

GENDER AND DIVERSITY SECTOR FRAMEWORK DOCUMENT

GENDER AND DIVERSITY DIVISION

DECEMBER 2022

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ABBREVIATIONS

AD	Afro-descendant
CCT	Conditional Cash Transfer
DRR	Diversity-related results
ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
G&D	Gender and Diversity
GDAP	Gender and Diversity Action Plan
GRR	Gender-related results
IDBG	Inter-American Development Bank Group
ILO	International Labour Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IP	Indigenous peoples
IDB	Inter-American Development Bank
LAC	Latin America and the Caribbean
LGBTQ+	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer, plus other terms such as asexual, non-binary and pansexual
MHI	Mesoamerica Health Initiative
NMW	National Mechanisms for Women
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
pp	percentage points
PWD	Persons with Disabilities
PWOD	Persons without Disabilities
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SENADIS	National Disability Secretariat
SFD	Sector Framework Document
SGBV	Sexual and gender-based violence
SOGI	Sexual orientation and gender identity
SRH	Sexual and reproductive health
STEM	Science, technology, engineering, and mathematics
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
We-Fi	Women Entrepreneurs Finance Initiative
WHO	World Health Organization

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

GENDER AND DIVERSITY SECTOR FRAMEWORK DOCUMENT

Achieving gender and diversity (G&D) equity is a clear milestone for development. True development, across economic, social, political, and cultural spheres, is only possible if societies do not limit opportunities based on gender, race, ethnicity, disability status, gender identity or sexual orientation and actively work to promote G&D equity with a focus in reducing inequalities and gaps in social and economic outcomes.

Internationally, G&D equity has been recognized as essential for development, as embodied in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) 5, 8, and 10. The population groups covered in this Sector Framework Document –women, indigenous peoples (IP), Afro-descendants (AD), people with disabilities (PWD), and Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Queer (LGBTQ+ individuals)– jointly comprise at least two-thirds of the region’s population, but sheer numbers do not ensure full social and economic inclusion. While progress has been made in reducing poverty and improving social indicators, the region continues to be characterized by persistent gaps in social and economic outcomes across gender and diverse groups, with wider gaps along intersectional identities. Women earn on average 23% less than men with the same qualifications, a wage penalty that has not declined over the past two decades. The gap of 10 percentage points (pp) in formal employment across Afro-descendants and non-Afro-descendants is also persistent over time, with Afro-descendant women least likely to be employed in formal jobs. While health outcomes have improved considerably, infant mortality rates and chronic malnutrition rates for children remain higher for indigenous populations in many countries. Persons with disabilities (PWD) continue to be excluded from basic schooling and face higher poverty rates than persons without disabilities (PWOD) while LGBTQ+ individuals face disproportionately high rates of violence. Moreover, the highly visible and disproportionate impacts of the COVID-19 crisis on women and diverse groups revealed that the progress achieved had been fragile.

This Sector Framework Document (SFD) argues that to achieve progress towards a more inclusive and equitable region, three challenges that form the deep roots of the persistent inequities experienced by women and diverse groups must be addressed: (i) structural inequities that perpetuate processes of exclusion; (ii) unequal treatment for the same characteristics; and (iii) weak institutional capacity to design and execute G&D policies. These are the underlying challenges that limit opportunities, generate barriers to inclusion, and manifest in persistent gaps in economic empowerment, access to quality services, and agency and voice (ability to make choices and influence private and public spheres) for women and diverse groups. The challenges are interconnected and notably influenced by social norms, historical exclusion and other external factors including population aging, climate change, technological change, and COVID-19.

The first challenge refers to long-standing structural factors that contribute to inequalities such that gaps persist even if opportunities are, at face value, equal for all. It is important to recognize that there is no universal experience of structural forces. Many of the persistent gaps by race and ethnicity reflect historical exclusion, while gender gaps and sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV) reflect entrenched gender norms, that assign care responsibilities to women, and promote hegemonic masculinities. Additionally, infrastructure and services have historically been built and implemented without the consideration of accessibility and inclusion of PWD.

The second challenge refers to biased treatment in Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) that has been rigorously documented predominantly by race, ethnicity, and sexual orientation and gender identity (SOGI). Afro-descendants and indigenous peoples are less likely to be selected

for an interview or see increases in their salary than equally qualified non-Afro-descendant and non-indigenous individuals. Similar bias against women has been documented along intersectional identities, being the strongest against indigenous women. Studies strongly suggest that education systems do not treat students the same across race, and a high fraction of LGBTQ+ students report hearing homophobic or transphobic comments by peers, teachers, and school personnel.

The third challenge points to the fact that countries in the region have weak institutional capacity to design, implement and evaluate policies that promote G&D equity. Adequate institutional frameworks within the structure of the state need to be put in place for the establishment of responsibilities, priorities, coordination mechanisms, and mainstreaming processes. Gender and diversity institutions lack the necessary financial, technical, human resources, and often political support, to be able to successfully carry out their functions and mandate. Moreover, the lack of representative data, by race, ethnicity, disability status and especially by SOGI, hinders countries' ability to carry out smart G&D policies.

The Inter-American Development Bank Group (IDBG) supports G&D policies in the region through its operations, technical assistance and generation of data and evidence. This SFD highlights the lessons learned from this work in terms of processes, operations, and strategies. Strong commitment from IDBG's management, government prioritization, direct technical support from G&D staff and consultants, in conjunction with a systematic process of the validation of G&D strategic alignment have been key for advancing mainstreaming of G&D across sectors and operations. Operations under programs such as Gender Parity Accelerators (IPG from the Spanish Acronym) and We-Fi (the Women Entrepreneurs Finance Initiative) have demonstrated the synergies and opportunities that arise from articulating the work of several areas of the bank. Opportunities are also identified to respond to large systemic changes that are affecting the demographic, social, environmental, and economic fabric of the region, such as the COVID-19 pandemic, population aging, climate change, and rapid technological changes, and can promote or obstruct G&D equity over the next decades. Additionally, initiatives such as the Gender and Diversity Knowledge Initiative (GDLab) are critical for mobilizing top researchers in the region to explore evidence-based policies that advance equity for women and diverse groups.

This SFD proposes to focus the IDBG work on reducing gaps in social and economic outcomes for women and diverse groups, actively promoting G&D equity and putting special attention to intersectional identities. To do so, this SFD puts forward three lines of action to: (i) Address gaps that arise from structural factors, promoting the economic empowerment of women and diverse groups, access to quality services, and strengthening agency and autonomy of women and diverse groups through effective policies (compensatory, enabling environment, differentiated, and universal); (ii) Reduce unequal treatment by supporting programs and tools that prevent the discretion to exercise bias such as anonymization processes and interventions that counter stereotypes such as role models as well as implementing and evaluating promising pilots aimed at promoting equality of opportunity that have not been studied in LAC; and (iii) Develop institutional capacity to design and execute G&D policies supporting the establishment of specific goals and lines of action by governments, strengthening mainstreaming processes, mobilizing resources, technical expertise, and coordination efforts, so that G&D perspectives are integrated in all sectors in sustainable ways as cross-cutting priorities, and fundamentally, supporting improvements to the availability and quality of G&D data.

I. THE GENDER AND DIVERSITY SECTOR FRAMEWORK DOCUMENT IN THE CONTEXT OF CURRENT REGULATIONS, THE INSTITUTIONAL STRATEGY, AND INTERNATIONAL AGREEMENTS

- 1.1 The Gender and Diversity Sector Framework Document guides the Inter-American Development Bank Group (IDBG)’s operational, policy dialogue, and knowledge generation activities in the region to reduce gaps in social and economic outcomes across gender and diversity (G&D).** It has been prepared in accordance with document “Strategies, Policies, Sector Frameworks, and Guidelines at the IDB” (GN-2670-5) and replaces the previous Sector Framework Document (SFD) (GN-2800-8).
- 1.2 The scope of this SFD covers both gender and diverse groups.** The populations referred to as diverse groups include indigenous peoples (IP), Afro-descendants (AD), people with disabilities (PWD), and Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender and Queer (LGBTQ+ individuals). This SFD has three key features: First, while the groups in the SFD have different contemporaneous and historical experiences, a unified framework is applied to address challenges and policies. Second, this SFD emphasizes the challenges and solutions related to intersectional identities. Finally, this SFD provides a robust diagnostic and evolution of gaps by G&D, reflecting better data availability (Annex I). These key features are, however, marked by heterogeneous availability of data and evidence across groups, with more information related to gender issues than to diversity. Accordingly, the proposed data and knowledge agenda aims to address the documented imbalances.
- 1.3 This SFD is consistent with the Institutional Strategy** (AB-3190-2), which identifies gender equality and diversity as cross-cutting issues, in addition to the strategic priority of social inclusion and equality. In addition, this SFD addresses the cross-cutting issue of institutional capacity and the need to strengthen mechanisms to mainstream and coordinate G&D policies. Importantly, this SFD addresses G&D as a transversal theme which is being mainstreamed throughout the IDBG, and as such, has been prepared in coordination with IDBG’s Gender and Diversity Action Plan 2022-2025. This SFD is also aligned with the Bank’s five sector strategies, in particular the Strategy on Social Policy for Equity and Productivity (GN-2588-4). The SFD is also consistent with the IDB’s new Environmental and Social Policy Framework.
- 1.4 This SFD is related to the United Nations’ SDGs for the year 2030,** primarily to: SDG 4: “Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all”; SDG 5: “Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls”; SDG 8: “Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment, and decent work for all”; SDG 10: “Reduce inequality within and among countries”; SDG 11: “Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable”; SDG 16, “Peace, justice and strong institutions,” which promotes building effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels to ensure peaceful and inclusive societies for all; and SDG 17: “Partnerships for the goals”. Additionally, this SFD is consistent with the social model of disability embedded in the 2008 United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and it is aligned with ILO Convention 169 and Articles 3 and 4 of the UN Declaration on the Rights of IP, which recognize their right to make autonomous decisions regarding their development priorities.

- 1.5 **This SFD is complementary to various SFDs which highlight policies to mainstream G&D in specific sectors**, in particular: Social Protection and Poverty, Labor, Early Childhood Development, Skills Development, Housing and Urban Development, Health, Decentralization and Subnational Governments, Climate Change, Integration and Trade, Innovation, Science and Technology, Citizen Security and Justice, Fiscal Policy and Management, and Support to SMEs and Financial Access/Supervision.¹
- 1.6 The rest of the document is organized as follows: Section II characterizes the gaps in social and economic outcomes faced by women, girls, and persons from diverse groups in the region and describes the main challenges that are at the root of these inequalities, utilizing the best available disaggregated data. Section III reviews the evidence on the effectiveness of policies and programs aimed to reduce gaps that are originated or perpetuated by these challenges. Section IV discusses the lessons learned from the IDBG's operational and strategic work. Section V proposes a set of strategic lines of action to guide the IDBG's operational, analytical, and agenda setting activities in G&D. Lastly, Annex I presents figures and tables including a detailed statistical analysis of key indicators disaggregated by country, gender, and when available, race,² ethnicity, and disability status.

II. KEY GENDER AND DIVERSITY CHALLENGES FOR THE REGION

- 2.1 **The population groups covered in the SFD jointly comprise approximately two-thirds of the population in LAC.**³ Women and girls comprise slightly over half of the overall population of the region (50.8%). AD and IP represent approximately 22-24% and 10% of the total population or 140-150 and 53 million people, respectively.⁴ Approximately 1 out of 7 people in LAC have a disability, upwards of 88 million people in 2020 (Berlinski et al., 2021).⁵ While an accurate account of the size of the LGBTQ+ population in LAC is not available, estimates vary from 3 to 7% of the adult population in the region.⁶ It is important to note that, within population groups, individuals are culturally and linguistically diverse. LAC is home, for example, to approximately 826 IP of diverse ethnic, cultural, and linguistic origin (CEPAL, 2014).⁷

¹ See Annex II for complementarity with other SFDs' lines of action.

² Race is a social construct, without biological meaning. Some purport that race should not be used in analyses as readers implicitly interpret race as a biological construct, with the analyses thus endorsing racist views. The term ethnicity does not fully capture the exclusion facing racialized groups. Many organizations, including peer institutions, retain race as an important classification to be able to describe inequities and advance development goals. This is the approach taken in this document and the GDAP.

³ This is a lower-bound estimate of the joint-distribution of the share of the population identifying as one or more of the SFD groups given that in the 25 available household surveys, only 3 inquire about race/ethnicity, sex, and disability status, 7 measure race/ethnicity and sex, 14 measure only sex, and none measure LGBTQ+. In the estimation, each individual is counted once if they identify as one or more of the SFD populations.

⁴ The lower estimate of 140 million of the AD population is based on self-identification in census data, the estimate of 150 million was made by the [World Bank](#) in 2006 using methodologies that included using geographic residence to assign race. Some estimates are as high as 200 million for 2020.

⁵ The IDBG recognizes the social model of disability recognized by the Convention on the Rights of People with Disabilities (CRPD), which defines disability as the interaction of an impairment with external barriers that limit the effective participation in society. Disability is not solely determined by a health condition.

⁶ These estimates are based on data from Barbados, Brazil, Chile, Guatemala, Guyana, Mexico, and Trinidad and Tobago. More information is included later in this section under Challenge 3.

⁷ This estimation from (CEPAL, 2014) does not include IP in Guyana and Suriname.

- 2.2 **The region continues to be characterized by persistent gaps in social and economic outcomes across gender and diversity, and gaps are deeper along intersectional identities.**⁸ These gaps in outcomes by G&D can be characterized as arising from differences in endowments (i.e. health, education, assets among others) and differences in treatment. This SFD argues that differences in endowments are determined by structural forces (Challenge 1), which include historical discrimination and the influence of social norms on life choices. But, even in the absence of differences in endowments, outcomes may differ because of differential treatments (Challenge 2), which arise when the same qualifications do not receive the same returns or opportunities. The third challenge that we highlight is the capacity of institutions to design and implement policies for G&D, which can improve endowments of women and diverse groups as well as reduce biased treatment, therefore contributing to the reduction of gaps. All three challenges are interconnected and influenced by social norms and historical practices as well as affected by external factors, among others, including population aging, climate change, technological change, and COVID-19.⁹ This section starts by documenting the inequalities in economic and social outcomes that exist for women and diverse groups in the region followed by a detailed discussion of the three challenges, **(i) structural factors; (ii) unequal treatment; and (iii) weak institutional capacity**, that provide the organizing framework for the document.

Box 1. Distinguishing across challenges using stylized Oaxaca-Blinder approach

This SFD is structured around three challenges which are the underlying drivers of gaps by G&D: (i) structural inequities; (ii) unequal treatment; and (iii) weak institutional capacity to design and execute G&D policies. While all three challenges are interconnected by social norms and historical exclusion among other factors, a basic framework can be used to distinguish between the challenges.

The first two challenges follow, for illustrative purposes, a stylized version of the seminal Oaxaca-Blinder methodology (Blinder 1973, Oaxaca 1973) that has been used extensively to decompose gaps between two populations into differences in endowments (health, education, assets, among others) and differences in treatment for the same characteristics. This methodology has been used to address questions such as “how much would the gap between group A and group B be reduced, if group A had the same endowments as group B or if group A had the same treatment as group B”. The methodology has been widely applied to study gaps in income, earnings, health, schooling attainment, learning outcomes, among others.

To distinguish between challenge 1 and challenge 2 in the SFD, we can consider the average gender gap in wages for a particular country under the lens of this stylized framework. This gap may reflect differences in endowments by gender as well as unequal treatment. For example, women on average may not have the same STEM skills or the same years of experience as men. These differences in endowments (Challenge 1) may arise as the process of constrained choices. Differences in treatment (Challenge 2) are observed when employers systematically pay women less than men for the same characteristics. While we have presented a stylized version of Oaxaca-Blinder, there are many different extensions of the technique in practice.

⁸ Intersectionality refers to a framework for understanding how social identities—such as gender, race, ethnicity, social class, ability, and SOGI—overlap with one another and with systems of power that oppress, marginalize, and advantage people.

⁹ Challenges 1 and 2 are informed by a stylized version of the seminal Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition. Box 1 describes how this framework helps illustrate the distinctions across the first two challenges.

A. Context

- 2.3 **Improvements in data quality and availability led by LAC governments in recent years allow us to characterize the gaps and challenges for women, AD, IP, and PWD in some countries and themes.** Nationally representative data for the LGBTQ+ population is generally not available, however, recently, a few countries have conducted specialized surveys, with these results explored in this section.¹⁰ The following pages focus on the description of these gaps across gender and diverse groups.
- 2.4 **The region has made tremendous progress in enacting laws to advance gender equality, but there is a pending agenda (in terms of work-family balance and regarding the implementation and enforcement of regulations) to put LAC at par with the most advanced countries.** In 1971, there were only six countries in the region that did not have constraints on women's domestic travel that did not apply to men.¹¹ Only one country had paid leave for mothers and not a single country had legislation against domestic violence. A great number of things have changed in the last 50 years. Laws have been enacted not only to ensure equal rights but also to explicitly ban discriminatory behaviors. Analysis shows that higher ratings of women's empowerment as measured through legal frameworks and autonomy in the household, are strongly correlated with many important outcomes including economic performance, environmental protection, and political stability (Hudson et al., 2020). The Women Business and the Law index, constructed by the World Bank, scores the advancement of legislation towards gender equal laws in eight spheres (mobility, workplace, pay, pensions, marriage, entrepreneurship, parenthood, assets). A higher score indicates more gender equal laws. LAC increased its score from 47 in 1971 to 80 in 2022, but lags OECD countries at 95 (Figure 1). While LAC legislation is almost at par with OECD for owning assets, mobility restrictions and marriage, there are substantial gaps with regards to ensuring equal rights in parenthood, workplace and pay.¹² Furthermore, challenges remain in the implementation and enforcement of existing legislation hindering women's economic empowerment, access to quality services, and voice and agency.
- 2.5 **In the years prior to the pandemic, women in LAC achieved solid gains in economic power, both at the national level and within the household** (Duryea & Robles, 2017a; Neef & Robilliard, 2021). As measured at the national level, the average share of women's labor earnings to total labor earnings has increased from 30% to 35% over the period 2008-2019, demonstrating women's growing influence in consumer markets (Table 1). A similar trend is observed if women's labor earnings measured as a share of total household earnings.¹³ In both

¹⁰ Nationally representative data for the LGBTQ+ population is only available in Brazil, Colombia, Mexico, and Uruguay through specialized surveys and to be released in Argentina through their 2022 census.

¹¹ These constraints include documentation of permission to travel by the husband or guardian, and regulations such as loss of right to financial maintenance if the woman leaves the home without a valid reason.

¹² Paternity leave is only available in half of the countries in LAC, and shared parental leave only in one. More than half of the countries LAC have not enacted laws to mandate equal remuneration for equal work. Even for countries with strong legal frameworks, challenges regarding implementation and enforcement remain. For example, paid family leave only reaches those employed in the formal sector and when exclusively paid by the employer it can generate gender biases in hiring practices.

¹³ The share of women's labor earnings calculated at the national level is the sum of all women's labor earnings in the household survey divided by the sum of all labor earnings, following Neef and Robilliard, 2021. Women's share of household labor earnings is the average of women's share of labor earnings within every household (Duryea & Robles, 2017b).

measures, women in Barbados and Jamaica stand out for contributing approximately half of all labor income,¹⁴ and women in Costa Rica and Chile stand out for steep progress in the share of labor contributions.

