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WOMEN'S WAGE EMPLOYMENT IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES: REGULATORY BARRIERS AND OPPORTUNITIES

Leadership in Public Financial Management II
(LPFM II)

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ACRONYMS

CIS	Commonwealth of Independent States
GBV	gender-based violence
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPV	intimate partner violence
LPFM II	Leadership in Public Financial Management II
MENA	Middle East and North Africa
SRGBV	school-related, gender-based violence
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USAID/E3	United States Agency for International Development, Bureau for Economic Growth, Education and Environment
WBL	World Bank Women, Business, and the Law

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Women face layers of regulatory, social, and cultural inequalities in accessing employment opportunities globally. If confronted by employment barriers, women are more likely to live in poverty, have less decision-making power in the home, and are less likely to engage in leadership roles in civil society. Regulations and policies restricting women's labor force participation also have significant macroeconomic implications. McKinsey & Company (2015) estimates that if women's role in the labor market were identical to that of men, global gross domestic product would increase by 26 percent.

This report examines how laws and regulations in developing and transitional countries limit or enable women to enter, remain, and advance in the formal sector workforce. Specifically, this study analyzes how gender inequalities in civil and administrative laws, regulatory employment restrictions, occupational licenses, employment discrimination, and sexual harassment limit women's abilities to engage in wage employment. It also analyzes how laws and policies can support working women and working parents in not only remaining but also thriving in the workplace. While the literature contains ample examples from countries that have regulations that negatively affect women's wage employment, few evaluations exist on the effect of removing such discriminatory regulations on women's labor force participation, with this meriting further investment and research.

KEY FINDINGS

Women's ability to seek wage employment is reduced when their mobility, agency and decision-making power is restricted by law.

Gender inequalities in civil and administrative laws limit women's opportunities to seek and retain work outside the home. In some countries, the husband has the right to prevent his wife from

seeking employment, which effectively can exclude women from the labor market. Other restrictions, such as gender-differentiated rules on obtaining an identity card or opening a bank account, make it decisively harder for women to seek employment. In some countries, legal restrictions curtail married women's mobility; this limits their ability to engage in networking activities, travel to or from work, or engage in business travel.

Legal restrictions limit what occupations women can hold, what hours they can work, or what tasks they may perform, thus restricting their range of employment options. Often motivated by a concern for women's health and safety, 104 countries still have laws preventing women from seeking formal employment in certain sectors, including mining,

Regulations Diminish Poor Women's Ability to Find Employment

Various regulatory restrictions discussed throughout this report are specifically impeding low-skilled female workers' mobility and employment prospects. Restrictions on women's night work is typically limited to low-skill industry and manufacturing employment, as well as to work that pays better and is more readily available. When seeking domestic or low-skill manufacturing work in South Asia, female migrant workers are subjected to pregnancy tests when applying for work permits or are not permitted to emigrate if they have young children. Moreover, low-income women are particularly adversely affected by a lack of affordable childcare policies; they are often unable to afford not to return to work but encounter difficulties in affording quality childcare options that would allow them to do so.

manufacturing, construction, energy, agriculture, water, and transportation (World Bank Group 2018). Such restrictions negatively affect women’s labor force participation and earning potential, thus increasing the gender wage gap. Instead of restricting women’s occupational choices, policies should focus on improving health and safety regulations and labor conditions — for all workers.

Occupational licenses restrict entry into a profession, but additional research is needed on how this requirement impacts women in developing and transitional countries. Occupational licenses are required for a broad range of professional fields, aiming to protect public safety and afford consumers with quality assurance. The research and policy discussion on the impact of occupational licenses on the labor market focuses on the United States, where these licenses have ballooned in past decades; nonetheless, few resources differentiate the experience between women and men. Moreover, there is a dearth of information on occupational licenses from developing and transitional economies. Lengthy training requirements are creating unnecessary, costly barriers to enter or reenter certain professions, especially lower-skilled occupations that serve as good gateways into the labor market. Furthermore, reentry can become prohibitively expensive for women who temporarily leave the profession to care for children or older relatives.

Gender discrimination in access to employment, career opportunities, and equal pay create obstacles for women to work and, thus, impedes economic growth. Occupational segregation, in which women are overrepresented in the care and service sectors but underrepresented in the higher-paying sciences and technology or engineering and construction sectors, is highly influenced by cultural expectations, differentiated social and educational opportunities, and limited protection against gender discrimination. Although a growing number of countries prohibit discrimination in hiring, employment, promotion, and dismissal, their limited enforcement further increases occupational segregation and restricts the career advancement pipeline for women. Women who are pregnant or have children in particular commonly experience discrimination because employers perceive them to be less available and committed to work. Although 40 percent of countries have regulations guaranteeing men and women equal remuneration for work of equal value, women — mothers, in particular — earn less than men globally (World Bank Group 2018).

Sexual harassment disproportionately affects girls’ access to education, women’s employment and career trajectory, and women’s and girls’ mobility. When there are high risks of school-related, gender-based violence, parents are reluctant to send their girls to school. Girls who drop out of school do not acquire the required education and skills for labor market entry. Employees subjected to workplace sexual harassment are more likely to be absent from work or resign. Sexual harassment creates toxic work environments, resulting in reduced productivity. In addition, a high prevalence of sexual harassment in public places and on public transportation curtails girls’ and women’s safe commute to work and school. Despite the significant, negative impact sexual harassment has on the economy, few countries have legal protections and explicit policies on sexual harassment in public places and education; moreover, one-third of countries do not regulate workplace sexual harassment (World Bank Group 2018).

Public policies supporting parents to balance work and family commitments enable women to remain and advance in the workforce. Women spend significantly more time than men on unpaid domestic work, including childcare, eldercare, and household chores — activities that hinder women in remaining and advancing in the workforce. Regulations and policies that increase gender equality and support work-life balance for both men and women

include paid parental leave, flexible work arrangements, and access to adequate, affordable childcare. However, policies such as employer-financed childcare centers for working mothers (rather than for all working parents) make it more expensive to hire women.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This report provides recommendations across all areas discussed for stakeholders to invest in research and evaluation on the removal of discriminatory regulations and the resulting effect on women's labor force participation. The report also recommends further research and investment to identify additional case studies, lessons learned, and best practices on what works to address and reduce legal and regulatory barriers to women's wage employment.

Ability to Seek Wage Employment

- Conduct gender reviews of national systems, rules, procedures, practices, and costs to obtain a legal identity.
- Support reform activities to remove spousal approval to seek employment or to travel outside the home.
- Support civil society organizations and policy makers in raising and enforcing the legal age of marriage to 18 years and in supporting girls to remain in school.

Employment Restrictions for Women

- Undertake country-specific regulatory inventories to map restrictions on women's wage employment.
- Study the positive effects of regulatory changes allowing women to work in previously banned professions.
- Conduct an economic impact analysis of the cost of restricting women's employment.

Occupational Licenses

- Study the extent and effect of occupational licenses for women and men in developing or transitional contexts to understand how these licenses affect women's employment and, more broadly, wage employment in these contexts.

Employment Discrimination

- Assess enforcement of nondiscrimination regulations and use findings to develop and implement improved enforcement, compliance, and monitoring and evaluation procedures.
- Support private sector actors in evaluating potential economic impact of reducing employment discrimination.

Sexual Harassment in Education, the Workplace, and Public Spaces

- Expand sexual harassment legislation to places of education and public areas.
- Support governments to adhere to and implement the forthcoming International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention on workplace violence and harassment.

Enabling Parents to Work

- Review policies to ensure support for working parents rather than only working mothers.
- Conduct a cost-benefit analysis of expanding access to affordable, quality childcare.

INTRODUCTION

Women's access to wage employment is determined by various factors, including the availability of employment opportunities, social norms and expectations, and family care responsibilities, as well as access to quality education and networking opportunities. This report specifically examines how laws and regulations limit or enable women to enter, remain, and advance in the formal sector workforce around the world, with an emphasis on developing countries.

Overall, countries grow faster when women work. Yet the World Bank's 2018 Women, Business and the Law (WBL) project estimates that globally, over 2.7 billion women are legally restricted from having the same choice of jobs as men. Laws and regulations can positively or negatively influence women's economic participation across women's lifecycles — from first job application through retirement — and can affect women's job prospects, economic decision making, earning potential, career growth, and ability to balance work and family. Fewer women work in countries with less legal gender equality and more employment restrictions.

Grounded in data from the WBL, the findings in this report are based on consultations with selected key stakeholders and an extensive review of the literature, national laws and policies, and international conventions. (The appendix contains detailed WBL data, corresponding to the different sections of this report.) The literature contains ample examples from countries that have regulations that negatively affect women's wage employment, but there are few evaluations on what effect the removal of such discriminatory regulations have on women's labor force participation. This report presents a global overview of legal challenges and opportunities to increase women's wage employment. It aims to stimulate further research on particular countries or regions. Such potential research could go deeper and investigate to what extent regulations and policies are implemented, how regulatory changes affect women's workforce participation, and whether existing industry practices support women's wage employment.

ABILITY TO SEEK WAGE EMPLOYMENT

Gender inequalities in civil and administrative laws affect women's ability to seek paid work outside the home. The ability to exercise agency and make choices related to economic activities is dependent on a supportive regulatory framework. Some regulations can effectively exclude women from the labor market, such as the husband's right to prevent his wife's employment; other regulatory restrictions, for example, limitations on women's ability to open a bank account, make their workplace participation cumbersome but not impossible.

Marriage changes the legal status and legal capacity of women in a number of countries, primarily in the Middle East and in North, West, and Central Africa, and these changes restrict options for wage employment. For example, married women not only have additional requirements to obtain IDs, passports, or bank accounts but also have curtailed rights to pursue a profession or to decide where to live or when to travel. Many of these restrictions are found in former colonies where outdated colonial laws and codes have not been reformed.

Women without a legal identity are excluded from the formal labor market.

Employers typically must verify a prospective employee's identity to confirm legal employment.

Proof of identity is also required for a host of other activities, including attending school, opening a bank account, registering a business, and applying for a passport or driving license. A survey in Cambodia found that having an ID enabled more women to join the workforce, start businesses, and participate in local politics (Asian Development Bank 2013). Women encounter added constraints in applying for and acquiring a national identity card in 11 countries, including Afghanistan, Benin, the Arab Republic of Egypt, the Republic of Congo, Namibia, and Pakistan. For instance, in Cameroon, married women, but not married men, must submit a marriage certificate when applying for a national ID. This requirement excludes many women married under customary law from obtaining an ID because women married in customary marriages typically do not possess a marriage certificate.

The first step to obtain an ID is to secure a birth certificate. Globally, one-quarter of children under age five are not registered in the civil registry and do not have a legal identity. In Sub-Saharan Africa (43%) and South Asia (60%), the number of unregistered children is significantly higher (UNICEF 2017). Civil registration systems provide individuals with documentation to establish a legal identity, but regulations governing these systems are typically outdated, unnecessarily complicated, or inaccessible in many countries. For example, in Côte d'Ivoire, parents who do not register their child within the first 90 days after birth have to engage in a complicated, costly legal court process to obtain a birth certificate. A study from Zimbabwe found that women applying for identity documents were faced with unhelpful civil servants, rampant corruption, and insurmountable requests for supporting documents (Dube 2012).

Following 30 years of civil conflict, only 5 percent of the population had civil registration records in Cambodia. In 2003, Cambodia embarked on a civil registration reform that simplified registration procedures, trained registration personnel, and created mobile civil registration teams to reach remote locations. The reform program provided 89 percent of the population with birth certificates and a legal identity (Asian Development Bank 2013).

Women's labor force participation is curtailed when married women need their husband's approval to work. With the stated intention to protect the family unit, 19 countries, including Egypt, Iraq, Jordan, Malaysia, Mali, and Sudan, have laws requiring married women to obey their husband. In Cameroon, Chad, Jordan, Niger, and

in the West Bank and Gaza as well as in 13 other countries, women cannot get a job without their husbands' permission — meaning that husbands can legally prevent women from working if they deem such work to not be in the family's best interest. Such regulations dampen incentives to educate girls and place enormous restrictions on married women to seek employment.

Some governments have adopted legislation granting a husband or a wife the right to object to the other spouse working outside the home. In Togo, the family code was recently revised to allow the husband or wife (previously, it was only the husband) the right to object to the other

A Wife's Duty to Obey her Husband in Malaysia

A wife shall not be entitled to maintenance when she is *nusyuz* [*disobedient*], or unreasonably refuses to obey the lawful wishes or commands of her husband, that is to say, *inter alia* —

- (a) when she withholds her association with her husband;
- (b) when she leaves her husband's home against his will; or
- (c) when she refuses to move with him to another home or place.

As soon as the wife repents and obeys the lawful wishes and commands of her husband, she ceases to be *nusyuz*.

— *Article 59 Islamic Family Law [Malaysia]*

spouse working outside the home if not in the “family’s interest.” In Ethiopia, a previous provision in the family code granted a spouse the ability to deny the other spouse the right to work outside the home. While the clause was gender-neutral, in practice, it was predominantly husbands who denied their wives the opportunity to work outside the home (Hallward-Driemeier and Gajigo 2013).

Regulatory reform eliminated the ability to object to a spouse’s work and raised the legal age of marriage for women from 15 to 18 years. A national survey found that women’s participation in paid work outside the home increased by 15–24 percent in Ethiopia following the regulatory reform. In particular, as young women delayed marriage, more young, unmarried women worked full-time and in higher skilled jobs (Hallward-Driemeier and Gajigo 2013).

In Rwanda, Preventing One’s Spouse from Working is a Crime
According to the Rwandese Law on Prevention and Punishment of Gender-based Violence, this behavior — depriving one’s spouse the right to property and to employment — is a form of domestic violence.

Social, financial, and legal obstacles that limit women’s mobility and decision-making restrict women’s wage-earning opportunities. Reliable, affordable, and safe modes of transportation facilitate access to educational and employment opportunities.¹ Mobility also expands one’s network and connections, a key means of learning about and finding employment opportunities. However, women’s access, use, and concerns about public transportation differ from those of men, as detailed in the below box.² Women are less likely to own a motor vehicle or bicycle, thus needing to be able to walk or take public transportation to work. Moreover, women’s income and control over family resources is more limited, and thus, they can be more affected by the cost of transportation.

Restrictions on Sri Lankan Female Migrant Workers to Emigrate

Hundreds of thousands of women migrate for employment every year. In Sri Lanka, following public outcry about the breakdown of the family unit and vulnerability of female migrant workers, the government adopted two circulars in 2013 with the mandate of protecting family welfare. Women seeking overseas migrant employment as domestic workers must complete a family background report to emigrate. However, neither men, who make up 60 percent of migrant workers, nor women seeking technical, vocational, or professional employment, need to do so. Women with children under age five are unable to migrate as domestic workers. Women with children over the age of five must provide – and husbands must sign off on – documented proof that satisfactory childcare arrangements have been made. The policy (which the government describes as a means to “discourage women from seeking overseas employment”) reinforces traditional gender roles and discredits fathers as capable, caring parents. The policy limits poor, unskilled women’s freedom of movement and ability to seek employment. Sri Lanka’s Supreme Court has ruled that the circulars, which enjoy popular support, are constitutional (United Nations Sri Lanka 2015).

In addition to these social and economic barriers, in 17 countries, including Afghanistan, Egypt, Jordan, and Malaysia, married women face legal restrictions on travel outside the home. For instance, in Egypt and Jordan, a married woman can only leave the home if her husband grants

¹ For an ongoing evaluation of related interventions, see J-PAL’s web page “The Impact of Public Transport on Labor Market Outcomes in Pakistan,” at <https://www.povertyactionlab.org/evaluation/impact-public-transport-labor-market-outcomes-pakistan>.

