evidence* indicates that gender pay gaps persist, with long-term implications for women's professional development and overall life. [Blau and Kahn \(2017\)](#) and [Goldin \(2014\)](#) point out that structural occupational segregation persist with unexplained wage gaps remain even within the same roles and industries, suggesting persistent gender biases in remuneration.

Regarding *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* related to **women being allowed to work at night**, [Kato and Kodama \(2017\)](#) found that deregulating overtime hours restrictions and night shifts for women through Amendments to the Labor Standards Act

(LSA) in Japan increased the proportion of female workers in the labor market. Similarly, [Zveglic and Rodgers \(2003\)](#) show that imposed restrictions on women's night work and overtime such as Taiwan, China's 1984 Labor Standards Law had a negative impact on women's actual hours worked and employment. [Gupta et al \(2025\)](#) using firm-level data to examine the effects of regulatory reforms that lifted restrictions on employing women at night in certain states in India found that the removal of the ban led to a significant increase in female employment in factories across the states that lifted the restrictions. The share of female workers rose by 3.5%, the total number of women employed increased by 13%, and the number of firms hiring at least one woman grew by 6.5%. They found no significant impact on male employment, indicating that firms expanded their workforce rather than replacing male workers with female workers.

Additional evidence such as [DeBeaumont and Nsiah \(2010\)](#) using the US National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1979 (NLSY79) shows that compensating wages differentials, such as night-shift premiums, are not fixed and are negatively related to the local area unemployment rate. The authors underscore that disadvantaged workers would have fewer opportunities to earn more. Under these circumstances, if night shifts are banned for women, this would make them especially sensitive to local labor market conditions.

As for *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* related to restricting the participation of women in **dangerous or industrial jobs**, [Orleans-Boham et al \(2020\)](#) for Ghana analyze a two-year ban on artisanal and small-scale mining. Their findings reveal that the financial stress caused by the ban led to increased migration out of their communities, with some children forced to discontinue their schooling and women's savings depletion.

Additional evidence such as [Baah-Boateng et al. \(2022\)](#) for Ghana emphasizes that restrictions on women's participation in extractive industries such as cultural beliefs, the physical nature of the extractive jobs, intimidating behavior of male workers on the job and patriarchy practices at the mining site, perpetuated wage gaps leading to missed opportunities for economic growth and skills development. [Buss et al. \(2019\)](#) using data from six artisanal and small-scale mining (ASM) sites in the Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda, and Uganda, show how the gendered organization of mining, combined with women's disproportionate household responsibilities and prevailing gender norms devalues and restricts women's participation in the sector. The authors highlight how women face systemic barriers to obtaining mining licenses, joining cooperatives, or participating in decision-making, largely due to male-dominated state and customary institutions.

5.5. Marriage

This category includes four dimensions related to marriage that affect women's outcomes, including the effects of legal provisions requiring a married women to obey her husband, whether women are allowed to be Head of Household in the same way as a man, the capacity of women to obtain a judgment of divorce in the same way as a man, and the rights of a woman to remarry.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* that addresses **women's obligation to obey their husbands**, [Htun et al. \(2019\)](#) explore the impact of gender-discriminatory laws on women's economic agency, showing that legal frameworks that limit women's autonomy, including those related to marriage, hinder their economic participation and decision-making power. [Hossain \(2013\)](#) examines the marriage-related laws for Muslim women in Bangladesh, emphasizing how laws that perpetuate patriarchal norms, such as the requirement for women to obey their husbands, contribute to gender inequality and limit women's financial independence.

As for *additional evidence*, [Htun and Weldon \(2015\)](#) reviews family law provisions in 70 countries to disentangle why some laws protect women's rights while others do not. They find a strong association between political institutionalization of religious authority and sex equality in family law. This suggests that economies with strong religious association reinforce male dominance and promote women's subordination and dependence in their legal frameworks.

In terms of whether women are **allowed to be Head of Household** in the same way as a man, there is scarce evidence addressing this topic specifically. However, [Posel \(2001\)](#) indicates that more control over household's decision-making is associated with those household members identified as "head of household". Therefore, laws and regulations that strengthen women's authority over household resources could increase women's chances of becoming head of household. In this line, *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* such as [Hallward-Driemeier and Gajigo \(2015\)](#) explores how the reform of Ethiopia's family law related to marital property rights, enabled women to make more independent occupational choices, fostering greater economic participation.

In terms of *additional evidence*, [Heath and Tan \(2020\)](#) examine intrahousehold bargaining and female autonomy in India, arguing that women's ability to control household resources through legal reforms boosts their labor supply and overall economic contribution. In the same vein, [Field et al. \(2016\)](#) suggest that enhancing women's

financial control through legal reforms positively affects their labor force participation in India.

As for *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* on the capacity of women to obtain a judgment of **divorce in the same way as a man**, [El Mekkaoui et al. \(2024\)](#), using data from Morocco, the Arab Republic of Egypt, and Jordan, analyze how the introduction of unilateral divorce laws affected women's labor outcomes. They found for Morocco that unilateral divorce laws (*Chikak*) improved women's bargaining power within the marriage; for Egypt, that women's employment increased after the *Khul* reform. For Jordan they found negative results over employment after an initial reform (*Iftida*). However, positive effects on women's employment were identified after an additional reform took place in 2010 which granted more options for women outside marriage. While the reforms initially led to modest increases in mothers' employment, longer-term effects varied across countries due to evolving social norms, labor market dynamics, and legal changes. [Corradini and Buccione \(2023\)](#) also analyzing the Egyptian *Khul* reform, found that the introduction of unilateral divorce reduced domestic violence and increased wives' bargaining power which ultimately led to higher children's education and lower probability of children between 15 to 24 working.

Additional evidence such as [Chiappori et al. \(2002\)](#) who expand a household labor supply model by including the role of divorce legislation as an intra-household distribution factor, shows that divorce laws favor intra-household transfers to wives. [Fernández and Wong \(2017\)](#) through a dynamic quantitative life-cycle model study the consequences of different divorce regimes using data from the United States. They find that unilateral divorce (one spouse being able to obtain a divorce without his or her partner's consent) had small impact on women's labor force participation; however, for women with lower income it was found that mutual consent divorce was preferable. In a similar vein, [Stevenson and Wolfers \(2006\)](#) also using data from state-level divorce laws in the United States, found that unilateral divorce laws led to significant declines in female suicide rates, domestic violence, and intimate partner homicide.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* related to **women's rights to remarry**, [Dasgupta and Mukherjee \(2006\)](#) analyze the failure of the Widow Remarriage Act of 1856 in colonial India, shedding light on the challenges widows faced in remarriage, even when legal provisions were made to protect their rights. [Baker, et al \(2004\)](#) examine the survivor remarriage penalties in the surviving spouse pensions of the Canadian Income Security system. They found that once the restrictions were removed the remarriage rate of the widows increased. In the same line, for the United States, [Brien](#)

[et al \(2004\)](#) analyzed how the Social Security rule that penalizes remarriage before age 60 affects the marriage patterns of widows. For Namibia, [Thomas \(2008\)](#) found that most Caprivi Region widows experience a decline in livelihood security, and a higher reliance on their children's economic support, this in spite that forcing widows off the land is prohibited. They also found that it is more socially acceptable for widowers to remarry than for widows.

5.6. Parenthood

This category includes four dimensions related to parenthood including the availability of paid leave for mothers, whether the leave benefits for mothers are financed exclusively by the government, whether fathers have access to paid leave, and whether the dismissal of pregnant workers is legally prohibited.

In terms of evidence on *legal and regulatory frameworks* on the **availability of paid leave for mothers**, [Stearns \(2018\)](#) demonstrates that reforms in Great Britain combining wage replacement and job protection increased maternal labor force participation in the long run (job protection increased the probability of being employed by 3.8 percentage points); however, taking paid maternity leave reduced the probability for women to get a management position or being promoted. [Dahl et al. \(2016\)](#) highlight that paid maternity leave in Norway allowed mothers to spend more time at home without reducing family income and did not crowd out unpaid leave, while [Bütikofer et al. \(2021\)](#) show its positive effects on maternal health, including lower postpartum depression rates.

Additional evidence such as [Goldin et al. \(2024\)](#), emphasizes the role of maternity leave in mitigating the parental pay gap in the United States, supporting women's labor supply over the life cycle. In Europe, [Piketty \(2003\)](#) notes that France's parental leave policies balance higher fertility rates with temporary reductions in women's workforce participation. [Dustmann and Schonberg \(2012\)](#) found that extending maternity leave (paid or unpaid) in Germany had no significant impact on children's long-term educational attainment or labor market outcomes. [Ekberg et al. \(2013\)](#) on the other hand, highlights Sweden's "Daddy-Month" reform as an example of how shared parental leave reduces caregiving disparities and increased fathers' uptake of parental leave in the short term.

Evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks related to **leave benefits for mothers financed exclusively by the government** includes the study by [Dahl et al \(2016\)](#), which examines six government-funded parental leave expansions in Norway between 1987

and 1992 and finds that these expansions increased the time mothers spent at home after childbirth without reducing family income or crowding out unpaid leave. However, the reforms had little impact on other outcomes and primarily resulted in longer periods of home care. However, the study also finds that the benefits were regressive, favoring higher-income families and those eligible for the program.

As for additional evidence [Goldin et al \(2020\)](#) analyze the provision of paid parental leave (PPL) in the United States firms and find that availability varies widely by industry, firm size, and levels of firm-specific training. Even the most generous U.S. firms offer fewer weeks of fully paid leave than the median OECD country. Firms that provide PPL tend to be larger, employ relatively younger workers, and often hire employees who invest in firm-specific skills before becoming parents. These findings underscore the importance of government-provided paid parental leave to ensure broader and more equitable access, particularly for workers in smaller firms or less supportive sectors. Studies from Colombia further show that while extending maternity leave can strengthen legal protections, it may also raise costs for women of childbearing age unless paired with cost-sharing mechanisms, childcare provision, and policies that encourage fathers' participation ([Tribin-Urbe et al., 2019](#)).

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks on **paid leave available to fathers***, [Dunatchik and Özcan \(2020\)](#) demonstrate that implementing daddy quotas in Quebec, Canada significantly reduced penalties for mothers by encouraging fathers to take parental leave, fostering greater equity in childcare and labor market outcomes. [Patnaik \(2019\)](#) analyzing the Quebec Parental Insurance Plan finds that reserving specific leave time for fathers leads to increased paternal involvement in caregiving; moreover, the study shows that an initial redistribution of parenting responsibilities due to fathers' leave, can have a lasting effect on how families allocate their time and resources to childcare, domestic work, and paid employment in the years that follow. In the same line, [Bartel \(2018\)](#) examines the impact of California's Paid Family Leave (CA-PFL) program, the first United States government-sponsored paid parental leave available to fathers. The study finds that, compared to the period before the program's implementation, fathers of newborns in California were 46 percent more likely to take leave when CA-PFL was accessible. [Tamm \(2019\)](#) shows that under Germany's 2007 new system of paid parental leave, fathers who took parental leave even during short periods were more involved in childcare and housework in the long-term. In Norway, [Cools et al. \(2015\)](#) provide causal evidence that the four-week paternal quota reform of 1993 which increased the total amount of leave (weeks that could only be taken by the father), led to a shift from maternal to paternal care at home improving children's school performance

suggesting long-term changes in household roles. However, the reform did not find significant impact on fathers' work hours or wages, nor did it increase mothers' labor market participation. [Castellanos-Serrano et al. \(2024\)](#) examine the introduction of paternity leave in Spain, revealing that when parental leave is equal, nontransferable, and fully paid, most fathers take the full leave regardless of socioeconomic status. In contrast, fathers rarely use transferable or unpaid leave, while mothers use a wider range of leave types.

Additional evidence such as [Hayter et al. \(2023\)](#) using data from California, New Jersey, New York and Rhode Island in the United States show that living in a state with paid parental leave increases the use of time off from work by 4.3% points during the child's first year, compared to women without young children in states that do not offer paid leave. The study also finds that the effect of paid leave on leave-taking increases with income.