- 2.6 **Women's economic gains were driven by declines in the gender gap in labor force participation, rather than from closing the gender wage gap.** Over the last two decades, the gender gap in participation rates fell from 33 pp to 25 pp, measured as the average across 19 countries (Figure 2). The pace of decline was slower in the last decade. Increases in human capital explains much of the reduction in the gap, as shown by the trend controlling for these factors. For the same set of countries, no improvement is observed however in the average gender gap in wages, where the gaps, adjusted or not for observable human capital, were higher in 2019 than in 2000.¹⁵ In 2019, women earned on average 23% less than men after controlling for education and experience (Figure 3). The earnings penalty for being a woman is statistically significant in each of the 19 countries.
- 2.7 **The pandemic inflicted large setbacks in economic gains achieved by women over the last two decades.** Women experienced disproportionate adverse effects, losing a higher share of jobs, and experiencing a slower recovery. A year after the start of the pandemic, job losses were found to be 2.5 times larger for women than men (Cucagna & Romero, 2021). While men's employment largely recovered by the end of 2021, female employment has not returned to its pre-pandemic level (IDB, 2022). Women-led businesses were more likely to close than those led by men during the pandemic (Torres et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021). Relative to men, women's employment was strongly affected by the pandemic in the intensive margin, as women reduced hours at paid work to address increased burdens in the home under school closures. Women were also more affected in the extensive margin, as job losses from the pandemic were concentrated in women-intensive sectors such as services and retail (Cucagna & Romero, 2021) and women experienced more job mobility than men (Viollaz et al., 2022).
- 2.8 **Between 2000 and 2017, the maternal mortality rate (MMR) declined in every country except for Haiti, although wide disparities persist across countries** (Figure 4). Access to comprehensive sexual and reproductive health services (SRH) is highly correlated with women's income. On average more than half of women in 18 countries in the region attend at least four prenatal visits, but a 20 pp difference in probability or higher is found across the poorest and wealthiest households in over half the countries (UNICEF, 2016). In Mesoamerica, the probability of a pregnant woman not meeting antenatal care recommendations is associated with unintended pregnancies, less education, and adolescence (Dansereau et al., 2016). The most frequent causes of maternal mortality (MMR) include conditions such as hemorrhage, hypertension, unsafe abortion, and sepsis (UNICEF, 2016).¹⁶ Countries in the southern cone continue to have among the lowest rates of maternal mortality in the region. Progress at reducing MMR has been slower in LAC than in other regions (Figure 5). The region missed the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) target for MMR and was not projected to

¹⁴ The share of women's labor earnings was 48.1% in Barbados, in 2018, and 53% in Jamaica, the most recent years available for these countries.

¹⁵ There is no systematic evidence that the gender gap in earnings is closing in the region. The larger average gap in 2019 reflects the trend in 8 countries where the wage penalty for being a woman is statistically higher in 2019 after controlling for human capital. In a smaller set of countries, a decline occurred.

¹⁶ These are the most frequent among the direct causes. Approximately one-fourth of maternal deaths are attributable to pre-existing health conditions that are exacerbated by pregnancy.

meet a target of 70 deaths per 100,000 live births based on the regional trajectory before 2019 (BMGF, 2021). Under the most optimistic scenario, which assumes the post-pandemic trend will follow the pre-pandemic trend of the top regional performers, the goal will be met, but not under the mid-range scenario which assumes the regional pre-pandemic trend will be followed. Disruptions to prenatal care and COVID-19 infections increased maternal mortality during the pandemic, setting the region back six years in the reduction of mortality. A regional study found that 35% of maternal deaths from COVID-19 failed to receive critical care (Maza-Arnedo, 2022). The other large gaps in SRH are addressed in paragraphs 2.42-2.43.

- 2.9 **Throughout the region, rates of mental health morbidity differ by gender (Figure 6).** Men have higher rates of homicide and suicide (accounting for 77% of deaths by suicides in LAC, according to Pan American Health Organization (2019), and lower life expectancy than women. These higher risks for boys have long been recognized within the Caribbean (Telson et al., 2021). For example, completion rates of secondary school for young men in lag those for young women in 2019 by 16 and 19 ppts in Guyana and Suriname, respectively (Table 2). Although COVID-19 fatality rates have been higher for men, numerous studies have documented the greater impacts of the pandemic on women's psychological health due to differential effects of lockdowns and school closures (Thibaut et al., 2020).
- 2.10 **Women are more likely to experience functional dependence which increases with age.** Combined with women's longer life-expectancy, women comprise 56% of the population over 65 years and are a larger share of the elderly who are care-dependent (Aranco et al., 2022; UN 2019). This adds to the fact that women are financially more dependent in old age as they are less likely than men to have a pension or other source of income.
- 2.11 **Gaps in educational attainment have closed or reversed for women in LAC.** With few but important exceptions in indigenous populations, women have closed and even reversed the gender gap in school attendance and completion rates through secondary schooling. School-dropout rates are higher for boys than girls, resulting in fewer completed years of education and correlated with higher rates of violence. Post-secondary school attendance also favors young women in the region (Table 2). However, in 2019 the completion rate for IP in secondary education shows a gender gap favoring boys in 3 out of the 10 countries in which data is available (Bolivia, Ecuador, and Guatemala).
- 2.12 **Girls and women are underrepresented in the fields of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM).** In most countries in the region, girls score worse than boys in mathematics and science (Figure 7). This contrasts data from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries, where girls do not lag in science performance. Carneiro and coauthors (2017) show that these gaps appear as early as in the first grades of primary school and that gaps are not present among children of mothers with university education, which suggests maternal education as an important protective factor. Additionally, while women account for 60% of graduates from tertiary and university programs, they represent only 30% of STEM graduates, which contributes to segregation in the labor market and to the gender wage gap, decreasing women's economic empowerment (Blau & Kahn, 2017; Nopo, 2012).

- 2.13 **Women tend to be segregated into sectors which are poorly remunerated.** Almost 30% of women work in sectors associated with care (education, health, and domestic work). Among men, only 6% are employed in these sectors (Bustelo et al., 2021). This is also true for diverse groups. About 75% of AD work in low-skilled occupations, compared with 69% of the non-AD population. Projections related to the region's transition to low carbon emissions suggest that 80% of new jobs created by decarbonization programs will be in currently male-dominated sectors (Saget et al., 2020). Additionally, women are over-represented among poor households in the region. In 2017, there were 112.7 women for every 100 men living in poor households in the region (ECLAC, 2018).
- 2.14 **One in four firms in LAC are run by women, with growth and productivity constrained by gender-related barriers to financing.** Women-owned small and medium enterprises (SMEs) face an estimated US\$156 billion credit gap, larger than in any other region (IFC, 2017). The average firm managed by women is about three times smaller than those managed by men (Cuberes & Teignier, 2017). Moreover, gender gaps are prevalent in the most dynamic and high-growth companies, with a low incidence of women founders (10%) among startups and early-stage companies, and a near absence of women-only founders (2.3%).
- 2.15 **While there has been an improvement over time, women remain underrepresented in leadership positions in public and private spheres.** Women hold approximately one-third of seats in national parliaments. The share, as well as the trend, since 2000 in LAC is similar to the OECD (Figure 8). The picture is different in the private sector. While women are also underrepresented at the highest levels, as measured as the percentage of seats on boards of the largest publicly listed companies (Figure 9), the levels of women's representation in LAC trails the OECD and the US by more than 10 pp.
- 2.16 **Sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV)¹⁷ is widespread in the region.** One-quarter of women ages 15-49 in LAC have experienced physical or sexual violence in their lifetime, with rates ranging from 16%-42% across countries and estimates for the Caribbean lower than the rest of the region (WHO, 2021). SGBV occurs across many different domains –in the home, at school, in the workforce, in transportation services, on social media– as well as across all ages. Women, and particularly young women, in LAC are more likely than male peers to experience on-line violence such as harassment, defamation, or threats. Prevalence rates for on-line violence for 13-17 years old were 20-30 pp higher for girls than boys in the three countries that collected data in schools.¹⁸ Femicide rates in LAC are among the highest in the world (UNODC, 2018).¹⁹ Nineteen countries reported more women were killed by their intimate partners in 2020 than in 1990 (Figure 10). Many countries experienced increases in calls to domestic violence hotlines during the pandemic, as seen by the 50% increase to the hotline in Lima (Agüero, 2021). The concurrent decline in SGBV calls to generic emergency lines over the same period suggests that the perceived gains to different services shifted in the crisis (Perez and Carreras, 2021).

¹⁷ SGBV refers to violence directed at women and violence against persons based on sexual orientation or gender identity and includes physical abuse, sexual harassment and assault, and psychological harm.

¹⁸ Estimates from the 2018 Global School-based Health Surveys for Argentina, Bolivia, and Panama.

¹⁹ Femicide is defined as homicides of women ages 15 and older, and includes homicides by intimate partners, "honor" killings, and homicides as a result of SOGI.

- 2.17 **The AD population in LAC is estimated to represent 22-24% of the total population of LAC or 140-150 million people.** AD in LAC are culturally and linguistically diverse. The countries with the highest population shares of AD are Brazil, Colombia, Venezuela, Panama, Uruguay, and Costa Rica. AD in Brazil represent over half the population (50.7%), whereas between 10-30% in Colombia and Venezuela and 8-10% of the total population in Panama, Uruguay, and Costa Rica. AD in Brazil represent 75-80% of the AD population in the region. The Bank's work on AD focuses on contexts where AD face exclusion due to their racial or ethnic status or origin. Historically, the work diversity work of the Bank has focused on Spanish and Portuguese speaking countries. However, work has been undertaken in areas of the Caribbean where race and/or ethnicity are factors for exclusion, and where there are persistent development gaps for AD.²⁰
- 2.18 **Although significant progress is documented for AD in many social and economic indicators over the last decade, systematic gaps by race continue to exist in multiple dimensions.** The region is characterized by racial inequalities in health with gaps observed in access to preventive services, treatment, and health outcomes (del Pino et al., 2019). The infant mortality rate (IMR) for AD is, on average, five deaths per every 1,000 live births higher than the non-Afro descendant population (Figure 11). Higher MMR have also been documented using vital statistics for a smaller set of countries (Figure 12). The pandemic death rates also exhibited gaps by race. In Brazil, excess mortality among AD, as measured by higher-than-expected deaths from natural causes controlling for age, was significantly higher compared to the non-AD population, measured at 29.8% for AD vs. 19.3% for non-AD for ages 60-79 (Marinho et al., 2022).
- 2.19 **Large gaps by race persist in educational attainment and poverty.** A gap by race exists in secondary completion rates in all four countries with intertemporal data (Figure 13a).²¹ A gap of over 20 pp persists in Uruguay, with less than 30% of recent cohorts of AD men and women completing secondary. Despite downward trends in poverty rates, AD continue to experience much higher poverty than non-AD and these gaps are not declining over time. The pandemic was associated with a clear uptick in poverty for AD and non-AD (Figure 14a).
- 2.20 **AD women continue to have the lowest levels of formal employment** in comparison to non-AD, men or women, or AD men, despite being more likely to complete higher levels of schooling than AD men (Table 2 and Table 3). The gap by race in formal employment is over 10 pp for Colombia, Uruguay, and Brazil (Figure 15a). For the four countries in which comparable indicators for AD can be constructed since 2006, trends do not suggest that the gap is closing over time. A large gap by race also exists in the share of entrepreneurs (Figure 16a), which may be related to differential access to credit. In Brazil, most low-income micro-entrepreneurs do not have access to productive credit, something that is particularly true for Afro-Brazilians who were 10 pp more likely to be rejected for credit. AD also paid higher interest rates (GDLab, 2021).
- 2.21 **LAC is home to approximately 826 IP of diverse ethnic, cultural, and linguistic origin**²² (CEPAL, 2014). The total indigenous population is estimated

²⁰ The Bank's diversity work relies on identifying gaps within countries, which emphasizes the need to strengthen the capacity for data collection for diverse groups.

²¹ For Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, and Uruguay, comparable data on race is available since the late 2000s to circa 2020, allowing for intertemporal comparisons of gaps by race.

²² This estimate from (CEPAL, 2014) does not include IP in Guyana and Suriname (approximately 25%).

- to be 53.4 million, which represents 9.8% of the region's total. In absolute terms, the largest indigenous populations live in Mexico (25.7 million), Peru (7.6 million) and Guatemala (6.5 million). In relative terms, the countries with the highest proportion of IP are Bolivia (41.5%) and Guatemala (43.6%) (Bocarejo et al., 2021).
- 2.22 **The region is still characterized by gaps in health, education, employment, income, and access to services between its indigenous and non-indigenous population.** While some countries such as Chile, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, and Uruguay have nearly closed the gap in primary completion ([Table 2a](#)), many gaps persist with respect to completing secondary school ([Table 2b](#)). Considerable gaps in secondary completion rates across IP and non-IP/AD are observed in seven countries in the region, although convergence can be observed in Chile, and Peru ([Figure 13b](#)). In Panama, Ecuador, and Guatemala, the gaps in secondary education completion between indigenous and non-IP aged 20 to 25 circa 2019 are between 20 and 33 pp. Indigenous secondary-school students lag peers in achievement and at older ages have lower rates of enrollment and attendance in higher education (Näslund-Hadley & Santos, 2022).
- 2.23 **The inequalities faced by IP in the region are reflected in their health outcomes.** Indigenous populations have higher rates of infant mortality, malnutrition or stunting, infectious diseases, adolescent births, and mental illness, than the rest of the population. The infant mortality rates in Ecuador and Panama for IP are greater than 30 per thousand and above 20 per thousand for Brazil and Venezuela. These infant mortality rates are almost 12, 25, 5.2, and 10.2 points per thousand higher than in non-indigenous populations, respectively. The countries with lower infant mortality rates in indigenous population are Costa Rica and Uruguay, with approximately 10 per thousand and 14 per thousand, respectively (CELADE, 2020). In seven countries of Latin America, the percentage of indigenous children under 5 years of age with chronic malnutrition is more than twice the level of their non-indigenous peers (ECLAC, 2017). The percentage of girls between ages 15 and 19 that report having a child or being pregnant is significantly higher among IP than non-IP in countries such as Colombia, Guatemala, and Mexico (28.9 vs. 16.2; 15.4 vs. 12.8; 12.9 vs. 10.7; respectively). Additionally, indigenous households are more likely to have a PWD. In Bolivia and Mexico, 31.9% and 23.3% of indigenous households respectively have a person with disabilities, more than 11 and 4 pp higher than non-indigenous households, (Bocarejo et al., 2021). These gaps are associated with different dynamics of poverty, exclusion, violence, precarious access to basic services, and deforestation and degradation of their environment, among others.
- 2.24 **Despite high levels of employment, IP face gaps in earnings and financial inclusion.** In Brazil, Ecuador, Chile, and Guatemala, the employment levels for IP are higher or very similar to the employment levels of non-indigenous, non-AD people ([Table 3a](#)). However, most IP work in the informal sector where salaries are generally lower than those in the formal sector and employment is low-skilled, low-productivity, and with a low rate of social security contributions (Bocarejo et al., 2021) ([Table 3a](#) and [Table 3b](#)). The percentage of indigenous employees who are not registered with the tax authority or are not affiliated with a pension system (informal workers) is 79.8% in Latin America, almost 31 pp higher than non-IP (ECLAC, 2020). Access to good quality jobs is even harder for indigenous women, who work in the domestic labor sector in greater proportion, are self-employed, or

- spend most of their time in unpaid household and care work (Bocarejo et al., 2021). The gaps in formality for indigenous women vary from more than 20 pp in Ecuador and Colombia to 7 pp in Chile and Uruguay (Table 3b). Preliminary findings of an IDB study in Colombia, Ecuador and Panama show that IP are concentrated in geographical areas where access to financial services is low or restricted. For example, 45% of the Colombian Amazon region does not have financial institutions; in Panama, 7 out of 10 indigenous do not have access to financial access infrastructure.²³
- 2.25 **IP are increasingly more likely to live in urban areas**, with more than the 50% currently living in cities. In Latin America, IP that reside in urban areas tend to live in neighborhoods that are marginalized and have high levels of extreme poverty (Figure 14b, Table 4), where they are exposed to different health risks and violence (Bocarejo et al., 2021). Regardless of this trend, indigenous households have less access to internet, cellphones, and computers (Table 5). This gap in digital inclusion can have adverse effects on their quality of life, especially during and since the COVID-19 pandemic, where access to information and delivery of education and health services, among others, has shifted to the digital space.
- 2.26 **Approximately 1 out of every 7 people in LAC have a disability, upwards of 88 million people in 2020** (Berlinski et al., 2021).²⁴ Despite robust legal frameworks, persons with disabilities (PWD) face challenges to social and economic inclusion. The net attendance rate for secondary school for children with disabilities is 10 pp less than for students without disabilities and gaps are wider for secondary completion (Hincapié et al., 2019). As adults, PWD are less likely to be employed than peers, with gaps larger for men than for women (24 pp, 12 pp), and more likely to hold informal jobs and earn lower salaries than PWD (Table 6). Data from Mexico, Chile, Costa Rica, and Bolivia shows that poverty rates are 5-15 pp higher than for households without members with disabilities (Duryea et al., 2022c) (Table 6). Women with disabilities have been shown to experience higher rates of SGBV than women without disabilities (Ozemela et al., 2019). The lack of accessible infrastructure and inclusive service provision hinders the use of essential services such as health clinics, schools, parks, and government services by PWD.
- 2.27 **The rapid pace at which population is aging in LAC is expected to expand the population with disabilities by 60 million in the region over the next three decades** (Aranco et. al., 2022). Disability prevalence rates in LAC are 4 to 6 times higher for people in their 60s as for people in their 20s. Therefore, if age-specific disability prevalence rates remain constant, it is projected that the total population of PWD in LAC will increase from 14.8% of the population in 2020 to 20.3% by 2050, reaching a total of approximately 150 million people (Berlinski et al., 2021).
- 2.28 **An accurate estimation of the size of the LGBTQ+ population in LAC is not available** given the lack of representative samples and challenges associated with including sensitive questions in surveys (Urban et al., 2020). Some countries have included questions about sexual orientation and to a lesser extent gender identity in surveys, despite measurement challenges. Surveys in Barbados (2004),

²³ For more information, see the internal report of the TC RG-T4031, Banca de las Oportunidades, (2022), and Superintendencia de Bancos de Panamá y Censo de Población (2010).

²⁴ The IDBG recognizes the social model of disability recognized by the Convention on the Rights of People with Disabilities (CRPD), which defines disability as the interaction of an impairment with external barriers that limit the effective participation in society. Disability is not solely determined by a health condition.

Guyana (2013), and Trinidad and Tobago (2013) conducted by the Caribbean Development Research Services (CADRES), although not representative employed a stratified random sample by gender and age, showed that 7%, 7%, and 3% of the respondents self-identify as homosexual or bisexual, respectively. In Chile (2015) and Mexico (2010), 3% and 3.6% of youth self-identify as homosexual or bisexual. In Brazil (2011), 2.5% of the sexually active population reports having had sex with a person of the same sex or both sexes in the last 5 years, 0.9% of male and 4.2% of female respondents (Urban et al., 2020).

- 2.29 **The current estimates of the LGBTQ+ population in the region are likely to be underestimates** due to the high levels of non-response to questions about sexual orientation (up to 15% in surveys cited above) and the lack of questions about gender identity in these surveys. Additionally, youth are more likely to self-identify as a LGBTQ+ and thus the estimates of the LGBTQ+ population tend to be larger in more recent surveys. For example, in the United States the percentage of adults that self-identify as LGBT increased to 5.6% in 2020 from 4.5% in 2017, 4.1% in 2016, and 3.5% in 2012 (Gallup, 2021; Newport Academy, 2019).
- 2.30 **LGBTQ+ persons, and transgender women in particular, experience higher rates of SGBV** than non-LGBTQ+ persons (Meyer et al., 2021). 2021 was the deadliest year for SOGI minorities since monitoring began by Transgender Europe in 2009, with over half of the deaths occurring in LAC (TMM, 2021). Additionally, SOGI face higher rates of SGBV before and throughout migration (Yarwood et al., 2022).
- 2.31 **In summary, the data presented in this section documents that women, girls, and persons from diverse population groups experience gaps along multiple outcomes and dimensions of their well-being which limit their ability to develop to their fullest potential.** The persistence of these gaps has equity implications, but also efficiency ones, as it constrains the region's economic growth and productivity. The next section delves into evidence on how the three challenges around which this document is organized, structural factors, unequal treatment, and weak institutional capacity, connect to these inequities.