² For an infographic showing risk for women in key global cities, see the Thomas Reuter Foundation News web page “Most Dangerous Transport Systems for Women.” <http://news.trust.org//spotlight/most-dangerous-transport-systems-for-women/>

her permission, or if it is allowed according to the law or customs. Several countries in the Middle East restrict women's ability to travel abroad without her husband's permission. Moreover, in 36 countries, including Botswana, Haiti, Jordan, and the Philippines, married women must meet different passport application requirements than men.

Limited decision-making power in the household also restricts women's employment. In 31 countries, including Chile, Indonesia, Mali, Morocco, and Senegal, regulations stipulate that the husband is the head of the household; thus, he has the authority to make decisions about household matters, including family location of residence. When lacking the right to engage in such decision-making, a married women's horizon of employment opportunities becomes more limited because either she (a) cannot seek employment that requires relocation or (b) loses her existing employment when her husband decides to relocate the family. In a recent development, Côte d'Ivoire eliminated the head of the household provision from its Marriage Act. At the time of the law's passage, significant public resistance and concern ensued that men would no longer provide for their families. Popular acceptance of the change will take time, and men are still widely considered as being the head of the household.

Restrictions on women's capacity to enter into a contract limit their autonomy to seek and engage in wage employment. Women need to be able to enter into an employment contract to be able to freely choose a profession and accept employment offers.

Yet, in Equatorial Guinea, which applies the Spanish Civil Code from 1960, married women cannot give consent to enter into a contract. In Lesotho, until 2006, the law regarded married women as minors; they did not have the capacity to enter into contracts, access finance, start a business, or register property. Because a woman could not enter into contracts, her husband, at his own discretion, had to sign employment contracts on his wife's behalf.

Removing Legal Obstacles for Women in DRC

Until 2016, the Democratic Republic of Congo had one of the most prohibitive family codes for women's agency and economic participation. Following the reform, married women now have the autonomy to sign contracts, accept employment, and open bank accounts without their husband's permission. Married women are no longer obligated to obey their husbands, and both spouses choose their marital home.

Women who have a personal bank account can more easily receive salary payments, manage their own savings, and make financial decisions. The ability to freely open a bank account not only facilitates salary payments but also gives a woman autonomy to manage her own funds and build a credit history. Three countries, Chad, Guinea-Bissau, and Niger, restrict married women's ability to open a bank account. In Niger, financial institutions must notify the husband before allowing his wife to open a bank account if the clerk believes the

Increased Control Over Income Promotes Women's Workforce Participation

A recent randomized controlled trial found that women's labor force participation increased when the Indian government deposited women's wages from a public workforce program into bank accounts controlled by the female workers, rather than into their male relatives' accounts (which is a common practice). A year after the change, women who received their salary in a bank account they controlled were not only more likely to reenroll in the six-month-long public workforce program (34%), but they were also more likely to work in the private sector (12%). In addition, women who controlled their own earnings enjoyed greater mobility and were more likely to make household purchases (Field et al. 2016).

husband has provided the funds for household expenses. Research has shown that women are less likely to own a bank account or to save or borrow money in countries that place legal restrictions on women's autonomy.

Account ownership is higher in economies where women work under the same legal provisions as men (Demirguc-Kunt, Klapper, and Singer 2013).

Widespread industry practices, such as requirements that a husband cosign his wife's loan, can restrict women's abilities to bank, even in countries where gender discrimination is prohibited. For instance, the State Bank of Pakistan has issued several circulars to prohibit and address gender-based discrimination in the banking sector during the past couple of years. Yet, financial institutions continue to require that a married woman obtain her husband's written permission and secure two male guarantors for a loan, of which at least one is not a relative. Considering social norms and women's limited mobility, it can be virtually impossible for women to fulfill these requirements (Safavian and Haq 2013).

Child marriage (defined in international conventions as marriage before the age of 18) reduces girls' educational attainment, workforce participation, and intra-household bargaining power. Girls that marry underage are more likely to drop out of school, have children as teenagers, and live in poverty. Studies from Egypt, Nepal, and Uganda show that about 30 percent of girls that drop out of secondary school do so owing to child marriage (Wodon et al. 2017). With limited education and significant household responsibilities, girls that marry young are less likely to engage in wage employment. One study estimated that women could earn up to 15 percent more by ending child marriage and thus allowing girls to remain in school longer. The same study found that ending child marriage would generate an additional \$7.6 billion in Nigeria and \$4.7 billion in Bangladesh in increased earnings and productivity (Wodon et al. 2017). Women who earn their own income also increase their voice and bargaining power in the household.

Improved Inheritance Rights Allow Girls to Delay Marriage and Stay in School

Reforms to improve women's access to assets have been found to improve girls' educational attainment and the ability to delay marriage. A study from India found that following an inheritance reform, which created greater inheritance equality (that made it more likely for women to inherit land), girls and women delayed the age of marriage by half a year, and girls remained in school 0.3 years longer (Deininger, Goyal, and Nagarajan 2010). Thus, families place greater value on their girls and their education when women have increased access to assets.

UNICEF estimates that globally 12 million girls under the age of 18 marry each year. In a handful of countries, where the legal age of marriage for girls is less than 18 years, this is legally permitted. However, in 103 countries, girls younger than 18 can get married with parental consent. For example, there is no lower age limit requiring girls to marry with parental consent in Thailand, Tunisia, and Zambia, while the age limit with parental consent is only age 10 in Sudan and age 14 in Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, and Tanzania. Parental exceptions allow poor families to marry off their daughters when they are young to reduce the family's financial burden. Yet, the prevalence of child marriages is decreasing. In South Asia, 30 percent of girls marry

before age 18, compared to 50 percent a decade ago.

Global research has shown that programs and policies to support girls to remain in school is one of the best ways to reduce child marriage. Cash transfers, reduced school fees, teacher trainings, and life skills support help to retain girls in school (Hindin, Kalamar, and Lee-Rife Kalamar 2016). A study in Zambia found that the national return to school policy for pregnant girls resulted in adolescent mothers completing more schooling. A study from Turkey found that

extending compulsory schooling from 5 to 8 years reduced the probability of girls getting married before the age of 16 by 44 percent (Branson and Travers 2017).

Recommendations

- **Review national systems to obtain a legal identity.** In many societies, women are at a disadvantage in acquiring a legal identity; governments impose differentiated legal requirements for men versus women, more women are illiterate, fewer women have experience interacting with the public administration, and women have less access to financial resources — all aspects that make the application process less accessible to women. Therefore, a gender analysis is needed to review the rules, procedures, practices, and costs to obtain a legal identity.
- **Support reform activities to remove spousal approval to seek employment or travel outside the home.** Fewer women work in countries where they must obey their husband or obtain his approval to work or travel outside the home. Officials must assess the type of civil society, laws and regulations or policies, and public–private dialogue activities that are needed to implement legal reforms in these areas.
- **Support civil society organizations and policy makers to raise and enforce the legal age of marriage to 18 years and keep girls in school.** Underage girls that marry are more likely to drop out of school, not engage in wage employment, and live in poverty. This trend can be reversed by raising the legal age of marriage and supporting girls to remain in school.

EMPLOYMENT RESTRICTIONS FOR WOMEN

Women’s range of employment possibilities are limited by restrictions on what occupations women can hold, the hours they can work, or the tasks they may perform. Such restrictions also reduce the employer’s pool of qualified job seekers. Blanket prohibitions for women to engage in certain economic activities are often motivated by a concern for women’s health and safety. However, in many countries, such regulations are misguided and bar women from higher-paid industries, such as mining or construction, or industries in which jobs are more readily available, such as night-shift manufacturing.

Instead of restricting women’s occupational choices, it is more conducive to improve health and safety regulations and labor conditions for all workers. Overall, 104 countries still have laws preventing women from working in specific jobs (World Bank Group 2018). It is estimated that eliminating barriers that prevent women from working in certain sectors or occupations can increase labor productivity by 25 percent in some economies (World Bank Group 2018). Special considerations for pregnant and lactating women are discussed in detail below.

Women are banned from numerous professions due to concerns about strenuous work conditions and their reproductive health. Although many governments have repealed regulations restricting women’s employment in past decades, such restrictions still prevail around the world, notably in the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) (the former Soviet Union) and the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region.

The governments of the CIS restrict women from working in several hundreds of professions. As a legacy of the Soviet Union, women in the CIS are not allowed to drive long-haul trucks, buses, trains, trams, subways, tractors, or ships, or to work in certain occupations such as forestry workers or fire fighters. Moreover, women are severely restricted from working in the agricultural sector. For instance, women in Tajikistan cannot apply pesticide; care for bulls, horses or male pigs; drive trucks or tractors; or work in cisterns, silos, or wells. Moreover, women are virtually restricted from working in a variety of other sectors, including the oil and construction industries, because they cannot work on rigs or scaffolds at a height over 10 meters (33 feet). Some restrictions are very specific; in Belarus, women are not allowed to gather fruits from trees or bushes taller than 1.3 meters (4 feet), and in the Kyrgyz Republic, women are not allowed to unload fish, stir fish in a salting tub, or behead salmon (ADC Memorial 2018).

A concern for women's reproductive health motivates other, far-reaching labor restrictions on women in the CIS. For instance, Ukraine's public transportation agency has argued that women should not serve as subway car drivers because the noise and vibration could have negative effects on women's reproductive health. However, the validity of the argument is debatable, and in practice, many women in Ukraine are exposed to such vibration as subway passengers and as workers in lower-paying cleaning and sales jobs in the subway systems. The United Nations Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women has called on the Russian Federation to create safe working conditions for all industries, rather than preventing women from being employed in certain professions (ADC Memorial 2018).

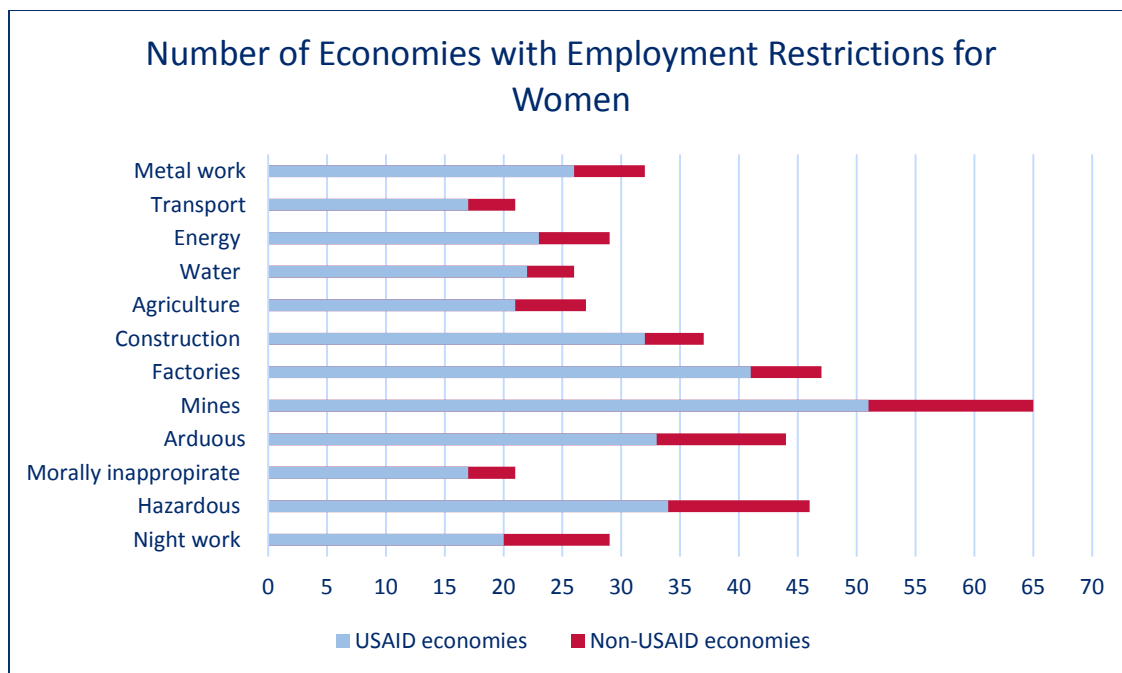
Twenty-one governments restrict women from working in professions that are deemed harmful to their morality. For example, in Madagascar and Senegal, women are not allowed to prepare, handle, or sell printed materials containing "immoral content." In Sri Lanka, women are not allowed to buy or serve alcohol, effectively barring women from working as waitresses or bartenders. In Bolivia, the law does not define what economic activities are immoral, but it is left to the employer's discretion to interpret.

Mining is the most common profession in which governments bar female employment.³ As shown in the chart below, 65 countries prohibit women from working in mines. The arduous, hot, and sometimes dangerous working conditions; the pervasive view that mining is associated with masculinity; and risks of sexual harassment in remote locations, are all factors that cause these governments to consider women unfit for mining. However, mining work can also offer more lucrative pay and advancement opportunities than many other industries, precisely because of the risky, challenging working conditions. Additionally, in some mining communities, this is the only stable, formal sector employment option. Consequently, strong opposing views exist in the international community on women and mining. This is

³ For more information on women in mining, see Chamber of Mines of South Africa fact sheet "Women in Mining: Fact Sheet 2017." <http://www.chamberofmines.org.za/industry-news/publications/fact-sheets/send/3-fact-sheets/424-women-in-mining>

reflected in the fact that two contradictory ILO Conventions are in force that regulate women's work in mines: one convention (1935) bans women from working in mines, while a more recent convention (1995) regulates the safety and health of all workers regardless of sex. The 1935 convention still has the most signatories (98 states versus 32 states), but 29 countries, including Chile and Peru have renounced the 1935 convention.

Until two decades ago, women were not allowed to work in mines in Chile. Since the regulatory change, policies and programs have been put in place to encourage, recruit, and enable women to enter and remain in the profession. For instance, some of the larger mining companies have conducted gender gap analyses, adopted gender diversity strategies, and implemented work-life balance programs for parents. Today, women represent 8 percent of the labor force in the mining sector in Chile but hold less than 1 percent of senior positions. Yet some mines, which actively work to recruit and retain women, have up to 25 percent women employees (ICMM undated). Similarly, South Africa opened up the mining sector to women two decades ago. The South African government requires that mining companies hire at least 10 percent women in various capacities; it has tied the renewal of a company's mining license to this requirement. In 2016, women made up 13 percent of the mining labor force in South Africa, including 15 percent of senior management (Chamber of Mines South Africa 2017). Yet several countries, including Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan, Moldova, Russia, and the Ukraine, restrict women from all underground work, thus banning women from mining as well as from operating subways or working on construction and maintenance crews for tunnels (ADC Memorial 2018).



All employees that work night shifts require special protection. Working at night is sometimes the only available employment opportunity, often offering higher remuneration in manufacturing, processing plants, and call centers. Night schedules are often an integrated part of work in some occupations, such as first responders, health care workers, road construction crews, or bakers. A century ago, the ILO adopted Night Work (Women) Convention, 1919 (No. 4), the first convention restricting women's employment in factories to protect their

occupational health and safety. Since then, women's night work has been widely debated, with countries around the globe having significant divergent views on the issue. Studies have demonstrated that working nights and rotating shifts are associated with multiple health issues. However, there is also well-established scientific evidence that nonpregnant or nonnursing women generally have the same tolerance level to night work as men do (Politakis 2001). Consequently, many countries have removed restrictions on women's night work and have instead adopted regulations to protect and improve the working conditions of all night workers, rather than restricting women's employment opportunities.