Regarding *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* related to the **prohibition of dismissal of pregnant workers**, [Mukhopadhyay \(2012\)](#) analyzes the impact of the 1978 Pregnancy Discrimination Act (PDA) in the United States on married women's labor force participation. It finds that the law led to an 8.2 percentage point increase in labor force participation among pregnant women and a 3.4 percentage point increase among mothers with children under one year old.

As for *additional evidence*, [Bar-On Shmilovitch et al. \(2022\)](#) analyze pregnancy dismissal cases in Israeli labor courts, highlighting the pervasive challenges pregnant women face in retaining employment and the limited effectiveness of existing legal protections in preventing dismissals. Similarly, [Byron and Roscigno \(2014\)](#) explore pregnancy discrimination in Ohio, United States, demonstrating how relational power dynamics and organizational practices legitimize discriminatory behaviors against pregnant employees. Their findings suggest that pregnancy discrimination often leads to job loss, wage penalties, and long-term career setbacks for women.

5.7. Childcare

This category includes four dimensions of childcare services that affect women's outcomes, the provision of center-based childcare services, the financial support for families for childcare services, the support for nonstate childcare providers, and the quality standards for the provision of center-based childcare services.

As for *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks on the provision of center-based childcare services*, [Landivar et al \(2022\)](#) show a strong association between federally instituted Head Start federal program, which was legally instituted by the Head Start for School Readiness Act in the United States, and higher maternal employment. Accessibility to Head Start childcare centers mitigated the adverse effects of childcare costs, especially for less-educated mothers. *Additional evidence* aligns with these findings; [Ajayi et al \(2022\)](#) found in Burkina Faso through a randomized evaluation that providing affordable childcare improved women's psychological well-being and an increase in women's likelihood of saving. For children, they found improvement in both gross and fine motor skills.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks on financial support for families for childcare services*, [Havnes and Mogstad \(2011\)](#) analyzed the expansion of subsidized childcare in Norway through a reform in the 1970s and found little impact in maternal employment (0.06-percentage-point increase in maternal employment, implying that approximately 94% of the subsidized childcare replaced existing informal care arrangements), while [Baker et al \(2008\)](#) found significant positive effects of the Quebec Family Policy of 1997 which introduced universal child care subsidies leading to a 7.7 percentage point increase in employment. [Bettendorf, et al \(2015\)](#) and [Givord and Marbot \(2015\)](#) analyzed the Dutch and French childcares subsidies reforms and found 2.3 percentage points and between 1 and 2 percentage point rise in maternal labor force participation, respectively. [Prada et al \(2015\)](#) provide evidence on unintended negative consequences of mandated employer-provided childcare in Chile (Article 203 of the Labor Code), showing that women's starting salaries were penalized between 9 and 20 percent compared to those in the same firms prior to the childcare mandate. *Additional evidence* such as [Morrisey \(2017\)](#) shows through a literature review based on research evidence, that reductions in childcare costs and increases in childcare availability increases mothers' labor force participation. At the macroeconomic level, [Cicowiez et al. \(2023\)](#) develop a general equilibrium model calibrated for Colombia, showing that expanding access to affordable childcare such as through increased government spending on childcare services subsidy or an increase in public provision of childcare services not only raises women's labor force participation but also generates economywide productivity gains. This highlights that childcare legislation and investment can have both micro and macroeconomic benefits, reinforcing findings from country-level reforms.

Regarding *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* related to **support for nonstate childcare providers**, [Rojas et al \(2016\)](#) analyze the impact of the Article 203 of the Labor Code of Chile which obligates firms with 20 or more female employees to provide or finance childcare through nonstate centers. The results show that nearly all costs are shifted to workers (all groups of workers including fertile age females, non-fertile age females and males) through lower wages which reduces the intended benefit for mothers. As for *additional evidence*, [Connelly et al \(2004\)](#) uses data from the United States (given that several states give tax credits to employers for costs related to ESCCs), and shows by applying a contingent valuation method to simulate the value of employer-sponsored childcare centers (ESCC) to employees, that on-site childcare services, even when the price is the same as other childcare centers, generates substantial value for both parents. The authors suggest that stronger tax incentives could expand the availability of these centers.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* related to **quality of local childcare**, [Schobar and Spiess \(2015\)](#) find that higher-quality childcare services are positively associated with increased maternal labor force participation using data from East and West Germany. *Additional evidence* shows that enacting childcare laws improve female labor market participation, work hours and economic empowerment, though the effects vary in magnitude. Some examples are [Anukriti et al. \(2023\)](#) who using global data, finds that childcare laws, on average lead to a 2 percent increase in female labor force participation, with the effect rising to 4 percent within five years after the implementation. [O'Donnell et al. \(2022\)](#) found that in Indonesia, raising government expenditure on childcare to between 0.1 and 0.5 percent of GDP could boost GDP growth by up to 0.7 percentage point and increase women's employment by 25 percent points. As for children outcomes, [Bernal and Keane \(2011\)](#), [Bernal et al \(2019\)](#), [Felfe and Lalive \(2018\)](#) and [Drange and Havnes \(2019\)](#) show that formal center-based childcare prevents detrimental effects of informal childcare arrangements, or enhances children's outcomes especially among single-mother households. In addition, [Heckman et al. \(2013\)](#) and [Gormley et al. \(2018\)](#) provide evidence on long-term benefits of early childhood interventions, including higher educational attainment and improved adult outcomes.

5.8. Entrepreneurship

This category includes four dimensions of entrepreneurship that affect women's outcomes, including the capacity of women in undertaking entrepreneurial activities in

the same way as a man, discrimination in access to credit, gender quota in corporate boards, and gender-sensitive procurement provisions for public procurement processes.

As for *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks on the ability to undertake entrepreneurial activities*, [Darnihamedani and Terjesen \(2020\)](#) using data from 68 different countries analyze how regulatory efficiency (including business freedom, labor freedom understood as the regulatory framework of the labor market, and price stability) affects hiring growth ambition; their findings show that higher levels of labor freedom for men are related to better hiring growth prospects when compared to women. [Ashraf et al. \(2019\)](#) using data from industrial entrepreneurs in Zambia, shows that women are more likely to become entrepreneurs and start a business when they have both formal legal protection (proxied by the rule of law and equitable gender norms), and informal bargaining power. *Additional evidence* such as [Görg and Jäkel \(2024\)](#), found using data from Denmark, that newly female-led start-ups trade less with countries with higher levels of gender inequality compared to similar businesses founded by men. [Ubfal \(2024\)](#) and [Elefante et al. \(2023\)](#) also highlight based on worldwide empirical evidence that legal barriers reinforcing gender biases correlate negatively with women's employment and entrepreneurship.

In terms of **discrimination in access to credit**, *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* such as [Bentancor \(2022\)](#) shows that the Program "Crece Mujer Emprendedora" implemented in Chile in 2014 which aimed to facilitate access to credit to female entrepreneurs reduced gender gaps in financial inclusion by increasing the total number of loans granted to female entrepreneurs in around 13 percentage points. *Additional evidence* such as [Perrin and Hyland \(2023\)](#) demonstrates using global data, that legal gender equality is correlated with the use of financial services. [Bertrand and Perrin \(2022\)](#) also using global data, show that in countries where laws protect women from discrimination, there is a higher likelihood that women will request a credit especially for female-led businesses. In the same line, [Perrin and Weill \(2022\)](#) reveal that gender equality in access to credit contributes to financial stability.

As for **gender quotas in corporate boards** *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks*, [Wang and Kelan \(2012\)](#) examine how The Norwegian Gender Balance Law passed in December 2003, which required all public limited firms to have at least 40% of female participation, increased the likelihood of women being appointed to top leadership roles as board chairs or corporate CEOs. However, [Ahern and Dittmar \(2012\)](#) analyzing the same law, show that female representation on firms' boards of directors led to negative

consequences for firms due to increases in size and acquisitions but experiencing lower accounting returns. [Greene et al. \(2020\)](#) examine the effect of California Senate Bill No. 826 (the first mandated board gender diversity quota in the United States) and found an average negative market reaction following its enactment. However, they also found that firms significantly increase the number and share of female directors with 60 percent of the surveyed firms expanding their board size to accommodate new female directors. *Additional evidence* such as [Bertrand et al. \(2019\)](#) analyzes the relationship between corporate board quotas and female labor market outcomes using data from Norway, They find that the positions created due to board quotas were filled with more qualified women than previous boards, and activated networks of top business women leading to a reduction in the existing gender gap within boards.

Regarding *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks on **gender-sensitive provision in public procurement***, [Sarter \(2020\)](#) analyzes the development of regulatory policies relating to gender equality and public procurement in Germany between 1990 and 2016 and finds that the design of legal regulations is as important as their existence arguing that voluntary regulations may not lead to the inclusion of equality in public procurement. In this line, [Sarter and Thomson \(2020\)](#) explore the impact of the Scottish Business Pledge (SBP) which encouraged voluntary equality considerations in business practices. They found that even among those firms that signed up to the pledge, the potential benefits of getting public contracts did not provide enough incentives to adopt gender equality measures. *Additional evidence* also highlights the need for combined policies and regulations to take advantage of public procurement potential to promote gender equality. For example, [Williams \(2024\)](#) analyzes data from Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Rwanda, Ethiopia, the United States and the Dominican Republic to examine the relationship between women-own business and gender-responsive provision in public procurement finding that not only legal, but policy and cultural barriers limit women's participation in the procurement systems of the countries analyzed.

5.9. Assets

This category includes four different dimensions of property rights for women including equal property rights, inheritance rights for children, inheritance rights for surviving spouses, and the valuation of nonmonetary contributions in case of the dissolution of marriage.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks on equality in property rights*, [Peterman \(2011\)](#) using a 13 year longitudinal panel from rural Tanzania, examined how the Land Act and the Village Land Act of 1999 which shifted land administration to the village level granting land rights to women significantly improved the percentage of women working outside their homes (4 percentage points) and the percentage of self-employed women (6 percentage points). Similarly, [Ali and Deininger \(2024\)](#) find that the Lesotho Land Administration Reform Project (LARP)³ 2008-2013 which mandated joint registration of land owned under the community of property, facilitated women's access to credit by using these lands as collateral. In Ethiopia, [Hallward-Driemeier and Gajigo \(2015\)](#) analyzing Ethiopia's new Revised Family Code of 2000 which introduced mutual consent in the administration of marital property, removed spousal restriction on wife's employment outside the home, and raising the minimum marriage age for women increased women's labor market participation.

Additional evidence aligns with these findings, given that in many countries, inheritance is one of the main channels for women to obtain and control property ([Harari, 2019](#)). [Meinzen-Dick et al. \(2019\)](#) provides a systematic review of women's land rights and its relationship with poverty reduction, highlighting that women's land rights could reduce poverty, increase women's bargaining power and decision-making on human capital investments and intergenerational transfers improving the wellbeing of women and their families. In the same vein, [Sheldon and Kaminaga \(2023\)](#), and [Schling et al. \(2003\)](#) show that granting women formal land registration and cash grants to proceed with land registration would enhance productivity, economic empowerment, as well as household wellbeing. Analyzing informal land registrations, [Schling and Pazo \(2024\)](#), find for Peru no significant effects on women's empowerment in areas such as production, income, or access to credit. However, they do report that informal registration is associated with reduced time women spend on agricultural labor, increased crop diversification, and a 20-percentage-point rise in the likelihood of household food security.

As for **inheritance rights for children**, *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* such as Deininger et al ([2013](#) and [2019](#)) which analyzed three generations of inheritance patterns after the 1986 and 1994 amendments of the 1956 Hindu Succession Act in India which granted daughters the same status as sons, and prohibited the removal of a woman's share in joint family property by will, found an increase in women's likelihood to

³ The legal reforms centered on two land acts, the Land Act and the Land Administration Authority (LAA) Act both passed in 2010 (Ali and Deininger, 2024).

inherit, an increase in girls' primary education completion (between 8 to 13 percent for first generation effects), as well as effects over women's reproductive choices. [Ajefu, et al \(2021\)](#) found that the Hindu Succession (Amendment) Act of 2005 which improved women's inheritance rights positively impacted children's health and reduced the likelihood of nutritional deficiencies. [Harari \(2019\)](#) for Kenya, found that a statutory law reform (Law of Succession Act of 1981) and subsequent amendments granting women equal inheritance rights improved women's human capital accumulation, reduced the prevalence of genital mutilation, and influenced their reproductive choices. No additional evidence could be located.