B. Challenge 1: Structural factors

- 2.32 **It is important to recognize that there is no universal experience of structural forces across gender or diversity lines.** Gaps in endowments for AD and IP are closely linked to historical processes of exclusion and discrimination, which vary widely across countries. The gaps in endowments by gender as well as patterns of SGBV are more closely related to long-standing cultural and social norms. Social norms reflect contextually derived collective standards of appropriate behaviors. Gender norms are both descriptive, summarizing what men and women typically do, as well as prescriptive, what they should do or how they should to behave (Bertrand et al., 2015; Okin, 1989). As such, endowments reflect choices that are constrained by gender norms, such as selecting certain careers or fields of study. Notwithstanding these nuances, both social norms and historical discrimination contribute to the persistence of inequities by gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and disability status in the region as reflected by gaps in endowments.

- 2.33 **Structural and long-standing factors contribute to inequality such that gaps persist, often for decades or longer, even if treatment does not overtly differ by G&D.** As an example, groups that have historically been excluded from property ownership and asset acquisition are unlikely to have the same endowments with respect to applications for credit. A gap in securing loans may exist if collateral or credit history differs across groups, even if approval rates for the same criteria do not differ by demographic characteristics. Along the same lines, STEM training programs or tertiary education policies may apply the same enrollment criteria for the same characteristics, but gaps in enrollment across diverse groups would nonetheless persist if applicants had vast differences in the quality of basic education or access to private tutoring.
- 2.34 **One of these structural factors is the legacy of slavery in the region, still manifest in the persistence of racial inequality in income and education.** It has been estimated that between the sixteenth and nineteenth centuries, 12.5 million Africans were forcibly brought to the Americas and the Caribbean, with only 10.5 million surviving the journey (Eltis & Richardson, 2015). Most Africans were brought to Spanish and Portuguese colonies in the region. The lasting adverse effects of slavery have been causally demonstrated in Brazil (Fujiwara et al., 2019). The authors find that black households in Brazil have incomes 3-9% lower than white households because of slavery. They also find that the historical experience of slavery is related to the quality of public institutions today. Municipalities which had more slavery manifest fewer human rights policies in contemporary institutions. In the US, research has shown that the lack of family assets contributes more to the racial wealth gap than biased lending behavior or differential borrowing by race (Hamilton & Darity, 2017).
- 2.35 **Historical exclusionary factors also continue to affect IP.** The expropriation of lands and forced labor under colonial rule has deprived IP from determining their own development (Arroyo Abad & Maurer, 2021). Although a series of international legal frameworks recognize the right to make autonomous decisions regarding development priorities (self-determination),²⁵ the implementation and enforcement of these frameworks is often incomplete, such that in some countries no territorial rights are recognized and in others indigenous territories are not formally demarcated (Bocarejo et al., 2021), which has various adverse implications including access to loans. In addition to the lack of agency and loss of cultural identity resulting from these historical practices, the ensuing gaps in education, health, and livelihoods have been transmitted across generations.
- 2.36 **Infrastructure and services have historically been built and implemented without the consideration of accessibility for PWD.** Despite a strong legal framework, PWD face barriers to inclusion in basic services from education to health and transportation which perpetuate gaps in social conditions. In addition, programs and services have features that limit the autonomy of PWD. This includes rules which restrict the decision-making of PWD by directing subsidies for the PWD to unofficial third parties and assign legal guardians without an appropriate review of legal capacity. These long-term practices in infrastructure

²⁵ In 1989, ILO Convention 169 recognized the right of indigenous peoples to make autonomous decisions regarding their development priorities, and to participate with State actors through free, prior and informed consent. The right to self-determination, or the power of “peoples” to control their own destiny was recognized in 2007 in articles 3 and 4 of the UN Declaration on the rights of Indigenous Peoples.

and services reflect social norms about the inferiority of PWD that have made exclusion acceptable (Duryea et al., 2019, Libertun et al., 2021).

- 2.37 **Entrenched gender norms deem women to be the primary caretakers for dependents, such that caregiving burdens and other unpaid domestic work continue to fall disproportionately on them and contribute to gender gaps in employment and earnings.** Women in the region dedicate more than twice the number of hours to unpaid domestic and care responsibilities than male partners: 38 compared to 16 hours a week. This gap intensifies in homes with young children. The labor market participation gap increases to 40 pp between men and women with children under five years old whereas the gap is lower (24 pp) for those with children over 18 years old (Egana-del Sol et al., 2022). Over 90% of single parents in the region are women, a higher percentage than that reported for Canada and the United States (Duryea & Robles, 2016). COVID-19 amplified these gaps; an IDB survey found that twice as many women as men reported increases in time dedicated to domestic chores and home-schooling children associated with the pandemic (Giles & Khadan, 2021).
- 2.38 **There is little to no evidence that gender norms are changing over time.** On average 27% of men responding to the World Values Survey in LAC believe that men make better business executives than women, with little change over 2005 to 2018 (Figure 17a). Additionally, respondents consider men to be better suited as political leaders. Women share these values but at slightly lower levels. Approximately half of respondents in 2018 reported preschool-age children suffer when their mothers work, with little to no difference across gender (Figure 17a). On average, 40% of the respondents in the Latinobarometro survey believe women should work only if the couple does not earn enough (Figure 17b), with these rates above 50% for five countries in the region that includes Central America, Panama and Mexico.
- 2.39 **Recent work highlights the importance of motherhood for the persistence of gaps in labor force participation and earnings.** Villanueva and Lin (2020) show that in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, and Peru, after accounting for selection into employment and education, mothers receive lower wages than childless women. These “child penalties” range from 12% in Brazil to 21% in Chile. Women experience a large, immediate, and persistent drop in earnings after the birth of their first child, while men are essentially unaffected. Berniell et al. (2021a) show that in Chile female labor informality increases 38% after the first child is born. As access to contributory pensions requires a minimum number of years of contributions, these transitions to informal employment have long-term implications for women’s income in older ages.
- 2.40 **Social norms that endorse hegemonic masculinity²⁶ are predictive of SGBV,** the most extreme form of lack of agency (Jakupcak et al., 2002; Jewkes et al., 2015). These include norms that emphasize men’s dominance over women and other men, as well as norms regarding women’s sexual purity, and the protection of family honor over women’s safety (Perrin et al., 2019). The specific qualities of hegemonic masculinity often vary depending on the context, but commonly emphasize the superiority of men (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). At an

²⁶ Standards for how a “real man” should look and act are referred to as “hegemonic masculinity”, which emphasizes certain men’s dominance over women and other men (Smith & Kimmel, 2005).

individual level, social norms are one of the drivers of SGBV, with other risk-factors identified, such as childhood abuse or trauma (Gibbs et al., 2020).

- 2.41 **Gender stereotypes influence decisions and choices, such as areas of study and occupation that contribute to women's under-representation in highly remunerated fields like computer science and engineering and contribute to gender gaps in earnings.** A study of high school students in Belize, Colombia and Costa Rica found that girls and boys found it less acceptable for women to have a career in hard sciences (computer programming, engineering), whereas careers in soft sciences (health, biology) were viewed as more acceptable for women.²⁷ The study also revealed that girls were less aware of the higher returns to STEM career paths than boys (IDB-IPA, 2022). Half of the boys reported that earnings were higher in STEM fields compared to only 36% of girls. The earnings benefits to STEM, and particularly hard sciences, are well-documented but women are least represented in these career paths. For example, in Argentina only one third of students in STEM careers in universities and academic institutes were women (Basco et al., 2019). A study in Brazil found that the selection of majors explained half of the gender-gap in earnings of graduates of a flagship university, with STEM majors explaining one-third of the difference (Bustelo et al., 2021). Gender norms have also been shown to perpetuate barriers to women's financial inclusion, as they may constrain how women interact with financial institutions (Field et al., 2021).
- 2.42 **Across the region, women are constrained from exercising autonomy and agency over their reproductive health.** These structural factors in reproductive health constrain women in exercising autonomy and dramatically affect their endowments in education and labor market experience, limiting the overall economic empowerment of women. Despite the high prevalence of modern contraception, the rate of unintended pregnancies among sexually active women in LAC is one of the highest in the world (Bearak et al., 2020, Sedgh et al., 2012). The rate of unintended pregnancies is 6.9% in Latin America, compared with 5.8% in East and southeast Asia, 6.4 in Central and south Asia and 3.5 in Europe and northern America. The unmet need for modern contraception is 20% and has decreased over time (Figure 18), but access to contraception is highly correlated with income. In El Salvador, Guatemala, Bolivia, and Panama women from the poorest quintile of household income have an unmet need for contraception that is four times that of high-income women (UNICEF, 2016). Indigenous ethnicity, low education and living far from health facilities are also associated with decreased contraceptive use. Despite the fact that many countries in LAC restrict or prohibit abortion, approximately 47% of unintended pregnancies in the region end in abortion (Bearak et al., 2020). Studies find that restrictive abortion laws are not associated with lower rates of abortion and that unsafe abortions, defined as not meeting WHO recommended guidelines, put women at risk of complications such as hemorrhage, sepsis and death (Sedgh et al., 2012).
- 2.43 **Agency over desired fertility is related to access to more effective contraceptive options.** Short-acting methods are the most used forms of modern contraception in all but a few counties in the region (Figure 19). However, short-acting methods are much less effective at preventing pregnancy than

²⁷ Although additional research is needed in the Caribbean, the similar results among Belizean youth and peers in Colombia and Costa Rica suggest that gender STEM stereotypes also influence career choices in English-speaking Caribbean countries.

long-acting reversible contraceptives (LARCs).^{28,29} In LAC, failure rates for birth control pills may exceed studies in high income countries, as contraceptive hormones are among the top three types of pharmaceuticals to have serious quality control problems in terms of counterfeit or substandard formulations (Rojas-Cortés, 2020). In contrast to the US and Europe, LAC stands out for its relatively low use of LARCs (as a share of the modern methods used by sexually active women ages 15-49), and its larger reliance on permanent and short-acting methods rather than reversible, long-acting methods (Figure 20) (UN, 2019).

- 2.44 **Across the region, one in four women are married or in informal unions before their 18th birthday and, on average, one-third of young women in LAC are mothers by age 20** (Neal et al., 2018; Rodríguez Vignoli & San Juan Bernuy, 2020). Only sub-Saharan Africa has higher rates of adolescent births than LAC worldwide (Liang et al., 2019). The prevalence of early marriage³⁰ for girls has remained steady in LAC over the past two decades while it has fallen in other regions. Twenty percent of all adolescent births in the region correspond to girls under the age of 15. In most countries of LAC, the law establishes a minimum age for consensual sexual relations, between 14-16 years of age. Therefore, pregnancies at these very young ages can be legally considered the result of rape. Countries such as Mexico, El Salvador, Guatemala, and Ecuador saw an increase in births among girls under age 15 in 2020 and 2021. Only five countries in the region report fertility rates for 10–14-year-olds, with rates ranging from 1-2 births per 1000 (Abramo & Rangel, 2019). Studies have found higher rates of complications such as postpartum hemorrhage for births to adolescents and higher mortality rates for births to girls under age 15 (Conde-Agudelo et al., 2005). Adolescent births and early marriage are higher for AD and IP. The percentage of 15-19 years old who are already mothers is 30% higher for AD girls and 40% higher for indigenous girls than for non-AD/IP girls (Abramo & Rangel, 2019).³¹
- 2.45 **The phenomenon of high adolescent fertility rates in LAC reflects the lack of agency of girls and adolescents with respect to reproductive health.** Among sexually active 15–19-year-olds adolescent girls in LAC who report that they do not want to become pregnant, one-fifth reports an unmet need for contraceptives, a clear lack of agency. The phenomenon of high adolescent fertility also reflects a sub-group of adolescents who are not seeking to early motherhood but regard this as an expected transition into adulthood. Many young mothers face challenges to continue basic schooling either from lack of childcare, stigma, or improper exclusion from schools. The high rates of child fertility are even more alarming if we consider that many of these pregnancies occur in the context of sexual, physical, psychological, or economic violence, in other words an even more grave lack of agency and minimum protections.

²⁸ Modern contraception is categorized as permanent (female or male sterilization), long acting and reversible (LARC) and short-acting and reversible. LARCs include subdermal contraceptive implants, and hormone-releasing or copper intrauterine devices (IUDs). Short-acting reversible contraception include pills, injectable hormones, condoms, contraceptive patch, and the vaginal ring.

²⁹ Pregnancy rates over a three-year period are estimated at 18% for male condoms, 9% for oral contraceptive pills and 6% for injectables, in contrast to rates of less than 1% for LARCs.

³⁰ Early marriage is defined as a formal or informal union to an individual younger than 18.

³¹ On average, 18.2% of 15–19-year-old AD girls, 19.9% of indigenous girls, and 13.9% non-AD/IP are mothers, according to calculations using ECLAC data.

C. Challenge 2: Unequal treatment of women and diverse groups

- 2.46 **The second challenge that explains gaps in outcomes that put women, girls, and persons from diverse groups at a disadvantage relates to discrimination or unequal treatment.** Unequal treatment occurs when two individuals of identical attributes are not granted similar opportunities because of their gender, race, ethnicity, or non-conforming SOGI. Unequal treatment amplifies the inequalities in endowments rooted in structural factors. However, unequal treatment can also occur in the absence of structural inequities. Despite strong legal frameworks³² that prohibit discrimination, studies consistently, although not universally, find that race, ethnicity, and non-conforming gender identity and sexual orientation are used to limit opportunities in education and the labor market beyond considering the skills and relevant characteristics of the individual. Bias against women is well-documented along intersectional identities and it has been identified in access to credit and in specific academic disciplines, mostly in high income countries. Long-standing social norms, a major contributor to inequities in endowments, also contributes to differences in treatment.
- 2.47 **When unequal treatment limits individuals' access to economic opportunities, it has not only equity implications, but it also affects the potential for growth and productivity of the overall economy. Within LAC, a set of studies in Colombia, Mexico and Peru finds bias by employers against AD and IP.** The studies all sent out fictitious CVs to control for qualifications and to be able to isolate the impact of discrimination based on names or phenotypes perceived from photos. An audit study in Bogota found that CVs with AD phenotypes were less likely to be called for an interview. In Mexico, a similar study found women with indigenous phenotypes received fewer interview requests than mestizo or Caucasian phenotypes (Arceo-Gomez & Campos-Vazquez, 2014). In Peru, individuals with indigenous names received fewer callbacks than those with non-indigenous names (Galarza & Yamada, 2014). A global review of audit call-back studies finds that discrimination is ubiquitous against the non-majority race-ethnic groups (Quillian et al., 2019). Two thirds of employment counselors in public employment services in Colombia have an unconscious preference for individuals who are not AD (Duryea et al., 2022). A recent study of Brazil has found that employer preferences for white workers explains approximately 6-7% of the racial wage gap (Gerard et al., 2021).
- 2.48 **Studies in LAC have shown disparate treatment by race on the part of employers and teachers.** In Brazil, the race of employees in the formal sector is registered by the employer. As workers change jobs, some are reclassified by the new employer under a different racial category. Workers who changed jobs and were reclassified from non-AD to AD realized a 2% wage decrease and 2% wage increase for the opposite change (Cornwell et al., 2017). In another study on the same country, teachers were found to assign lower math grades to AD students than to non-AD and non-IP students after controlling for standardized test scores and other characteristics (Botelho et al., 2015). A study in Mexico found that after controlling for individual characteristics, individuals with lighter skin had an average of 1.4 more years of schooling and earned 50% more than their peers (Campos-Vasquez & Medina-Cortina, 2018). These findings reflect earlier work by Marteleto

³² [Annex II](#) of the GDAP 2022-2025 provides a summary of the legal frameworks for diverse groups.

and Dondero (2016), and Telles (2004) who found that educational outcomes across race differed for siblings in Brazil, with AD boys particularly affected.

- 2.49 **Within LAC education systems, biased treatment has not only been documented for teachers but also from peers.** A high fraction of LGBTQ+ students report that they have experienced a hostile school environment in LAC (J. Martínez et al., 2022). In a study that covered 7 countries, over 80% of LGBTQ+ students reported hearing homophobic comments and over 40% reported hearing transphobic comments by peers. A high percentage also reported hearing homophobic comments by teachers or school personnel (Kosciw et al., 2020).
- 2.50 **In addition to limiting access to employment and educational opportunities, discrimination and bias have been shown to result in differential treatment from service providers, affecting the quality of the service received.** An audit study of government services in Colombia found that callers with the same questions were not treated equally. Callers with speech that was not “high-class” and migrants³³ both received less information and were more likely to be asked to come into the office in person (Slough, 2021). An audit study in Peru found that health workers did not differentiate the quality of health care according to the ethnicity of patients (Planas et al., 2015). However, qualitative studies have reported that indigenous and AD women are not treated with respect by health care providers in the region (Llamas & Mayhew, 2018, Castro et al., 2015).
- 2.51 **Unequal treatment based on gender may also be present in health services.** Although more research is needed, especially in LAC, studies have shown that gender-bias can reduce the speed and accuracy of the diagnosis as well as the likelihood of favorable outcomes of procedures. Wallis et al. (2022) study the postoperative outcomes of more than a million patients treated by almost 3000 surgeons in Ontario, Canada, from 2007 to 2019. They find that sex discordance between surgeon and patient is associated with a small but statistically significant increased likelihood of adverse postoperative outcomes, death, and complications. This was driven by worse outcomes for female patients treated by male physicians without a corresponding association among male patients treated by female physicians. A review of 77 studies about chronic pain published in medical, behavioral, and social sciences journals found differences in diagnosis and prescribed medication between men and women patients that could not be explained by different medical needs. Women are more likely to receive less pain medication, less effective pain medication, more antidepressant prescriptions, and more referrals to mental health services (Samulowitz et al., 2018). It is important to highlight that research on gender bias in health services is not abundant and focuses on men and women, more research is needed to identify and address biased treatment towards diverse groups.
- 2.52 **Surveys have documented high levels of discrimination experienced by IP and AD in LAC.** According to the Latinobarometro, IP (especially indigenous women) and AD are the most likely to report that they have experienced discrimination. A significantly higher indigenous and AD individuals report experience with discrimination than non-AD/IP. Approximately 30% of IP and AD report that they are part of a group that is discriminated against in their country, which is 10pp higher than the rest of the population (Figure 21).³⁴ Indigenous

³³ The callers mentioned they were migrants. The study did not attempt to examine race or ethnicity.

³⁴ The differences in reported discrimination control for education, region residence and age of the respondent.

women above age 50 report the highest levels of discrimination compared to AD or non-AD-IP.

- 2.53 **Access to credit has been found to be biased against women and AD.** Discrimination amplifies unequal access to credit documented by structural factors such as social norms that deem women less capable to conduct businesses, education gaps in STEM, and less availability of assets that can serve as collateral, that were discussed in the previous challenge. Women face unequal treatment by loan officers, who are likely to be offered higher interest rates for their business and mortgage loans, smaller amounts, or shorter duration than, otherwise identical, male counterparts (Hernández et al., 2021). A randomized correspondence study conducted in Chile found that loans requested by women were 18% less likely to be approved than identical loans requested by men (Montoya et al., 2020). Similar evidence has also been found in Turkey and Italy. In a study conducted in Turkey, loan officers were 30% more likely to make loan approvals conditional on the presence of a guarantor when the applicant (otherwise identical) was a female instead of a male entrepreneur. Moreover, the authors found that this discrimination was strongly concentrated among young, inexperienced, and gender-biased loan officers and it mainly affected female loan applicants in male-dominated industries (Brock & de Haas, n.d.). Additionally, a study that used detailed data on contracts between banks and microenterprises in Italy found that women paid significantly higher interest rates than men, although it did not find any evidence that women were riskier. This gender gap remained after controlling for individual and business characteristics and the structure of the credit market (Alesina et al., 2019). In a correspondence study in Mexico, dark-skinned applicants who had the same credit related background information as the lighter-skinned comparison group, were rated as less credit-worthy by bank personnel (Hernandez-Trillo & Martinez-Gutierrez, 2021). Previous research in the US also found that AD-owned businesses were twice as likely as white-owned businesses to be denied credit, after controlling for business characteristics (Blanchflower et al., 2003).