Yet, other countries argue that deregulating restrictions on women's night work erodes the protection of women, especially when limited resources exist to improve labor standards. Women's ability to work night shifts are restricted in 29 countries, including Bolivia, Nepal, and Tunisia, with such restrictions most common in South Asia and the MENA region. However, such restrictions are typically not applicable to all night work — notably not to domestic workers — but tend to target low-skill industry and manufacturing employment. For example, the Bolivian Labor Code limits women from working during the night, except for nursing and domestic work. Senegalese law specifically prohibits hiring women from working night shifts in factories, in manufacturing plants, or on construction sites. In practice, such regulations often restrict poor women with limited skills to seek employment.

The ILO revoked the Night Work (Women) Convention in 2017. Instead, ILO, C171, *Night Work Convention* (1990) seeks to protect the health and safety of all night workers in most sectors, balance family and social responsibilities, provide opportunities for occupational advancement, and ensure appropriate compensation. The convention stipulates that during pregnancy and after childbirth, alternatives to night work should be made available to women.

Women's Night Work and Occupational Safety in India

In India, women are prohibited from night work in factories and the service sector. However, the Indian Factories Act and the Shops and Establishment Act allows employers to apply for exemptions if the employer provides the following: adequate occupational health and safety standards, equal opportunities for female workers, and adequate transportation to and from work. A national survey found that 35 percent of women worked night shifts in call centers owing to higher pay. It found that 90 percent of women worked night shifts in low-skill jobs because no other employment options existed. Despite regulatory measures, compared to women working in call centers at night, women in low-skilled factory work were more exposed to harassment at work and on their way to work at night (ASSOCHAM 2006).

Pregnant and lactating employees require special occupational health and safety standards. Night work, heavy lifting, standing for prolonged periods, or exposure to certain chemicals can endanger the health and safety of pregnant or nursing employees. Some countries, including Chile, Ethiopia, Mexico, and the Philippines, prohibit pregnant employees from working nights specifically to protect them from the fatigue and health effects of night work. However, rather than prohibiting women from working nights or performing arduous tasks, a more productive approach would be to require employers to provide pregnant and lactating women with alternative duties at the same terms and conditions as their ordinary work. South Africa mandates this in its labor regulations. In response, some mining companies rotate pregnant or nursing employees into alternative safe positions, either within the company or to an external supplier, or otherwise, enroll them in training and professional development (IFC 2009).

The use of technology and equipment can alleviate concerns about women’s health and safety, thereby reducing the perceived needs to restricting women’s employment and ensuring the health and safety of all workers. Some occupations, such as those in mining and construction, involve strenuous tasks requiring physical strength and endurance. Rather than excluding women from entire sectors of the economy, certain regulations designed to safeguard the health and safety of all workers allow for a more equitable, productive regulatory approach. These regulations include requiring that employers supply equipment and adapt technologies to help with heavy lifts and strenuous activities. Machinery and technology to load, unload, haul, lift, excavate, and shovel reduce workers’ exposure to hazards in work that has traditionally required heavy manual labor. Some mining companies have developed detailed physical requisites for each job category; they also use fitness assessments to determine if job seekers or employees — regardless of gender — meet the criteria, rather than assume that women do not have the strength to perform a certain task (IFC 2009).

Recommendations

- **Undertake country-specific regulatory inventories to map restrictions on women’s employment.** Legislation restricting women’s employment is often dated and overlooked. A review of existing restrictions and an analysis of regional good practices to protect women’s health and safety while promoting women’s labor force participation can stimulate dialogue on policy change.
- **Study the positive effects of regulatory changes allowing women to work in previously banned professions.** It would be worthwhile to assess how policy reforms and public or private sector initiatives are effectively supporting women to enter previously restricted professions, such as mining in Chile and South Africa. Such research would provide local and international stakeholders, including those in countries with restrictive regulations, with valuable insights to improve women’s access to these professions.
- **Conduct an economic impact analysis of the cost of restricting women’s employment.** The calculation of the cost of restricting women from certain professions, such as the transportation sector in CIS, is a valuable tool to stimulate policy dialogue.

OCCUPATIONAL LICENSES

Occupational licenses are required for a broad range of professions. Traditionally, occupational licenses have been required for professions that involve significant education, such as medicine, accounting, engineering, and law. However, in past decades, licensing requirements have also been imposed on occupations that require less education or in which apprenticeships might be more common, such as construction work or beauty services.

Occupational licenses aim to protect public safety and provide consumers with quality assurance. However, research has shown that licensing is unwarranted from a public safety perspective for various occupations, such as mortgage brokers, nail technicians, or barbers, and instead creates unnecessary, costly barriers to enter or reenter (Carpenter et al. 2017).

Licensing requirements are regulated by occupational laws or local ordinances. Requirements typically prescribe professional entrance exams, dictate the minimum length of training or continuing education hours to maintain licensure over time, and stipulate dues payable to a state body or professional organization. For women who temporarily stop working to care for children or other family members, reentry into the profession and license reactivation may mandate additional training requirements and fees, posing a barrier to reentry. Some professions are regulated by a professional organization, such as a bar association for lawyers, which can restrict entry into a profession. Professional organizations have an interest to restrict entrance to the profession to limit competition and not suppress professional fees. There is a risk of inadvertent gender biases in admission processes when professional associations self-regulate the entrance to the profession.

Extensive occupational licensing requirements have created barriers for women to seek employment. The research and policy discussion on the effect of occupational licenses on the labor market focuses on the United States. However, within that literature, there is relatively little attention on whether licensing requirements have differential effects on women's entry and reentry into the labor market.

In the United States, a recent study notes a sharp increase in the number of professions that mandate an occupational license — from 5 percent of workers in the 1950s to 25 percent of workers today (Carpenter et al. 2017). More employed women (28%) than employed men (23%) work in licensed professions (Dohen 2017). Licensing requirements exist for hundreds of occupations that are suitable for individuals with limited higher education who are entering or reentering the labor market. For instance, professional licenses are required for makeup artists, nail technicians, massage therapists, school bus drivers, teacher assistants, athletic trainers, interior designers, home entertainment installers, landscape contractors, and carpenters.

Training requirements to obtain a professional license can be daunting and very costly — particularly for women entering and reentering the labor market. For instance, of the 700,000 licensed hairdressers and cosmetologists in the United States, 94 percent of them are women (Johnson et al. 2016). In Arkansas and Missouri, 1,500 hours of training, costing about \$16,000, are required to obtain the hairdresser and cosmetologist license. These two states, along with a dozen other states, also require hair braiders to obtain a hairdresser license — although the training does not cover braiding. Because women in some cases view these regulations as burdensome, many, particularly African-American women, do not seek a license. Instead, they work in the informal economy, a scenario that limits their ability to realize their full economic potential. For instance, in Louisiana, there were only 32 licensed braiders in 2012; in contrast, in neighboring Mississippi, there were over 1,200. Although similar demand and business opportunities exist in these two states, 500 hours of training is required in Louisiana, while Mississippi requires registration but has no training requirement (Carpenter et al. 2017).

In the United States, each state regulates its occupational licensing regime; thus, an occupation or profession might be regulated in one state and not another, or otherwise, different licensing requirements exist in different states. For instance, a cosmetologist is required to complete 9 months of training in New York, but 16 months in Oregon. For many professions and occupations, the license from one state is not portable to another state. Instead, licensed workers might need to take additional training or tests, which can become quite costly and

time-consuming. Consequently, interstate mobility, which increases job access, becomes increasingly difficult. For example, military families typically move every couple of years. Research has found that 95 percent of military spouses are women, and 35 percent of those that work are in licensed professions or occupations (U.S. Department of the Treasury/Defense 2012). Although the U.S. government has taken measures to improve licensing reciprocity between states for military spouses, for some, the additional time and cost for training makes finding employment an unpractical endeavor.

Throughout the United States, attempts have been made to reduce the number of required occupational licenses to stimulate job creation, but deregulation is almost always met with resistance from organizations representing licensed professionals and such attempts are rarely successful (Thornton and Timmons 2015). Some policy makers have suggested that more voluntary certifications can be used instead to signal credibility to consumers (Nunn 2016).

Limited research exists on the effects of occupational licensure on employment in developing and transitional countries. This assessment noted a dearth of literature on the effect of occupational licenses for employees in developing and transitional economies.

Professions, like accounting and law, are often highly regulated in developing economies, and gatekeepers within professions often seek to restrict entry to limit competition. For instance, as shown in the example from Ghana, the legal profession is tightly restricted, but further research is needed to explore the engendered consequences for women to enter law professions.

A Restrictive Professional Licensing Regime Creates a Shortage of Lawyers in Ghana

In Ghana, about 1,000 students graduate every year with an undergraduate law degree (LLB). However, a master's law degree (LLM) is needed to practice law, and only about 250 students per year are admitted to the country's LLM program. The Ghana Bar Association has the mandate to issue licenses to practice law. In 2015, a total of 2,134 lawyers were licensed to practice in the country. A surplus of university graduates with legal knowledge lack a license to practice law, notwithstanding a shortage of qualified legal professionals in the country's court system. Consequently, the restrictive licensing regime, which the government has entrusted the legal profession to implement, has created a mismatch between labor demand and labor supply, which excludes entry into the profession and drives up the cost of legal services (USAID 2017a).

Further research is also needed on how occupational licensure affects women's entry, reentry, and mobility in developing and transitional economies. Such research should investigate whether occupational licenses are mandatory for professions that require less education or for occupations in which skills are acquired through apprenticeship, such as hairdressers, tailors, or taxi drivers.

Moreover, there is a need to better understand whether women and men are affected differently by occupational licensing regimes. Sex disaggregated data on entrants to the field is currently unavailable (USAID 2017a). Such research would be particularly useful in regions with regional trade agreements that provide for the free movement of workers, such as the Economic Community of West African States, the East African Union, the Caribbean Community, or the Association of Southeast Asian Nations.

Recommendation

- **Study the extent and effect of occupational licenses for women and men in developing or transitional contexts.** Such research would clarify whether occupational licenses pose a problem in the development of labor markets in developing

and transitional economies and whether occupational licensing requirements affect women and men differently.

EMPLOYMENT DISCRIMINATION

Implicit or explicit gender or maternity bias results in discriminatory regulations and policies that limit career participation and advancement for women of childbearing age. When discrimination restricts women's occupational choices, there is a greater concentration of women in low-paying jobs. The gender wage gap, in which men earn more than women, is partly explained by occupational options and choices that women and men make. But this gap can also be attributed to the social expectation that women, especially if they are mothers, will be less committed to their work; thus, they are paid less.

Discrimination in access to employment, career opportunities, and equal pay matters not only to the individual — but also to the economy as a whole. If women and men played an identical role in the labor market, the global gross domestic product could increase an estimated 26 percent, or \$28 trillion, from 2015 to 2025 (McKinsey & Company 2015).

While legal protections against discrimination exist in many countries, culture and ingrained stereotypes and biases perpetuate discrimination and inhibit women's ability to work. A growing number of countries prohibit discrimination in hiring (95), employment (149), promotion (95), and dismissal (108). For instance, during the past two years, the Democratic Republic of Congo, Iraq, Liberia, and Zambia have adopted legislation prohibiting gender discrimination in hiring. A recent survey found that, globally, most men and women find it acceptable for women to hold paid jobs outside the home if they choose to. However, women are more likely than men to find it acceptable, and this gender gap in perception is widest in developing countries. Gaps in perception range from 17 to 34 points in Egypt, Morocco, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Globally, men and women believe that unfair treatment, including discrimination, is one of the key issues women face in employment (ILO and Gallup 2017).

Occupational segregation, where women are overrepresented in the teaching, care, and personal service professions but underrepresented in higher paying professions (that is, in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) results from cultural expectations and biases, social and educational opportunities, and restrictive legal regulations or the lack of protective ones. As part of an experiment in the United States, employers provided with no information other than the job seekers' appearance were twice as likely to hire men than women for a position involving a mathematical task (Reuben, Sapienza, and Zingales 2014).

Occupational segregation is further exasperated by lax or limited enforcement of nondiscrimination regulations. For instance, although China prohibits gender discrimination in hiring, a study of online employment advertisements in China found that one-third of firms listed a preferred gender for the job (Kuhn and Shen 2009). In 2011, the Supreme Court of India upheld a decision that Air India's policy to hire only male cabin crew members as in-flight supervisors was discriminatory and unconstitutional, a decision which enabled women to advance in their profession (Menon 2011).

Maternity discrimination — discrimination owing to pregnancy or motherhood in hiring, employment, advancement, or termination — is prohibited in many countries but remains widespread. The ILO Maternity Convention prohibits pregnancy test requirements in hiring unless the work entails significant health risks for the woman or the unborn child. The Convention guarantees the return to the same or equivalent position following maternity leave; it also prohibits the termination of employment during pregnancy or parental leave unless the employer can prove that the dismissal was unrelated to the pregnancy or motherhood.

However, in practice, women commonly experience discrimination in hiring, employment, promotion, and retention arising from employer perceptions and gender biases about women's abilities and their level of commitment to their jobs and careers. In particular, women who are mothers, pregnant, or simply of childbearing age are often perceived to be less available and committed to their work (Bernard, Correll, and Paik 2007). For example, in Vietnam, some companies have written policies limiting women from holding higher-level positions, and some job advertisements call only for male applicants. Moreover, Vietnamese women in their thirties have a harder time finding, retaining, or renewing employment contracts; this is attributable to assumptions that they have or will start a family (Vietnam News 2017).

In 17 countries, including Guyana, the Kyrgyz Republic, Moldova, and Mongolia, employers are prohibited from asking job seekers about their family status. Yet, many employers ignore the prohibition against pregnancy tests for job seekers. A study on youth employment in El Salvador found that many employers required applicants to submit to pregnancy and HIV tests, although such practices are prohibited (USAID 2017b). A recent study in Peru found that women are commonly asked whether they plan to have children during job interviews and discussions on

Pregnancy and Motherhood Discrimination for Migrant Workers in Asia

In Asia, manufacturers rely heavily on temporary migrant workers, many of whom are young women. Examples from Malaysia, Taiwan, and Thailand demonstrate how regulations on motherhood and migratory work can have a discriminatory or supportive effect on women. For instance, there are 2 million legal migrant workers in Malaysia. Migrant workers must pass a pregnancy test to obtain a work permit for manufacturing and other low-skill sectors. Once hired, female migrant workers are subjected to annual pregnancy tests. If pregnant, a worker will lose her work permit and be deported to her home country at her own expense. In contrast, Taiwan has prohibited pregnancy tests during recruitment and employment, and prohibits employers to terminate and deport pregnant migrant workers. Upon arrival in Taiwan, migrant workers receive information about their rights, and there are government-supported hotlines and shelters for abused workers. However, children born to unskilled migrant workers in Taiwan do not become legal residents and are not eligible for healthcare, making motherhood for migrant workers problematic. Children of female migrant workers from Cambodia, Laos, and Myanmar born in Thailand can become legal residents, obtain health care, and attend school, thus enabling migrant women in Thailand to become mothers while maintaining employment (Fair Labor Association 2018).

promotions, even though employers are not permitted to inquire about this (USAID 2016a). Brazil, Chile, Colombia, and Uruguay provide a broader protection against pregnancy tests than the ILO Convention by prohibiting the practice not just in hiring but also during employment and in promotion or retention decisions (Addati, Cassirer, and Gilchrist 2014).

Most countries (152) prohibit the dismissal of pregnant workers. In Cambodia, pregnant workers are protected from dismissal, but employers have found a work-around to avoid paying legally mandated maternity benefits. Female factory workers are typically employed through short-term

contracts in Cambodia. To avoid having to pay maternity benefits, some Cambodian employers do not renew the employment contract when a female worker becomes pregnant. These women find it hard to find other work when visibly pregnant (Sineat and Handley 2018).