In terms of *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* addressing the impact of granting **survivor inheritance rights to women**, [Peterman \(2012\)](#) highlights how widowhood and asset inheritance laws affect women's economic security in fifteen countries of Sub-Saharan Africa, showing that inheritance rights impact women's access to resources and through this, households' long-run welfare. [Becker \(2024\)](#) provides an overview of survivors' benefits schemes in Europe along with case studies; however, it does not assess the effects of these rights on any quantifiable outcomes. [Hanemann and Rausch \(2020\)](#) analyze the survivor pension system in Europe to examine the effect of widowhood on the financial situation of the surviving partner and finds that, on average, widows have 10.1 percent higher household incomes to those not receiving survivor pensions with most of the receiving survivors being women. No additional evidence could be located.

As for *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* assessing the valuation of **nonmonetary contributions** in case of the dissolution of marriage, no study addressing a specific law or reregulation could be located; however, *additional evidence* such as [Hersch and Shinall \(2019\)](#) which is based on a vignette experiment applied to over 3,000 people in the United States on how individuals distribute assets upon divorce, shows that nonmonetary contributions, such as homemaking and childcare, are consistently undervalued in asset division upon divorce, awarding less than half of the marital assets to those wives who opt out of the labor force. [Wong \(2023\)](#) through a non-cooperative household model, analyze spousal behavior to understand how homemaking contributions affect wives' behavior when dividing property at divorce. Its findings show that wives perform more housework and participate less in the labor market.

5.10. Pension

This category includes the following dimensions related to pensions that affect women's outcomes, including full pension benefits, partial pension benefits, the mandatory retirement age, and if the period of absence due to childcare is accounted for in the calculation of pension benefits. For the purposes of this analysis, full and partial pension benefits are analyzed together.

Regarding *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* on the ages at which a woman and a man can retire with **pension benefits (full and partial)**, [Cribb and Emmerson \(2019\)](#) analyze the effects of raising the female early retirement age in the UK, finding that while the policy increased labor market participation among older women, it also increased income poverty and deprivation for those unable to work longer. [Hanel and Riphon \(2012\)](#) analyze the 1991 reform of the Swiss mandatory retirement insurance which increased the normal retirement age for women from 62 to 64, as well as the possibility of early retirement at the expense of a benefit discount. Their results show that after the reform, women retiring at 62 faced benefit cuts of 3.4%, later increasing to 6.8%. The change in retirement age significantly influenced both the contribution period and the length of benefit payments.

Additional evidence such as [Bernasek and Shwiff \(2001\)](#) suggests that in a scenario where social security is privatized, women's retirement well-being would rely more heavily on their risk preferences and the resulting investment decisions. Their findings show that gender influences how individuals invest in defined contribution pension plans, with women allocating a smaller share of their portfolios to stocks than men. Based on this risk-averse behavior, even if the statutory retirement age is equal for men and women, women may still be economically disadvantaged due to their more conservative investment strategies and other labor market factors.

As for *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* on **mandatory retirement age**, [Della Giusta and Longhi \(2021\)](#) demonstrate that changes to the state pension age in the UK disproportionately affected women and their partners, exacerbating financial strain and gender inequalities in retirement preparedness. [Peinado \(2014\)](#), examining Spain's 2011 pension reforms, reveals how gendered dynamics in employment histories and caregiving responsibilities disadvantage women, making them more vulnerable to income insecurity in old age. [Rabaté \(2019\)](#) examines the effects of mandatory retirement policies in France, showing that partial pension schemes can encourage older workers to remain in the workforce by offering flexible retirement options. This approach not only prolongs labor force participation but also reduces income insecurity for retirees. Similarly, [Martins et al. \(2009\)](#) analyze the impact of raising the legal retirement

age in Portugal, finding that such policies influence wages, worker flows, and firm performance, with partial pension arrangements providing a smoother adjustment for both employees and employers. [Staubli and Zweimüller \(2013\)](#) analyze two pension reforms in Austria that raised the early retirement age from 60 to 62 for men and from 55 to 58.25 for women. They find that these reforms increased employment by 9.75 percentage points among men and by 11 percentage points among women, with larger effects observed for high-wage and healthy workers. However, low-wage and less healthy individuals, particularly women, were more likely to rely on unemployment benefits or early retirement via disability claims. Similarly, [Atalay and Barrett \(2015\)](#) examine the 1993 Australian Age Pension reform, which progressively increased the eligibility age for women from 60 to 65 years. The reform reduced retirement probabilities by 12 to 19 percentage points but also led to significant program substitution, with many women enrolling in disability support pensions as an alternative income source. However, [Morris \(2022\)](#) shows that estimates made by [Atalay and Barret \(2015\)](#) who initially showed that Australian reform in 1994 that gradually raised women's eligibility age, increased labor force participation, do not hold after controlling for cohort trends, highlighting the importance of proper methodology in evaluating phased-in reforms.

Additional evidence such as [Rabaté et al. \(2024\)](#) shows that increasing the statutory retirement age (SRA) in the Netherlands reduced the share of individuals in retirement between the previous SRA (65 years in 2012) and the new SRA (66 years and 4 months in 2019) by 60 percentage points and increased the employment participation rate in 21 percentage points.

As for *evidence on legal and regulatory frameworks* on how **periods of absence due to childcare are accounted for in the calculation of pension benefits**, [Frericks et al \(2008\)](#) analyze the pension systems of Germany and France, both of which have introduced care credits to account for caregiving periods. Their findings show that while future pension benefits are expected to decline for both men and women, women may partially offset these reductions through increasing labor market participation and the inclusion of care credits. However, while care credits may help women meet the required insurance periods, they do not address the deeper structural inequalities rooted in both countries' pension systems, which are tied to wage histories that remain gendered.

Additional evidence such as [Kingsbury \(2019\)](#) examines the motherhood penalty in the Russian Federation, demonstrating how gaps in family policies, such as insufficient care credits, contribute to significant disparities in old-age earnings. Women who take time off from paid employment for caregiving often accumulate fewer pension benefits, leaving them vulnerable to financial insecurity in later life. [Lis and Bonthuis \(2019\)](#), using

data from the European Survey of Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC) and the OECD Pension Model, show using data from Europe, that the gender gap in pensions is heavily driven by interruptions in women's careers for caregiving. They emphasize that care credit schemes, which compensate for these interruptions, play a crucial role in reducing gender disparities in pension benefits and ensuring fairer economic outcomes for women.

6. Conclusions and Policy Discussion

This paper proposes a review of existing literature investigating the role of gendered laws on women's access to economic opportunities. Overall, the literature reviewed shows the importance of law, mediating women's interactions with the economy, and how legal gender reforms are central to addressing structural inequalities that limit women's contributions to economic and societal development.

In general, regulatory and empirical evidence shows that removing discriminatory legal barriers enhances female labor force participation, improves income levels, and contributes to overall economic growth. Studies examining reforms in property rights, pay equity, and parental leave policies consistently demonstrate that these changes enable women to achieve greater economic autonomy and challenge entrenched social norms. However, the effectiveness and impact of such reforms often depend heavily on regional contexts and the capacity of institutional frameworks to support them. In particular, the interplay between formal laws and informal institutions plays a critical role in determining outcomes. Informal institutions, such as social norms, cultural practices, and unwritten rules can either complement or hinder the implementation of legal reforms, depending on the degree to which laws are enforced and accepted within a society. Evidence from Colombia underscores this: constitutional equality provisions and quota laws only translated into higher female labor participation when reinforced by shifts in education, fertility, and social norms ([Iregui-Bohórquez et al., 2024](#)).

In regions where law enforcement is weak or inconsistent, informal institutions often take precedence over formal frameworks, effectively shaping the lived experiences of women and influencing the extent to which reforms achieve their intended goals. For instance, even when laws are designed to promote gender equality, entrenched cultural norms and social practices may limit their effectiveness by perpetuating discriminatory behaviors and attitudes. Conversely, in contexts where institutional frameworks are strong and

enforcement mechanisms are effective, formal laws are more likely to override informal constraints, creating an environment where women can fully benefit from their legal rights.

The interaction between informal institutions and formal laws can create unintended consequences. In some cases, weak enforcement results in a gap between *de jure* (legal) and *de facto* (actual) rights, such that women formally hold legal protections but remain unable to exercise them because of societal resistance, logistical constraints, and widespread informality that restricts practical access. On the other hand, reforms that actively consider and address informal institutions for example, by engaging community leaders or fostering public awareness campaigns, may be more successful in aligning societal norms with the legal framework, thereby amplifying the positive impact of the reforms.

Despite progress in the literature, important research gaps persist, particularly regarding women's legal mobility, such as their ability to choose where to live when married, confer citizenship to their spouse or children, or travel freely both nationally and internationally. These restrictions may have significant implications for women's autonomy, migration decisions, and broader life outcomes, yet remain largely understudied. Also, the topic of pensions remains critically under-researched, despite its central importance in ensuring women's long-term financial security. Existing studies highlight that women are disproportionately affected by pension reforms due to interrupted career trajectories and caregiving responsibilities, leaving them more vulnerable to poverty in old age. However, systematic analyses of policies such as care credits, which aim to reduce gender disparities in pensions by compensating for unpaid caregiving, remain scarce. There is also limited comparative research across countries on how pension reforms interact with diverse cultural and economic contexts, further restricting the ability to identify and implement best practices.

Research on childcare policies, although recognized as essential to women's workforce participation, also exhibits significant gaps. While studies consistently show that affordable and accessible childcare facilitates labor market entry for women, less is known about the comparative effectiveness of different policy designs, such as center-based childcare, family subsidies, or employer-provided childcare. For instance, Recent policy simulations for Colombia confirm this: expanding public childcare significantly increases women's market participation, while cash transfers risk reinforcing unpaid care burdens ([Cicowiez et al, 2023](#)). Nevertheless, [Prada et al \(2015\)](#) highlighted how childcare mandates in Chile, while well-intentioned, led to reductions in women's starting salaries, suggesting the need for more careful policy design. Further investigation is also needed into how childcare

policies intersect with informal labor markets and cultural norms, which may prevent women from benefiting fully from such measures.

The domain of safety, encompassing laws on domestic violence, sexual harassment, child marriage, and femicide, requires more robust investigation to understand both successes and persistent challenges. While some studies, such as [Mendoza \(2024\)](#), have demonstrated the positive impacts of domestic violence legislation in Peru, the effectiveness of these laws often hinges on enforcement capacity, which remains weak in many countries. Furthermore, retaliation effects, such as increased femicide rates observed in certain regions following reforms, remain insufficiently studied. [Moscoso \(2022\)](#) documented how anti-femicide laws in Ecuador initially provoked backlash, resulting in higher rates of gender-based killings. These unintended consequences highlight the importance of comprehensive enforcement mechanisms and complementary policies, and the need for research that explores how to mitigate these risks. Additionally, there is a lack of evidence on how safety reforms address intersectional vulnerabilities, particularly for marginalized women who face heightened risks due to socio-economic or racial factors.

A key gap across all domains is the limited focus on how legal reforms impact women at the intersection of gender, race, ethnicity, and socio-economic status. Most studies assess average outcomes, failing to account for the compounded barriers faced by marginalized groups. For example, women from rural or minority communities may experience systemic discrimination, lack awareness of their rights, or face logistical challenges in accessing legal protections. Similarly, the interaction between legal reforms and informal institutions, such as patriarchal norms or religious practices, is rarely addressed in detail. This oversight restricts the development of inclusive legal frameworks that consider the unique challenges of these groups.