D. Challenge 3: Weak institutional capacity

- 2.54 **Weak institutional capacity³⁵ limits countries' ability to design, implement, and evaluate G&D policies.** The premise of the third challenge is that countries in the region ought to have in place frameworks and mechanisms to advance a cohesive and effective G&D agenda, which includes: (i) provision of sufficient resources to support G&D policies, including, adequate budgets for G&D specific institutions, in the countries that have them; (ii) quality services that address the differentiated needs of women, girls and diverse population groups; (iii) legal and regulatory frameworks that are effectively enforced; (iv) establishment of priorities, roles, responsibilities, and systems of accountability, to ensure coherent government action towards G&D goals; (v) mainstreaming processes so that G&D perspectives are integrated to all sectors as crosscutting priorities and not dealt in isolation or depend on a few “champions”;³⁶ (vi) gender budgeting as a key tool to

³⁵ The IDBG's definition of institutional capacity identifies five areas of focus: (1) the State's capabilities to capture and manage resources; (2) the State's capabilities to provide public services with adequate volume, accessibility and quality; (3) the State's capabilities to maintain social order and enforce agent compliance with established rules and processes; (4) the State's fight against corruption and government's transparency and accountability practices; and (5) institutional, legal and regulatory frameworks of the State.

³⁶ For a detailed account on entities driving the diversity and inclusion agenda by country and population group please refer to the GDAP 2022-2025 Annex II: Diverse Population Groups.

understand the ways that budget impacts women and men differently and to better target public policy to reduce inequalities; and (vii) availability and quality of disaggregated data on G&D that directly affects government's capacity to design, implement, and evaluate policies. The weak capacity for G&D policies is likewise influenced by social norms and historical processes, already documented in Challenges 1 and 2.

- 2.55 **The resources available to G&D institutions are insufficient and do not correspond to their functions, mandate, and in many cases, hierarchical rank, hindering their capacity.** UN Women (2016) conducted a study in 19 countries in LAC, that analyzes the capacity that the National Mechanisms for Women (NMW) of the executive power have to successfully execute their mission. This study highlights low levels of financial, human, and technical resources, as one of the main sources of weak institutional capacity in the region. The resources of the NMW do not exceed 0.05% of the general budget of the State. These allocations are particularly low considering their hierarchical rank (in some countries ministries) and the high number of functions assigned to them. The staff and civil society consider that the financial, technical, and human resources are insufficient for the required tasks. In many countries of the region NMW have under their mandate the operation of services to prevent and support victims of SGBV so weak institutional capacity can translate into insufficient or low-quality efforts to serve a particularly vulnerable group of the population.
- 2.56 **Beyond the specific functions assigned to G&D institutions, given the cross-cutting nature of these areas of work, it is imperative that institutions across all sectors have the capacity to advance them.** Women and diverse groups face gaps in outcomes across a wide range of sectors and therefore including a G&D perspective in the design of policies across all sectors is a necessary condition to close these gaps. While G&D institutions can play a strategic role coordinating equity policy efforts, other institutions across all sectors have enormous opportunities to focus their work to contribute to closing gaps in social and economic outcomes, taking advantage of economies of scale, sectorial knowledge, stronger institutional capacity, and existing infrastructure to operate services and programs. Because of this, it is fundamental to ensure that G&D mandates are clear and that all institutions, not only the ones specialized on G&D issues, have the financial, human, and technical resources to fulfill them.
- 2.57 **Poor G&D data limits institutions capacity to advance a cohesive and effective G&D agenda.** Despite improvement, there are still important gaps in data for race, ethnicity, disability status and SOGI, and some key gaps for gender. While the coverage in household surveys, censuses and administrative data of race, ethnicity, and disability status has improved, some are not implementing best practices regarding the collection of sensitive data, and additional research is required to continue to reduce non-responses. As can be seen in the tables in Annex I, only nine household surveys in the region allow for the disaggregation of main indicators for IP, five for AD, and four for PWD, respectively, and none collect representative information about LGBTQ+ individuals. This is, in part, because in some countries even if the household survey includes questions on diversity, these may result in very small sample sizes that are not sufficient for precise statistical estimates. Census, on the other hand, given their universal coverage, can solve some of these sample concerns and allow for basic characterizations of diverse groups. Hence, it is fundamental that censuses include evidence-informed,

- georeferenced, and carefully contextualized questions about race, ethnicity, disability status, and SOGI. In addition, administrative procedures still need to incorporate these questions in many countries to be able to disaggregate rich administrative data by G&D, which can then directly improve agencies' decision-making ability.³⁷ The current lack of key data severely disadvantages governments' capacity to design effective policies to meet the specific needs of diverse groups.
- 2.58 **The region faces a data gap for LGBTQ+ individuals.** The same improvement in data availability seen for other diverse groups has not been the case for LGBTQ+ individuals given that most countries fail to record SOGI in their administrative or survey data and there are added complexities related to structural factors and fear of disclosure. In LAC, little is known about the size of the LGBTQ+ population or its experiences with violence or discrimination because of the lack of representative data (Urban et al., 2020). Some countries have included questions about sexual orientation and to a lesser extent gender identity in surveys, despite measurement challenges, as covered in this SFD. The inclusion of questions about SOGI in census data as well as specialized surveys are needed to have a better assessment of gaps in social and economic outcomes and how to better design and implement policies to ensure their rights and reduce these gaps. The barriers are complex and not limited to awareness but also include legal frameworks.
- 2.59 **Data on specific gender topics is also sporadic and insufficient.** In survey instruments where the unit of analysis is not the household or the individual (such as firm-level surveys or agricultural ones) it is less frequent to find data on G&D (for example to characterize the firm owner or the composition of its workforce). Surveys that collect data on reproductive health and gender-based violence are intermittent, leaving large time periods without gathering critical information. The most recent Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS), or Reproductive Health Survey (RHS) for Mexico is 2015, Peru 2014, and Barbados 2012 to give an idea of the gaps in contemporaneous data. The lack of a uniform schedule and funding sources for these surveys suggests that this information is not viewed as valuable as agricultural censuses or other information regularly collected.
- 2.60 **The region lacks long term political and budgetary commitments to ensure the sustainability of institutional capacity.** To address the roots of the inequalities that women and diverse groups face throughout the region, committed institutions, that can sustain their efforts and pursue long term improvements in outcomes, are needed. However, contexts in which resources are limited, needs change rapidly (as with the pandemic), and policies vary throughout the political cycle, G&D priorities and capacity building efforts can be difficult to sustain. To improve the sustainability of the institutional capacity, countries need to form long term political and budgetary commitments around G&D goals, through for example, cross-partisan or international agreements and gender budgeting tools. This will better position current and future policy makers to make progressing change towards more equitable outcomes for women and diverse groups.

³⁷ It is important to note that the private sector has historically been averse to collecting data about the race, ethnicity and/or SOGI of employees or clients because of legal restrictions or concerns this could be used or perceived as being used to discriminate against certain groups. Education about the fair use of demographic data is needed to improve collection and allay concerns of private employers as well as civil society.

III. EVIDENCE ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF POLICIES AND PROGRAMS TO PROMOTE GENDER AND DIVERSITY EQUITY

- 3.1 This chapter reviews the evidence on the effectiveness of policies to reduce gaps related to the three challenges in which G&D inequities are rooted. The size of the menu of interventions as well as the evidence-base regarding the effectiveness of approaches varies across the challenges and across gender and diverse groups. Challenge 1, structural factors, is broader in nature than Challenge 2, unequal treatment. The much larger evidence-base for gender policies with respect to those for diversity reflects interests and preferences as well as greater data availability. In broad terms, the policies reviewed contribute to one or more of the following policy goals for women and diverse groups: economic empowerment, access to quality services, and voice and agency. The literature review emphasizes rigorous studies that can attribute impacts to policies and interventions. Drawing causal inferences about whether a policy works requires sufficient variation and credible comparison groups. For some approaches, including those related to strengthening institutional capacity, underlying conditions are less amenable to designing well-identified, causal studies. In these cases, interventions with strong theories of change have been highlighted and non-causal studies are noted. [Table 9](#) summarizes the robustness of evidence within and external to LAC for the different interventions. While the contextual relevance of evidence is always an important consideration, this is particularly the case when contemplating the implementation of labor market interventions in a region with high levels of labor informality. The key knowledge gaps are highlighted at the end of the section.

A. Interventions to address gaps that arise from structural factors

- 3.2 **Countries have a selection of policy instruments to reduce gaps that stem from structural factors.** These policy instruments take into consideration the context of gender norms and historical experiences and focus on reducing gaps in outcomes. Four different types of policy instruments have been shown to be effective in reducing gaps that arise from structural factors: (i) compensatory policies; (ii) enabling environment policies; (iii) differentiated programs or services; and (iv) universal policies. Box 2 below describes these types of policies and provides some context on their relevance and specific examples.

Box. 2. Typology of policies to address gaps stemming from structural factors			
Type	Description	Context	Examples
Compensatory policies	Pro-active policies and programs aimed to address the underrepresentation of groups in areas where they have been historically excluded.	Affirmative policies are not considered appropriate once under-representation has been addressed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quotas for Employment, Education, Procurement, Elective office • Wage subsidies • Land titling
Enabling environment	Policies that reduce barriers in the broader ecosystem to facilitate access and full inclusion in services and sectors that exhibit large gaps by gender or diverse groups.	Enabling policies may continue to be relevant, even if bias in service/sector has been eliminated, if the gaps arise from outside the sector.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caregiving services • Parental leave • Telework • Flexible schedules
Differentiated programs or services	Programs or services that are culturally adapted or targeted to specific groups to better address their differentiated needs. The adaptation goes beyond linguistic translation. Intercultural programs for example, seek to articulate and strengthen indigenous practices within an intervention, using indigenous institutions and providers.	Cultural and accessibility adaptations are necessary where universal design has not already addressed the diversity of program beneficiaries.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intercultural education and health services • Biocultural stewardship • Targeted trainings or mentorship
Universal policies	Policies or programs that are not designed to target women, girls, or diverse groups. Some, nonetheless, have disproportionate impacts on these populations.	Policies are implemented without any differentiation by gender or diversity. These programs may become more relevant over time if bias by service providers is eliminated.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimum wages • High quality preschool • Conditional cash transfers • Progressive taxes and subsidies • Sexual and reproductive health policies • Non-contributory pensions

1. Compensatory policies

3.3 This subsection reviews the evidence on three specific policies of a compensatory nature that have contributed to improving the economic opportunities of women and diverse groups. It focuses mainly on quotas, affirmative action, and land titling. Quotas and affirmative action are two policy means that aim to ensure representation of individuals of a group that has experienced discrimination due to systemic factors. Quotas establish a minimum level of representation and can be applied in multiple settings, such as firms, educational institutions, or parliaments. Affirmative action is an active effort to improve the opportunities of individuals who have systemically been excluded because of gender or diversity characteristics and is often applied in settings when individuals are competing for resources, or for opportunities. Land titling is a policy to recognize formal property rights over territories where IP or traditional AD communities have lived for centuries.

3.4 Compensatory policies in education have been deployed to address underrepresentation of historically excluded groups and increase economic empowerment. Studies of **quotas in education** for students traditionally excluded from universities have largely found positive impacts. Studies in Brazil have found that quotas have had a positive impact on college completion and earnings of AD, particularly males (Francis & Tannuri-Pianto, 2012). The literature exploring affirmative action in India has also found important impacts of quotas on

educational attainment and labor market outcomes for marginalized castes (Bagde et al., 2016; Bertrand et al., 2010).

- 3.5 **Employment quotas** have also been found to have positive impacts on the employment status of historically marginalized groups in India (Prakash, 2021). Various studies have found impacts of race or caste-based policies but no impacts for gender quotas (Miller, 2017). While setting high quotas may inadvertently lead to disincentives to acquire skills and stigma about the group receiving preferred admission (Coate & Loury, 1993), some positive spillovers have been identified by recent studies. Khanna (2020) finds that the existence of reserved federal employment spots for marginalized groups in India indirectly raised the returns to investing in schooling for the marginalized group and led to increases in schooling.
- 3.6 **Across the region, 14 countries have implemented employment quotas for PWD.** The magnitude of the employment quota ranges widely from a very modest quota of 1% of firm size in Chile to 5% in Venezuela. There is recent evidence for Brazil and Chile in addition to Austria, Japan, and Spain that firms bound by the quota employ a higher percentage of PwD than firms that are just under the size where the quota applies. (Duryea et al., 2022a; Lalive et al., 2013; Malo & Pagán, 2014; Mori & Sakamoto, 2018). However, the studies in Austria and Spain have found that the direct effects on the employment of persons with disabilities are attenuated by firms reclassifying their own workers and poaching from other firms. In Brazil the impacts of the quotas were negative in some sectors (de Araújo et al., 2021). Employment quotas for PwD are also seen as problematic by some civil society groups as the associated jobs are often low quality.
- 3.7 **Electoral quotas are used to address women's underrepresentation in politics.** Quotas that are legally mandated typically require that women comprise a certain percentage of candidates or reserve a certain number or percentage of seats (Clayton, 2021; McCann, 2013). Political parties can also implement voluntary gender quotas in terms of the percentage of women candidates listed on ballots. Currently, nineteen out of the region's twenty-six countries have implemented either legally prescribed or voluntary gender quotas (DPI, 2020). Studies have generally found that women's representation increases after the adoption of electoral quotas, particularly mandatory ballot quotas (Clayton, 2021; Cruz, 2021). Women's likelihood of receiving votes has been shown to increase if they are placed higher in the electoral list the ballot. Reserving seats³⁸ for women has been found to have increased women's representation in countries such as Argentina and Peru (Araujo, 2001; Schmidt-Saunders, 2004). Women hold more than one-third of legislative seats in LAC, reflecting the outcomes of quota systems. While the evidence of the effectiveness of affirmative action on political representation is solid, the impact of these policies on the political empowerment of women remains open to debate (Verge et al., 2014; Barnes, 2016; Htun M, 2016). A common criticism of quotas in any sphere is that they lower the standards and reduce the overall quality of an institution. Recent research has found some positive spillovers however, as the average competence of male politicians was found to increase in Sweden as quotas for women on the ballot resulted in the exodus of less competent candidates from elections (Besley et al., 2017).

³⁸ The share of reserved seats for women ranges from 10-30% worldwide and is most often implemented by appointing the women with the highest votes among women candidates, even when men won more votes.

- 3.8 **Affirmative action in procurement.** Studies of the US federal affirmative contracting program find positive impacts on the hiring of African Americans (Miller, 2017). In the process of contracting private firms, the US government is required to make a “good faith” effort to employ minorities at a proportional or higher share than in the local and qualified workforce. The study also finds that the share of African American workers continues to grow over time, even after the firm is not required to comply with the policy. This paper builds upon previous work by Ashenfelter & Heckman (1974); Kurtulus (2016); and Smith & Welch (1984) that also found positive impacts of the preferential contracting policies on African Americans. Kenya and Tanzania reserve 30% of public procurement for women-owned enterprises as well as those owned by youth and PWD. The United States targets 5% of federal procurement to small enterprises owned by women and the World Bank’s corporate procurement targets will increase from 4.5% to 7% by 2023 (Gollub et al., 2021; World Bank, 2021). However, the effectiveness of these efforts has not been studied rigorously.
- 3.9 **Subsidized employment,** in which employers receive a subsidy to cover part of the employee’s wage, has been found to be advantageous in improving longer term employment for groups with limited work experience, such as AD youth. Programs that combined subsidies with job-search assistance had the highest rates of job placement and retention (Cummings and Bloom, 2020). Impacts of wage subsidies on employment have also been found for PWD (Gupta et al., 2015). Wage subsidy programs have also had positive effects on improving the employment in formal sector for targeted groups ([Novella and Valencia, 2019](#)).
- 3.10 **Land titling.** The provision of land rights to underrepresented groups who have historically lived in those lands without formal recognition of ownership is another form of compensatory policy (Peña et al., 2017; Vélez et al., 2020). Studies show that secured land ownership enables communities to invest in their physical and human capital and contribute to climate change mitigation. In rural areas of Peru, women’s land ownership reduces the likelihood of food insecurity (Schling & Pazos, 2022). Land reform in Colombia which included the provision of collective property titles to AD communities increased household income and improved living conditions (Peña et al., 2017) as well as reduced deforestation (Romero & Saavedra, 2020). Blackman et al. (2017) found that land titling reduced clearance and forest disturbance in the Peruvian Amazon. Right and Resources Initiative (2021) found potential climate benefits, measured in avoided carbon emissions, from interventions to secure collective tenure and maintain forests on Indigenous, local community, and AD lands.³⁹

2. Enabling environment

- 3.11 **This subsection summarizes the evidence on two policies that reduce barriers to the economic participation of women and two that focus on barriers faced by PWD.** It focuses first on childcare, as a mean to reduce the time demands of inequitably distributed care responsibilities in the home which limit women’s labor force participation. It then reviews the evidence on family leaves⁴⁰,

³⁹ Property rights can affect bargaining power before and during relationships, and as such, can be linked to gender-based violence. However, establishing causal relationships is difficult.

⁴⁰ Family leave policies are defined by eligibility, duration, and compensation. Maternity leave refers to the time mothers can take off from work following the birth or adoption of a child. Paternity leave refers to the time that is reserved for fathers and parental leave refers to time that can both parents can take off. These leaves can be fully paid, partially paid or unpaid, by the employer (under a mandate) or through the social security system.

- a policy to protect the jobs of new parents so they can care for their children during the first months after the birth or adoption a child and that –if equally accessible to fathers and mothers– has the potential of engaging men and promoting more equitable care arrangements inside the home, and flexible work arrangements, which have the potential to facilitate the reconciliation of work and family responsibilities. It then describes two key policies that address the longstanding lack of accessibility of infrastructure and services for PWD, universal design and reasonable accommodations, both focused on reducing barriers that limit the opportunities for this group, for which there is no evidence in the region.
- 3.12 **Affordable childcare boosts women's labor force participation.** Evaluations of childcare interventions in LAC show a consistently positive effect of access to affordable childcare on women's labor force participation although mixed evidence on women's income (Mateo Díaz & Rodríguez-Chamussy, 2016). Results indicate increases of 2-22% in the probability of the mother being employed if given access to subsidized childcare. Contreras et al. (2012) find that childcare location and opening hours that are compatible with working hours are positively correlated with women's labor supply in Chile. Access to childcare also affects women entrepreneurs and firm survival. When children's supervised time is effectively constrained, as occurred with the closure of schools during the pandemic, research using data for 50 countries found that women-led firms were 4 pp more likely to close than firms led by men (Goldstein et al., 2022).
- 3.13 **The evidence on the effects of family leaves is promising but limited in countries of the region.** Albagli and Rau (2019) study an extension of maternity leave from 12 to 24 weeks in Chile utilizing a linear model. They find an increase in the probability of employment of 5.8 pp one year after birth, but do not find effects on wages. However, these effects are well studied in developed countries. Rossin-Slater (2017) provides a review of the literature on the impacts of the wide variety of family leave policies across Europe and North America. She concludes that **maternity leave shorter than one year can improve women's job continuity, while longer leave may negatively impact career advancement.** On the other hand, a study conducted in Ecuador shows that paid paternity leave of short duration is effective at increasing the time fathers spend childrearing. As results of the policy, more fathers reported spending any time with their children, and the number of hours they report childrearing increased by 20%, up to 4 years after the end of benefits (Etcheverry, 2020).
- 3.14 **Flexibility practices can help employees manage their work, so they are better able to attend family and other responsibilities, however more research is needed.** Examples include part-time work, working from home, flexible hours, job sharing, and compressed work schedules. A study in Canada shows that flexible work hours typically reduce mothers' disadvantage, especially for the university educated, and that working from home also reduces wage gaps for most educational groups. The positive effect of flexibility operates by reducing barriers to mothers' employment in higher waged establishments, although wage gaps within establishments are also diminished in some cases (Fuller & Hirish, 2018). Even though flexible hours seem to benefit women, a cross sectional study of 11 European countries finds that working in female-dominated jobs and/or sectors significantly reduces access to schedule control for both men and women. Part time work, on the other hand, favors women's labor force participation,

however, given that they generally offer lower hourly wages, it is associated with higher gender wage gaps (Goldin 2014, Matteazzi et al., 2017).