Women earn less than men for work of equal value throughout the world. A significant gender wage gap exists in most of the countries USAID works in, including Azerbaijan (54%), India (34%), Bolivia (27%), and South Africa (18%) (ILO 2015b). The gender wage gap measures the difference between male and female average earnings. Although the wage gap is influenced by levels of education, qualifications, and experience, discrimination and gender stereotypes also contribute to the gap. Some wage inequalities are found in work that is identical, such as “surface technicians” (male-dominated occupation) being paid more than “cleaning maids” (female-dominated). Wage inequalities are also found in different occupations deemed to be of equal value. For example, a court in the United Kingdom found that a clerical assistant did work of equal value to a warehouse operative. The inequality in what men and women earn for equal work is not just unfair, but limits companies from attracting, retaining, and valuing the best talent.

Research has also found that wage inequalities deter many women from entering the labor market at the same rate as equally skilled men. This deterrence can be especially pronounced when combined with other nonwage factors, such as when discrimination is present or where there are strong social norms on women’s responsibilities in household and care roles (African Development Bank 2015). Moreover, women who work reduced hours or take career breaks to provide child or eldercare gain less work experience, a scenario that can result in reduced wages. Employers may perceive employees who are mothers to be less available and committed to their work, and thus, pay mothers less.

Research has found the coexistence of a motherhood wage penalty with a fatherhood wage bonus; that is, women who are mothers earn less than women who are not mothers, while men who have children enjoy a wage increase. In China, mothers face a wage penalty of 37 percent compared to women with no children, and in Mexico, the motherhood wage gap is 33 percent. A study of college-educated men in the United States found that men who are fathers compared with men without children receive a higher salary. The salary increase, which the literature refers to as a fatherhood wage bonus, is dependent on the father’s ethnicity, however; wage bonuses for white fathers are the highest (\$5,000), followed by Latino fathers (\$4,200), and black fathers (\$1,500) (Addati et al. 2016).

The ILO Equal Remuneration Convention stipulates that men and women should receive equal pay for equal value of work. In fact, 40 percent of countries have regulations guaranteeing men and women equal remuneration for work of equal value; these include Algeria, Côte d'Ivoire, Ecuador, Malawi, Peru, the Philippines, and Tajikistan. Less than 25 percent of countries in Latin America and the Caribbean, Middle East and North Africa, East Asia and the Pacific, and South Asia mandate equal remuneration in policy. Employers can use strategies to reduce the gender wage gap, including job evaluations that use gender neutral criteria such as skills, qualifications, responsibilities, and work conditions, wage transparency, and objective wage and promotion criteria. In El Salvador, Kenya, and Morocco, labor inspectors are trained to evaluate whether employees are paid equally for work of equal value to monitor wage inequalities (Addati et al. 2016). Moreover, as discussed below, policies such as childcare, parental leave, and flexible work

arrangements are also important to support parents to remain in the workforce, thus reducing women's career breaks that affect their earning potential.

Women are at a Disadvantage in Many Pension Systems

The structure of pension systems, including the statutory retirement age and the calculation of retirement benefits, affects men and women differently. The gender gap tends to be wider in pension schemes where the final salary is the basis for the pension, as women's salary growth and ending salary are often lower than that of men's (Cameron 2014). Breaks in women's employment to care for children or other family members or part-time work have negative consequences on women's pensions. When the retirement age is lower for women than men, women's opportunities to earn pension benefits and save for retirement are reduced. For instance, the mandatory retirement age is 55 for women but 60 for men in Mauritania, Mozambique, Uzbekistan, and Vietnam. Pension-based paid parental leave, childcare support, and provision of supportive work-life balance policies lead to shorter career interruptions for women — and thus, more equal pension benefits.

Recommendations

- **Assess enforcement of nondiscrimination regulations.** Many countries do not enforce regulations around gender discrimination in the workplace. By reviewing enforcement practices, officials can put in place improved compliance and monitoring and evaluation procedures.
- **Support private sector actors in evaluating potential economic impact of reducing employment discrimination.** Work with private sector industry leaders and associations to assess the economic impact of employment discrimination within organizations and across sectors. Use the findings to stimulate stakeholder conversations and the development of industry guidelines.

SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN EDUCATION, THE WORKPLACE, AND PUBLIC PLACES

Sexual harassment is prevalent around the world and across all sectors. It affects individuals, creating a hostile environment that limits women's mobility as well as educational and employment opportunities. Sexual harassment in school, at work, and in public places disproportionately affects girls and women.

The World Bank (2013) defines *sexual harassment* as "any unwelcome sexual advance, request for sexual favor, verbal or physical conduct or gesture of a sexual nature, or any other behavior of a sexual nature that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offense or humiliation to another." Workplace sexual harassment "interferes with work, is made a condition of employment, or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment."

School-related, gender-based violence

(SRGBV) contributes to girls dropping out of school, which limits employment opportunities. In most developing countries, fewer girls than boys remain in school and complete secondary education. In Ethiopia, there are only 77 girls for every 100 boys enrolled in secondary education (UNESCO 2012). In Burkina Faso, Mozambique, and Niger, only 10 percent of girls complete secondary education (Clinton and Gates 2015). Girls typically leave or never start school due to several pervasive contributing factors, including responsibilities for younger siblings, poverty, the cost of schooling, child marriage, and SRGBV.

Although SRGBV is believed to be underreported, studies show that it is widespread. A survey from Botswana found that 67 percent of students had been sexually harassed by a teacher (Leach 2008); likewise, a study from Zambia found that 17 percent of girls and 6 percent of boys ages 13–17 had experienced sexual violence in school or outside of school during the past year (Heslop et al. 2017). Parents are often cautious about sending girls to school because of the high risks of sexual violence, particularly when schools are far away from home. Instead, parents might arrange early marriages, with the intention of “protecting” their daughters from violence and unwanted pregnancies, causing girls to drop out of school. In conflict settings, the risk of gender-based violence (GBV) is heightened, and girls often stop attending school. A study from the state of Assam in India found that girls’ school enrollment dropped by 13 percent during increased armed conflict (Roy and Singh 2016).

When girls drop out of school, they are less likely to be able to acquire the skills required to enter the labor market. For instance, in Brazil, women with less than primary education are less likely to work (37%) compared to those that complete primary education (50%) or secondary education (60%) (UNESCO 2013). Moreover, sexual harassment in higher education limits women’s learning. A study from Ethiopia found that female university students avoided using the library and laboratories after dark because of safety concerns (Semela 2006). Sexual harassment in tertiary education can make it harder for girls to acquire advanced degrees necessary for the highest-paid jobs and careers.

There is growing awareness about SRGBV; during the past 2 years, 10 countries adopted legislation that specifically addresses GBV in and around schools. Sixty-six countries prohibit sexual harassment in education, including Bangladesh, Egypt, El Salvador, Ethiopia, and the Philippines. In Kenya, teachers are prohibited from harassing and seeking or engaging in sexual activities with students regardless of consent. The regulation specifies that a teacher is prohibited from threatening or proposing sexual relations in exchange for grades. Teachers engaging in sexual misconduct with students are barred from teaching. From 2009 to 2010, 1,100 teachers were banned from teaching in Kenya owing to gender-based harassment or GBV.

Workplace harassment disproportionately affects women, but also has far-reaching negative effects on coworkers and economic productivity. Sexual harassment in the workplace is widespread; a study of female factory workers in Guangzhou, China, found that 70 percent had experienced sexual harassment at work and that 15 percent had quit a job for this reason (Sunflower Women Workers Centre 2013). Migrant women, domestic workers, women working in male-dominated industries or in client-oriented service sectors, including health care, retail, and hospitality are at greater risk of experiencing sexual harassment. In addition, women are at greater risk of experiencing sexual harassment in tight or unregulated work spaces and when they are language-impaired, in isolated positions, or lack job security.

Studies from around the world have shown that employees subjected to physical, physiological, or sexual harassment are less productive at work, absent more frequently, and more likely to resign. Lack of regulation of sexual harassment creates conditions for women in which harassment can be the price to pay for a job offer, pay raise, or promotion. It can also create intolerable work environments that cause women to change their career trajectory or drop out of the workforce entirely.

Intimate partner violence (IPV) also affects survivors' employment status, work performance, and advancement opportunities. In a recent study from China, 13 percent of workers experienced IPV in the past year. Of the survivors, 46 percent reported experiencing abuse by their partners while at work, often by phone, email, or social media. Moreover, 70 percent stated that difficulties to focus at work, tardiness, absence, or the inability to work overtime as a result of IPV negatively affected their promotion opportunities. In 2016, China adopted a domestic violence law that stipulates that the employer should take actions against employee perpetrators of IPV and support employee survivors. Yet, as the law is new, the survey found that only half of the employers were aware of the law's existence, and employers were unclear on their responsibilities (The Asia Foundation 2017).

Sexual harassment also has far-reaching, negative effects on entire workgroups and working environments. A study of sexual harassment among U.S. government workers estimated costs of harassment over a 2-year period at \$327 million, including job turnover, sick and personal leave, and individual and entire workgroup productivity. The survey estimated that 61 percent of the total cost was due to reduced workgroup productivity — as opposed to just declines in individual productivity of the sexual harassment victim (Hersch 2015).

Awareness about workplace harassment is increasing, and many countries have adopted legislation to curb sexual and other forms of harassment. The ILO is currently preparing an international convention to provide international standards on violence and harassment against women and men in the workplace.⁴ While the ILO defines *harassment* as physical, psychological, and sexual acts or behaviors that depart from reasonable conduct, some countries only currently consider physical acts as harassment (ILO 2018). While most countries define harassment to include acts performed by coworkers or third parties, such as clients, some countries limit the definition of harassment as acts perpetrated by superiors. Typically, harassment in the workplace protects employees, but some countries like Bolivia, the Philippines, and Tanzania expand that protection to job seekers as well.

There is no legislation against sexual harassment in the workplace in 59 countries, including Botswana, Guatemala, Indonesia, and Tunisia. Among the 130 countries that prohibit such harassment, a few countries, such as Pakistan, extend this protection only to women as opposed to both women and men. While significantly more women than men are sexually harassed, by focusing only on women, sexual harassment is framed as a women's issue rather than a workplace issue and gender equality issue. Consequently, the definition of who is protected against harassment, where one is protected, and what one is protected from matters a great deal. The more inclusive the definition, the more both women and men are legally protected from harassment.

Harassment regulations need to provide employees with adequate protection and recourse. Of the 31 countries that prohibit sexual harassment in the workplace, all have adopted some civil remedies or criminal penalties. Civil remedies include victim compensation or the perpetrator's

⁴ The ILO refers to the "world of work" rather than workplace to also include off-site work-related events such as meetings, parties, or conferences or, otherwise, technology linking the employee to the workplace, such as emails.

dismissal, while criminal penalties include fines and imprisonment. Laws in Indonesia, Jordan, and Lebanon “permit” a survivor of violence or harassment to resign from work without advance notice. However, these regulations provide employees with no protection from actual harassment because the only redress is for survivors to leave their current job (ILO 2018; USAID 2016b). In total, 31 countries, including Cambodia, Egypt, Mexico, and Rwanda provide for criminal penalties against sexual harassment in employment, while 41 countries, including Namibia, Peru, and Vietnam stipulate for civil remedies. However, 48 countries offer both criminal and civil recourses. It is insufficient to only prohibit sexual and other forms of harassment in the criminal code, as the high burden of proof in criminal cases only covers severe cases of sexual or physical assault, but not the full range of behaviors that entails harassment in the workplace. Sexual harassment in employment is prohibited by criminal law as well as civil law in some countries, such as Colombia, India, Morocco, and Mozambique, and victims can seek a variety of remedies depending on the nature of the harassment.

Some countries require employers to actively invest in preventing harassment in the workplace. The law in Chile and Kenya requires that employers develop and disseminate sexual harassment policies that outline rights, responsibilities, and complaint procedures. Further, in El Salvador, Ministry of Labor inspectors are trained in sexual harassment and conduct preventive inspections.

Gender Equality Certificate Awards in Latin America
Several governments in Latin America recognize enterprises that address sexual harassment and promote gender equality in the workplace with a special certificate during well-publicized annual award ceremonies. Certification systems include *Sello Empresa Segura* (Safe Company Seal) in Peru, the *Sello Igualdad-Conciliación* (Seal of Gender Equality in the Workplace) in Chile, the *Sello Equipares* (Equals Seal) in Colombia, and the *Sello de Calidad con Equidad de Género* (Gender Equity Seal) in Uruguay.

Women’s mobility and ability to safely get to work and school is curtailed when there is high prevalence of sexual harassment in public transportation and in public places, such as streets, parks, and bus stops. Research from around the world has found that sexual harassment is pervasive in public places, and for many women, it is a daily or weekly occurrence. In Chile, 40 percent of women report that they are harassed daily, while 90 percent have been harassed in public at some point. A recent survey from Delhi, India, found that 42 percent of women compared to 0.5 percent of men had been sexually harassed in public spaces during the past 12 months. Only one-fourth of women felt safe using public spaces, compared to half of men (Madan and Nal 2016). In Azerbaijan, most women use public transportation to commute to work or university, yet one-fourth of women who use public transportation experience sexual harassment while commuting almost daily. As a result, many women (up to 60%) reduce their use of public transportation (Asian Development Bank 2015).

Sexual harassment curtails women’s mobility. Private transportation is unaffordable for many women around the world; instead, women walk or take public transportation to work. When sexual harassment in public places is pervasive, women modify or restrict their travel, which can lead them to forgo employment or career opportunities. For instance, women might forgo night work or employment in locations with limited access to safe, accessible, and affordable transportation. Sexual harassment and reduced mobility due to sexual harassment also affects women’s engagement in civil society and access to educational or networking opportunities, both of which can expand employment opportunities. Most victims do not report sexual

harassment to authorities. A survey of public transportation users in London found that 15 percent of women and girls had been sexually harassed in the bus or underground rail system, but 90 percent of these did not report it (Bates 2013).

Relatively few countries outlaw sexual harassment in public places. Only 32 countries, including Benin, Egypt, Ethiopia, Pakistan, Peru, and Zambia have laws on sexual harassment in public places. Sexual harassment in public places is often regulated at the municipal level. For instance, local ordinances prohibit and penalize sexual harassment in public places in Quito, Ecuador, and in Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Bicycles Offer Girls Safer Routes to School in Rural India
A study from India found that when girls in secondary school were provided with a bike to get to school, girls' enrollment increased by 32 percent, school graduation rates for girls increased, and the gender enrollment gap was significantly reduced. In particular, for girls who lived in villages farther away, the bicycle improved safety concerns along the school route and reduced commute times (Muralidharan and Prakash 2017).

The city of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, collaborated with United Nations Women to launch a mobile app to provide women in low-income communities with up-to-date safety information. The app provides interactive digital maps of defective infrastructure and unlit areas, allowing women to plan their movements accordingly. It also connects users to police stations with gender-based violence services and women's resource centers. In Mexico City, where 64 percent of women report experiencing sexual harassment on public transportation (Thomas Reuter Foundation 2014), the government launched a campaign to expand women's access to safe public transportation. The initiative has established women-only public transportation options, public awareness campaigns, and a hotline to report offenses. In addition, a regulatory reform shifted the understanding of sexual harassment; previously, a misdemeanor offense, sexual harassment is now framed as a violation of a person's equal right to urban resources. However, using women-only transportation to improve safety is controversial, and can deepen gender divides without addressing root causes of women's safety issues (Dunckel-Graglia 2013).

Ongoing Research on Women's Access to Transportation and Employment

Multiple ongoing impact evaluations are investigating the connection between women's access to public transportation and employment opportunities in developing economies. The Poverty Action Lab is investigating whether the expansion of low-cost public transportation feeder routes, some of them with wagons reserved for women only, improve women's mobility, empowerment, and employment in Lahore, Pakistan (Field and Vyborny forthcoming). The World Bank is evaluating whether women in Rio de Janeiro traveling by women-only modes of public transportation enjoy greater mobility, have a higher rate of employment, and experience less sexual harassment in public transportation. This research will also assess what impact a large expressway construction project connected to the development of an industrial zone in Ethiopia will have on women's access to employment (World Bank). These study results should inform public policies on women's access to transportation.