This literature review adopted an interdisciplinary approach, drawing from economics, sociology, and law. It aimed to provide a comprehensive understanding of gendered barriers and the interaction between formal legal reforms and other institutional factors. However, this review is not exhaustive, as it does not cover all possible dimensions of gendered laws or fully explore intersectional challenges faced by marginalized groups, such as rural, ethnic minority, or low-income women.

The main policy takeaway from this paper is the following. Effective reforms require both well-designed laws and robust enforcement mechanisms, and complementary policies to address informal institutional barriers. For example, in regions where social norms hinder women's access to rights, public awareness campaigns and community engagement can

play a crucial role in shifting attitudes and fostering acceptance of legal changes. Policies must also address intersectional vulnerabilities, ensuring that reforms benefit marginalized groups, such as women in rural or minority communities, who often face compounded barriers. Additionally, tailoring interventions to local economic and institutional realities, such as informal labor markets or weak legal enforcement, is essential to ensure reforms achieve their intended outcomes.

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Appendix A1

Overview of Evidence: Legal and Regulatory Frameworks and Women’s Economic Opportunities

Table A1.1 provides a summary of the reviewed evidence classified by topic and subtopic.⁴ All documents comply with the inclusion/exclusion criteria described in Section 3 and were selected based on their relevance for the topic and subtopic legal framework, methodological rigor, journal reputation where published, and latest data available used.

Note: Each reference includes the Output/Outcome (O) under analysis, as well as the Country/Region (C/R) of the data.

Table A1.1 Empirical evidence on legal environment affecting women’s economic opportunities

1. Topic: Safety

Sub-Topic	References	Main results
1.1 Child Marriage <i>Does the law address child marriage?</i>	Maswikwa et al. (2015) O: Adolescent births C/R: Sub-Saharan Africa (12 countries)	Countries with consistent minimum marriage age laws (18+) experienced a 40% lower prevalence of child marriage and a 25% reduction in adolescent births, reinforcing the importance of coherent legal frameworks in protecting girls from exploitation.
	McGavock (2021) O: Marriage and fertility C/R: Ethiopia	Raising the minimum marriage age from 15 to 18 in Ethiopia delayed marriages for girls under 16 by 17%, leading to delayed fertility and potential reductions in lifetime fertility. Ethnic norms resistant to early marriage showed weaker effects.
	Rokicki (2021) E/I: Adolescent reproductive health C/R: Ethiopia	Ethiopia's Revised Family Code reduced adolescent births by 9% and child marriage by 8%, with significant reductions in sexual initiation before 18. The law had no effects on contraception or neonatal mortality, emphasizing the importance of comprehensive gender equality frameworks.
	Tauseef and Deba (2024) O: Women’s agency and decision making C/R: Bangladesh	Delayed marriages result in significantly higher empowerment scores and a greater likelihood of being empowered, largely due to increased chances of achieving adequacy in key dimensions such as autonomy in agricultural production, control over income, ownership and rights over assets, and confidence in speaking publicly.

⁴ Described in [WBL\(2024\)](#) as the components of each indicator’s legal framework.

	<p>Wilson (2022) O: Educational attainment and employment C/R: Low- and middle-income countries</p>	<p>Low- and middle-income countries that raised the minimum legal age of marriage to 18 between 1995 and 2012, saw increases in women’s age at marriage, age at first birth, and likelihood of employment. The effects were strongest in urban areas, where the bans also reduced child marriage and improved educational attainment, while impacts were weaker in rural settings and where enforcement was limited.</p>
<p>1.2 Sexual Harassment</p> <p><i>Does the law address sexual harassment?</i></p>	<p>Alonso-Almeida (2014) O: Participation in non-agricultural paid work C/R: Worldwide</p>	<p>The study examines whether non-discrimination laws positively affect women’s labor force participation and does not reject this hypothesis. The findings show that such laws are associated with higher levels of women’s employment, though the effect is concentrated in the formal labor market (non-agricultural paid work).</p>
	<p>Au, Dong, and Tremblay (2024) O: Firm value / profitability C/R: United States</p>	<p>Workplace sexual harassment significantly reduces firm value and profitability. Firms with high harassment scores see a 17% drop in stock performance and long-term labor costs increase, highlighting both economic and reputational damage to firms.</p>
	<p>Blumell and Mulupi (2023) O: Experienced sexual harassment (physical, verbal or witnessed) C/R: Botswana, Kenya, Malawi, Rwanda, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe</p>	<p>Anti–sexual harassment policy implementation was examined qualitatively. The policies analyzed did not reduce the likelihood of experiencing harassment. Few incidents were reported, and the presence of a policy did not increase reporting. Underreporting was largely driven by fear of retaliation, disbelief, and job-related consequences, with substantial variation in how these policies are defined and implemented across countries.</p>
	<p>Folke and Rickne (2022) O: Individual welfare costs C/R: Sweden</p>	<p>Sexual harassment in the workplace imposes substantial welfare costs on individuals, with some groups bearing a heavier burden than others. Those belonging to the higher-risk gender experience roughly twice the welfare loss from harassment compared to their gender-majority colleagues.</p>
	<p>Heymann et al. (2023) O: Legal protections against sexual harassment C/R: Worldwide (192 countries)</p>	<p>Exploratory analysis shows progress in legal protections trends against sexual harassment. Between 2016 and 2021, the number of countries without prohibitions fell from 63 to 50, while those explicitly covering sexual orientation rose from 31 to 39 and gender identity from 15 to 24. Addressing these policy gaps and ensuring enforcement of anti-harassment laws is essential for promoting gender equality at work.</p>

	<p>McLaughlin, Uggen, and Blackstone (2017) O: Economic and career disruption C/R: United States</p>	Sexual harassment disrupts women's careers, leading to job changes, financial stress, and reduced career attainment. Women often leave their jobs to escape harassment, resulting in long-term negative effects on career and income stability.
<p>1.3 Domestic Violence <i>Does the law address domestic violence?</i></p>	<p>Gu, Li, and Peng (2022) O: Life satisfaction of married women C/R: China</p>	China's Anti-Domestic Violence Law increased life satisfaction among women, particularly those with higher salaries and education, through enhanced health, self-confidence, and bargaining power, as well as improved social status and economic outcomes like promotions and higher salaries.
	<p>Lima (2003) O: Women's labor market participation C/R: Brazil</p>	Granting police officers, the authority to remove offenders or make on-the-spot arrests in domestic violence cases increased women's bargaining power, particularly for those living closer to a police station. A 60% reduction in the average distance to a station raised married women's labor force participation by about 2.6%, even after accounting for demographic and policy factors.
	<p>Mendoza (2024) O: Intimate Partner Violence (IPV) attempted femicide and sexual assaults C/R: Peru</p>	The implementation of Law No. 30364 reduced IPV, including attempted femicide and sexual assault, by 3–5 percentage points. The presence of a Women Justice Center (institutions that facilitates IPV report and attention to victims) led to the reduction of less severe marital conflicts.
<p>1.4 Femicide <i>Does the law address femicide?</i></p>	<p>Álvarez-Garavito (2021) O: Theoretical analysis (formal economic models) C/R: Latin America</p>	Formal economic models support the notion that offenders respond to incentives; punishment and law enforcement might prevent specific crimes, including IPV and femicide. Then, for femicide legislation to effectively deter offenders, governments must address impunity not only for femicide but for all forms of violence against women. Strengthening enforcement increases the perceived likelihood of punishment, which can discourage potential perpetrators.
	<p>Moscoso (2022) O: Female homicide and gender-violence rates C/R: Ecuador</p>	Strengthening penalties for femicide in Ecuador temporarily increased gender violence rates in municipalities with strong law enforcement and women's empowerment, suggesting a retaliation effect. Highlights the need for complementary measures to prevent backlash.
	<p>Saccomano (2017) O: Femicide rate C/R: Latin America</p>	While many Latin American countries criminalized feminicide, the lack of rule of law, corruption and female representation in parliaments emerged as significant factors affecting femicide rates.
	<p>Zara and Gino (2018) O: Number of women killed by violence</p>	Most victims were not indiscriminate and accidental target of violence. Femicide should not be viewed solely as a product of cultural violence but rather as an outcome of intimate partner violence

	C/R: Turin, Italy	rooted in dysfunctional and destructive relationships. It emphasizes that understanding femicide requires recognizing the relational dynamics between victims and perpetrators.
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2. Topic: Mobility

Sub-Topic	References	Main results
2.1 Choose where to live <i>Can a woman choose where to live in the same way as a man?</i>	Demirguc-Kunt et al (2013) O: Usage of financial services C/R: 98 developing countries	Countries where women face legal restrictions in their ability to work, being head of household, <u>choose where to live</u> , and receive inheritance, there is less financial inclusion for women meaning they are less likely than men to own bank accounts, save money or access credit.
2.2 Travel internationally <i>Can a woman travel internationally in the same way as a man?</i>	Shivakoti et al. (2021) O: Recruitment of workers across countries C/R: Indonesia, Nepal, the Philippines and Sri Lanka	Comparative analysis. When origin countries impose migration bans to protect workers, such as banning women domestic workers from migrating overseas, destination countries typically respond by recruiting from other nations willing to accept poorer conditions rather than improving protections. This dynamic weakens the bargaining power of sending countries to negotiate fair labor standards for their migrant workers.
2.3 Travel outside their home <i>Can a woman travel outside her home in the same way as a man?</i>	Tuccio and Wahba (2015) O: Female labor force participation, education and fertility C/R: Jordan	Women in households with return migrants are more likely to adopt discriminatory gender norms compared to those in non-migrant households, even after accounting for selection effects. This effect is primarily driven by returnees from conservative countries. Having a returnee in the family lowers women's labor force participation by 11 percent, increases six times the likelihood that daughters drop out of school for traditional reasons, and is associated with wives having, on average, one more child than those of non-migrants.
2.4 Citizenship <i>Do a woman and a man have equal rights to confer citizenship on their spouses and their children?</i>	Pant and Standing (2011) O: Opinions and perceptions about women's citizenship rights C/R: Nepal	Research based on fieldwork, interviews, and focus groups with marginalized women and NGO workers to explore how participatory approaches can help advance women's citizenship rights in Nepal. Although legal reforms expanding these rights can enhance women's autonomy and decision-making across public and private levels, such reforms will have limited impact without women's active grassroots engagement and a broader restructuring of gender relations in society.
	De Silva-De Alwis (2014)	Discussion of four important pillars of women's voice and agency using country examples. Egyptian women perceive that unequal citizenship laws denied access to basic rights such as education, work,

	O: Access to education, work, and travel. C/R: Arab Republic of Egypt, Lebanon, Jordan	and travel for their children. For Lebanon and Jordan, they discuss how women who marry non-nationals are unable to pass their citizenship onto their child or spouse which prevents them to access public services related to health, education and social security.
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3. Topic: Workplace