- 3.15 **A reasonable accommodation refers to a change made to an environment—typically work, school, or living area—to enable a PWD to enjoy the same access and participation as others.** Rather than making ex-post adjustments to infrastructure or a service, the **universal design** approach implies planning for the needs of a diverse population from the initial phases of a project. The universal design approach is understood to be more cost-effective than retrofitting structures and programs and benefits a wider population, such as parents with strollers or the elderly without disabilities. These policies have direct impacts for PWD but can also be considered enabling environment policies to the extent that inclusion in labor markets is positively affected by accessible transportation systems and accessible education systems and training programs. **Assistive technologies** such as canes, wheelchairs, hearing aids, or software that converts written text to speech can also improve the level of autonomy for PWD. These reasonable accommodations can be disseminated through schools, employers, or social programs. A large knowledge gap remains regarding the state of needs of assistive technologies in the region.

3. Differentiated programs or services

- 3.16 **This subsection reviews the available evidence on programs or services that are designed to address the differentiated needs of women and diverse groups and that can contribute towards closing gaps that stem from structural factors and facilitate their voice, agency, and full participation in the social, political, and economic spheres.** It first summarizes the evidence on financial services, credit, and savings, designed to close gender gaps. It then focuses on intercultural health and education services, that ensure that these services recognize, respect, and adjust to the particular cultural and linguistic characteristics and needs of IP. The third policy intervention for which evidence is summarized are training programs designed specifically to improve the employability or entrepreneurial skills of women or diverse groups. A fourth type of program reviewed are interventions targeted to men that aim to change social norms associated with hegemonic masculinity. Unlike other interventions reviewed so far, this is one of the few that is directly attempting to transform a systemic factor. Lastly, there is a brief discussion on the evidence on services targeted to victims and survivors of SGBV. An overall need for more rigorous evidence in the region is documented, particularly with respect to taking differentiated services to scale.
- 3.17 **Financial inclusion, which includes an array of services such as banking services, savings groups, and microcredit, can be adapted and combined with training activities, has showed mixed effects at improving economic outcomes for women.** Meta-analysis finds that financial inclusion programs make small or inconsistent impacts on core economic outcomes (Duvendack & Mader, 2020). To address the credit constraints faced by small firms, some studies have examined the effect of providing grants to microenterprise owners. While previous literature found that grants to women entrepreneurs were less effective than for men (de Mel et al., 2009; Fafchamps et al., 2014), a study in Chile found important impacts from a program that combined the grant with business training for women entrepreneurs (Martínez et al., 2018). This study is consistent with a meta-analysis of 54 evaluations that found that programs that adapted and combined training

- with mentorship, financial transfers, or technical assistance, had a larger impact on women entrepreneurs than training alone (Revenga & Dooley, 2020). This suggests that adaptations to the original models may yield more positive impacts for women and women-led enterprises.
- 3.18 **The impacts of savings programs are also small but more consistently positive**, including on economic outcomes (Duvendack & Mader, 2019; Steinert et al., 2018). Savings programs also present fewer inherent risks for clients than credit programs. The need for more rigorous evidence regarding microinsurance products that protect against weather shocks or health shocks is noted.
- 3.19 **There is solid evidence with respect to the impact of intercultural bilingual education on the learning outcomes of indigenous students** (Näslund-Hadley et al., 2022).⁴¹ An intercultural bilingual intervention in Panama was effective in improving the math skills of indigenous preschool students. The magnitude of the impact was comparable to other intercultural bilingual education programs implemented in low and middle-income countries. Cultural adaptation goes beyond providing services in the students' language; to the intervention reflects cultural practices and beliefs. Sociocultural studies are key diagnostic instruments for ensuring that interventions are designed to be culturally appropriate.
- 3.20 **Culturally adapted healthcare services enhance agency for IP and AD and improve health outcomes** (Gabrysch et al., 2009; Lubbock & Stephenson, 2008; Mignone et al., 2007). Studies have found that combining IP's knowledge and practices with standard health interventions may result in better outcomes. In Mexico, Nicaragua among other places, birth attendants who incorporate indigenous practices related to childbirth are integrated in the healthcare system.⁴² A meta-analysis found some evidence of the effectiveness of culturally adapted health services in the US. One-third of the studies found impacts on the primary outcomes, and the other studies found some promising but not significant results related to the cultural adaptations (Nierkens et al., 2013). Case studies have found that intercultural practices improve civil registration collection in Peru, which trains civil registrars in indigenous communities and provides bilingual certificates in 10 indigenous languages (Alvarez, 2019).
- 3.21 **Beyond titling, the protection of the land and territory through culturally sustainable development is a priority for IP and constitutes a central element for the maintenance of their identity.** These biocultural stewardship programs aim to promote autonomy and self-determination where members of the local community gain the ability to design steps that are necessary to improve their conditions. Ancestral knowledge, non-market trade, collective identity, and close attachment to ancestral lands are characteristics of culturally sustainable development. Programs that protect traditional livelihoods, cosmovision, and the management of ecosystems support the economic and cultural well-being of communities, especially rural ones (Arriagada et al., 2018). Given the importance of collectivist values in indigenous communities rather than individualist values, causal studies are difficult to design.⁴³ Much research therefore applies

⁴¹ Based on these results, the program is being scaled-up in Panama and translated to Quechua in Peru.

⁴² The Mesoamerica Health Initiative (MHI) has promoted the cultural adaptation of reproductive health services in Mesoamerica.

⁴³ Identifying impacts based on variation across communities can be more challenging than across individuals if it is not possible to compile a sufficient number of similar communities to make statistical inferences.

- ethnographic case studies, an appropriate methodology for exploring how interventions work but insufficient for attributing change in outcomes to a program.
- 3.22 **Programs to improve employability, notably skills training and mentoring programs, are widespread but lack an evidence-base.** While there are many programs in worldwide that provide targeted or tailored **skills training for women in STEM or digital skills**, few have been rigorously evaluated. Programs that aim to attract girls and young women to STEM courses have shown some success in strengthening the pipeline for STEM jobs (Snyder et al., 2021; G2Row STEM). The evidence on role models is provided in paragraph 3.40. The impact of training on employability however, such as through coding bootcamps, has not yet been demonstrated in the region. The World Bank (2018) found that bootcamps do not improve the probability of being employed or job quality, for young women or men. Strengthening the design and delivery of the training may be warranted. Studies outside of the region have found positive impacts on the quality of jobs after training, even if no impacts were found on employment itself (Kluve et al., 2019). The need for evidence also applies to mentoring programs and training programs for women in the workplace. An important exception is a randomized study of a mentoring workshop for women economists which had positive impacts on career advancement including publications and university tenure (Ginther, 2020).
- 3.23 **Stand-alone, standard business training programs for entrepreneurs have largely not been found to have positive effects on women's profits, or earnings.** In a program in Peru targeted specifically to women, Valdivia (2015) finds that general business training was not effective in increasing productivity, sales, and business practices but training combined with personalized technical assistance to the SMEs increased all three outcomes in the short run as well as two years after the training, particularly for women with more than secondary education. Women were found to benefit less from entrepreneurial training than their male counterparts in Jamaica, where only men experienced a positive return (Ubfal et al., 2022). Other papers have also found lower returns to business training to women-owned micro and small enterprises (McKenzie and Woodruff, 2014, Jakiela and Ozier, 2016). While traditional business training was not found to be effective for entrepreneurs in Ecuador, a modification of the approach in which complex concepts are simplified as "rules of thumbs" was particularly effective for women entrepreneurs (Arraiz et al., 2019). Training linked to the demand for salaried employment has also improved employability for women. A voucher training program in Chile that allowed workers to select from a list of courses was found to improve the probability of employment and earnings for women, particularly for the less educated (Kaplan et al., 2015). The provision of gender-responsive procurement processes (training, certification, and outreach) is another area with a strong theory of change with the effects yet to be rigorously documented.
- 3.24 The evidence of **improving financing for women led small and medium enterprises (WSME)**, embraced in the Women Entrepreneurs Finance Initiative (We-Fi) is emerging. A recent review of the evidence found the impacts of providing micro-credit or grants to WSME does not translate into improved business performance and growth (Siegrist, 2022). Insufficient research was available to be able to assess the impact of providing tailored insurance products to WSMEs.

- 3.25 **As the roots of SGBV are largely based in hegemonic masculinity, a set of interventions aim to promote new models of masculinity and redefine what it means to be a man in terms of relationships, parenting, and caregiving.** These programs model alternative strategies for nonviolent interactions using social campaigns and key members of the community. Programs to promote positive forms of masculinity have been piloted in the Caribbean, with the objective of reducing school drop-out and preventing externalizing behaviors among boys and men ([Marcus et al., 2018](#)). There is currently some evidence outside of the region regarding the effectiveness of masculinity programs. A study in Uganda found that the fathers who participated in mentoring reduced reported perpetration of SGBV and harsh parenting practices (Ashburn et al., 2017). A digital platform for men to interact regarding masculinity topics is being piloted and evaluated in Peru. A school-based program in Mexico was effective in reducing psychological violence reported by young men and changing attitudes toward violence among both genders (Sosa-Rubi et al., 2017).
- 3.26 **Other approaches to combating SGBV acknowledge social norms but do not aim to change social norms. The theory of change is based on improving service delivery for survivors.** An intervention with emerging evidence for reducing SGBV is dedicated emergency lines. An evaluation of *Línea 123*, in Medellín, found the faster the response, the greater the reduction in violence. Overall, the evidence around reducing SGBV is very sparse.⁴⁴ There is solid evidence regarding intermediate outcomes such as improving awareness of services or use of services, however there is very little evidence regarding the effect of programs on reducing violence.⁴⁵

4. Universal policies

- 3.27 **This last subsection reviews the evidence on policies and programs that, while not designed with the specific objective of closing G&D gaps stemming from structural factors, have been shown to contribute significantly to this goal given their disproportionate impacts that benefited women and diverse groups.** The focus is on five types of policies: minimum wages, sexual and reproductive health services (SRH), fiscal policy, non-contributory pensions, and high-quality early childhood education. Policies for addressing SRH are addressed in this section as they aim to change outcomes stemming from structural factors, mainly longstanding social norms.
- 3.28 **Minimum wages.** The expansion of the U.S. federal minimum wage to previously uncovered sectors with high representation of black workers explains more than 20% of the reduction in the race gap in earnings in the U.S. from the late 1960s to 1980s (Derenoncourt & Montialoux, 2020). Derenoncourt and coauthors (2021) find that the large increases in the minimum wage that occurred in Brazil between 1999 and 2009 erased the racial wage gap for the lowest part of the wage distribution and contributed to an economy-wide reduction in the race gap in earnings. The scope for minimum wage policies to affect the race gap in earnings in LAC varies across countries as some such as Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Uruguay have already increased the real value of their minimum wages.

⁴⁴ A rich literature has explored the effect of cash transfers on SGBV. A solid evidence base exists for reducing physical violence and more mixed effects on psychological violence. See Dervisevic et al., 2022 for review.

⁴⁵ For example, the programs cited in Bustelo, Frisancho and Viollaz (2020) and Roza and Martin (2021) increased the awareness of services (education program in Peru and Ciudad Mujer) and awareness regarding gender (the education program *Haz tu Parte* in El Salvador)

Moreover, while the literature has found positive impacts on earnings for the lowest earners, the policy could have unintended effects on employment, including on target populations (Addison & Ozturk 2012, Katzkowica et al., 2021). As such, this policy should only be considered in countries with a high rate of formality and enforcement of minimum wages and if the increase keeps the minimum wage below the reference level where it may stimulate unintended consequences, i.e., 60% of the median wage (Dube, 2019).

- 3.29 **Reproductive health services.** Family planning and access to skilled care along the continuum of pregnancy and delivery are recognized as the most effective interventions to reduce maternal and neonatal mortality (Stover and Ross 2010, WHO, 2015). Initiatives such as the Mesoamerica Health Initiative (MHI) target the poor, indigenous, and rural populations in Mesoamerica that have considerably worse health outcomes than the national or regional averages. On average, the modern contraceptive prevalence rate in MHI target areas increased by 5.9 pp between 2012 and 2017 –which is 2 to 4 times faster than the national annual increase. At the same time, systematic evidence for reducing MMR is difficult to document. Research by MHI has shown that improving antenatal care coverage is insufficient to resolve many of the factors associated with maternal mortality, other factors such as improving quality, ensuring continuity of care, and improving healthy behaviors play an important role –before, during and after the pregnancy (McNellen et al., 2019). Similarly, increasing the supply of contraceptives alone is not enough to increase uptake, ensuring quality counseling is provided to all women and offering a wide range of contraceptive methods is also necessary.
- 3.30 **Policies to reduce adolescent fertility.** Public health efforts to reduce adolescent fertility have focused on delaying sexual activity or improving access to effective contraception and related services. Educational efforts to dissuade sexual activity are common but rigorous studies have not found impacts of their effectiveness (Kirby, 2008; Rodriguez Ribas, 2021). Raising and enforcing the legal age of marriage has also been shown to be ineffective at reducing adolescent births (Belles-Obrero and Lombardi, 2020). More promising evidence is emerging from initiatives to extend access to effective contraception. In Costa Rica, an MHI project improved access to reproductive health services in poor districts. Adolescent fertility decreased 11.2% in intervention districts compared to comparison districts. Improving the effectiveness of contraception has resulted in important reduction in adolescent fertility within and outside of LAC. The expanded availability of free-of-charge subdermal implants through the public health system accounted for one-third of a substantial reduction in early fertility in Uruguay (Ceni et al., 2021). For the US, over one-third of the considerable decline in recent adolescent fertility is attributable to improvements in contraceptive use (Lindberg et al., 2016). There is also some evidence that programs that combine education about SRH with access to contraceptives, can reduce risks of unintended pregnancy by more than half (Oringanje et al., 2016). Much evidence is found beyond standard public health interventions, through interventions that do not target adolescent fertility as a primary outcome. Programs focused on the employability of youth have been found to be effective in preventing teen births (Harker et al., 2017). Adolescent fertility was reduced by 20% by the youth training program in the Dominican Republic, primarily among women who were not already mothers (Novela & Ripani, 2016). Other policies that do not provide reproductive health services, such as lengthening the school day (Berthelon & Kruger, 2014) and extending conditional cash transfer (CCT) benefits to adolescents, have been

found to be effective at reducing early childbearing in LAC. Olson et al. 2018 find a three-percentage point decline in fertility among teens eligible for a CCT, complementing earlier evidence on the impact of CCTs (Baird et al., 2010; Cortés et al., 2016).

- 3.31 **Tax policy can contribute to G&D equity.** For example, progressive taxation, which treats people differently according to their income, can reduce inequalities even in the absence of gender-specific taxes. Coelho et al. (2022), find that gender gaps in net incomes (net of taxes and social security contributions) are about 1.5 and 0.3 pp narrower than in gross terms in advanced and emerging countries, respectively. As discussed in the previous section, women –especially Afro-descendent and indigenous women– tend to be overrepresented at the bottom of the income distribution. Therefore, with a more progressive system, they face lower marginal tax rates and, hence, have stronger incentives to enter the workforce or work more hours (Coelho et al., 2022; OECD, 2022).
- 3.32 **Non-contributory pensions.** In old-age, women are less likely than men to have access to contributory pensions. This, combined with women's longer life-expectancy makes non-contributory pensions an important instrument for reducing the risk of living in poverty (Cafagna et al., 2019). Research in Mexico has also shown effects on reducing gender disparities in health frailty (Aguila et al., 2014).
- 3.33 **High quality preschool has been shown to have disproportionate returns for AD children.** High quality preschool is often targeted to less advantaged socioeconomic populations and through that focus can also reach AD families. A recent study by Friedman-Krauss and Barnett (2020) of children in Massachusetts and Oklahoma found that when Black and white children had universal access to high quality pre-school, the racial gaps in reading at entry to kindergarten were virtually eliminated, and the gaps in math were cut in half. Deming (2009) finds that participation in the US preschool program Head Start increases high school graduation by 11 pp for Black students with a small effect for white peers and increases high school graduation by 16 pp for those with low maternal test scores.

B. Interventions to address unequal treatment of women and diverse groups

- 3.34 **The types of policies available to governments committed to eradicating unequal treatment is less extensive than those to reduce gaps that stem from structural factors, reviewed in the previous section.** Not only the policy levers are less varied, but additionally, these types of policies have been less studied in LAC, so the evidence base is scarcer. Policy instruments to fight unequal treatment focus on incentives, on information, on processes, on education or on a combination of the previous elements. Two types of policy instruments have shown effectiveness in reducing discrimination: (i) policies that discourage or prevent unequal treatment; and (ii) policies that aim to alter biases or the associated impacts. Box 3 below describes them and offers some examples.

1. Policies to prevent or discourage unequal treatment

- 3.35 **The first type of policies for which evidence is reviewed in this subsection are those that modify incentives, information, or processes to prevent unequal treatment in different social, economic, or political settings.** The first policies reviewed are legal frameworks, where the region has done important progress in terms of passing legislation but still has important challenges with

enforcement and compliance. Moreover, evidence on the effectiveness of these policies in terms of reducing discrimination is very limited. A second type of policy for which evidence is summarized focuses on reforming selection processes to minimize the instances when agents can exert bias, by anonymizing applicants' information on G&D attributes. There is a growing body of evidence mainly from outside the region related to the effectiveness of this type of interventions.