Recommendations

- **Expand sexual harassment legislation to places of education and public spaces.** Sexual harassment and sexual violence in and around schools and in public places, including public transportation, is widespread in many countries. Yet, few countries have laws specifically targeting such acts. The prohibition and sanctions of such acts, coupled with implementation and enforcement plans, is necessary to reduce prevalence and provide appropriate response mechanisms.

- **Support governments to adhere to and implement the forthcoming ILO Convention on violence and harassment in the workplace.** More than one-quarter of all countries have no legislation on workplace sexual harassment. In some countries, the definition of *harassment* is too narrow. Increased awareness, adherence, and implementation of the ILO Convention and standards will improve the situation.

ENABLING PARENTS TO WORK

Women spend significantly more time than men on unpaid domestic work, including childcare, eldercare, and household chores. For instance, women in India do almost 6 hours of unpaid work every day, while men do less than 1 hour (Clinton and Gates 2015). Similarly, in Peru, compared to men, women spend 26 more hours every week on unpaid work. Because of the heavy burden of unpaid work, women in Peru spend considerably less time in paid work (36 hours) than men (50 hours). The heavy burden of paid and unpaid work leaves women with significantly less time for leisure, civic engagement, or professional development (USAID 2016a).

Women's time poverty affects their ability to remain and advance in the workforce, particularly when they care for young children or older relatives. Regulations and policies can support women and men to balance their work and family commitments; examples include paid parental leave, flexible work arrangements, and adequate childcare. Yet, some policies intended to enable women to work reinforce social stereotypes about family responsibilities, such as childcare centers specifically for working mothers rather than for all working parents.

Paid parental leave creates greater gender equality and supports working parents by enabling both mothers and fathers get time off to care for their infants. Countries around the globe recognize that maternity leave has positive health effects on mothers and their children, thus allowing for the establishment and maintenance of breastfeeding. Paid parental

Many Mothers in Moldova Do Not Work for Years

The Labor Code in Moldova grants women 126 days of paid maternity leave and men 14 days of paid paternity leave. However, mothers — or in the case that they do not claim it, fathers or grandparents — have also the right to paid childcare leave (which compared to maternity leave, requires a smaller disbursement) until the child is three years old. Thereafter, mothers have the right to an additional year of unpaid leave until the child is four years old. During leave, the employee maintains her or his job security and cannot be dismissed. Research has found that 95 percent of childcare leave is used by mothers (Cheianu-Andrei et al. 2015). Childcare services for children under age three is limited (60 percent of mothers have access in urban areas and 10 percent in rural areas), making it difficult for some mothers with young children to choose when to return to work and often causing women to further delay reentry into the workforce (UNDP Moldova 2017). As a result, women with multiple children might be out of the labor force for close to a decade, or more. A survey of businesses in Moldova found that employers prefer to hire and promote men, even those with weaker qualifications than women, to avoid long human resource gaps owing to maternity and childcare leave (Cruz 2012).

leave offers parents financial security while caring for their infants. Such leave can be paid for either by the state, which reduces the burden for businesses to employ parents, or directly by the employer.

Governments pay for maternity leave benefits in 96 countries, including in Chile, Jordan, Mozambique, and the Philippines. In the remaining countries, either the employer (53) or a combination of the employer and the government (27) pay for the benefits. While the length of maternity leave varies, many economies have adopted ILO's minimum standard of 14 weeks or more of maternity leave. Yet, the state financially provides significantly

longer maternity leave in some countries, such as Georgia (183 days), South Africa (120 days), and Vietnam (180 days).

Almost all countries (184) mandate paid or unpaid maternity leave, but 70 economies do not mandate paid or unpaid paternity leave. Paternity leave affirms that fathers have a right to parenthood and to bond with their children, but also a responsibility to share in childrearing and household work. A study analyzing private sector employment data from 53 developing countries, found that women's employment is 7 percent higher in countries that provide paternity leave (Amin et al. 2016) Thus, parental leave can change social attitudes and expectations about care responsibilities and create greater equality in the home and workplace.

Many developing countries mandate that the employer pay maternity and paternity leave benefits. When the law mandates paid or unpaid paternity leave, the leave is typically less than 2 weeks with a median length of 5 days, and if paid, the employer commonly does so. On average, maternity leave is 93 days longer than paternity leave. When parental leave is available to both parents, women tend to use it more than men. Because maternity leave is typically longer than paternity leave and more women take advantage of parental leave policies, the requirement to pay for maternity leave adds to the cost of hiring women of childbearing age. Thus, these leave policies create an unintended disincentive for employers, especially small and medium-sized enterprises, to hire women. It can also lead employers to reduce women's salaries to compensate for the cost of higher leave benefits. For example, India recently increased maternity leave policies from 84 to 182 days. While this is a positive reform for those employees who receive it, employers bear the full cost and have no obligation to provide paid paternity leave. This practice creates an added disincentive for hiring female employees of childbearing age. Although extended durations of maternity leave have significant benefits on women and their families, too much time out of the labor force can lead to a reduction in women's relative wages in practice — especially when parental leave is not available to or used by fathers (World Bank 2018).⁵

Policies supporting parents to balance work and family commitments enable women to remain and advance in the workforce. The 2000 ILO Maternity Protection Convention sets out specific principles that facilitate women's return to work following maternity leave. Women have the right to return to the same or a similar position, with the same remuneration. In 113 countries, including Bolivia, Burkina Faso, Chile, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Kenya, Peru, and Vietnam, women have the right to come back to the same or an equal position after maternity leave. The Convention also protects mothers from discrimination at work and establishes the right to daily breaks for lactation. Most countries (141) have laws requiring employers to provide lactating mothers with breaks. In Peru, employers of 20 women or more of reproductive age must establish a lactation room. In 2015, there were over 700 nursing

⁵ For more information, see the World Bank's webpage "Gender Equality for Development," a core theme of Impact Evaluation to Development Impact (i2i), a World Bank multidonor trust fund program launched in March 2014 with support from the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID).

rooms in the Peruvian workplace, although most of them were in Lima, where most of the large enterprises and government agencies are located (USAID 2016a).

A recent global survey of female lawyers found that difficulties balancing family and work commitments was the most frequent reason why women left the profession (Ellis and Buckett 2017). Government regulations and business policies supporting flexible work arrangements, including flextime, telecommuting, part-time work, and extended leave, help women balance work and family commitments while remaining in the workforce — especially in societies with traditional gender roles and limited subsidized childcare services. Only 33 countries explicitly grant parents the right to request or obtain flexible work arrangements by law. In 2015, Peru adopted a telework law to support flexibility in the workplace. However, so far, it is primarily multinational firms in Peru that allow employees to work remotely, and some women forgo telecommuting options because they do not want to be perceived as being uncommitted to the job (USAID 2016a). Therefore, it is important that both men and women are encouraged to telework to counter gender stereotypes about family responsibilities. In addition, because of eldercare responsibilities, older women find it more attractive to remain in the workforce if flexible work schedules are available (Austen and Ong 2009).

Some governments exempt working mothers from business travel or from working overtime or on weekends. For example, in the Kyrgyz Republic, women with children under age three may refuse to work under these conditions. In the Ukraine, women with children under age 14 are restricted from working overtime or traveling for business and have the right to work part-time. While such exemptions are intended to make it easier for women to both work and care for their families, such provisions reinforce social stereotypes that mothers are the primary caretakers of children, rather than promote the notion that parents share the responsibility of childrearing. These exceptions might make employers less inclined to hire women and can negatively affect women's prospects for career advancement — especially when longer hours or business travel is necessary for recognition and promotion.

Access to affordable, quality childcare enables mothers to return to work, while increasing women's productivity and decreasing absenteeism. Globally, women spend more than three times as much time on caring for family members as men (Melamed 2016). Therefore, the availability and affordability of childcare affect mothers' workforce participation,

More Women in Indonesia Work When Public Preschools are Available

Women's labor force participation is lower in Indonesia (51%) than in other countries in East Asia and the Pacific (61%). Childcare constraints is a key factor explaining women's limited engagement in the workforce. A World Bank study analyzing national data found that mothers whose children were enrolled in public preschool were employed at a much higher rate (64%) than the national average (Halim et al. 2017). Thus, public policies expanding the availability of public preschools would stimulate women's entry into the workforce.

career choices, and earning potential. Evidence shows that when subsidized childcare is available, the female labor force participation is higher. Moreover, reliable childcare options are beneficial for the employer because they improve worker attendance, retention, and productivity. For instance, a floriculture business in Kenya that established on-site childcare found that unplanned leave declined by 25 percent and productivity improved. Similarly, a garment manufacturing business in Vietnam reduced its staff turnover rate by one-third after offering childcare for employees' children (IFC 2013).

Low-income women are particularly adversely affected by a lack of affordable childcare policies; they are often unable to afford not to return to work but also encounter difficulties in affording quality childcare options that would allow them to return to work. The absence of affordable, quality childcare policies and solutions can also negatively affect future career prospects of girls, who are often withdrawn from school to look after younger siblings or family members in the absence of other affordable childcare solutions.

The main models for financing childcare include tax incentives to private childcare providers, government-supplied childcare, or parental tax-deductions for childcare expenses. Ukraine grants tax benefits for payments to preschool facilities. However, tax deductions tend to favor high-income rather than low-income parents, the latter who derive little benefit (Addati et al. 2016). Universal public childcare policies require significant public resources, which few developing countries are able to fund. While some countries, like Brazil, Costa Rica, and Ghana provide free, compulsory childcare from age four, these policies do not address childcare constraints for women with children under this age. In addition, childcare is largely unregulated in many of the countries that USAID works in, with few certification programs, regulated standards, or defined professionalization tracks for informal childcare providers.

Some countries have laws that require employers to provide childcare. In Ecuador and India, employers are required to support childcare if they employ more than 50 employees (male or female). However, policies in Brazil, Chile, Jordan, and Turkey are not gender-neutral and link requirements to provide childcare to the employment of women. The Chilean Labor Code mandates all firms employing 20 or more female workers to provide employer-paid childcare services for female employees. However, research has found that women employed in companies with 20 or more women earn 9 to 20 percent less than women working in firms employing less than 20 women. As the cost of employing women in Chile is increased, women experience a wage penalty (Prada et al. 2015). While these policies are intended to support women's employment, they can create disincentives to hire women and can lead employers to hire women informally or underreport the number of women employees to avoid paying for this benefit. Such policies also institutionalize the view that mothers, rather than parents, are responsible for childcare.

Onsite Childcare Reduces Absenteeism and Increase Productivity in Kenya

Safaricom, a Kenyan telecommunication company, provides their employees in Nairobi with free, high-quality, on-site childcare. Safaricom is not obligated to provide its employees with childcare by law, but is doing so to reduce staff tardiness, absenteeism, and turn-over. Childcare facilities and recreational rooms for older children can be used at a regular basis, but Safaricom has found that many parents use the service as a backup care option. While many working parents in Kenya employ nannies, parents attest that having flexible childcare options at work reduces the stress of childcare when children are sick, on school breaks, or when the nanny is unavailable, thus allowing workers to remain productive and focused on work. The company views the family friendly policies as a tool to retain talented women, many of whom have been promoted to mid-level and senior positions (IFC 2017).

Recommendations

- **Review policies to ensure they support working parents rather than only working mothers.** Some policies intended to support women's labor force participation increases the cost of hiring women. Policies that single out working mothers reinforce social stereotypes about family responsibilities and could lead to

workplace discrimination. Gender analyses of existing policies intended to support working parents would help create more equitable public and private sector policies for both women and men.

- **Conduct a cost-benefit analysis of expanding access to affordable, quality childcare.** Research shows that access to affordable and quality childcare enables more women to enter the workforce. A cost-benefit analysis of expanding subsidized childcare can be used to launch a stakeholder conversation about enabling more parents to work and expanding the workforce.

CONCLUSION

Globally, fewer women than men are engaged in the formal workforce. This report highlights how regulations can make it more challenging for women to seek employment, laws prohibit or restrict women from working, and the lack of protective or supportive laws create hostile or unsupportive working environments for women. Each country has its own set of rules, regulations and practices that influence women's wage employment opportunities. The appendixes from the World Bank's Women, Business and the Law project indicate, at the country level, where there are specific concerns or opportunities for reform.

This report intends to stimulate further discussions at the national level to support women to enter, remain in, and advance in the workforce. Across all areas discussed in the report, it is recommended that stakeholders invest in research and evaluation on how the removal of discriminatory regulations affects women's labor force participation. Further research and investment is also recommended to identify additional case studies, lessons learned, and good practices on what works to address and reduce legal and regulatory barriers to women's employment.

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APPENDIX A: ABILITY TO WORK

Data for the below five appendices has been derived from the World Bank report *Women, Business and the Law 2018*. Considering that each country has a unique regulatory structure, primarily legal sources should be consulted to contextualize the legal status of these topics.

Economy	Can a married woman apply for a passport in the same way as a married man?	Can a married woman obtain a national ID card in the same way as a married man?
Afghanistan	No *	No *
Algeria	No	No
Bahrain	No	
Barbados	No	
Belize	No	
Benin	No	No
Botswana	No	
Cameroon	No	No
Congo, Rep.	No	No
Cyprus	No	
Dominica	No	
Egypt, Arab Rep.	No	No
Fiji	No	
Gabon	No	
Grenada	No	
Guyana	No	
Haiti	No	
Iran, Islamic Rep.	No	
Jordan	No *	
Malawi	No	
Mali	No	
Mauritius		No
Myanmar	No	
Namibia		No
Nigeria	No	
Oman	No	No *
Pakistan	No	No
Philippines	No	
Samoa	No	
Saudi Arabia	No *	No *
Seychelles	No	
Solomon Islands	No	
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	No	
Sudan	No	
Trinidad and Tobago	No	

Uganda	No	
United Arab Emirates	No	
Yemen, Rep.	No	
Zambia	No	
Total	36	11

* Also restricted for unmarried women

Economy	Can a married woman travel outside her home in the same way as a married man?	Can a married woman travel outside the country in the same way as a married man?
Afghanistan	No	
Bahrain	No	
Brunei Darussalam	No	
Egypt, Arab Rep.	No	
Iran, Islamic Rep.	No	No
Iraq	No	No
Jordan	No	
Kuwait	No	
Malaysia	No	
Oman	No	
Qatar	No	No
Saudi Arabia	No	No
Sudan	No	No
Syrian Arab Republic	No	No
United Arab Emirates	No	
West Bank and Gaza	No	
Yemen, Rep.	No	
Total	17	6

Economy	Can a married woman choose where to live in the same way as a married man?	Can a married woman get a job or pursue a trade or profession in the same way as a married man?
Afghanistan	No	
Bahrain	No	No
Benin	No	
Brunei Darussalam	No	
Burkina Faso	No	
Cameroon	No	No
Central African Republic	No	
Chad	No	No
Comoros	No	No
Congo, Rep.	No	
Equatorial Guinea	No	
Gabon	No	No
Guinea	No	No
Guinea-Bissau	No	No
Haiti	No	
Iran, Islamic Rep.	No	No
Iraq	No	
Jordan	No	No
Kuwait	No	No
Malaysia	No	
Mali	No	
Mauritania		No
Niger	No	No
Oman	No	
Qatar	No	No
Saudi Arabia	No	
Senegal	No	
Sudan	No	No
Syrian Arab Republic	No	No
United Arab Emirates	No	No
West Bank and Gaza	No	No
Yemen, Rep.	No	No
Total	31	18