Sub-Topic	References	Main results
3.1 Get a job in the same way as a man <i>Can a woman get a job in the same way as a man?</i>	Birkelund et al. (2022) O: Employer callback C/R: Germany, Netherlands, Norway, Spain, United Kingdom, United States	Field experimental data. No evidence of hiring discrimination (differences in employer callback) against women in any occupation despite institutional, economic, and cultural differences among countries.
3.2 Discrimination in recruitment <i>Does the law explicitly prohibit discrimination in recruitment based on marital status, parental status, and age?</i>	Duguet and Petit (2005) O: Probability of accessing hiring interviews C/R: France	Controlled experiment in French financial sector. Age and family constraints affect the access to hiring interviews. Highly qualified childless women aged 25 have a lower probability of being invited to interviews compared to similar men. However, by age 37, this inequality reverses, and women are more likely to be invited than men. The increasing success of women with age may be linked to employers' perceptions of a lower probability of maternity.
	Husu (2010) O: Academia recruitment C/R: Finland	Although Finland's Act on Equality between Women and Men and the Non-Discrimination Act prohibit gender bias, institutional gender equality plans alone have not ensured fair or gender-neutral practices in recruitment or academic career advancement. The study highlights that the practice of appointing professors through invitations rather than open competitions tends to disadvantage women.
	Nielsen (2016) O: Academic vacancies C/R: Denmark	Despite formal recruitment procedures, the study analyzes how informal and gendered network ties shape academic hiring in Denmark. Discussion on evidence of closed or single-applicant vacancies and managers' reliance on practices that undermine meritocratic ideals and reinforce women's underrepresentation.
	Van den Brink et al (2010) O: Academic recruitment and selection C/R: Netherlands	Qualitative content analysis of seven recruitment and selection protocols, interviews with 64 committee members, and an analysis of 971 appointment reports of full professors in the Netherlands. The study finds that recruitment and selection for full professorships lack transparency

		and accountability and are influenced by micropolitical dynamics. These overlapping gendered practices both advance and hinder gender equality efforts in academia.
3.3 Discrimination in employment based on gender <i>Does the law prohibit discrimination in employment based on gender?</i>	Bailey et al (2024) O: Female employment and wages C/R: United States	Federal antidiscrimination legislation such as the Equal Pay Act, had larger effects on sex discrimination in the 1960s than previously understood. Women’s weekly wages rose by about 10% in jobs with an average gender gap, with gains concentrated among those in the lower half of the wage distribution. However, the legislation had little effect on median wages or overall employment, and over time, some firms responded by reducing women’s hiring or reclassifying them into lower-paying roles. Also in: 4.1 Equal remuneration for a work of equal value
	Di Giovan and Marcolin (2025) O: Employment and wages C/R: United States	The Pregnancy Discrimination Act (PDA) led to a reduction in the likelihood of employment by 4.6 percentage points of fertile-age women, and a 3.6% relative decrease in the average hourly wage of fertile-age women compared to those in switcher states prior to 1979.
	Hackney et al (2021) O: Mother stress C/R: United States	Analysis of perceived pregnancy discrimination and its correlation with health outcomes of new mothers and their babies. Women who perceived pregnancy discrimination are more likely to suffer from postpartum depressive symptoms and their babies to have decreased birth weight and gestational age, and increased doctors’ visits.
	Triana et al (2019) O: Job attitudes, physical and psychological health. C/R: Meta-analysis	Analysis on correlations between perceived workplace gender discrimination and physical health outcomes and behaviors. were stronger in countries with more broadly integrated labor policies and stringently enforced labor practices focused on promoting gender equality. Correlations were also stronger in countries with more gender-egalitarian cultural practices across multiple employee outcomes of perceived workplace gender discrimination.
3.4 Flexible work <i>Does the law allow employees to request flexible work?</i>	Bloom (2024) O: Job satisfaction and quit rates C/R: China	Hybrid work arrangements increased job satisfaction and reduced quit rates by one-third, particularly among women, non-managers, and employees with long commutes. However, hybrid work had no effect on performance, promotions, or productivity over the following two years.
	Chung and van de Horst (2017) O: Unpaid overtime hours C/R: United Kingdom	Flexible work arrangements such as flextime and teleworking do not significantly increase unpaid overtime. However, when workers have control over their working schedules, they are likely to increase their unpaid overtime hours particularly among professional men, childless women, and part-time working mothers.
	Goldin (2014) O: Gender pay gap C/R: United Staes	The gender pay gap persists because many occupations reward long, continuous, and time-specific hours, creating a nonlinear relationship between hours worked and earnings. In these jobs, which are especially in corporate, financial, and legal sectors, flexibility carries a high cost, as explained by a compensating differentials framework linking wage differences to the price of temporal flexibility.

		Also in: 4.1 Equal remuneration for a work of equal value
	Kawaguchi (2013) O: Female labor force participation C/R: Japan	Companies that more effectively implement work–life balance measures, including greater flexibility, show higher levels of female employee retention.

4. Topic: Pay

Sub-Topic	References	Main results
4.1 Equal remuneration for a work of equal value <i>Does the law mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value?</i>	Bailey et al (2024) O: Female employment and wages C/R: United States	Federal antidiscrimination legislation such as the Equal Pay Act, had larger effects on sex discrimination in the 1960s than previously understood. Women’s weekly wages rose by about 10% in jobs with an average gender gap, with gains concentrated among those in the lower half of the wage distribution. However, the legislation had little effect on median wages or overall employment, and over time, some firms responded by reducing women’s hiring or reclassifying them into lower-paying roles. Also in: 3.3 Discrimination in employment based on gender
	Bennedsen et al (2022) O: Gender pay gap C/R: Denmark	Wage transparency laws reduce the gender pay gap by about two percentage points (13 percent relative to pre-legislation levels), mainly by slowing wage growth among male employees. Despite lowering overall wage costs, these mandates do not affect firm profitability.
	Blau and Kahn (2017) O: Gender pay gap C/R: United States	Using microdata between 1980 and 2010 on the United States it is observed that gender pay gap narrowed substantially, largely due to women’s gains in education, experience, and occupational representation, as well as improved union coverage. By 2010, traditional human capital factors explained little of the remaining gap, which persisted mainly due to occupational and industry segregation and was notably larger at the top of the wage distribution.
	Böheim and Gust (2017) O: Gender pay gap C/R: Austria	The transparency law implemented in 2011 in Austria, had no significant impact on overall wages or the gender wage gap. However, newly hired women in larger firms experienced greater wage gains than men but the share of female employees was reduced. The effect on employment growth and turnover was small and not statistically significant.
	Goldin (2014) O: Gender pay gap C/R: United States	The gender pay gap persists because many occupations reward long, continuous, and time-specific hours, creating a nonlinear relationship between hours worked and earnings. In these jobs, which are

		especially in corporate, financial, and legal sectors, flexibility carries a high cost, as explained by a compensating differentials framework linking wage differences to the price of temporal flexibility. Also in: 3.4 Flexible work
4.2 Night work <i>Can a woman work at night in the same way as a man?</i>	DeBeaumont and Nsiah (2010) O: Wages C/R: United States	Night-shift wage premiums are higher in areas with low unemployment, indicating that compensating wage differentials decrease when labor markets are weak. These differentials are not fixed but negatively related to local unemployment rates, implying that disadvantaged workers face fewer opportunities to earn higher wages.
	Gupta et al (2025) O: Female labor force participation C/R: India	Lifting bans on female employment at night significantly increased both the share and number of female workers in large firms especially in those in export-oriented sectors and tight labor markets. These results show that removing gender-discriminatory regulations can expand women's employment opportunities in more competitive and globally integrated firms.
	Kato and Kodama (2017) O: Female labor force participation C/R: Japan	Relaxing overtime work restrictions for women increased their employment share by just over 1 percentage point, providing causal evidence that such labor market deregulation positively affects female employment.
	Zveglic and Rodgers (2003) O: Wages and employment C/R: Taiwan, China	Working-hours restrictions reduce women's employment and hours worked. The results show a decrease in about 6.1% and nearly 1 percentage point respectively after enforcement began in 1987, leading to a 7% drop in total labor force participation. Women's relative wages were not affected.
4.3 Dangerous and industrial jobs <i>Can a woman work in a job deemed dangerous in the same way as a man?</i> <i>Can a woman work in an industrial job in the same way as a man?</i>	Baah-Boateng et al. (2022) O: Female employment and earning differences C/R: Ghana	Women's participation remains low in the extractive sector of Ghana due to strong gender segregation and earnings gaps favoring men, driven by differences in education, age, and skills, as well as discrimination and barriers limiting women's access to higher-paying roles in this economic sector.
	Buss et al. (2019) O: Gendered division of labor C/R: Democratic Republic of Congo, Rwanda and Uganda	Quantitative and qualitative analysis. Across six artisanal and small-scale mining (ASM) sites, almost no women held mining licenses, and ongoing formalization of ASM efforts risk further excluding them from key interventions such as miners' associations, cooperatives, and training programs. This limited participation in the expanding extractive sector undermines broader efforts to promote women's economic empowerment.
	Orleans-Boham et al (2020) O: Wages C/R: Ghana	The 2017–2018 nationwide ban on artisanal and small-scale mining (ASM) in Ghana severely affected women's livelihoods, forcing many who had previously earned above the poverty line into low-paying, unstable jobs and leaving them financially insecure even after the ban was lifted.

5. Topic: Marriage

Sub-Topic	References	Main results
5.1 Obedience <i>Does the law mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value?</i>	Hossain (2013) O: Overall treat to women C/R: Bangladesh	Legal analysis. The study analyzes Islamic marriage laws in Bangladesh to highlight gender-based legal inequalities, comparing how differing religious personal laws create varying forms of discrimination against women and emphasizing the need for a Uniform Family Code to ensure legal equality across all religions.
	Htun and Weldon (2015) O: Sex equality in family law C/R: Worldwide (70 countries)	The results show evidence supporting hypotheses about cross-country and temporal variation in sex equality in family law. The quantitative results show that both cross-country and temporal differences in sex equality in family law are influenced by the degree of political–religious institutionalization. Countries where political and ecclesiastical authority are intertwined exhibit more discriminatory family laws, while those with greater separation between secular and religious institutions show more egalitarian legal frameworks.
	Htun et al. (2019) O: Wages, autonomy C/R: Worldwide	The study examines the association between gender-discriminatory legislation and women’s economic agency. Results show that laws limiting women’s autonomy, especially in marriage, significantly constrain their economic participation and decision-making power.
5.2 Head of Household <i>Can a woman be “head of household” or “head of family” in the same way as a man?</i>	Hallward-Driemeier and Gajigo (2015) O: Access to marital property and labor force participation C/R: Ethiopia	Findings show that household decision-making is shaped by power asymmetries, meaning household heads do not always act as benevolent dictators who internalize all members’ preferences. In Ethiopia, the implementation of the new Family Code led to a 15–24% relative increase in women’s participation, particularly among young, single women in higher-return occupations characterized by paid, year-round, and non-home-based employment.
	Heath and Tan (2020) O: Female labor supply and women’s autonomy C/R: India	Exposure to the Hindu Succession Act increased women’s labor supply by 3.8 to 6.1 percentage points, especially in higher-paying jobs. The reform also raised women’s autonomy by 0.17 standard deviations, indicating that greater control over income and decision-making was key to increasing women’s participation in the labor market.
	Field et al. (2016) O: Female labor force participation C/R: India	Direct deposit of women’s wages into their own bank accounts (versus into their husbands’) increased women’s labor force participation. Effects were concentrated among women whose husbands disapproved of working and those without prior work experience.
	Posel (2001)	Female- and male-headed households differ significantly in their economic composition and advantages. In South Africa, female-headed households tend to have fewer and lower-income