Box. 3. Typology of policies to address gaps stemming from unequal treatment			
Type	Description	Context	Examples
Policies to prevent or discourage unequal treatment	<p>Legal frameworks: Laws, statutes, and regulations guaranteeing rights and/or prohibiting discrimination based on gender, race, ethnicity, disability status or SOGI.</p> <p>Anonymized processes: The removal of personal characteristics from processes such that assessments are made based on qualifications rather than on taste-based preferences. Personal bias has less of a scope to enter.</p>	<p>Legal framework may be strong, but enforcement may be weak.</p> <p>Often applied in hiring but can also be relevant in other assessments (access to credit, scientific grants, etc.).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Anti-discrimination laws • International treaties and instruments • "Blinded" auditions/assessments • Removing photos from CVs • Debiasing algorithms
Programs to reduce the bias of service providers or associated impacts	Interventions aim to change perceptions or biased behavior at the individual or group level.	Interventions are intentional; bias also reflect secular changes in the media.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Diversity training • Diverse panels • Cultural immersion programs • Role models • Anti-bullying programs • Media and information campaigns • Competition

- 3.36 **Legal frameworks, such as laws, statutes and regulations prohibiting discrimination based on gender, race, or ethnicity, have been widely enacted in the region.**⁴⁶ Some evidence supports the effectiveness of anti-discrimination laws (ADL). Stevenson (2007) demonstrated the causal effects of the statute which banned discrimination between men's and women's education programs in the US. Title IX was found to increase women's education, employment, and participation in male-dominated fields and wages. Laws have also been shown to reduce racial gaps. Collins (2003) found that state-level fair employment laws that prohibited discrimination based on race, color or national origin implemented in the 1940s in the US improved employment and earnings for AD, particularly Black women. However, this type of evidence does not exist in LAC, where enforcement of and compliance with anti-discrimination laws is very weak. Moreover, it is important to note that more laws are not necessarily the answer to reducing bias. The impacts of some legal norms are ambiguous at best –for example firing protections for PWD (Acemoglu & Angrist, 2001)– and more research is needed.
- 3.37 Over the past decade, countries in the region have made varying degrees of progress in the **recognition of LGBTQ+ rights**. The advances include the approval of legislation that prohibits discrimination based on sexual orientation in Bolivia, Ecuador, and Mexico. The impact of these legislative changes has yet to be definitively documented.
- 3.38 **Anonymizing processes to prevent discriminatory behavior.** A seminal study of hiring practices in American symphonies demonstrated that **masking the gender of the person being assessed** in the audition, dramatically increased the

⁴⁶ See GDAP 2022-2025 Annex II: Diverse Population Groups for a description of legal frameworks for G&D.

share of women hired by US symphonies (Goldin and Rouse, 2000). Concealing the identity of the musician increased the probability that a woman would succeed to another round by 50% and increased the proportion of women in the orchestras. Efforts to combat hiring discrimination by masking personal characteristics in all or part of the hiring process have been piloted and evaluated in European countries, Canada, and Australia. A series of experiments found that de-identifying job applications focuses the attention of recruiters on qualifications and skills and reduces or eliminates the difference in invitations for interviews across gender and race (Rinne, 2018). While an anonymized application process can reduce discrimination in the initial stage of recruitment, it does not guarantee that bias will not enter in a later stage. In some of the labor market studies the gap in job offers by gender or race declined with the implementation of the anonymized first stage, but not in all (Rinne, 2018). Some countries have implemented regulations regarding the inclusion of photos on CVs to reduce the scope for hiring discrimination. The impacts of these regulations have not been formally evaluated. There may be other opportunities to prevent bias from playing an early role in job referrals and hiring such as in labor market intermediation services. The anonymization approach has also been applied to reduce bias in science grants. When the review process was fully anonymized and only the merits of the science were considered, women outperformed men with 30% of their proposals accepted. Before anonymization, only 19% of women's applications were accepted and applications from men were more likely to be accepted (Johnson & Kirk, 2020). In Chile, the Atacama Large Millimeter Array (ALMA) has implemented the anonymized assessment of proposals by review panels for instrument time as well as other science agencies around the world. FinTech algorithms that de-identify personal characteristics have been found to discriminate less than face-to-face loan processes (Bartlett et al., 2020). However, attempts to completely deidentify gender, race, ethnicity, and other personal characteristics may be less effective when decisions are made by artificial intelligence. The powerful machine learning algorithms discern personal characteristics from other data and can reintroduce the bias back into the model as was demonstrated through a study of the effect of machine learning on access to mortgages by race in the U.S. (Fuster et al., 2018; Narayan & Shmatikow, 2008).

2. Programs to reduce bias from service providers

- 3.39 **This subsection focuses on evidence of policies that are not attempting to block unequal treatment, but that focus on reducing implicit or explicit biases and their associated impacts.** The first type of program reviewed is the intentional matching of women or diverse groups to mentors or role models with similar identities, who may not only be less likely to discriminate against them, but who may also amplify their own aspirations and confidence in their ability to reach their goals. A second type of program has to do with training inside schools or firms aimed at making individuals aware of their own biases and adjust their behaviors. A third intervention explores the extent to which having more the composition of selection panels can mitigate the effects of bias. A fourth intervention examines access to information and media campaigns. The last type of policy intervention is focused on the role of competition in eroding discriminatory behavior.
- 3.40 **Role models can positively influence academic performance, choice of major and career choice by countering exposure to erroneous stereotypes.** Studies have found that matching students who face such stereotypes with teachers with

similar identities improves school performance and professional interests (Kofoed et al. 2017; Carrell et al. 2010; Lim & Meer, 2017). The effects are driven by changes in student's self-confidence and appear to persist over time. A recent study followed the impact of female math teachers in middle school and found that in addition to short-run effects on the probability of taking STEM-related classes, girls taught by a female teacher scored higher on standardized tests compared to male students five years later (Lim & Meer, 2018). Carlana (2019) shows that the gender gap in math performance in middle school decreases when students are assigned to teachers with lower gender stereotypes about science. Exposure to same race teachers has been demonstrated to have important effects on academic outcomes on standardized tests as well as teacher assessed behaviors (Lindsay & Hart, 2017). Important intersectional results are found. Black males exposed to black teachers in primary school significantly reduced the probability of school dropout in high school (Gershenson et al., 2017). The effects are also found at higher levels of education. Women exposed to successful women economics professors who majored in economics at the same university doubled their probability of majoring in economics (Porter & Serra, 2018). Likewise, in a study of law students, women and AD who had exposure to same-sex and same-race instructors were more likely to graduate on time (Birdsall et al., 2020). A recent study in Chile finds that the math scores of same-sex peers in college are almost as important as women's own math scores for predicting college graduation rates. A 10 pp increase in the math scores of other women, increases a woman's probability of graduating by 6% (Aguirre et al., 2021).

- 3.41 **To promote inclusive workplaces, the private sector has increasingly embraced diversity training of talent managers and front-line-workers.** Diversity training programs are designed to change biased attitudes and eliminate partial treatment. Despite the good intentions of these programs, there is very limited evidence regarding the effectiveness of training given the scarcity of rigorous studies. Chang et al. (2019) find some effects of on-line G&D training on changing behaviors among groups that were already supportive of women. The effectiveness of G&D training may be conditioned by the pre-existing attitudes of the target population. Meta-analysis suggests that there is little evidence to support stand-alone diversity training (Bezrukova et al., 2016; Green & Hagiwara, 2020). There is some suggestive evidence that when combined with other diversity initiatives, anti-bias training may be effective. However, of the 260 studies reviewed, approximately half had small sample sizes or other serious design flaws, leaving ample room to rigorously explore the impact of these programs.
- 3.42 **School-based anti-bullying interventions to reduce biased attitudes and behaviors.** There is some emerging evidence regarding the effectiveness of school-based antibullying programs on reducing discrimination of LGBTQ+ students (Burk et al., 2018). While more rigorous research is needed, particularly in LAC, in a systematic review of 21 anti-bullying programs for schools Hall (2017) found suggestive evidence regarding the effectiveness of the programs in reducing the harassment of LGBTQ+ students particularly when the curriculums explicitly recognized LGBTQ+ students.
- 3.43 **There is also some emerging evidence in the region regarding programs that train teachers to change gender stereotypes about STEM aiming to reduce bias in their own behaviors in the classroom.** In the Little Explorers Program implemented in Colombia, preschool teachers received training and materials to

reduce stereotypes. Both preschoolers and educators reduced gaps in self-reported gender and racial stereotypes about STEM (UNICEF, 2020).

- 3.44 **Diverse panels for assessment.** Having a more diverse panel make decisions about hiring, promotions, or applications is an increasingly common approach to reduce discrimination against women and diverse groups. While the theory of change is strong for this strategy, there is no rigorous evidence that it is effective. Studies have found no effects of having women on hiring panels (Hospido et al., 2019) or even adverse effects (Deschamps 2018; Bagues & Esteve-Volart, 2010). More studies are required to fully understand whether diverse panels impose positive effects under certain conditions or whether this well-intentioned approach systematically generates unintended consequences. Other studies have found that increasing diversity in social networks is effective at changing social norms. A recent study showed that the presence of African American soldiers in the UK during WWII reduced anti-black bias among the British. ([Schindler and Westcott 2021](#)). Other research finds that living with a college roommate of a different race reduces the negative stereotypes of white university students toward blacks ([LaFerrara et al. 2022](#)).
- 3.45 **Information and media campaigns.** Research has shown how telenovelas, TV and other media slowly shift the perceptions and attitudes of viewers (la Ferrara, 2016). The perceptions and expectations of both teachers and students are shaped by images in textbooks and academic materials. Brazil implemented a campaign in the 1990s to raise awareness in publishing houses and remove discriminatory and stigmatizing images of AD from textbooks, changing the most explicitly prejudiced material but without evaluating the effects of the initiative (The World Bank, 2018). Many social campaigns aim to change attitudes. The effects of these programs have not been rigorously studied. Bosch et al. (2021) finds positive impacts of sending reminders about quotas on the inclusion of persons with disabilities. Providing teachers information on their implicit bias against immigrant students has been found to be effective in changing their unequal treatment of students based on personal characteristics (Alesina et al., 2018).⁴⁷
- 3.46 **Competition.** The last policy for which evidence is available refers to promoting competition as a means to erode costly discriminatory behavior. The rationale is that in a competitive industry where profits are low, profit-maximizing employers have limited scope to discriminate against workers, whereas in more monopolistic industries employers have latitude to discriminate based on characteristics (Becker, 1957). Ederington and Sandford (2016) find that market deregulation reduced discrimination, with the reductions highest in the most concentrated industries. However, they also find that the cost structure of the firm, in particular high entry costs, can be as important as market power for the survival of firms that discriminate. The effect of opening markets on racial wage gaps was examined in Brazil by Hirata and Soares (2020) who found that geographic locations that were exposed to larger increases in foreign competition also experienced larger declines in the racial wage gap. These results in LAC complement global studies that show that increased competition reduces the racial wage gap and gender wage gap (Heywood and Peoples, 2006).

⁴⁷ A set of IDBG randomized control studies is exploring this mechanism of providing feedback on provider bias in different realms in LAC: racial bias of employment counselors, teacher bias against immigrants, gender bias in access to credit.

C. Policies to strengthen institutional capacity for advancing gender and diversity equity

- 3.47 The third type of policies governments can implement to close gender and diversity gaps focuses on strengthening the state's institutional capacity for advancing equity.** As described in section II, there is a big evidence gap in this area. More research is needed to assess the current G&D institutional capacity of countries in the region. The same is true as it concerns causal studies that evaluate effective ways to improve institutional capacity in the areas of G&D. This section reviews some best practices and lessons learned from descriptive and cross-sectional studies from OECD countries that are internationally recognized for their efforts towards achieving gender equality and diversity inclusion.
- 3.48 Lessons learned from OECD countries experience advancing gender equality.** Nordic countries –Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden– as well as Canada are recognized as leaders on gender equality, consistently at the top of several metrics of gender equality such as the Global Gender Gap Index ranking, which benchmarks the evolution of four key dimensions (economic participation and opportunity, education, health, and political empowerment).⁴⁸ Progress accomplished by these countries over decades of work required three factors: (i) strong commitment from leadership; (ii) clear goals and mainstreaming strategies; and (iii) investments in research and data (OECD, 2018a and 2018b).
- 3.49 Progress towards gender equality is started and maintained with a decisive commitment from political leaders.** The Nordic Council of Ministers decided in 1974 that each Nordic government should appoint one person who would communicate with other Nordic administrations over gender equality issues. This commitment internationally accompanies a strong political will domestically behind specific gender equality policy goals. In the case of Sweden, these goals are: (i) equal division of power and influence; (ii) economic gender equality; (iii) equal education; (iv) equal distribution of unpaid housework and provision of care; (v) equal health; and (vi) eradication of men's violence against women. Canada has shown a strong commitment of the federal government to gender equality by strengthening the gender governance framework through developing institutions, policies, tools, and accountability structures to promote gender equality and mainstreaming.
- 3.50 Clear gender equality policy goals and mainstreaming processes to achieve them.** Even though the objectives and methods of the Nordic countries to promote gender equality have evolved over the years, mainstreaming has been a core strategy. In the case of Sweden, it has been a policy since 1994. To operationalize this core strategy the Swedish government has commissioned the Swedish Gender Equality Agency (within the Ministry of Gender Equality) to support government agencies to integrate a gender perspective in all of their operations, at all levels and at all stages. On a yearly basis, each agency draws a specific action plan on gender mainstreaming and reports its results. In Sweden, the Minister for Gender Equality is responsible for the overall coordination, development, and follow-up of gender mainstreaming, yet the everyday practical implementation is managed by the heads of the ministries. Similarly, Canada's

⁴⁸ For over 40 years, the Nordic countries have worked collectively to promote gender equality. This has resulted in stronger economies and more prosperous societies. Key public policies include the provision of well-paid parental leave, and universal, affordable, and high-quality childcare.

Minister for Women and Gender Equality leads the mainstreaming of gender budgeting in all government's budgetary and financial management processes. Hence, to advance the institutional capacity behind G&D policies it is essential to incorporate a G&D perspective with a respective plan of action on each ministry, especially those that have the largest budgets within the government, as they can affect significant changes through their policies and activities. Political economy factors are recognized as affecting the feasibility and sustainability of reforms.

3.51 **Gender and diversity ministries can play a strategic role in the promotion of policies that support the closing of gaps and inequalities.** According to OECD (2018), the effectiveness of gender equality and diversity inclusion institutions is strengthened when they are placed at the highest possible level within the State, as it is the case of designated ministries. In LAC only 44% of countries have a ministry in the structure of the State dedicated to the promotion of gender equality, and the entities that lead the inclusion of diverse groups often suffer from lack of resources and hierarchy to advance their agenda. Having a specific ministry or ministries in charge of the G&D agenda can provide a strong signal of political will, relevance, and prioritization of equity and inclusion. It empowers the institution to coordinate policies horizontally (across ministries and sectors) and vertically (across levels of government), and to lead the dialogue and collaboration with the private, academia, and civil society sector, which should be brought to the table and given voice through participatory processes in the decision-making process. For gender and diversity ministries to be effective, they ought to be assigned adequate resources (human and financial), strong mandates, political support.

3.52 **Increasing the availability of quality data disaggregated by gender and diverse groups is key for advancing G&D equity.** In the case of Nordic countries, creating a culture of mapping, tracking, and analyzing data has enabled local organizations to create a high degree of transparency on their state of gender equality. National statistical institutes, research centers, government ministries, and other organizations have all played a role to produce data that can be disaggregated by gender and to conduct research to advance the gender equality strategy. To achieve results, countries in LAC would benefit from: (i) increasing the priority and investment in data production, this implies introducing questions about G&D in surveys, censuses, and administrative databases, improving protocols and data collection mechanisms, and supporting national institutes of statistics with resources; (ii) adopting best-practices to collect this type of data in a manner that allows for in-country comparisons over time, and regional comparisons across countries; and (iii) at the survey level, revising sampling frameworks and investing in increasing sample sizes to be able to produce statistically representative figures on population groups for which currently there is no representative data or employing dedicated surveys that oversample the targeted population.

D. Knowledge Gaps

3.53 **The review of the literature summarized in this document has documented the evidence on six types of policies for reducing gaps associated with structural factors (Challenge 1) and unequal treatment (Challenge 2) (Table 9).** The review also highlighted areas where important knowledge gaps remain in LAC. Generating evidence that closes these gaps is important for improving the design and effectiveness of G&D programs and policies. Given the magnitude of the knowledge gaps, this section prioritizes one knowledge gap for each population group. Common to all groups is the need for a better understanding of the political

economy of how to position G&D at the forefront of public and private sector policies.

- 3.54 **Gender.** A strong evidence base exists for promoting labor force participation, however, much less is known about the effectiveness of programs to increase women's relative earnings by encouraging specific careers and occupations. Women remain underrepresented in STEM careers that offer high-pay jobs and professional growth opportunities. Interventions with counter-stereotypical role models, both for women and AD and IP have been shown to be effective in high-income countries, but evidence is lacking for the region. It is important to understand whether role-models can be more effective for specific careers or during particular periods over the life and human capital accumulation cycles. Besides role model interventions, skill-upgrading programs targeted to women and designed to complement academic studies, such as STEM training, digital skills training, and programming bootcamps all have strong theories of change but lack rigorous evidence of impacts.
- 3.55 **Afro-descendants.** While there is some evidence about how to prevent unfair treatment from occurring in certain processes in employment and services, a deep knowledge gap exists with respect to how to change biased attitudes and behaviors. This is particularly important to reduce unfair treatment of AD and IP in education, employment, and services, as well as important to reduce biased treatment of diverse groups and women in access to credit. Some of the approaches to de-bias institutions have strong theories of change but have not been supported as effective in evaluations. This includes diversity training in firms and diversity in hiring panels. At the same time many promising tools exist that have not yet been evaluated in the region including instruments to remove biased language in job postings (race/gender decoder for job ads), instruments to de-identify CVs, and artificial intelligence systems with bias mitigation procedures for assessing loans, mortgages, or other high stakes applications (Singh et al., 2022)
- 3.56 **Indigenous peoples.** An additional knowledge gap applies to models to provide effective intercultural health and education in rural and urban areas at scale. While there is promising evidence on the potential of intercultural education to improve learning outcomes of indigenous children, more evidence is needed, particularly in the health sector. Moreover, more research is needed to identify how to scale-up quality initiatives, including those that strengthen collective decision-making.
- 3.57 **People with disabilities.** For PWD the priority among the vast knowledge gaps is documenting the returns to investing in universal design and inclusive services. Filling this gap is critical to be able to demonstrate to policymakers the business case for inclusion.
- 3.58 **LGBTQ+.** A tremendous knowledge gap, in terms of representative data, pertains to the LGBTQ+ population. In contrast to the other population groups covered in this SFD, the region does not systematically collect information on SOGI from censuses, household surveys, or administrative data and as such, representative samples cannot be generated to describe the socioeconomic conditions of the LGBTQ+ population. Designing policies based on information gathered from convenience samples runs the risk that only some views are represented in the data. Improved techniques for collecting sensitive information

are needed to be able to gather representative samples, unaffected by the possible stigma of identifying as homosexual, non-binary or transgender.