Economy	Can a married woman be "head of household" or "head of family" in the same way as a married man?	Are married women required by law to obey their husbands?
Afghanistan		Yes
Bahrain	No	Yes
Brunei Darussalam		Yes
Burundi	No	
Cameroon	No	
Central African Republic	No	
Chad	No	
Chile	No	
Comoros	No	
Congo, Dem. Rep.	No	
Congo, Rep.	No	
Djibouti	No	Yes
Egypt, Arab Rep.		Yes
Gabon	No	Yes
Guinea	No	Yes
Guinea-Bissau	No	
Indonesia	No	
Iran, Islamic Rep.	No	Yes
Iraq	No	Yes
Jordan	No	Yes
Libya	No	
Madagascar	No	
Malaysia		Yes
Mali	No	Yes
Mauritania	No	Yes
Morocco	No	
Niger	No	
Oman	No	
Qatar		Yes
San Marino	No	
Saudi Arabia	No*	Yes
Senegal	No	
Sudan	No*	Yes
Tunisia	No	
United Arab Emirates	No	Yes
West Bank and Gaza		Yes
Yemen, Rep.	No	Yes
Total	31	19

*also restricted for unmarried women

Economies	What is the minimum age of marriage with parental consent for girls?
Brunei Darussalam, Djibouti, Libya, Luxembourg, Maldives, Mauritania, Qatar, Sri Lanka, Trinidad and Tobago, and Yemen, Rep.	None
Sudan	Age 10
Ecuador, Equatorial Guinea	Age 12
Iran, Islamic Rep.	Age 13
Colombia, Guatemala, Guinea-Bissau, Mexico, Panama, Puerto Rico (U.S.), São Tomé and Príncipe	Age 14
Afghanistan, Angola, Antigua and Barbuda, The Bahamas, Cameroon, Chad, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Gabon, Haiti, Iraq, Kuwait, Malawi, Niger, Seychelles, Solomon Islands, South Africa, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Tanzania, Tonga, West Bank and Gaza	Age 15
Argentina, Armenia, Austria, Bahrain, Barbados, Belize, Bolivia, Brazil, Cabo Verde, Cambodia, Canada, Chile, Cyprus, Dominica, Georgia, Grenada, Guyana, Honduras, Hong Kong SAR, China, Hungary, Indonesia, Jamaica, Japan, Latvia, Lesotho, Malaysia, Mali, Malta, Marshall Islands, Mauritius, Micronesia, Fed. Sts., Moldova, Mozambique, Myanmar, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Paraguay, Portugal, Romania, Samoa, Senegal, Spain, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, Swaziland, Taiwan, China, Timor-Leste, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Vanuatu, Venezuela, RB, Zambia, Zimbabwe	Age 16
Burkina Faso, Syrian Arab Republic, Thailand, Turkey, Uzbekistan	Age 17

Economy	What is the legal age of marriage for girls?
Afghanistan	Age 16
Kiribati	Age 16
Syrian Arab Republic	Age 17
United States	Age 17

APPENDIX B: EMPLOYMENT RESTRICTIONS

Data for the below five appendices has been derived from the World Bank report *Women, Business and the Law 2018*. Considering that each country has a unique regulatory structure, primarily legal sources should be consulted to contextualize the legal status of these topics.

Can nonpregnant and nonnursing women work:

Economy	the same night hours as men?	in jobs deemed hazardous in the same way as men?	in jobs deemed morally or socially inappropriate in the same way as men?	in jobs deemed arduous in the same way as men?	in mining in the same way as men?	in factories in the same way as men?
Afghanistan*	No	No		No	No	
Algeria	No			No		
Angola*		No			No	No
Argentina		No		No	No	No
Azerbaijan*	No	No		No	No	No
Bahrain				No	No	No
Bangladesh*		No			No	No
Barbados						
Belarus*		No		No	No	No
Belize					No	No
Benin*				No		
Bolivia*	No	No	No	No		
Bosnia and Herzegovina*	No				No	
Burkina Faso*		No				
Cameroon*			No	No	No	No
Central African Republic*		No	No	No	No	No
Chad*		No	No	No	No	No
China*				No	No	
Congo, Dem. Rep.*				No		
Congo, Rep.		No	No	No	No	No
Costa Rica	No	No	No	No		
Côte d'Ivoire*				No		
Cyprus*					No	
Dominica*					No	No
Egypt, Arab Rep.*		No	No	No	No	No
Ethiopia*		No		No	No	

Economy	the same night hours as men?	in jobs deemed hazardous in the same way as men?	in jobs deemed morally or socially inappropriate in the same way as men?	in jobs deemed arduous in the same way as men?	in mining in the same way as men?	in factories in the same way as men?
Fiji*					No	No
Gabon						No
Ghana*						No
Guatemala*			No			
Guinea*					No	No
Guinea-Bissau	No	No		No	No	
Honduras*			No			
India*	No	No	No		No	No
Iran, Islamic Rep.		No		No		
Iraq*	No	No		No		
Israel		No				
Jamaica*						No
Japan					No	
Jordan*	No				No	No
Kazakhstan*		No		No	No	No
Korea, Rep.		No			No	
Kuwait	No	No	No	No	No	No
Kyrgyz Republic*		No		No	No	No
Lebanon*					No	No
Lesotho*					No	
Macedonia, FYR*					No	No
Madagascar*		No	No	No	No	No
Malaysia					No	No
Mali*		No	No	No	No	No
Mauritania*		No	No	No	No	No
Moldova*		No		No	No	No
Montenegro*	No	No		No	No	No
Morocco*		No	No	No	No	
Mozambique*		No				
Myanmar*					No	No
Nepal*	No					
Niger*		No	No	No	No	No
Nigeria*					No	No
Oman	No	No		No		
Pakistan*	No	No			No	No
Panama*		No				
Papua New Guinea*				No	No	No
Qatar		No	No	No		
Russia*		No		No	No	No
São Tomé and Príncipe	No	No		No	No	

Economy	the same night hours as men?	in jobs deemed hazardous in the same way as men?	in jobs deemed morally or socially inappropriate in the same way as men?	in jobs deemed arduous in the same way as men?	in mining in the same way as men?	in factories in the same way as men?
Saudi Arabia	No	No			No	No
Senegal*		No	No	No	No	No
Sierra Leone*					No	No
Slovenia					No	
Solomon Islands*	No				No	
South Sudan*	No	No		No	No	
Sri Lanka*	No				No	No
St. Vincent and the Grenadines*					No	No
Sudan	No	No		No	No	
Swaziland*					No	
Syrian Arab Republic*	No	No	No	No	No	No
Tajikistan*		No		No	No	No
Thailand*					No	
Tunisia*	No				No	
Turkey	No				No	
Ukraine*	No	No		No	No	No
United Arab Emirates	No	No	No	No	No	No
Uzbekistan*					No	No
Vanuatu*	No					
Vietnam*					No	
West Bank and Gaza*	No				No	
Yemen, Rep.*	No	No	No	No		
Total	29	46	21	44	65	47

* Countries that USAID works in. The complete list can be found here: <https://www.usaid.gov/where-we-work>

Can nonpregnant and nonnursing women work:

Economy	in construction in the same way as men?	in agriculture in the same way as men?	in water sector in the same way as men?	in energy sector in the same way as men?	in transport in the same way as men?	in metalworking in the same way as men?
Angola		No		No		No
Argentina					No	No
Azerbaijan	No	No	No	No	No	No
Bahrain	No			No		No
Bangladesh			No			
Barbados						No
Belarus	No	No	No	No	No	No
Belize	No	No	No	No	No	
Benin	No					
Burkina Faso	No					
Cameroon	No			No		No
Central African Republic	No	No				
Chad	No					
China			No			
Congo, Rep.	No					
Dominica	No		No	No	No	
Egypt, Arab Rep.	No	No		No		No
Ethiopia		No				No
Guinea	No					No
India						No
Jordan				No		No
Kazakhstan	No	No	No	No	No	No
Korea, Rep.						
Kuwait	No	No		No	No	No
Kyrgyz Republic	No	No	No	No	No	No
Lebanon		No		No	No	No
Macedonia, FYR	No					
Madagascar	No	No	No	No	No	No
Malaysia	No	No	No	No	No	
Mali	No					No
Malta						No
Mauritania	No					
Moldova	No	No	No	No	No	No
Montenegro	No		No			
Niger	No	No				No
Nigeria	No	No	No	No	No	
Papua New Guinea	No		No	No	No	
Qatar						

Economy	in construction in the same way as men?	in agriculture in the same way as men?	in water sector in the same way as men?	in energy sector in the same way as men?	in transport in the same way as men?	in metalworking in the same way as men?
Russia	No	No	No	No	No	No
São Tomé and Príncipe						
Saudi Arabia	No	No	No	No		No
Senegal	No					No
Sierra Leone	No		No	No	No	
South Sudan			No			
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	No		No	No		
Sudan			No			
Syrian Arab Republic	No	No		No	No	No
Tajikistan	No	No	No	No	No	No
Thailand	No		No			
Tunisia		No				No
Turkey		No	No			
Ukraine	No	No	No	No	No	No
United Arab Emirates		No		No		No
Uzbekistan	No	No	No	No	No	No
Vanuatu						
Vietnam	No	No	No	No	No	No
West Bank and Gaza		No		No		No
Total	37	27	26	29	21	32

APPENDIX C: EMPLOYMENT DISCRIMINATION

Data for the below five appendices has been derived from the World Bank report *Women, Business and the Law 2018*. Considering that each country has a unique regulatory structure, primarily legal sources should be consulted to contextualize the legal status of these topics.

Economy	Does the law mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in employment?	Is dismissal of pregnant workers prohibited?
Afghanistan		No	No
Albania	Yes		
Algeria	Yes	No	No
Angola	Yes		
Antigua and Barbuda			No
Argentina	Yes		
Australia	Yes		
Austria	Yes		
Bangladesh		No	No
Barbados		No	
Belarus	Yes		
Belgium	Yes		
Belize		No	
Benin	Yes		
Bhutan	Yes		
Bolivia	Yes	No	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Yes		
Botswana		No	No
Brunei Darussalam		No	No
Bulgaria	Yes		
Cameroon		No	
Canada	Yes		
Central African Republic		No	No
Chad	Yes		
Comoros	Yes		
Congo, Rep.		No	No
Côte d'Ivoire	Yes		
Croatia	Yes		
Cyprus	Yes		
Czech Republic	Yes		
Denmark	Yes		
Djibouti	Yes		

Economy	Does the law mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in employment?	Is dismissal of pregnant workers prohibited?
Dominica		No	No
Ecuador	Yes		
Equatorial Guinea	Yes		
Estonia	Yes		
Finland	Yes		
France	Yes		
Greece	Yes		
Grenada	Yes		
Guinea	Yes		
Guinea-Bissau			No
Guyana	Yes		
Iceland	Yes		
Iran, Islamic Rep.		No	No
Iraq			No
Ireland	Yes		
Israel	Yes		
Italy	Yes		
Jamaica		No	
Jordan		No	No
Kenya	Yes		
Kiribati	Yes		
Kosovo	Yes		
Kuwait		No	No
Latvia	Yes		
Lesotho	Yes		
Liberia	Yes		
Libya	Yes		
Lithuania	Yes		
Luxembourg	Yes		
Malawi	Yes		
Malaysia		No	No
Mali		No	No
Malta	Yes		
Marshall Islands		No	No
Mauritania			No
Mauritius	Yes		
Micronesia, Fed. Sts.		No	No
Montenegro	Yes		
Morocco	Yes		
Myanmar		No	No
Namibia	Yes		
Nepal		No	No
Netherlands	Yes		
Niger	Yes		

Economy	Does the law mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in employment?	Is dismissal of pregnant workers prohibited?
Nigeria		No	
Norway	Yes		
Pakistan		No	
Palau		No	No
Paraguay	Yes		
Peru	Yes		
Philippines	Yes		
Portugal	Yes		
Qatar		No	No
Romania	Yes		
Rwanda			No
Samoa	Yes		
São Tomé and Príncipe			No
Saudi Arabia		No	No
Senegal		No	No
Serbia	Yes		
Sierra Leone		No	No
Singapore		No	No
Slovak Republic	Yes		
Slovenia	Yes		
Solomon Islands		No	No
South Africa	Yes		
South Sudan		No	
Spain	Yes		
Sri Lanka		No	
St. Kitts and Nevis		No	
St. Lucia	Yes		
St. Vincent and the Sudan		No	
Suriname		No	No
Sweden	Yes		
Switzerland	Yes		
Syrian Arab Republic			No
Taiwan, China	Yes		
Tajikistan	Yes		
Tanzania	Yes		
Togo	Yes		
Tonga		No	No
Trinidad and Tobago			No
Turkey	Yes		
Uganda	Yes		
United Arab Emirates		No	No
United Kingdom	Yes		
Vanuatu		No	
Vietnam	Yes		
West Bank and Gaza			No
Yemen, Rep.			No
Zambia	Yes		

Economy	Does the law mandate equal remuneration for work of equal value?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in employment?	Is dismissal of pregnant workers prohibited?
Total	76	40	37

Economy	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in hiring?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in promotions?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in dismissal?
Albania	Yes	Yes	Yes
Angola		Yes	
Antigua and Barbuda	Yes		
Argentina	Yes	Yes	Yes
Australia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Austria	Yes	Yes	Yes
Azerbaijan	Yes	Yes	Yes
Bahamas, The	Yes	Yes	Yes
Bahrain			Yes
Barbados			Yes
Belgium	Yes	Yes	Yes
Belize			Yes
Benin	Yes	Yes	Yes
Bhutan	Yes		Yes
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Yes	Yes	Yes
Botswana			Yes
Brazil	Yes	Yes	Yes
Bulgaria	Yes	Yes	Yes
Burundi	Yes	Yes	Yes
Cabo Verde			Yes
Cambodia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Chad	Yes	Yes	Yes
Chile			Yes
China	Yes	Yes	
Comoros	Yes		Yes
Congo, Dem. Rep.	Yes	Yes	Yes
Costa Rica			Yes
Côte d'Ivoire	Yes	Yes	Yes
Croatia	Yes	Yes	
Cyprus	Yes	Yes	Yes
Czech Republic	Yes	Yes	
Denmark	Yes	Yes	Yes
Djibouti	Yes	Yes	Yes
Dominican Republic	Yes		Yes
Ecuador		Yes	
Egypt, Arab Rep.			Yes

Economy	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in hiring?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in promotions?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in dismissal?
Estonia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Ethiopia		Yes	
Fiji	Yes	Yes	Yes
Finland	Yes		Yes
France	Yes	Yes	Yes
Gambia, The			Yes
Georgia			Yes
Germany	Yes	Yes	Yes
Ghana			Yes
Greece	Yes	Yes	Yes
Grenada	Yes	Yes	Yes
Guinea	Yes	Yes	Yes
Guyana	Yes	Yes	Yes
Haiti			Yes
Honduras	Yes	Yes	Yes
Hong Kong SAR, China	Yes	Yes	Yes
Hungary	Yes	Yes	Yes
Iceland	Yes	Yes	Yes
India	Yes	Yes	
Indonesia			Yes
Iraq	Yes		Yes
Ireland	Yes	Yes	Yes
Israel	Yes	Yes	Yes
Italy		Yes	
Japan	Yes	Yes	Yes
Kazakhstan	Yes	Yes	
Kenya	Yes	Yes	Yes
Kiribati	Yes	Yes	Yes
Korea, Rep.	Yes	Yes	Yes
Kosovo	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lao PDR			Yes
Latvia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lebanon		Yes	
Lesotho			Yes
Liberia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lithuania	Yes	Yes	Yes
Luxembourg	Yes	Yes	Yes
Macedonia, FYR	Yes	Yes	Yes
Madagascar		Yes	Yes
Malawi	Yes	Yes	Yes
Maldives	Yes		Yes
Malta	Yes	Yes	Yes
Mauritania	Yes		Yes
Mauritius	Yes	Yes	Yes

Economy	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in hiring?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in promotions?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in dismissal?
Mexico	Yes		
Moldova	Yes	Yes	Yes
Mongolia		Yes	
Montenegro	Yes	Yes	Yes
Morocco	Yes	Yes	Yes
Mozambique			Yes
Namibia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Netherlands	Yes	Yes	Yes
New Zealand	Yes	Yes	Yes
Nicaragua	Yes	Yes	
Niger	Yes	Yes	Yes
Norway	Yes	Yes	Yes
Philippines		Yes	
Poland	Yes	Yes	Yes
Portugal	Yes	Yes	Yes
Puerto Rico (U.S.)	Yes		Yes
Qatar		Yes	
Romania	Yes	Yes	Yes
Russia	Yes		
São Tomé and Príncipe		Yes	Yes
Serbia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Slovak Republic	Yes	Yes	Yes
Slovenia	Yes	Yes	Yes
South Africa	Yes	Yes	Yes
Spain		Yes	Yes
St. Kitts and Nevis			Yes
St. Lucia	Yes	Yes	Yes
St. Vincent and the			Yes
Swaziland			Yes
Sweden	Yes	Yes	Yes
Switzerland	Yes	Yes	Yes
Syrian Arab Republic		Yes	Yes
Taiwan, China	Yes	Yes	Yes
Tajikistan	Yes	Yes	
Tanzania	Yes	Yes	Yes
Timor-Leste			Yes
Togo	Yes	Yes	Yes
Trinidad and Tobago	Yes	Yes	Yes
Turkey	Yes	Yes	Yes
Ukraine	Yes	Yes	Yes
United Kingdom	Yes	Yes	Yes
United States	Yes		Yes
Uruguay	Yes	Yes	Yes
Venezuela, RB	Yes	Yes	

Economy	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in hiring?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in promotions?	Does the law mandate nondiscrimination based on gender in dismissal?
Vietnam	Yes		Yes
Yemen, Rep.		Yes	
Zambia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Zimbabwe	Yes	Yes	Yes
Total	95	95	108

In 39 economies, the retirement age at which a woman versus a man can retire and receive full benefits differs, as shown below.