	O: Intra-household decision making C/R: South Africa	earners, making them substantially more economically vulnerable than male-headed households. In male-headed households, decision-making follows traditional gender roles while in female-headed households, women manage both productive and reproductive decisions.
5.3 Divorce <i>Can a woman obtain a judgment of divorce in the same way as a man?</i>	Chiappori et al. (2002) O: Intra-household income allocation C/R: United States	Divorce laws favor intra-household transfers to wives. Household decisions are consistent with efficiency and caring preference models, rejecting the unitary model's prediction that distribution factors are irrelevant. Results show that external factors (such as the marriage market and women-favorable divorce laws) significantly affect intra-household income allocation, with husbands transferring an average of \$4,310 more to their wives following such legal reforms.
	Corradini and Buccione (2023) O: Domestic Violence C/R: Arab Republic of Egypt	The introduction of unilateral divorce laws reduced domestic violence and strengthened women's bargaining power within households. These improvements translated into better child outcomes, including higher educational attainment and a lower likelihood of children aged 15–24 participating in the labor force.
	El Mekkaoui et al. (2024) O: Women's labor market outcomes C/R: Morocco, Arab Republic of Egypt, and Jordan	Family law reforms expanding women's rights to divorce increased their bargaining power and employment, though effects varied by context. While Morocco's <i>Chikak</i> and Egypt's <i>Khul</i> reforms enhanced women's autonomy and labor participation, Jordan's <i>Iftida</i> reform initially reduced employment until a 2010 amendment broadened women's options outside marriage, reflecting the influence of shifting social and legal norms over time.
	Fernández and Wong (2017) O: Female labor force participation C/R: United States	Unilateral divorce laws had only a modest effect on women's overall labor force participation. However, among lower-income women, mutual consent divorce proved more beneficial, suggesting that equitable bargaining conditions better support their economic participation.
	Stevenson and Wolfers (2006) O: Domestic violence C/R: United States	Unilateral divorce laws led to significant declines in female suicide rates, domestic violence, and intimate partner homicide. The results show that in states adopting unilateral divorce laws, female suicide rates fell by 8–16%, domestic violence declined by about 30% for both genders, and female homicides by partners dropped by 10%.
5.4 Remarry <i>Does a woman have the same rights to remarry as a man?</i>	Baker, et al (2004) O: Remarriage rates C/R: Canada	Reforms in the 1980s that removed marriage penalties from Canada's public pension system significantly increased remarriage rates among widows aged 15–59 and prime-age widowers. The penalties had previously discouraged remarriage, particularly among individuals with characteristics associated with higher wealth.
	Brien et al (2004) O: Remarriage dynamics C/R: United States	Social Security rule that penalizes remarriage before age 60 affects the marriage patterns of widows. U.S. Social Security rules penalizing remarriage before age 60 significantly influenced widows' marriage timing. After the 1977 reform reduced penalties for those aged 60 and above, many women

		delayed remarriage until their 60th birthday, leading to sharp increases in marriage rates immediately after reaching that age.
	Dasgupta and Mukherjee (2006) O: Remarriage rates C/R: India	Widows face challenges in remarriage, even when legal provisions were made to protect their rights. Despite legal provisions aimed at protecting widows' rights, reforms in 19th-century Bengal had minimal impact on widow remarriage rates. This limited effect is largely attributed to the social stigma and shortage of men willing to marry widows.
	Thomas (2008) O: Insights regarding marriage and remarriage. C/R: Namibia	Qualitative research. Widows experience a decline in livelihood security, and a higher reliance on their children's economic support, this in spite that forcing widows off the land is prohibited. Although widow inheritance is outlawed, social norms still favor widowers' remarriage, while widows face stigma and subtle disinheritance driven by cultural pressures and lack of family support.

6. Topic: Parenthood

Sub-Topic	References	Main results
6.1 Paid leave for mothers <i>Is paid leave of at least 14 weeks available to mothers?</i>	Bütikofer et al. (2021) O: Mental health C/R: Norway	Expansions in paid maternity leave improved maternal health, particularly by reducing postpartum depression, with the strongest effects among low-resource mothers and those who otherwise would have taken little unpaid leave. However, the benefits diminished with successive reforms, suggesting decreasing returns to longer maternity leave once coverage is already generous.
	Dahl et al. (2016) O: Time spent with children, employment, child outcomes C/R: Norway	An expansion that increased paid parental leave from 32 to 35 weeks allowed mothers to spend more time at home without reducing family income and did not crowd out unpaid leave. However, the reform had no significant short- or long-term effects on employment, fertility, or child outcomes, while generating regressive transfers and imposing fiscal costs equivalent to a leisure subsidy. Also in: 6.2 Leave benefits for mothers financed exclusively by the government
	Dustmann and Schonberg (2012) O: Children educational outcomes C/R: Germany	Shows no evidence that longer paid or unpaid leave improved children's long-term educational or labor market outcomes, despite significantly delaying mothers' return to work. Results show that the 1992 reform extending unpaid leave to 36 months slightly worsened educational attainment, likely due to income losses and reduced external caregiving during the child's second and third years.
	Ekberg et al. (2013) O: Father uptake of paternal leave C/R: Sweden	"Daddy-Month" reform increased fathers' uptake of parental leave in the short-term but did not alter household behavior or fathers' participation in childcare over the long term. It had no meaningful impact on parents' long-term wages or employment.

	<p>Goldin et al. (2024) O: wages C/R: United States</p>	<p>The provision of paid parental leave (PPL) in the United States' firms varies widely by industry, firm size, and levels of firm-specific training. Firms that provide PPL tend to be larger, employ relatively younger workers, and often hire employees who invest in firm-specific skills before becoming parents. While the motherhood penalty narrows as children grow up and women increase work hours, a sizable parental gender gap persists. Mothers tend to accept lower pay in exchange for flexible or family-friendly work environments.</p>
	<p>Piketty (2003) O: Employment C/R: France</p>	<p>France's parental leave policies balance higher fertility rates with temporary reductions in women's workforce participation. The reform may have helped low-skilled women take three years off without reducing reemployment prospects.</p>
	<p>Stearns (2018) O: Female labor force participation C/R: Great Britain</p>	<p>Access to paid maternity leave increases mothers' short-term return to work but has no lasting impact on employment. Expanding job protection, however, raises long-term employment and job tenure (job protection increased the probability of being employed by 3.8 percentage points); while reducing women's likelihood of holding managerial or promotable positions</p>
<p>6.2 Leave benefits for mothers financed exclusively by the government</p> <p><i>Are leave benefits for mothers paid solely by the government?</i></p>	<p>Dahl et al. (2016) O: Time spent with children, employment, child outcomes C/R: Norway</p>	<p>An expansion that increased paid parental leave from 32 to 35 weeks allowed mothers to spend more time at home without reducing family income and did not crowd out unpaid leave. However, the reform had no significant short- or long-term effects on employment, fertility, or child outcomes, while generating regressive transfers and imposing fiscal costs equivalent to a leisure subsidy. Also in: 6.1 Paid leave for mothers</p>
	<p>Goldin et al (2020) O: Parental gender gap C/R: United States</p>	<p>Paid parental leave in U.S. firms varies greatly by industry, firm size, and workforce characteristics, with even the most generous employers offering less paid leave than the OECD median. Over the family lifecycle, a substantial parental gender gap persists, as mothers continue to trade lower pay for flexible work arrangements while fathers expand their earnings advantage, particularly in demanding, time-intensive jobs.</p>
	<p>Tribin-Urbe et al., 2019 O: Wages and unemployment C/R: Colombia</p>	<p>The 2011 Colombian reform extending maternity leave from 12 to 14 weeks led to higher inactivity, informality, and self-employment among women of childbearing age, as well as lower wages relative to men.</p>
<p>6.3 Paternity leave</p> <p><i>Is paid leave available to fathers?</i></p>	<p>Bartel (2018) O: Use of benefits C/R: California, United States</p>	<p>Following the introduction of California's Paid Family Leave (CA-PFL) program, fathers of newborns were 46% more likely to take leave compared to the pre-reform period. While this relative increase was much larger than the 13% rise among mothers, the absolute gain for fathers was modest, averaging about two additional days of leave.</p>

	<p>Cools et al. (2015) O: Parenting involvement and use of benefits C/R: Norway</p>	<p>Paternity leave quotas increased fathers' leave participation and improved children's school performance, especially in families where fathers had higher education. No evidence was found of paternity leave changing traditional labor supply roles.</p>
	<p>Castellanos-Serrano et al. (2024) O: Parenting involvement and use of benefits C/R: Spain</p>	<p>Following Spain's 2007 reform introducing a 15-day, nontransferable, fully paid paternity leave, fathers' use of paid leave rose from 82.8% to 89.8% and their average leave days increased by eight, while mothers' overall participation remained stable, but their use of unpaid leave declined. Although the reform did not substantially change the economic burden distribution since women still made greater financial sacrifices for childcare, it successfully normalized fathers' early involvement.</p>
	<p>Dunatchik and Özcan (2020) O: Parenting involvement and labor market outcomes C/R: Canada</p>	<p>Daddy quotas in Quebec increased mothers' full-time labor force participation by 5 percentage points and reduced part-time work and unemployment. However, effects diminished 2–3 years post-reform, raising questions about long-term sustainability.</p>
	<p>Hyter et al. (2023) O: Use of benefits C/R: California, New Jersey, New York and Rhode Island in the United States</p>	<p>State-level paid parental leave programs in the U.S. significantly increase leave-taking among both mothers and fathers, despite the absence of federal paid leave. Mothers took 4.3 percentage points more time off, while fathers' use of leave rose 3.5 times, with minimal effects on their employment duration or hours worked.</p>
	<p>Patnaik (2019) O: Household behavior C/R: Quebec, Canada</p>	<p>Quebec's parental insurance plan, with reserved weeks for fathers, increased fathers' leave use by 250%. Long-term, paternity leave reduced gender specialization in household roles, challenging traditional norms.</p>
	<p>Tamm (2019) O: Parenting and housework involvement C/R: Germany</p>	<p>Paternity leave (daddy months) increased fathers' involvement in childcare and housework, with lasting effects. However, it had no long-term impact on fathers' reduction of working hours.</p>
<p>6.4 Dismissal of pregnant workers <i>Is dismissal of pregnant workers prohibited?</i></p>	<p>Bar-On Shmilovitch et al. (2022) O: Pregnancy dismissal C/R: Israel</p>	<p>Despite strong labor laws in Israel, dismissal during pregnancy disproportionately affects vulnerable socio-economic groups. The findings reveal that pregnancy-related dismissals are unevenly distributed across the labor market.</p>
	<p>Byron and Roscigno (2014) O: Pregnancy-based firing C/R: Ohio, United States</p>	<p>Interviews were used. Verified cases of pregnancy-based firing discrimination were analyzed, revealing how employers justify terminations through a dual process of vilifying pregnant workers while invoking meritocratic and profit-oriented rationales. Despite protective laws, women's limited organizational power and the cultural legitimacy of employer logics perpetuate structural gender inequality, keeping pregnancy discrimination a persistent problem.</p>

	Mukhopadhyay (2012) O: Female labor force participation C/R: United States	Using a dynamic model of labor supply, the study finds that the 1978 Pregnancy Discrimination Act (PDA) significantly increased married women’s labor force participation by 8.2 percentage points for pregnant women, 3.4 for mothers with infants, and 1.5 for those with older children. Simulations show that introducing unpaid maternity leave could temporarily reduce participation around childbirth but raise long-term employment among mothers of young children by about 3.7 percentage points.
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7. Topic: Childcare

Sub-Topic	References	Main results
7.1 Center-based childcare <i>Does the law establish the provision of center-based childcare services?</i>	Ajayi et al (2022) O: Employment, financial and psychological outcomes, children’s motor skills C/R: Burkina Faso	A randomized evaluation in Burkina Faso found that providing affordable community-based childcare improved women’s employment, financial outcomes, and psychological well-being, as well as children’s gross and fine motor skills. However, there were no observed changes in women’s decision-making autonomy or gender attitudes.
	Landivar et al (2022) O: Female labor force participation C/R: United States	Mothers are more likely to be employed in U.S. states with affordable childcare (higher Head Start program participation), greater childcare subsidy access, and broader availability of state-funded preschool. However, the benefits of these programs vary by education level: subsidies most strongly support less-educated mothers, while state-funded preschool boosts employment mainly among college-educated women. Persistently high childcare costs continue to limit maternal employment even in states with progressive family policies. Accessibility to Head Start childcare centers mitigated the adverse effects of childcare costs, especially for less-educated mothers
7.2 Support for families <i>Does the law establish any form of support for families for childcare services?</i>	Baker et al (2008) O: Maternal labor force participation C/R: Quebec, Canada	The introduction of subsidized universal childcare in Quebec increased maternal labor supply and overall childcare use, though some of the rise reflected a shift from informal arrangements. However, the reform was associated with declines in children’s behavioral, social, and health outcomes, as well as increases in parental stress, poorer mental health, and lower relationship quality.
	Bettendorf, et al (2015) O: Maternal labor force participation C/R: Denmark	The 2005 Dutch Law on Childcare, which tripled public childcare spending between 2004 and 2009, led to modest increases in maternal employment despite its large fiscal cost. Combined with a simultaneous expansion of the earned income tax credits (EITC) for parents, the reform raised mothers’ employment by 2.3 percentage points and weekly hours by 1.1, while slightly reducing fathers’ working hours.
	Cicowiez et al. (2023)	Using a general equilibrium model calibrated for Colombia, show that expanding access to affordable childcare such as through increased government spending on childcare services subsidy or an