IV. LESSONS LEARNED FROM THE IDB GROUP'S EXPERIENCE IN GENDER AND DIVERSITY

- 4.1. **The IDBG supports G&D policies in the region through its operations, technical assistance and through the generation of data and evidence.** This section summarizes key lessons learned from this work, grouped according to process, operational, and strategic features.⁴⁹
- A. Process lessons**
- 4.2. **As detailed in the GDAP 2022-2025 report, the strong commitment from the IDBG's management has been an overarching factor in advancing the mainstreaming of G&D across sectors and operations.** This commitment has been reinforced by management through (i) more systematic requests for quality mainstreaming of operations at all levels; (ii) continued inclusion of G&D-related goals in the annual employee performance system; and (iii) human and financial resources.
- 4.3 According to a survey of IDB employees conducted by an external firm, **government prioritization** was highlighted as the **most important factor enabling mainstreaming**. Half of Bank staff and consultants identified this as critical for diversity mainstreaming and 63% for gender mainstreaming. Some survey respondents (31% for gender and 19% for diversity) highlighted low-level of government interest as a barrier to mainstreaming.
- 4.4 **Direct technical support from G&D staff and consultants**, from SCL/GDI and other sector divisions and country offices was another enabling factor that employees identified as contributing to G&D mainstreaming. A pre-screening of the entire project pipeline with the Vice Presidency for Sectors and Knowledge divisions early in the year identifies opportunities for mainstreaming and priorities for technical support. Each sector division and each country office has been assigned a SCL/GDI employee as G&D focal point to provide support and coordinate needs and opportunities. In addition, the active participation of GDI in project teams has also helped to build capacity and co-responsibility for alignment results throughout different sectors.
- 4.5 **A systematic process of the validation of G&D strategic alignment** ensures that the IDBG measures meaningful actions to address G&D, not merely perfunctory activities. Compared with other multilateral development banks, the IDBG's criteria for strategic alignment are more demanding for diversity and among the most demanding for gender (GN-3083-2). The protocol for this process was strengthened in 2020, with the validation exercise conducted by SCL/GDI in

⁴⁹ The lessons summarized are drawn from the reports of the Gender Action Plan 2020-2021 and the Diversity Action Plan 2019-2021, the GDAP 2022-2025, inputs from IDBG staff, IDBG publications, Project Completion Reports, and Project Monitoring Reports.

collaboration with the Office of Strategic Planning and Development Effectiveness.⁵⁰

- 4.6 **The IDBG's experience with executing mainstreaming has not matched the success of mainstreaming in the design of operations.** An analysis of both diversity-related results (DRRs) and gender-related results (GRRs) in the 55 Project Completion Reports (PCRs) presented in 2021 suggests the need of more technical assistance focused on G&D activities during project implementation. Counterpart capacity to collect data to monitor GRRs and DRRs was also highlighted as a key barrier (59% of employees surveyed reported this as the primary barrier for diversity and 55% for gender).
- 4.7 Although direct investment (DI)⁵¹ loans are scarce, **the IDBG stands out from other international institutions in its emerging portfolio of DI operations in G&D.** The IDBG experience with multisectoral DI for gender equality, disability inclusion and the reduction of SGBV, represents the strong commitment of counterparts to articulate services across multiple agencies and sectors. At the same time, there are often weak or inexistent mechanisms to promote the high level of coordination for this kind of investment. Flexible regional technical cooperation resources have played an important role to support loan operations prior to and during their design and execution.
- 4.8 **The success of mainstreaming and DI across G&D reflects the capacity to equip sector and country specialists with technical tools.** Bank-wide trainings and sector-specific policy briefs are key inputs for mobilizing mainstreaming. Different levels of government interest regarding the diverse groups have given rise to an uneven pattern of mainstreaming, with projects focused on disability inclusion representing half of diversity aligned projects. In the private sector, blended finance, an instrument that provides concessional lending to projects where actual or perceived risks are too high for commercial finance, has been a useful instrument for adding G&D indicators to projects.⁵²

B. Operational lessons

- 4.9 **Raising and maintaining the prioritization of G&D goals and leveraging more resources for G&D policies requires dialogue and collaboration across diverse actors and stakeholders.** One platform that has facilitated such collaboration are the Gender Parity Accelerators (IPG from the Spanish acronym). The IPGs convene leaders from the public and private sectors who develop three-year action plans with concrete measures to promote women's employment, equal pay, and advancement into leadership roles. In Panama and Argentina, the IPG platform played a key role in to articulate the demand of gender DI policy-based

⁵⁰ The other MDBs do not have a formal diversity alignment process. The IDBG's requirement of an indicator related to the G&D diagnostics and actions makes our strategic alignment process more rigorous for gender than many other MDBs. A [Technical Guidance Note](#) on the Corporate Results Framework specifies the alignment process.

⁵¹ DI operations are those whose main objective, of the overall project or of a specific component, is to promote gender equality, the empowerment of women, development with identity for IP or AD, or close gaps for diverse groups (IP, AD, PWD, LGBTQ+). This approach complements mainstreaming.

⁵² The IDB Invest uses blended finance with corporate clients to promote G&D inclusion as well as access to credit and markets for women-led SMEs.

loan (PBLs) operations.⁵³ Companies and institutions that join the IPG benefit from a set of tools to assess and improve their gender equality performance.

- 4.10 **Lessons from Bank operations focused on services to prevent SGBV and to provide support to survivors suggest there is still a need to refine the design of evidence-based, scalable, cost-effective models in the region that can be sustained in time.** Models such as the Bank-supported Ciudad Mujer have not addressed all these challenges and continue to be revised and improved. Elements of success of this model include: (i) the establishment of one lead agency with an inter-agency committee; (ii) inter-disciplinary teams; (iii) case management and information systems focused on the user; and (iv) offering health services as the point of entry for users to reduce stigma. As these models continue to evolve, areas of improvement include a stronger articulation with countries' social protection systems and justice systems (law enforcement prosecution and courts). Scaling the services remains a challenge as does the sustainability of project execution when champions in counterpart institutions are replaced, or the model is associated with a particular administration, exposing the model to the risk of political transitions. Moreover, SGBV services must recognize the diversity of survivors and their different needs. A DI operation approved in 2021 in Uruguay, through which the Bank will support the expansion and improvement of SGBV services, will be an opportunity to learn how to design and implement such differentiated responses, with a focus on diverse groups of women: migrants, survivors of human trafficking, PWD, AD and LBT.
- 4.11 **In the area of services for survivors of SGBV, the Bank has supported the development of digital platforms, which have proliferated in the context of the pandemic as a solution to ensure continuity of service to psychological, social, and legal support.** The ease of use and accessibility of these technologies for different groups of women (elderly, PWD, rural) must be documented. Moreover, it is necessary to assess the quality and effectiveness of services delivered through these platforms. Failures encountered in launching specific platforms point to the importance of systematically documenting the implementation challenges and relating these to the adequacy of the technology and human resource support. If implementation difficulties are addressed systematically and digital platforms prove an effective means to deliver services with quality, they could be a promising means of scaling-up these services.
- 4.12 **In the area of support to women-owned small and medium enterprises (WSMEs), operations under the IDBG-wide WeforLAC and We3A programs have demonstrated the synergies that can be accomplished when the three windows of the IDBG articulate their efforts towards a common goal.** The programs aim to reduce constraints faced by WSMEs: access to financing, markets, and entrepreneurial skills. In LAC, the biggest focus of these programs has been in Honduras, since they are financed by We-Fi, which targets IDA countries. The [mid-term review](#) of the We-Fi program noted that execution periods for projects needed to be extended, recognizing the complexities of the contexts where these projects were operating. Beyond We-Fi, the IDBG is working to reduce finance gaps for women-owned enterprises in the region, with operations setting targets to increase the share of finance directed toward WSMEs. Some

⁵³ Panama's two PBLs supported the enactment of legislation related to minimum representation of women on Boards of Directors and gender pay gap reporting. IPG research on the cost and benefits of expanding paternity leave contributed to the Colombian government extending paternity leave to 2 weeks.

common lessons have emerged from this work: (i) the lack of disaggregated data by gender for micro and small firms hinders the ability of financial intermediaries to design and target products for WSMEs; and (ii) strengthening the capacity of financial intermediaries to offer gender differentiated financial and non-financial products and services is fundamental for increasing financing to WSMEs.

- 4.13 **Although disability inclusion is still a relatively new area for operational work for the IDBG, it has established an important operational, technical assistance and knowledge portfolio.** Since 2019, the IDB approved 47 loans that mainstreamed disability inclusion. IDB Lab and IDB Invest have been key partners for engaging the private sector in the pursuit of inclusion. Mobilizing interest for disability inclusion has proven to be relatively easy; however, segregated and paternalistic approaches have not been completely eradicated in proposals for interventions. Project execution has been affected by the high mobility of champions in counterpart institutions as well as the weak institutional capacity of the agencies that coordinate policies for PWD. Moving forward, implementation schemes that do not place full executing responsibilities in these agencies (such as mainstreamed projects or direct investment through stronger ministries) may facilitate implementation. Regardless of the executing agency, engagement with civil society throughout the design and implementation of projects is critical both to fulfill lemma of “Nothing about us without us” and to avoid generating false expectations.
- 4.14 **Operations mainstreaming IP have provided fertile ground for collaboration and innovation.** Key lessons learned from a multi-year program in Panama include: (i) effective engagement with IP requires familiarity with the fundamentals of each culture, geography, language, governing bodies, and organizational structures; (ii) to design and implement services, infrastructure and policy that effectively respond to the culture, needs, realities and potential of local indigenous communities and territories, participatory mechanisms and methodologies are key; and (iii) although oftentimes limited, indigenous territories have increasing access to technologies and telecommunications. As such, digital forums and collaborations are growing. To leverage these spaces with IP, it is necessary to assure inputs such as credit for internet services, and training in basic skills, among others.
- 4.15 **IDBG operations mainstreaming the needs of AD persons have grown at a slower pace than other diverse groups and more efforts are needed to accelerate the growth of this portfolio.** We have learned that providing specialists with toolkits and trainings can generate mainstreaming. Targeting these efforts on specialists working with countries with higher shares of AD is warranted.

C. Strategic lessons

- 4.16 **The IDBG cannot address the vast knowledge gaps on its own.** We have learned that strategic initiatives such as the [GDLab](#)⁵⁴ and the Latin American and Caribbean Research Network are critical for mobilizing top researchers in the region to explore evidence-based public policies. The GDLab and the LAC Research Network are supporting seven research projects to characterize the needs of the LGBTQ+ population in different countries of the region. Given how little data there is about this diverse group, initiatives such as this one, will allow

⁵⁴ The GDLab is an IDBG initiative that aims to promote knowledge generation to support evidence-based policies that address the challenges of women and diverse groups in LAC.

the Bank to start developing a pipeline of projects that address the needs of LGBTQ+ persons.

- 4.17 **Large systemic changes** are affecting the demographic, social, environmental, and economic fabric of the region and can promote or obstruct gender and diversity equity over the next decades. Identifying areas of opportunity that may arise from these important changes is key to design adequate policy responses and incentives.
- 4.18 **Preparedness.** The duration and scope of the COVID-19 pandemic has been in many ways extraordinary for the region. Previous aggregate shocks, such as food price crises or global economic crises, have taught us that impacts are not homogeneous across gender and diverse groups. PWD are more likely to be left behind in natural disasters due to a lack of adequate planning, as well as inaccessible transportation and services. Moving forward, a strategic lesson learned from the pandemic is the need to strengthen preparedness, such as disability inclusive National Plans for Emergencies, even more urgent with climate change. Stronger national systems to prevent and protect victims of SGBV are also needed to be better prepared to face shocks like the pandemic, which led to a rise in prevalence.
- 4.19 **Population aging and dependency.** As the region designs services and programs for individuals with care dependence, it is critical to address G&D aspects both from people in need of care as well as of caregivers. Women not only comprise more of the care-dependent, but women, AD and IP also provide the lion's share of the caregiving, as unpaid family providers or poorly remunerated workers. Recognizing the value of caregiving work is critical to empower women and to reduce the gender gap in unpaid and paid caregiving. From a strategic perspective, through the different initiatives the Bank is supporting, it has learned that issues around caregiving ought to be addressed with a systemic perspective that considers the needs of both the person receiving and the one providing care, and with a focus on aspects such as institutional governance, financing, quality and standards, rights, monitoring and evaluation, and human resources (Aranco et al., 2022).
- 4.20 **Climate change.** As the IDBG promotes climate resilient economies with low greenhouse gas emissions and the reduction in vulnerabilities to climate change, a strategic lesson learned is that there are currently no instruments in place to implement this transition with a G&D perspective. Specifically, it is necessary to develop evidence-based skills programs that facilitate women's and diverse groups' entry into green jobs, where they are traditionally under-represented, and stewardship programs that reward the expertise of IP and AD communities to protect biodiversity and prevent deforestation while promoting development with identity.

V. LINES OF ACTION FOR THE IDB GROUP'S WORK IN GENDER AND DIVERSITY

- 5.1 **Based on the challenges presented in Section II, the evidence of effective policies in Section III, and lessons learned in Section IV, this SFD puts forward three lines of action that are aligned with the priority thematic issues identified in the GDAP 2022-2025.** The inter-relatedness of the actions is recognized. The instruments to implement these lines of action are policy dialogue, knowledge generation, technical assistance, and lending operations, with the first

three instruments also critical for stimulating demand for IDBG programs.⁵⁵ It should be noted that in all lines of action, the IDBG will seek to engage men and boys, in recognition of their key role as agents of change in attaining gender parity, and to incorporate the vision of development with identity of indigenous and AD women, who face specific challenges due to the intersection of gender and cultural identity. Moreover, close coordination across and within IDBG windows, to use consistent language, send a unified vision, and build from previous experiences is necessary to maximize synergies and impacts. The IDB Lab will deepen its collaboration with both IDB and IDB Invest to test the effectiveness and market viability of business models to address G&D gaps. IDB Lab will also focus on the effective use of digital technologies to test scalable solutions for future IDBG operations. IDB Invest will support blended finance to promote G&D inclusion in the private sector. The results of these initiatives will be assessed and disseminated.

A. Line of Action 1: Address gaps that arise from structural factors

1. Compensatory Policies

5.2 Affirmative policies can be used to reduce the underrepresentation of women or diverse groups in education, procurement, and political representation. The review of the evidence found largely positive impacts. Given concerns about potential adverse effects on outcomes beyond representation such as exacerbating negative stereotypes, the IDBG will focus on generating knowledge about their effects to ensure that policies that are scaled up have positive impacts that outweigh possible negative externalities.

5.3 Through its lending operations, the IDBG will also support land titling programs that enable families and communities to invest in physical and human capital and contribute to climate change mitigation.

2. Enabling environment policies

5.4 Solutions for the reconciliation of work and home care responsibilities for men and women facilitate women's participation in the labor market. Through lending, knowledge generation, and technical assistance the IDBG will support solutions including high quality, affordable child-care, and other care services, and paid parental leave, which can prevent women from leaving the workforce after childbirth without discouraging the hiring of women in childbearing ages, and which can promote men's participation in unpaid and care responsibilities inside their homes and communities.

5.5 The promotion of accessible and inclusive infrastructure and services, including digital accessibility and housing are enabling environment policies that facilitate autonomy for PWD. Interoperable systems can prevent PwD from losing access to services when they transition across programs and avoid the demanding processes of re-documenting their disability status. The IDBG will promote “universal design”, or accessibility and inclusion in the original design of programs and infrastructure in its lending operations. Along these lines, and considering demographic projections as well as climate change, through loan operations and technical assistance, the IDBG will support the design of disability

⁵⁵ This includes the mobilization of resources and partners through coordination with the Office of Strategic Alliances (ORP). Important examples include alliances with the French Development Agency to prevent SGBV and the Colombian Presidential Agency of International Cooperation to promote paralympic sports.

inclusive National Plans for Emergencies, environmental stewardship programs, and the reduction of the gap in internet access for IP and AD.

3. Differentiated Programs and Services

- 5.6 **The IDBG will support programs that have been designed to meet the differentiated needs of women and diverse groups.** Through lending operations and technical assistance, the IDBG will support the entry into highly remunerated sectors and occupations of girls, women, and diverse groups. It will do so by fostering education and training interventions, especially those that combine financial grants and access to markets with business training designed for women and diverse microentrepreneurs. Additionally, promoting disability inclusive education and training programs and building inclusive labor market intermediation services strengthens the pipeline for the economic inclusion of PWD. To address knowledge gaps with respect to STEM and digital skills training, mentoring, and disability-inclusive labor market insertion, the IDBG will support the evaluation of different models to better address scaling-up and cost-effectiveness. The interventions in this line of action collectively promote formal sector employment and reduce gaps by gender and diversity in informality.
- 5.7 **Eradicating physical, sexual, psychological, and cyber violence allows women and other groups facing high rates of SGBV to exercise lives with self-determination.** Through its lending operations and complemented with technical assistance and in some cases knowledge generation, the IDBG will: (i) incorporate the prevention of SGBV into Bank operations in the areas of citizen security, health, public transportation, and urban development; (ii) support scalable, high-quality comprehensive services for survivors of SGBV; (iii) promote regulations that protect girls, women, and LGBTQ+ individuals; and (iv) support boys and men through piloting and evaluating masculinity interventions that change behavior through changing social norms.⁵⁶
- 5.8 **To improve project outcomes and promote the voice and agency of IP and AD, the IDBG will support intercultural services, as well as biocultural stewardship programs which protect the traditional livelihoods and practices of IP and AD while protecting biodiversity.** These actions will be supported through policy dialogue, knowledge generation, technical assistance, and lending operations.

4. Universal Policies

- 5.9 **Through its lending operations, the IDBG will support universal policies that have a disproportionate positive impact on G&D outcomes even if these interventions are not aimed primarily at women or diverse groups.** Universal policies such as high-quality preschool can reduce racial gaps in learning and earnings. Non-contributory pensions targeted to low-income households reduce gender poverty gaps in old age. The provision of safe public spaces benefits all, particularly women and LGBTQ+ individuals. Supporting reproductive health enables adolescent girls and women to make informed and autonomous decisions about their sexuality and promotes women's agency and well-being in health and economic domains. The IDBG will support programs that expand access to effective contraceptive methods, reduce unwanted pregnancy and adolescent and

⁵⁶ The theory of change of masculinity interventions suggests that they improve outcomes for boys and men in schools and reducing aggressive interactions. This also benefits women and communities.

child pregnancy, reduce the sexual abuse of minors, and promote the school attendance of adolescent mothers.

B. Line of Action 2: Reduce biases against women and diverse groups

1. Policies to prevent or discourage unequal treatment

- 5.10 **To remove discretion that can be used to exercise unequal treatment, anonymizing processes will be supported in labor market intermediation programs, hiring processes, and other programs where bias can affect assessments.** This will be supported through technical assistance and IDBG operations. Additionally, through its technical assistance and lending operations, the IDBG will continue to harness AI to avert bias against women and diverse groups, recognizing that often bias is embedded in the algorithms, and designing evaluations to assess whether approaches such as gender decoders for job ads, instruments to de-identify CVs, and bias-mitigation procedures are effective and scalable. As countries expand legal frameworks prohibiting discrimination based on gender, race, ethnicity, or SOGI, through its technical assistance and lending operations, the IDBG will support the implementation and enforcement of these legislations.

2. Policies to reduce bias or impact of bias from service providers

- 5.11 **Through lending operations, the IDBG will support interventions that use role models to change social norms and positively influence academic performance, choice of major, and career choice for girls, women, and diverse groups.** Similarly, the IDBG, through technical assistance and lending operations, will support information, media, and antibullying campaigns which have shown promising results for changing social norms and reducing discrimination based on race, ethnicity, gender and SOGI. The IDBG will pilot and evaluate these approaches in operations, working with teachers and students in the education sector. Piloting and evaluating these initiatives are necessary to contribute to the emerging evidence base regarding policy instruments that are effective in promoting equality of opportunity.

3. Measuring unequal treatment

- 5.12 **To better design policies to prevent or reduce biased behavior towards women and diverse groups, the IDBG will generate knowledge on policy instruments to eradicate unequal treatment, particularly regarding PWD and LGBTQ+ individuals and in domains with little to no evidence in LAC.** This includes housing, credit, and judicial services.

C. Line of Action 3: Strengthen institutional capacity to design and execute G&D policies

- 5.13 **Support mainstreaming processes and resources so that G&D goals are integrated to all sectors as crosscutting priorities.** Clear mainstreaming processes within sectors as well as coordination and articulation across sectors are key to promote a systemic and integrated delivery of social programs that attend the multi-factorial characteristics of inequality and exclusion. The IDBG will support: (i) the autonomy, know-how, human capital and resources of G&D institutions in the region with a focus in accompanying and assisting them to design, implement, and evaluate systems, programs and policies that advance their agendas to increase G&D equity, it will do so through technical assistance,

knowledge products, and operations; and (ii) the strengthening of G&D mainstreaming processes, including G&D budgeting, in key ministries through systematic country dialogues, technical support to establish appropriate systems of coordination, and the promotion of efficient allocation of resources, financial leverage, and mobilization of public and private investments in operations.