Economy	What is the age at which a woman can retire and receive full benefits?	What is the age at which a man can retire and receive full benefits?
Albania	65	66
Algeria	54	57
Argentina	60	65
Bahrain	55	60
Belarus	58	63
Bolivia	50	55
Brazil	60	65
Cabo Verde	60	65
Chile	60	65
China	50	60
Colombia	57	62
Congo, Dem. Rep.	60	65
Djibouti	55	60
El Salvador	55	60
Georgia	60	65
Honduras	60	65
Iran, Islamic Rep.	55	60
Iraq	50	55
Israel	62	67
Jordan	55	60
Kyrgyz Republic	58	63
Lao PDR	55	60
Libya	60	65
Macedonia, FYR	62	64
Mozambique	55	60
Oman	55	60
Pakistan	55	60
Panama	57	62
Poland	60	65
Russia	55	60
Saudi Arabia	55	60
Sri Lanka	50	55
Switzerland	64	65

Tajikistan	58	63
Turkey	59	61
Uzbekistan	55	60
Venezuela, RB	55	60
Vietnam	55	60
Yemen, Rep.	55	60

Economies	Is it prohibited for prospective employers to ask about family status?
Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, Czech Republic, Estonia, Guyana, Kyrgyz Republic, Latvia, Moldova, Mongolia, Montenegro, Norway, Portugal, Slovak Republic, Slovenia, St. Lucia, Ukraine (17 economies)	Yes

APPENDIX D: SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Data for the below five appendices has been derived from the World Bank report *Women, Business and the Law 2018*. Considering that each country has a unique regulatory structure, primarily legal sources should be consulted to contextualize the legal status of these topics.

Economy	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in education?	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in public spaces?
Afghanistan	Yes	
Albania	Yes	
Algeria		Yes
Argentina		Yes
Australia	Yes	
Austria		Yes
Bahrain		Yes
Bangladesh	Yes	Yes
Belize	Yes	
Benin	Yes	Yes
Bolivia	Yes	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Yes	Yes
Brazil		Yes
Bulgaria	Yes	
Cameroon	Yes	
Canada		Yes
Costa Rica	Yes	
Croatia	Yes	
Czech Republic	Yes	
Dominican Republic	Yes	
Ecuador	Yes	Yes
Egypt, Arab Rep.	Yes	Yes
El Salvador	Yes	
Eritrea	Yes	
Estonia	Yes	
Ethiopia	Yes	Yes
Fiji	Yes	Yes
Finland	Yes	
Gambia, The	Yes	
Guinea-Bissau		Yes
Honduras	Yes	
Hong Kong SAR, China	Yes	
Hungary	Yes	
Iceland	Yes	
India	Yes	
Iran, Islamic Rep.		Yes
Iraq		Yes

Economy	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in education?	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in public spaces?
Ireland	Yes	Yes
Israel	Yes	
Kenya	Yes	
Kiribati		Yes
Korea, Rep.	Yes	
Kosovo	Yes	
Kuwait		Yes
Libya		Yes
Lithuania	Yes	
Macedonia, FYR	Yes	
Maldives	Yes	
Malta	Yes	
Mauritius	Yes	
Mexico	Yes	
Mozambique	Yes	
Namibia	Yes	
Nepal		Yes
Netherlands	Yes	
New Zealand	Yes	Yes
Nicaragua	Yes	
Nigeria	Yes	
Norway	Yes	Yes
Pakistan	Yes	Yes
Panama	Yes	
Peru	Yes	Yes
Philippines	Yes	Yes
Poland	Yes	
Puerto Rico (U.S.)	Yes	
Romania	Yes	
San Marino	Yes	
Seychelles		Yes
Slovak Republic	Yes	
Slovenia	Yes	Yes
South Sudan		Yes
Spain	Yes	
Sri Lanka	Yes	
Sudan		Yes
Sweden	Yes	
Taiwan, China	Yes	
Turkey	Yes	
United Arab Emirates		Yes
United Kingdom	Yes	
United States	Yes	
Uruguay	Yes	
Venezuela, RB	Yes	
Zambia	Yes	Yes

Economy	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in employment?	Are there civil remedies for sexual harassment in employment?	Are there criminal penalties for sexual harassment in employment?	
Angola	No	No	No	38 economies do not prohibit sexual harassment in the workplace, and there are no remedies.
Antigua and Barbuda	No	No	No	
Argentina	No	No	No	
Armenia	No	No	No	
Bahrain	No	No	No	
Bangladesh	No	No	No	
Barbados	No	No	No	
Belarus	No	No	No	
Botswana	No	No	No	
Brunei Darussalam	No	No	No	
Chile	No	No	No	
Congo, Rep.	No	No	No	
Djibouti	No	No	No	
Dominica	No	No	No	
Equatorial Guinea	No	No	No	
Gabon	No	No	No	
Gambia, The	No	No	No	
Georgia	No	No	No	
Grenada	No	No	No	
Guatemala	No	No	No	
Guinea-Bissau	No	No	No	
Haiti	No	No	No	
Hungary	No	No	No	
Indonesia	No	No	No	
Iran, Islamic Rep.	No	No	No	
Jamaica	No	No	No	
Japan	No	No	No	
Jordan	No	No	No	
Kazakhstan	No	No	No	
Kiribati	No	No	No	
Kuwait	No	No	No	
Lebanon	No	No	No	
Lesotho	No	No	No	
Liberia	No	No	No	
Libya	No	No	No	
Mali	No	No	No	
Marshall Islands	No	No	No	
Mauritania	No	No	No	
Micronesia, Fed. Sts.	Yes	No	No	31 economies prohibit sexual harassment in the
Moldova	Yes	No	No	
Myanmar	Yes	No	No	

Economy	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in employment?	Are there civil remedies for sexual harassment in employment?	Are there criminal penalties for sexual harassment in employment?	
Palau	Yes	No	No	workplace, but there is no remedy.
Papua New Guinea	Yes	No	No	
Qatar	Yes	No	No	
Russia	Yes	No	No	
Samoa	Yes	No	No	
San Marino	Yes	No	No	
Saudi Arabia	Yes	No	No	
Seychelles	Yes	No	No	
Sierra Leone	Yes	No	No	
Solomon Islands	Yes	No	No	
South Africa	Yes	No	No	
South Sudan	Yes	No	No	
St. Kitts and Nevis	Yes	No	No	
St. Vincent and the Grenadines	Yes	No	No	
Sudan	Yes	No	No	
Suriname	Yes	No	No	
Swaziland	Yes	No	No	
Syrian Arab Republic	Yes	No	No	
Tajikistan	Yes	No	No	
Timor-Leste	Yes	No	No	
Tonga	Yes	No	No	
Trinidad and Tobago	Yes	No	No	
Tunisia	Yes	No	No	
United Arab Emirates	Yes	No	No	
Uzbekistan	Yes	No	No	
Vanuatu	Yes	No	No	
West Bank and Gaza	Yes	No	No	
Yemen, Rep.	Yes	No	No	
Albania	Yes	Yes	No	41 economies only have civil remedies.
Australia	Yes	Yes	No	
Austria	Yes	Yes	No	
Azerbaijan	Yes	Yes	No	
Belgium	Yes	Yes	No	
Belize	Yes	Yes	No	
Bulgaria	Yes	Yes	No	
Comoros	Yes	Yes	No	
Czech Republic	Yes	Yes	No	
Estonia	Yes	Yes	No	
Fiji	Yes	Yes	No	
Germany	Yes	Yes	No	

Economy	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in employment?	Are there civil remedies for sexual harassment in employment?	Are there criminal penalties for sexual harassment in employment?		
Ghana	Yes	Yes	No		
Hong Kong SAR, China	Yes	Yes	No		
Italy	Yes	Yes	No		
Kyrgyz Republic	Yes	Yes	No		
Lao PDR	Yes	Yes	No		
Latvia	Yes	Yes	No		
Luxembourg	Yes	Yes	No		
Macedonia, FYR	Yes	Yes	No		
Malaysia	Yes	Yes	No		
Maldives	Yes	Yes	No		
Mongolia	Yes	Yes	No		
Montenegro	Yes	Yes	No		
Namibia	Yes	Yes	No		
New Zealand	Yes	Yes	No		
Norway	Yes	Yes	No		
Oman	Yes	Yes	No		
Peru	Yes	Yes	No		
Poland	Yes	Yes	No		
Portugal	Yes	Yes	No		
Serbia	Yes	Yes	No		
Singapore	Yes	Yes	No		
Slovak Republic	Yes	Yes	No		
Sweden	Yes	Yes	No		
Switzerland	Yes	Yes	No		
Ukraine	Yes	Yes	No		
United States	Yes	Yes	No		
Uruguay	Yes	Yes	No		
Vietnam	Yes	Yes	No		
Zimbabwe	Yes	Yes	No		
Algeria	No	No	Yes		31 economies only have criminal penalties.
Bahamas, The	No	No	Yes		
Benin	No	No	Yes		
Bolivia	No	No	Yes		
Burkina Faso	No	No	Yes		
Cabo Verde	No	No	Yes		
Cambodia	No	No	Yes		
Cameroon	No	No	Yes		
Central African Republic	No	No	Yes		
Chad	No	No	Yes		
Congo, Dem. Rep.	No	No	Yes		
Côte d'Ivoire	No	No	Yes		

Economy	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in employment?	Are there civil remedies for sexual harassment in employment?	Are there criminal penalties for sexual harassment in employment?	
Egypt, Arab Rep.	No	No	Yes	
El Salvador	No	No	Yes	
Eritrea	No	No	Yes	
Ethiopia	No	No	Yes	
France	No	No	Yes	
Guinea	No	No	Yes	
Iraq	No	No	Yes	
Kenya	No	No	Yes	
Malawi	No	No	Yes	
Mexico	Yes	No	Yes	
Netherlands	Yes	No	Yes	
Nicaragua	Yes	No	Yes	
Niger	Yes	No	Yes	
Nigeria	Yes	No	Yes	
Paraguay	Yes	No	Yes	
Rwanda	Yes	No	Yes	
São Tomé and Príncipe	Yes	No	Yes	
Senegal	Yes	No	Yes	
Thailand	Yes	No	Yes	
Afghanistan	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Bhutan	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Brazil	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Burundi	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Canada	Yes	Yes	Yes	
China	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Colombia	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Costa Rica	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Croatia	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Cyprus	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Denmark	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Dominican Republic	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Ecuador	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Finland	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Greece	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Guyana	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Honduras	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Iceland	Yes	Yes	Yes	
India	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Ireland	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Israel	Yes	Yes	Yes	

Economy	Is there legislation on sexual harassment in employment?	Are there civil remedies for sexual harassment in employment?	Are there criminal penalties for sexual harassment in employment?	
Korea, Rep.	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Kosovo	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Lithuania	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Madagascar	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Malta	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Mauritius	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Morocco	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Mozambique	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Nepal	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Pakistan	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Panama	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Philippines	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Puerto Rico (U.S.)	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Romania	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Slovenia	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Spain	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Sri Lanka	Yes	Yes	Yes	
St. Lucia	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Taiwan, China	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Tanzania	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Togo	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Turkey	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Uganda	Yes	Yes	Yes	
United Kingdom	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Venezuela, RB	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Zambia	Yes	Yes	Yes	

APPENDIX E: ENABLING PARENTS TO WORK

Data for the below five appendices has been derived from the World Bank report *Women, Business and the Law 2018*. Considering that each country has a unique regulatory structure, primarily legal sources should be consulted to contextualize the legal status of these topics.