	O: Female labor force participation, productivity C/R: Colombia	increase in public provision of childcare services not only raises women's labor force participation but also generates economy-wide productivity gains
	Givord and Marbot (2015) O: Maternal labor force participation C/R: France	Natural experiment from France's 2004 PAJE (<i>Prestation d'accueil du Jeune Enfant</i>) reform. Findings show that increasing childcare subsidies significantly boosted the use of paid childcare but had only modest short-term effects on maternal labor force participation (1–2 percentage points). The limited impact likely reflects supply constraints in the childcare market.
	Havnes and Mogstad (2011) O: Maternal labor force participation, informal childcare C/R: Norway	Analysis of Norway's staged expansion of subsidized childcare. Results show little causal effect on maternal employment despite a strong correlation between childcare access and work rates. Instead, the policy primarily displaced informal childcare arrangements. The estimates indicate that a one-percentage-point rise in childcare coverage led to only a 0.06 percentage-point increase in maternal employment, implying that approximately 94% of the subsidized childcare replaced existing informal care arrangements.
	Morrisey (2017) O: Maternal labor force participation C/R: Worldwide	Literature review. Across the evidence reviewed the main conclusion is that reductions in childcare costs and increases in childcare availability increase mothers' labor force participation.
	Prada et al (2015) O: Starting salaries C/R: Chile	Using a regression discontinuity design, this study finds that mandatory employer-provided childcare (Article 203 of the Labor Code), in Chilean firms with 20 or more female workers led to a wage penalty for newly hired women. Female employees in firms subject to the childcare mandate earned 9–20% lower starting wages compared to those in firms below the threshold, suggesting that the cost of the mandated benefit was largely passed on to workers through reduced pay.
7.3 Support for nonstate childcare providers <i>Does the law establish any form of support for nonstate childcare providers?</i>	Connelly et al (2004) O: Cost saving estimates and valuation C/R: United States	The study applies a contingent valuation method to estimate the value of employer-sponsored childcare centers (ESCCs) and finds that on-site childcare provides substantial benefits to both parents and firms. Even when priced similarly to external centers, ESCCs are highly valued especially by new hires, yielding potential wage savings for employers and suggesting that stronger tax incentives could effectively expand the availability of such programs.
	Rojas et al (2016) O: Wages C/R: Chile	Article 203 of the Labor Code of Chile which obligates firms with 20 or more female employees to provide or finance childcare through nonstate centers. Using a model of imperfect (monopsonistic) labor markets, the results show that firms reduce wages for both men and women (rather than adjusting employment composition) which means that nearly all costs are shifted to workers (all groups of workers including fertile age females, non-fertile age females and males) through lower wages which reduces the intended benefit for mothers.

<p>7.4 Quality of childcare</p> <p><i>Does the law establish quality standards for the provision of center-based childcare services?</i></p>	<p>Anukriti et al. (2023) O: Female labor force participation C/R: Worldwide</p>	<p>The enactment of childcare laws, on average lead to a 2 percent increase in female labor force participation, with the effect rising to 4 percent within five years after the implementation. The effect is strongest among married women with low education aged 35–44 and is primarily driven by laws regulating childcare availability and affordability, while quality regulations show smaller impacts.</p>
	<p>Bernal and Keane (2011) O: Children test scores C/R: United States</p>	<p>Using data on single mothers from the NLSY79, this study finds that one year of full-time childcare reduces children’s cognitive test scores by about 2.1% (0.11 standard deviations), with the negative effects driven primarily by informal care arrangements. In contrast, formal center-based care shows no adverse impact, and the detrimental effects are stronger for girls and for children of more educated mothers, implying that maternal time plays a critical role in early cognitive development.</p>
	<p>Bernal et al (2019) O: Children Nutritional outcomes, cognitive skills development C/R: Colombia</p>	<p>Through a cluster-randomized control trial in 14 Colombian cities, this study evaluates the 2011 national early childhood strategy that enabled transfers from small community nurseries (<i>Hogares Comunitarios de Bienestar, HCB</i>) to large childcare centers (<i>Centros de Desarrollo Infantil, CDI</i>). The results show that the transfer improved children’s nutritional outcomes, however, it had negative effects on cognitive development and no impact on socioemotional outcomes.</p>
	<p>Drange and Havnes (2019) O: Children Cognitive skills development C/R: Oslo, Norway</p>	<p>Using data from childcare admission lotteries in Norway, this study finds that enrolling children in childcare at ages 1–2 significantly improves language and math performance by age 6–7 and reduces the likelihood of scoring below national low-performance thresholds. The effects are strongest among disadvantaged and lower-performing children.</p>
	<p>Felfe and Lalive (2018) O: Children cognitive and socio-emotional skills C/R: Germany</p>	<p>Analyzing Germany’s staggered expansion of early childcare (ECC) for children aged 0–2 show the study finds heterogeneous effects across skill domains and child groups. ECC attendance improves motor skills, particularly for boys and children from immigrant or low-educated families, while broader expansions mainly enhance socio-emotional development.</p>
	<p>Gormley et al. (2018) O: Children cognitive development C/R: Tulsa, United States</p>	<p>Participation in Tulsa’s universal, school-based pre-K program produced lasting academic benefits through middle school. Eight years after enrollment, pre-K alumni scored higher in math, were 6 percentage points more likely to enroll in honors courses, and 7 points less likely to be retained a grade. While effects were strongest for males, Hispanic, and low-income students, gains were observed across most subgroups.</p>
	<p>Heckman et al. (2013) O: Children non-cognitive skills development C/R: United States</p>	<p>This study investigates the mechanisms behind the Perry Preschool Program, long-term positive effects on participants’ lives. The results show that sustained improvements in personality trait, particularly reductions in externalizing behavior and gains in social and motivational skills which</p>

		explain much of the program’s lasting impact on education, employment, health, and reduced criminal behavior.
	O’Donnell et al. (2022) O: GDP growth and female labor force participation. C/R: Indonesia	Model simulations show that increasing public spending on childcare from 0.04% to between 0.1% and 0.5% of GDP could raise GDP growth by up to 0.7 percentage points and boost women’s participation by 25 percent point increase, with the largest welfare gains for low-income households.
	Schoobar and Spiess (2015) O: Maternal labor force participation and work hours C/R: Germany	Results show that higher-quality early childhood education and care (ECEC), specifically smaller daycare group sizes, increases employment and work hours among East German mothers with children under age three. In contrast, no significant relationship is observed for West Germany or mothers with older children, suggesting that ECEC quality improvements can support maternal labor participation in contexts where work-care cultures already favor employment.

8. Topic: Entrepreneurship

Sub-Topic	References	Main results
8.1 Entrepreneurial Activities <i>Can a woman undertake entrepreneurial activities in the same way as a man?</i>	Ashraf et al (2019) O: Likelihood to start a business C/R: Lusaka, Zambia	Experimental trust game. Results show that women are more likely to become entrepreneurs and start a business when they have both formal legal protection (proxied by the rule of law and equitable gender norms), and informal bargaining power. Women without institutional support trust significantly less than men, but this gender gap in trust disappears when a local governance institution is introduced.
	Darnihamedani and Terjesen (2020) O: C/R: Worldwide (68 countries)	Regulatory efficiency (including business freedom, labor freedom understood as the regulatory framework of the labor market, and price stability) affects hiring growth ambition. While more efficient regulations are associated with higher growth ambitions overall, male entrepreneurs consistently exhibit greater ambitions than female entrepreneurs, especially in contexts with high labor and monetary freedom.
	Elefante et al. (2023) O: Gender Equality C/R: Worldwide	Worldwide data from WBL shows that reforms to eliminate discriminatory laws are essential for economic growth and gender equality. Despite progress, women globally still enjoy only about three-quarters of the legal rights granted to men, with persistent gaps in access to jobs, assets, and decision-making power.

	<p>Görg and Jäkel (2024), O: Gender gap in trade participation C/R: Denmark</p>	Newly female-led-startups trade less with countries with higher levels of gender inequality compared to similar businesses founded by men. This paper analyzes whether gender norms and institutional biases in trade partner countries constrain the performance of female-led start-ups in Denmark.
	<p>Ubfal (2024) O: Entrepreneurship C/R: Worldwide</p>	Review of interventions that support women-led micro, small, and medium enterprises (WMSMEs) by addressing constraints related to human capital, finance, technology, markets, and contextual barriers such as norms and regulations. It finds that interventions often yield modest and heterogeneous effects. There is need for better targeting, bundled multi-constraint solutions, and adaptation to local contexts to enhance the effectiveness and sustainability of women's entrepreneurship programs.
<p>8.2 Access to credit <i>Does the law prohibit discrimination in access to credit based on gender?</i></p>	<p>Bentancor (2022) O: Loans granted to female entrepreneurs C/R: Chile</p>	Through a difference-in-differences approach, the study finds that the Program “ <i>Crece Mujer Emprendedora</i> ” implemented in Chile in 2014 which aimed to facilitate access to credit to female entrepreneurs reduced gender gaps in financial inclusion by increasing the total number of loans granted to female entrepreneurs in around 13 percentage points.
	<p>Bertrand and Perrin (2022) O: Access to credit C/R: Worldwide (124 countries)</p>	Using firm-level data worldwide they found that anti-discrimination laws lower women's discouragement from applying for credit but do not increase their actual access to loans unless there is strong legal enforcement.
	<p>Perrin and Hyland (2023) O: Financial Services C/R: Worldwide</p>	The study finds that legal gender equality is correlated with the use of financial services particularly by reducing barriers such as lack of documentation or dependence on male family members for banking access.
	<p>Perrin and Weill (2022) O: Access to credit C/R: Worldwide</p>	Reducing the gender gap in access to credit enhances financial stability, as banks in countries where women have greater access to credit relative to men tend to be more stable. The results suggest that women's higher loan repayment performance contributes to more resilient financial systems, making gender-equal credit access both an empowerment and macroprudential policy priority.
<p>8.3 Gender Quota <i>Does the law prescribe a gender quota for corporate boards?</i></p>	<p>Ahern and Dittmar (2012) O: Firm value C/R: Norway</p>	A board-gender quota which required at least 40% of female representation on firms' boards of directors led to a decline in firm value due the replacement of experienced male directors with younger, less-experienced female directors in a context of limited supply.
	<p>Bertrand et al. (2019) O: Earning gap C/R: Norway</p>	The 2003 Norwegian board quota successfully increased women's representation on corporate boards and narrowed the board-level gender earnings gap, as newly appointed women were highly qualified. However, the reform showed little evidence of broader spillover effects for other women in the labor market or firms.

	Greene et al. (2020) O: Gender diversity on boards C/R: California, United States	The California Senate Bill No. 826 (the first mandated board gender diversity quota in the United States) created a negative stock market reaction (1.2% on average) especially for firms needing to add more women. However, firms significantly increase the number and share of female directors.
	Wang and Kelan (2012) O: Appointment to leadership roles C/R: Norway	The gender quota in Norway increased the likelihood of women being appointed to top leadership roles as board chairs or corporate CEOs. However, after full quota compliance in 2008, gender gaps between male and female board chairs in qualifications and networks disappeared, though the reform did not eliminate gender differences among directors more broadly.
8.4 Gender-sensitive procurement provision <i>Does the law include gender-sensitive procurement provisions for public procurement processes?</i>	Sarter (2020) O: Equality-sensitive public procurement C/R: Germany	Contextual study that analyzes the development of regulatory policies relating to gender equality and public procurement in Germany between 1990 and 2016 and finds that the design of voluntary legal regulations, vague guidelines, and limited political and organizational support create structural disincentives for officials to incorporate equality goals.
	Sarter and Thomson (2019) O: Public contracts C/R: Scotland	The study analyzes the impact of the Scottish Business Pledge (SBP) which encouraged voluntary equality considerations in business practices. They found that even among those firms that signed up to the pledge, the potential benefits of getting public contracts did not provide enough incentives to adopt gender equality measures.
	Williams (2024) O: Access to public procurement markets C/R: Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Rwanda, Ethiopia, United States, and Dominican Republic	The study examines the relationship between women-own business and gender-responsive provision in public procurement. The results show that legal, policy, and cultural barriers across several countries restrict women-owned businesses' access to public procurement markets.