Economy	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid maternity leave?	What is the length of paid maternity leave?	Who pays maternity leave benefits?
Afghanistan	Yes	90	Employer 100%
Albania	Yes	365	Government 100%
Algeria	Yes	98	Government 100%
Angola	Yes	90	Government 100%
Antigua and Barbuda	Yes	91	Employer and Government
Argentina	Yes	90	Government 100%
Armenia	Yes	140	Government 100%
Australia	No	N/A	N/A
Austria	Yes	112	Government 100%
Azerbaijan	Yes	126	Government 100%
Bahamas, The	Yes	91	Employer and Government
Bahrain	Yes	60	Employer 100%
Bangladesh	Yes	112	Employer 100%
Barbados	Yes	84	Government 100%
Belarus	Yes	126	Government 100%
Belgium	Yes	105	Government 100%
Belize	Yes	98	Government 100%
Benin	Yes	98	Employer and Government
Bhutan	Yes	56	Employer 100%
Bolivia	Yes	90	Government 100%
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Yes	365	Government 100%
Botswana	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Brazil	Yes	120	Government 100%
Brunei Darussalam	Yes	91	Employer and Government
Bulgaria	Yes	410	Government 100%
Burkina Faso	Yes	98	Government 100%
Burundi	Yes	84	Employer and Government
Cabo Verde	Yes	60	Employer and Government
Cambodia	Yes	90	Employer 100%
Cameroon	Yes	98	Government 100%
Canada	Yes	105	Government 100%
Central African Republic	Yes	98	Government 100%

Economy	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid maternity leave?	What is the length of paid maternity leave?	Who pays maternity leave benefits?
Chad	Yes	98	Government 100%
Chile	Yes	126	Government 100%
China	Yes	128	Government 100%
Colombia	Yes	126	Government 100%
Comoros	Yes	98	Employer 100%
Congo, Dem. Rep.	Yes	98	Employer 100%
Congo, Rep.	Yes	105	Employer and Government
Costa Rica	Yes	120	Employer and Government
Côte d'Ivoire	Yes	98	Government 100%
Croatia	Yes	208	Government 100%
Cyprus	Yes	126	Government 100%
Czech Republic	Yes	196	Government 100%
Denmark	Yes	126	Government 100%
Djibouti	Yes	98	Employer and Government
Dominica	Yes	84	Employer and Government
Dominican Republic	Yes	98	Employer and Government
Ecuador	Yes	84	Employer and Government
Egypt, Arab Rep.	Yes	90	Employer and Government
El Salvador	Yes	112	Government 100%
Equatorial Guinea	Yes	84	Government 100%
Eritrea	Yes	60	Employer 100%
Estonia	Yes	140	Government 100%
Ethiopia	Yes	90	Employer 100%
Fiji	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Finland	Yes	147	Employer and Government
France	Yes	112	Government 100%
Gabon	Yes	98	Government 100%
Gambia, The	Yes	180	Employer 100%
Georgia	Yes	183	Government 100%
Germany	Yes	98	Employer and Government
Ghana	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Greece	Yes	119	Government 100%
Grenada	Yes	90	Employer and Government
Guatemala	Yes	84	Government 100%
Guinea	Yes	98	Employer and Government
Guinea-Bissau	Yes	60	Government 100%
Guyana	Yes	91	Government 100%
Haiti	Yes	42	Employer 100%
Honduras	Yes	84	Employer and Government
Hong Kong SAR, China	Yes	70	Employer 100%
Hungary	Yes	168	Government 100%
Iceland	Yes	90	Government 100%
India	Yes	182	Employer 100%
Indonesia	Yes	90	Employer 100%

Economy	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid maternity leave?	What is the length of paid maternity leave?	Who pays maternity leave benefits?
Iran, Islamic Rep.	Yes	270	Government 100%
Iraq	Yes	98	Employer 100%
Ireland	Yes	182	Government 100%
Israel	Yes	105	Government 100%
Italy	Yes	150	Government 100%
Jamaica	Yes	56	Employer 100%
Japan	Yes	98	Government 100%
Jordan	Yes	70	Government 100%
Kazakhstan	Yes	126	Government 100%
Kenya	Yes	90	Employer 100%
Kiribati	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Korea, Rep.	Yes	90	Employer and Government
Kosovo	Yes	270	Employer and Government
Kuwait	Yes	70	Employer 100%
Kyrgyz Republic	Yes	126	Employer and Government
Lao PDR	Yes	105	Government 100%
Latvia	Yes	112	Government 100%
Lebanon	Yes	70	Employer 100%
Lesotho	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Liberia	Yes	98	Employer 100%
Libya	Yes	98	Employer 100%
Lithuania	Yes	126	Government 100%
Luxembourg	Yes	112	Government 100%
Macedonia, FYR	Yes	270	Government 100%
Madagascar	Yes	98	Employer and Government
Malawi	Yes	56	Employer 100%
Malaysia	Yes	60	Employer 100%
Maldives	Yes	60	Employer 100%
Mali	Yes	98	Government 100%
Malta	Yes	126	Employer and Government
Marshall Islands	No	N/A	N/A
Mauritania	Yes	98	Government 100%
Mauritius	Yes	98	Employer 100%
Mexico	Yes	84	Government 100%
Micronesia, Fed. Sts.	No	N/A	N/A
Moldova	Yes	126	Government 100%
Mongolia	Yes	120	Government 100%
Montenegro	Yes	45	Government 100%
Morocco	Yes	98	Government 100%
Mozambique	Yes	60	Government 100%
Myanmar	Yes	98	Government 100%
Namibia	Yes	84	Government 100%
Nepal	Yes	52	Employer 100%
Netherlands	Yes	112	Government 100%

Economy	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid maternity leave?	What is the length of paid maternity leave?	Who pays maternity leave benefits?
New Zealand	No	N/A	N/A
Nicaragua	Yes	84	Employer and Government
Niger	Yes	98	Employer and Government
Nigeria	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Norway	No	N/A	N/A
Oman	Yes	50	Employer 100%
Pakistan	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Palau	No	N/A	N/A
Panama	Yes	98	Government 100%
Papua New Guinea	Yes	0	N/A
Paraguay	Yes	98	Government 100%
Peru	Yes	98	Government 100%
Philippines	Yes	60	Government 100%
Poland	Yes	140	Government 100%
Portugal	No	N/A	N/A
Puerto Rico (U.S.)	Yes	56	Employer 100%
Qatar	Yes	50	Employer 100%
Romania	Yes	126	Government 100%
Russia	Yes	140	Government 100%
Rwanda	Yes	84	Employer and Government
Samoa	Yes	28	Employer 100%
San Marino	Yes	630	Government 100%
São Tomé and Príncipe	Yes	98	Government 100%
Saudi Arabia	Yes	70	Employer 100%
Senegal	Yes	98	Government 100%
Serbia	Yes	135	Government 100%
Seychelles	Yes	98	Government 100%
Sierra Leone	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Singapore	Yes	105	Employer and Government
Slovak Republic	Yes	238	Government 100%
Slovenia	Yes	105	Government 100%
Solomon Islands	Yes	84	Employer 100%
South Africa	Yes	120	Government 100%
South Sudan	Yes	56	Employer 100%
Spain	Yes	112	Government 100%
Sri Lanka	Yes	84	Employer 100%
St. Kitts and Nevis	Yes	91	Government 100%
St. Lucia	Yes	91	Government 100%
St. Vincent and the	Yes	91	Employer and Government
Sudan	Yes	56	Employer 100%
Suriname	No	N/A	N/A
Swaziland	Yes	14	Employer 100%
Sweden	Yes	0	N/A
Switzerland	Yes	98	Government 100%

Economy	Does the law mandate paid or unpaid maternity leave?	What is the length of paid maternity leave?	Who pays maternity leave benefits?
Syrian Arab Republic	Yes	120	Employer 100%
Taiwan, China	Yes	56	Employer 100%
Tajikistan	Yes	140	Government 100%
Tanzania	Yes	84	Government 100%
Thailand	Yes	90	Employer and Government
Timor-Leste	Yes	84	Government 100%
Togo	Yes	98	Employer and Government
Tonga	No	N/A	N/A
Trinidad and Tobago	Yes	98	Employer and Government
Tunisia	Yes	30	Government 100%
Turkey	Yes	112	Government 100%
Uganda	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Ukraine	Yes	126	Government 100%
United Arab Emirates	Yes	45	Employer 100%
United Kingdom	Yes	42	Employer and Government
United States	No	N/A	N/A
Uruguay	Yes	98	Government 100%
Uzbekistan	Yes	126	Employer 100%
Vanuatu	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Venezuela, RB	Yes	182	Employer and Government
Vietnam	Yes	180	Government 100%
West Bank and Gaza	Yes	84	Government 100%
Yemen, Rep.	Yes	70	Employer 100%
Zambia	Yes	84	Employer 100%
Zimbabwe	Yes	98	Employer 100%

Economy	Are mothers guaranteed an equivalent position after maternity leave?	Are employers required to provide break time for nursing mothers?	Can parents work flexibly?
Afghanistan	No	Yes	No
Albania	Yes	Yes	No
Algeria	Yes	No	No
Angola	No	Yes	Yes
Antigua and Barbuda	No	No	No
Argentina	Yes	Yes	No
Armenia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Australia	Yes	No	Yes
Austria	No	Yes	Yes
Azerbaijan	Yes	Yes	No
Bahamas, The	Yes	No	No
Bahrain	No	Yes	No
Bangladesh	No	No	No
Barbados	Yes	No	No
Belarus	Yes	Yes	No
Belgium	Yes	Yes	No
Belize	No	No	No
Benin	Yes	Yes	No
Bhutan	Yes	Yes	No
Bolivia	Yes	Yes	No
Bosnia and Herzegovina	Yes	Yes	Yes
Botswana	No	Yes	No
Brazil	Yes	Yes	No
Brunei Darussalam	No	No	No
Bulgaria	Yes	Yes	No
Burkina Faso	Yes	Yes	No
Burundi	No	Yes	No
Cabo Verde	No	Yes	No
Cambodia	Yes	Yes	No
Cameroon	Yes	Yes	No
Canada	Yes	No	No
Central African Republic	Yes	Yes	No
Chad	Yes	Yes	No
Chile	Yes	Yes	No
China	No	Yes	No
Colombia	Yes	Yes	No
Comoros	Yes	Yes	No
Congo, Dem. Rep.	No	Yes	No
Congo, Rep.	Yes	Yes	No
Costa Rica	No	Yes	No
Côte d'Ivoire	Yes	Yes	No

Economy	Are mothers guaranteed an equivalent position after maternity leave?	Are employers required to provide break time for nursing mothers?	Can parents work flexibly?
Croatia	Yes	Yes	No
Cyprus	Yes	Yes	No
Czech Republic	Yes	Yes	Yes
Denmark	Yes	No	No
Djibouti	Yes	Yes	No
Dominica	Yes	No	No
Dominican Republic	Yes	Yes	No
Ecuador	No	Yes	No
Egypt, Arab Rep.	No	Yes	No
El Salvador	Yes	Yes	No
Equatorial Guinea	Yes	Yes	No
Eritrea	Yes	No	No
Estonia	Yes	Yes	No
Ethiopia	No	No	No
Fiji	Yes	No	No
Finland	Yes	No	Yes
France	Yes	Yes	No
Gabon	Yes	Yes	No
Gambia, The	Yes	No	No
Georgia	No	Yes	No
Germany	No	Yes	Yes
Ghana	No	Yes	No
Greece	Yes	Yes	Yes
Grenada	No	No	No
Guatemala	Yes	Yes	No
Guinea	Yes	Yes	No
Guinea-Bissau	No	Yes	No
Guyana	No	No	No
Haiti	Yes	Yes	No
Honduras	Yes	Yes	No
Hong Kong SAR, China	No	No	No
Hungary	Yes	Yes	No
Iceland	Yes	No	Yes
India	No	Yes	No
Indonesia	No	Yes	No
Iran, Islamic Rep.	Yes	Yes	No
Iraq	Yes	Yes	No
Ireland	Yes	Yes	No
Israel	No	Yes	No
Italy	Yes	Yes	Yes
Jamaica	Yes	No	No
Japan	No	Yes	Yes
Jordan	Yes	Yes	No
Kazakhstan	Yes	Yes	Yes

Economy	Are mothers guaranteed an equivalent position after maternity leave?	Are employers required to provide break time for nursing mothers?	Can parents work flexibly?
Kenya	Yes	No	No
Kiribati	Yes	Yes	No
Korea, Rep.	Yes	Yes	Yes
Kosovo	Yes	Yes	No
Kuwait	No	Yes	No
Kyrgyz Republic	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lao PDR	No	Yes	No
Latvia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Lebanon	No	No	No
Lesotho	No	Yes	No
Liberia	Yes	Yes	No
Libya	No	Yes	No
Lithuania	Yes	No	Yes
Luxembourg	Yes	Yes	No
Macedonia, FYR	Yes	Yes	No
Madagascar	No	Yes	No
Malawi	Yes	No	No
Malaysia	No	No	No
Maldives	Yes	Yes	No
Mali	Yes	Yes	No
Malta	Yes	No	No
Marshall Islands	No	No	No
Mauritania	Yes	Yes	No
Mauritius	No	Yes	No
Mexico	Yes	Yes	No
Micronesia, Fed. Sts.	No	No	No
Moldova	Yes	Yes	Yes
Mongolia	Yes	Yes	No
Montenegro	Yes	Yes	Yes
Morocco	Yes	Yes	No
Mozambique	No	Yes	No
Myanmar	No	No	No
Namibia	Yes	No	No
Nepal	No	Yes	No
Netherlands	Yes	Yes	Yes
New Zealand	Yes	Yes	Yes
Nicaragua	Yes	Yes	No
Niger	Yes	Yes	No
Nigeria	No	Yes	No
Norway	No	Yes	Yes
Oman	No	No	No
Pakistan	No	No	No
Palau	No	No	No
Panama	Yes	Yes	No

Economy	Are mothers guaranteed an equivalent position after maternity leave?	Are employers required to provide break time for nursing mothers?	Can parents work flexibly?
Papua New Guinea	No	Yes	No
Paraguay	Yes	Yes	No
Peru	Yes	Yes	No
Philippines	No	Yes	No
Poland	Yes	Yes	No
Portugal	Yes	Yes	Yes
Puerto Rico (U.S.)	Yes	Yes	No
Qatar	No	Yes	No
Romania	Yes	Yes	No
Russia	Yes	Yes	Yes
Rwanda	Yes	Yes	No
Samoa	Yes	Yes	No
San Marino	Yes	Yes	Yes
São Tomé and Príncipe	No	Yes	No
Saudi Arabia	No	Yes	No
Senegal	Yes	Yes	No
Serbia	No	Yes	No
Seychelles	No	No	No
Sierra Leone	No	No	No
Singapore	No	No	No
Slovak Republic	Yes	Yes	Yes
Slovenia	No	Yes	Yes
Solomon Islands	No	Yes	No
South Africa	No	No	No
South Sudan	No	Yes	No
Spain	Yes	Yes	Yes
Sri Lanka	No	Yes	No
St. Kitts and Nevis	No	No	No
St. Lucia	Yes	No	No
St. Vincent and the	No	No	No
Sudan	No	Yes	No
Suriname	No	No	No
Swaziland	Yes	Yes	No
Sweden	Yes	Yes	Yes
Switzerland	No	Yes	No
Syrian Arab Republic	No	Yes	No
Taiwan, China	No	Yes	Yes
Tajikistan	Yes	Yes	Yes
Tanzania	Yes	Yes	No
Thailand	No	No	No
Timor-Leste	Yes	Yes	No
Togo	Yes	Yes	No
Tonga	N/A	No	No
Trinidad and Tobago	Yes	No	No

Economy	Are mothers guaranteed an equivalent position after maternity leave?	Are employers required to provide break time for nursing mothers?	Can parents work flexibly?
Tunisia	No	Yes	No
Turkey	No	Yes	Yes
Uganda	Yes	No	No
Ukraine	Yes	Yes	No
United Arab Emirates	No	Yes	No
United Kingdom	Yes	No	Yes
United States	Yes	Yes	No
Uruguay	No	Yes	No
Uzbekistan	Yes	Yes	No
Vanuatu	Yes	Yes	No
Venezuela, RB	Yes	Yes	No
Vietnam	Yes	Yes	No
West Bank and Gaza	No	Yes	No
Yemen, Rep.	No	Yes	No
Zambia	No	No	No
Zimbabwe	Yes	Yes	No

Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Fed. Sts., Palau, Suriname, Tonga (5 economies)	Economies where the law does not mandate paid or unpaid maternity leave, paid or unpaid paternity leave, and paid or unpaid parental leave
Antigua and Barbuda, Bangladesh, Barbados, Belize, Botswana, Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Central African Republic, Comoros, Congo, Rep., Costa Rica, Dominica, Egypt, Arab Rep., Eritrea, Ethiopia, Fiji, Gabon, Georgia, Ghana, Grenada, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, India, Iraq, Jamaica, Jordan, Kiribati, Kuwait, Lebanon, Lesotho, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Malaysia, Marshall Islands, Mauritania, Micronesia, Fed. Sts., Mongolia, Namibia, Nepal, Nigeria, Oman, Pakistan, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Qatar, Sierra Leone, Solomon Islands, South Sudan, Sri Lanka, St. Kitts and Nevis, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and the Grenadines, Sudan, Suriname, Swaziland, Switzerland, Syrian Arab Republic, Thailand, Trinidad and Tobago, Tonga, United Arab Emirates, Vanuatu, West Bank and Gaza, Yemen, Rep., Zambia, Zimbabwe (70 economies)	Economies where the law does not mandate paid or unpaid paternity leave and paid or unpaid parental leave