9. Topic: Assets

Sub-Topic	References	Main results
9.1 Equality in property rights <i>Do a woman and a man have equal</i>	Ali and Deininger (2024) O: Female land ownership C/R: Lesotho	The study evaluates the Lesotho Land Administration Reform Project (LARP) 2008-2013 which mandated joint registration of land owned under the community of property, facilitated women's access to credit by using these lands as collateral. The study finds that, although administrative records show improvements in female land ownership and increased formal property transactions, household-survey and satellite data reveal limited effects on tenure security, credit access, investments, or women's empowerment.

<i>administrative power and ownership rights to immovable property, including land?</i>	Hallward-Driemeier and Gajigo (2015) O: Female labor force participation C/R: Ethiopia	The study analyzes Ethiopia’s new Revised Family Code of 2000 staggered adoption which introduced mutual consent in the administration of marital property, removed spousal restriction on wife’s employment outside the home, and raising the minimum marriage age for women. The results show an expansion of women’s marital and work rights, increased their employment in paid, full-time, higher-return, and non-home-based occupations, particularly benefiting young and single women.
	Harari, 2019 O: Women’s economic and social outcomes C/R: Kenya	Kenya’s inheritance-law reform granting women equal property rights increased girls’ education, improved maternal health practices, reduced female genital mutilation (FGM) in non-universal-FGM groups, and delayed marriage and fertility. The results show an increase in women’s intra-household bargaining power and demonstrate that statutory legal reforms can meaningfully shift women’s economic and social outcomes. Also in 9.2: Inheritance rights
	Meinzen-Dick et al. (2019) O: Poverty C/R: Systematic review	Systematic review of women’s land rights and its relationship with poverty reduction, highlighting that women’s land rights could reduce poverty, increase women’s bargaining power and decision-making on human capital investments and intergenerational transfers improving the wellbeing of women and their families
	Peterman (2011) O: Female labor force participation C/R: Tanzania	The study analyzes how the Land Act and the Village Land Act of 1999 which shifted land administration to the village level granting land rights to women significantly improved the percentage of women working outside their homes (4 percentage points) and the percentage of self-employed women (6 percentage points).
	Schling et al. (2003) O: Access to credit, household food security C/R: Ecuador	The study evaluates a rural land administration program in Ecuador and finds that providing georeferenced cadastral maps increased women’s access to credit, shifted their labor toward non-farm income activities, and improved household food security and production diversification when maps were jointly titled.
	Schling and Pazo (2024) O: Family welfare C/R: Peru	Informal land ownership by women in smallholder households significantly increases crop diversity and raises the probability of household food security by about 20 percentage points, even though it does not measurably improve women’s empowerment across standard domains. Secure land rights can directly strengthen women’s ability to influence production decisions and enhance family welfare, highlighting the importance of equal access to land and inheritance rights.
	Sheldon and Kaminaga (2023) O: Women empowerment C/R: Benin	Granting women formal land registration and cash grants to proceed with land registration would enhance productivity, economic empowerment, as well as household wellbeing. They found that women in Benin whose names appear on property titles are significantly more empowered compared to women without named ownership.

9.2 Inheritance rights <i>Do sons and daughters have equal rights to inherit assets?</i>	Ajefu, et al (2021) O: Children health C/R: India	The Hindu Succession (Amendment) Act of 2005 which improved women’s inheritance rights positively impacted children’s health and reduced the likelihood of nutritional deficiencies. These gains appear to operate through increased female education, improved marital outcomes, and enhanced intrahousehold bargaining power.
	Deninger et al 2013 O: Educational outcomes C/R: India	Analysis of inheritance patterns across three generations in India to assess the impact of reforms to the Hindu Succession Act granting daughters equal rights in joint family property. They find that the amendment significantly increased daughters’ likelihood of inheriting land and that strengthened inheritance rights are associated with improvements in daughters’ educational attainment, suggesting intergenerational transmission of wealth and human capital.
	Deninger et al 2019 O: Educational outcomes, time use and health C/R: India	The findings show that although Hindu Succession Act (HSA) reforms improved women’s empowerment and access to assets, they also increased female mortality. Using variation across three Indian states and a triple-difference strategy, the authors find that the reform generated positive first-generation effects and even stronger second-generation gains in education, time use, and health.
	Harari, 2019 O: Women’s economic and social outcomes C/R: Kenya	Kenya’s inheritance-law reform granting women equal property rights increased girls’ education, improved maternal health practices, reduced female genital mutilation (FGM) in non-universal-FGM groups, and delayed marriage and fertility. The results show an increase in women’s intra-household bargaining power and demonstrate that statutory legal reforms can meaningfully shift women’s economic and social outcomes. Also in 9.1: Property rights
9.3 Surviving spouses <i>Do male and female surviving spouses have equal rights to inherit assets?</i>	Becker (2024) O: Scheme analysis C/R: Europe	Review of survivors’ benefits schemes in Europe along with case studies. Examining recent reforms across countries, the results show no clear trend toward eliminating survivor benefits; instead, national approaches diverge based on institutional design and policy priorities
	Hanemann and Rausch (2020) O: Survivor pension C/R: Europe	Analysis of the survivor pension system in Europe. The results show the effect of widowhood on the financial situation of the surviving partner; on average, widows have 10.1 percent higher household incomes to those not receiving survivor pensions with most of the receiving survivors being women.
	Peterman (2012) O: Women’s access to resources C/R: Sub-Saharan Africa (15 countries)	Widowhood and asset inheritance laws affect women’s economic security in fifteen countries of Sub-Saharan Africa, showing that inheritance rights impact women’s access to resources and through this, households’ long-run welfare. In the countries analyzed fewer than half of widows report inheriting any assets, and an even smaller share inherit most assets.
9.4 Non-monetary contributions	Hersch and Schinall (2019) O: Marital assets C/R: United States	Vignette experiment in the US on how individuals distribute assets upon divorce shows that nonmonetary contributions, such as homemaking and childcare, are consistently undervalued in

<i>Does the law provide for the valuation of nonmonetary contributions?</i>		asset division upon divorce, awarding less than half of the marital assets to those wives who opt out of the labor force.
	Wong (2023) O: Female labor force participation C/R: Theoretical (non-cooperative household model)	This study uses a non-cooperative household model, to analyze spousal behavior to understand how homemaking contributions affect wives' behavior when dividing property at divorce. Its findings show that wives perform more housework and participate less in the labor market.

10. Topic: Assets

Sub-Topic	References	Main results
10.1 and 10.2 Pension benefits (full and partial) <i>Are the ages at which a woman and a man can retire with full pension benefits the same?</i>	Bernasek and Shwiff (2001) O: Investment of pension in stocks C/R: Colorado, United States	Study on whether gender influences the share of defined-contribution pension assets invested in stocks. Results show women allocate a lower share to stocks than men, and that spouses' risk attitudes shape investment choices differently by gender. Men take more risk when their partner is risk-tolerant, while women take less.
<i>Are the ages at which a woman and a man can retire with partial pension benefits the same?</i>	Cribb and Emmerson (2019) O: Household income, female labor force participation C/R: United Kingdom	The increase in the UK female state pension age from 60 to 63 reduced women's household incomes by about £32 per week on average, as higher earnings only partially compensated for the loss of public pension income, raising poverty rates among affected women (especially those in lower-income households) by 6.4 percentage points. Raising the pension age also pushed more women in their early 60s into the labor market, but the additional earnings were not enough to fully compensate for the delayed pension benefits.
<i>Are the ages at which a woman and a man can retire with partial pension benefits the same?</i>	Hanel and Riphon (2012) O: Pension benefits C/R: Switzerland	Analysis of the 1991 reform of the Swiss mandatory retirement insurance which increased the normal retirement age for women from 62 to 64, as well as the possibility of early retirement at the expense of a benefit discount. Their results show that after the reform, women retiring at 62 faced benefit cuts of 3.4%, later increasing to 6.8%. The change in retirement age significantly influenced both the contribution period and the length of benefit payments.
10.3 Mandatory retirement ages	Atalay and Barrett (2015) O: Retirement probabilities C/R: Australia	Examine the 1993 Australian Age Pension reform, which progressively increased the eligibility age for women from 60 to 65 years. The reform reduced retirement probabilities by 12 to 19 percentage

<p><i>Is the mandatory retirement age for a woman and a man the same?</i></p>		points but also led to significant program substitution, with many women enrolling in disability support pensions as an alternative income source.
	<p>Della Giusta and Longhi (2021) O: Older women labor force participation C/R: United Kingdom</p>	Raising the UK State Pension Age increased older women's labor force participation by about 12 percentage points and employment by 9 percentage points, confirming strong behavioral responses to delayed pension eligibility. However, the reform also worsened financial security, mental health, leisure satisfaction, and overall life satisfaction particularly for women with low education and those without partners.
	<p>Martins et al. (2009) O: Wages and hiring C/R: Portugal</p>	Analyze the impact of raising the legal retirement age from 62 to 65 in Portugal, finding that this reform forced firms to retain older female workers longer, but their wages and hours remained unchanged. Instead, firms adjusted by sharply reducing hiring (especially of younger women) suggesting that higher retirement ages may crowd out new hires and dampen pension-system gains in the short run.
	<p>Morris (2022) O: Female labor force participation C/R: Australia</p>	Show that estimates made by Atalay and Barret (2015) who initially show that Australian reform in 1994 that gradually raised women's eligibility age, increased labor force participation, don't hold after controlling for cohort trends, highlighting the importance of proper methodology in evaluating phased-in reforms.
	<p>Peinado (2014) O: Gender pension gap C/R: Spain</p>	Examining Spain's 2011 pension reforms, this study develops a method to evaluate how pension reforms affect gender gaps among retirees in Spain, focusing on poverty dynamics over the retirement period. It finds that raising women's retirement age and increasing contribution years narrows the gender pension gap, while expanding the earnings reference period widens it.
	<p>Rabaté (2019) O: Retirement rate C/R: France</p>	Examines the effects of mandatory retirement policies in France that progressively eliminated mandatory retirement. It shows that partial pension schemes can encourage older workers to remain in the workforce by offering flexible retirement options. When firms can forcibly retire workers, job-exit rates for 60–64-year-olds are about 10% higher, especially among high-earning and healthy workers. It also finds that mandatory retirement explains roughly 12% of the sharp spike in retirements at the full-pension age.
	<p>Rabaté et al. (2024) O: Employment, retirement rates C/R: Netherlands</p>	The increase of the statutory retirement age (SRA) in the Netherlands reduced the share of individuals in retirement between the previous SRA (65 years in 2012) and the new SRA (66 years and 4 months in 2019) by 60 percentage points and increased the employment participation rate in 21 percentage points.
	<p>Staubli and Zweimüller (2013) O: Employment C/R: Austria</p>	Analyze two pension reforms in Austria that raised the early retirement age from 60 to 62 for men and from 55 to 58.25 for women. They find that these reforms increased employment by 9.75 percentage points among men and by 11 percentage points among women, with larger effects observed for high-

		wage and healthy workers. However, low-wage and less healthy individuals, particularly women, were more likely to rely on unemployment benefits or early retirement via disability claims
10.4 Care credits <i>Are periods of absence due to childcare accounted for in pension benefits?</i>	Frericks et al (2008) O: C/R: Germany and France	Comparative analysis of French and German pension reforms. Findings show that, despite adopting childcare credits and other adjustments, both systems remain rooted in a male-breadwinner model that continues to disadvantage women, particularly by reinforcing part-time work and secondary labor-market attachment.
	Kingsbury (2019) O: Pension benefits C/R: Russian Federation	Demonstrate how gaps in family policies, such as insufficient care credits, contribute to significant disparities in old-age earnings. Women who take time off from paid employment for caregiving often accumulate fewer pension benefits, leaving them vulnerable to financial insecurity in later life.
	Lis and Bonthuis (2019) O: Pension benefits C/R: Europe	Shows that the gender gap in pensions is heavily driven by interruptions in women's careers for caregiving. They emphasize that care credit schemes, which compensate for these interruptions, play a crucial role in reducing gender disparities in pension benefits and ensuring fairer economic outcomes for women.