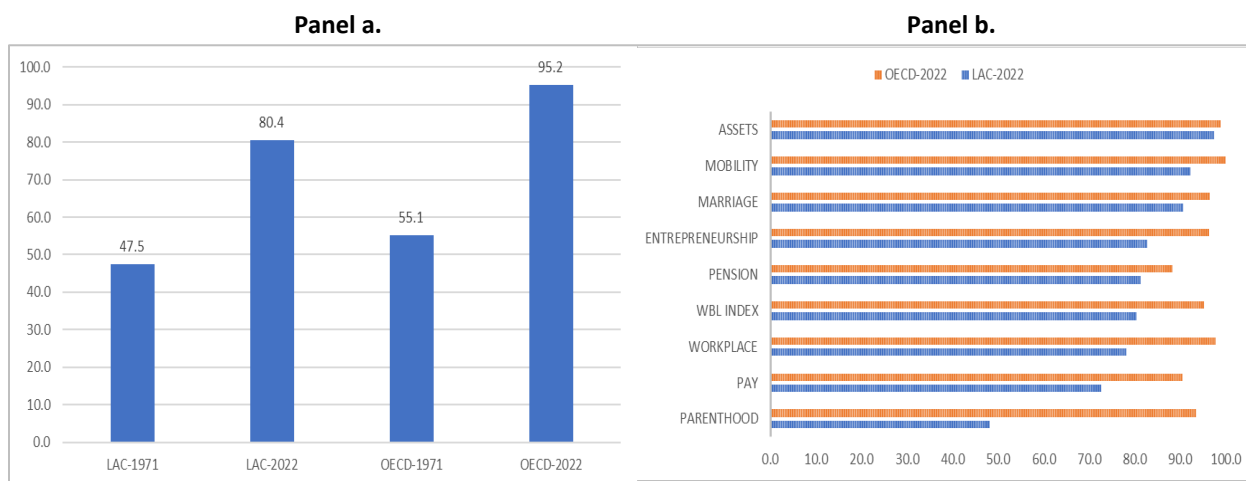
- 5.14 **Improvement of G&D data availability and quality.** Advancing G&D equity in the region through sound policy making requires of frequent and reliable data on gender and especially on diversity gaps. This is the case at all levels: national censuses, surveys, administrative data, and project monitoring indicators. The IDBG will support the closing of gaps on indicators and data on G&D by strengthening national information systems through lending operations and financing such as non-reimbursable technical cooperations and, potentially, fee-based advisory and knowledge services. This includes, among others: (i) strengthening the collection of G&D information in censuses and household surveys; (ii) strengthening the disaggregation of administrative data by gender, race, ethnicity, and disability status; (iii) collecting representative data for LGBTQ+ individuals following best practices for sensitive data collection; (iv) supporting the collection of georeferenced data; and (v) supporting analytical work regarding best practices and technical knowledge on data collection relevant to G&D.

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Figure 1. Index on Laws and Regulations: Women, Business, and the Law

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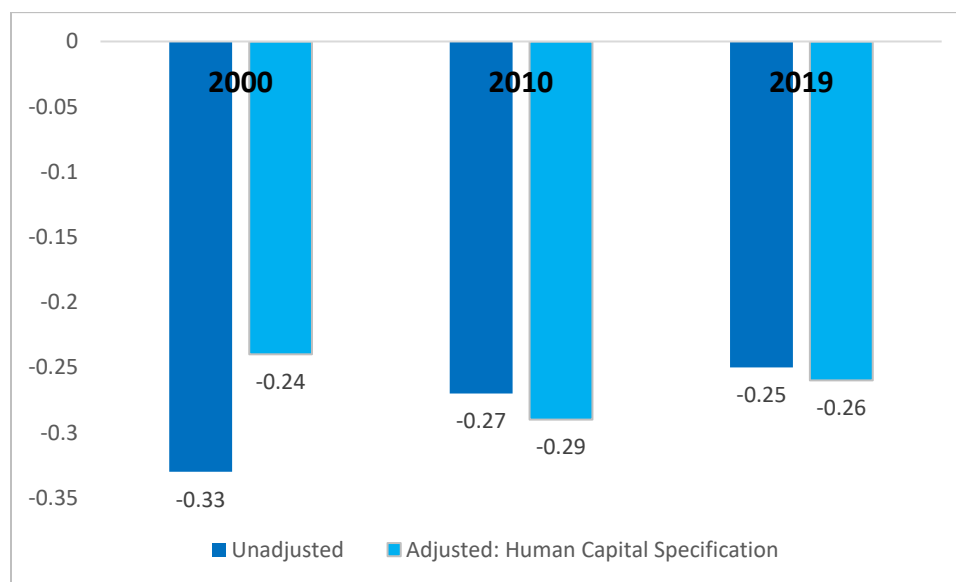


Source: Constructed based on Women Business and the Law Data Notes.

<https://thedocs.worldbank.org/en/doc/596151551985875100-0050022019/original/WBLDataNotes0306.pdf>

Figure 2. Evolution of Gender Gap in Labor Force Participation, LAC average, 2000-2019

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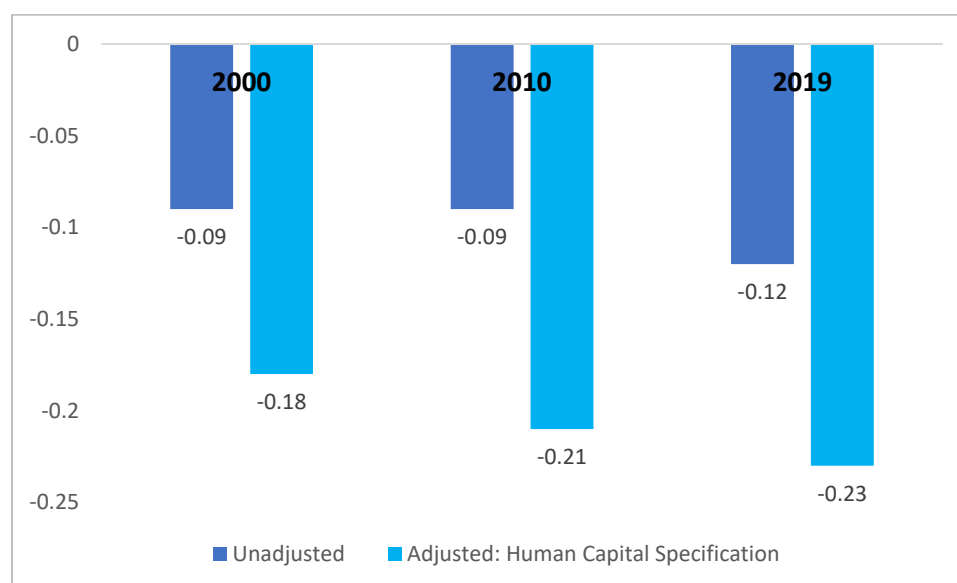


Source: Calculations using Harmonized household surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Note: Labor force participation 2000 –2019. LAC average among 19 countries (LAC-19 Countries defined in Table 8). Human Capital Controls (Age, square age, years of schooling, Tertiary education complete).

Figure 3. Evolution of Gender Wage Gap. LAC average, 2000-2019

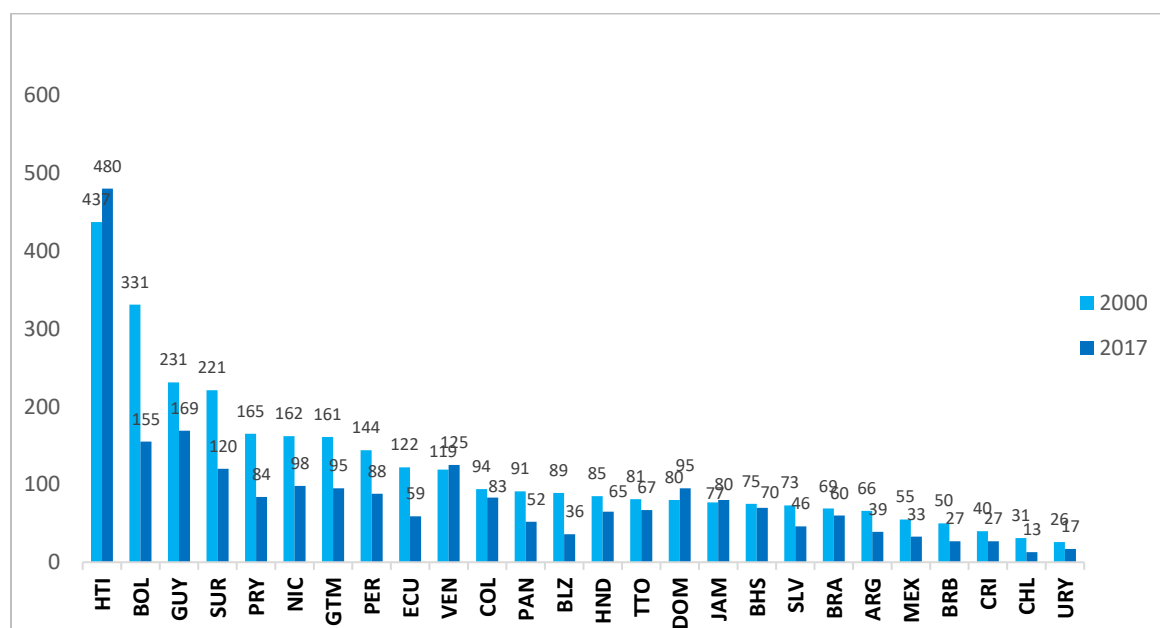
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Source: Calculations using Harmonized household surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.
Note: Gender Gap in Hourly Wage (PPP, Constant 2011). LAC average among 19 countries (LAC-19 Countries defined in [Table 8](#)). Human Capital Controls (Age, square age, years of schooling, tertiary education complete).

Figure 4. Evolution of Maternal Mortality Ratio (deaths per 100,000 live births) 2000-2017

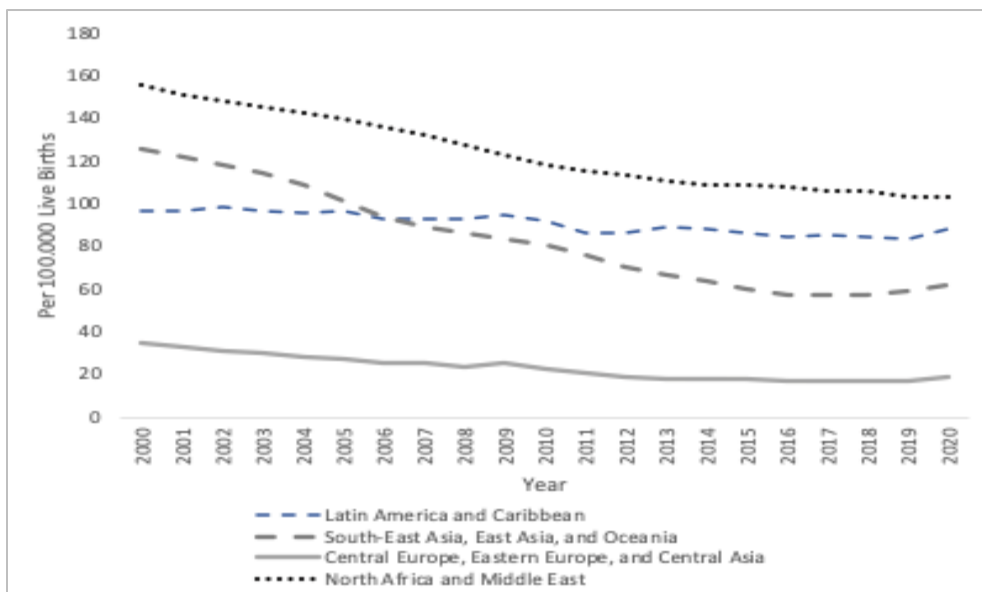
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Source: World Health Organization (WHO). Global Health Observatory. Results tool available at: [https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/indicators/indicator-details/GHO/maternal-mortality-ratio-\(per-100-000-live-births\)](https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/indicators/indicator-details/GHO/maternal-mortality-ratio-(per-100-000-live-births))

Figure 5. Evolution of maternal mortality ratio (deaths per 100,000 live births)

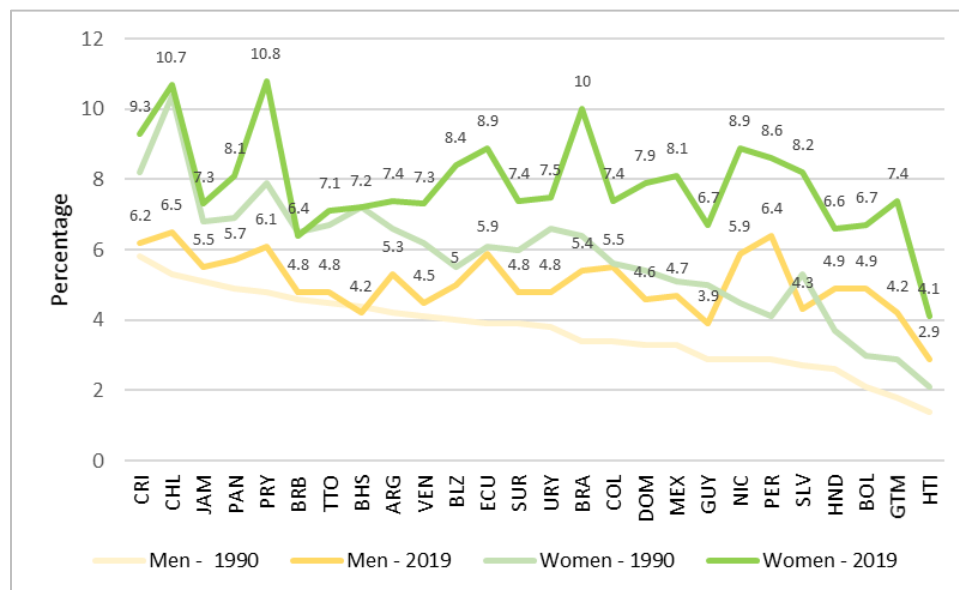
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Source: BMGF <https://www.gatesfoundation.org/goalkeepers/report/2021-report/progress-indicators/>

Figure 6. Evolution of Burden of Mental Illness in Disability Adjusted Life Years (DALYs) (%) (1990 -2019)

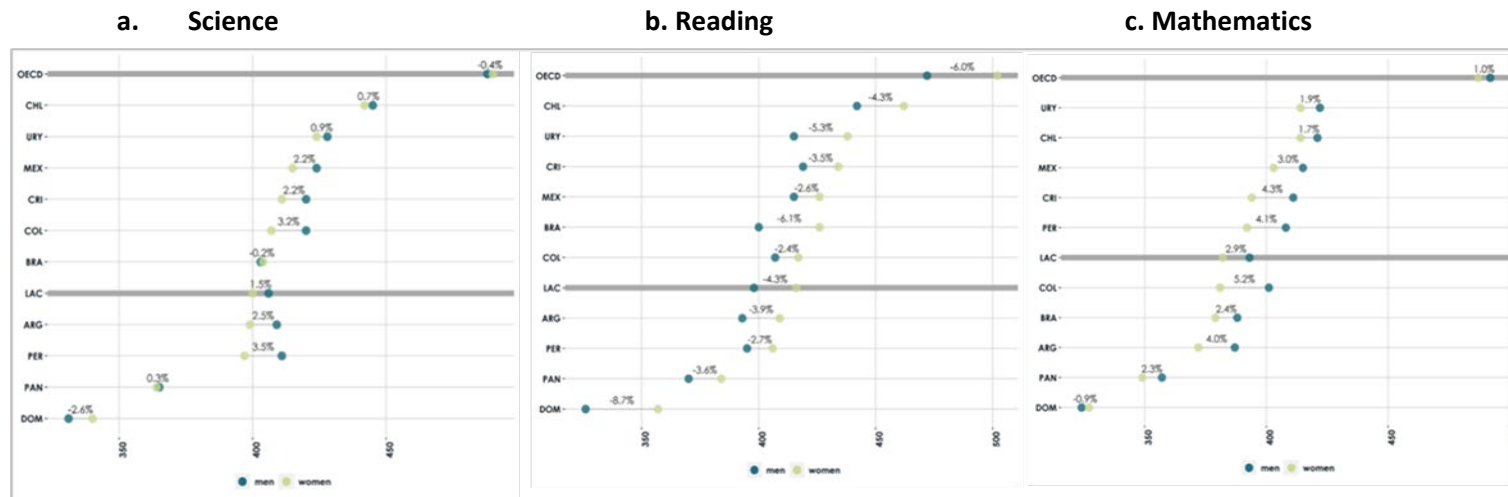
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Source: The Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME). Results tool available at <https://ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-results-tool>

Figure 7. Gender gaps in PISA results in math, reading and science

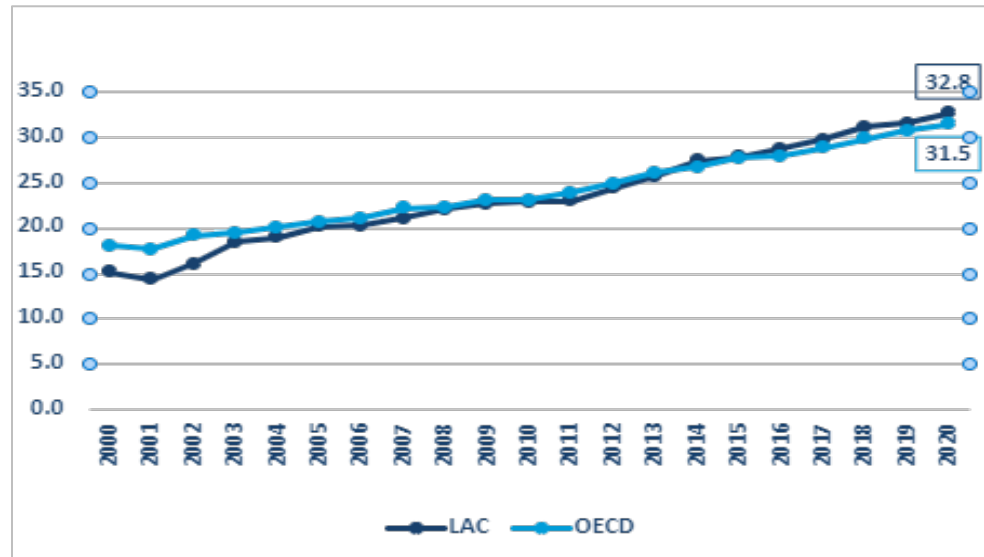
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Source: Constructed with OECD

Figure 8. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments (%)

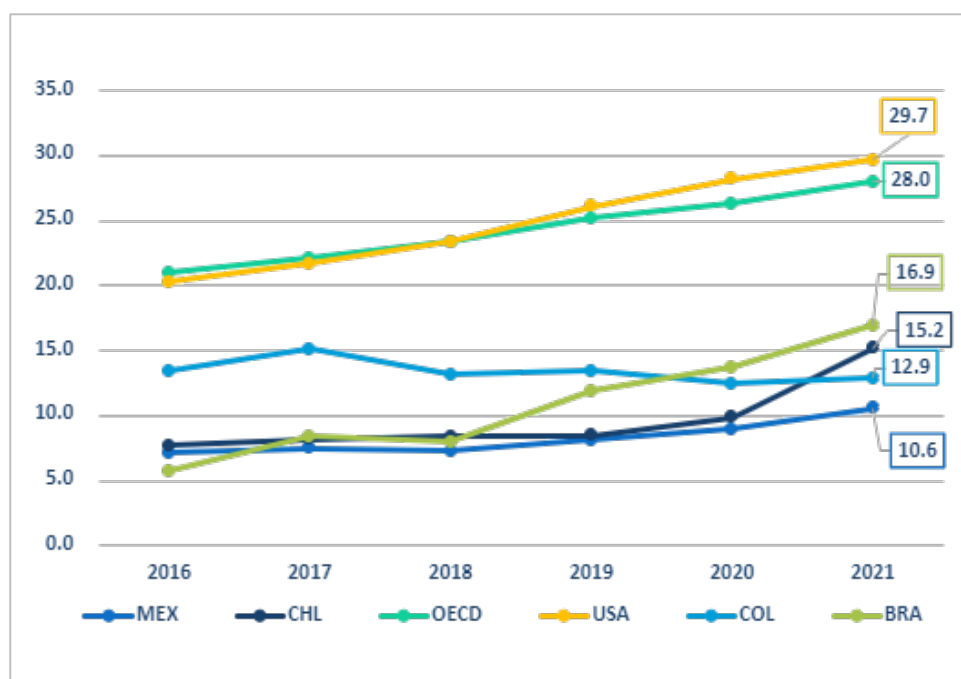
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Source: Constructed based on Database: Gender Statistics.

Figure 9. Proportion of seats held by women at largest publicly listed companies (%)

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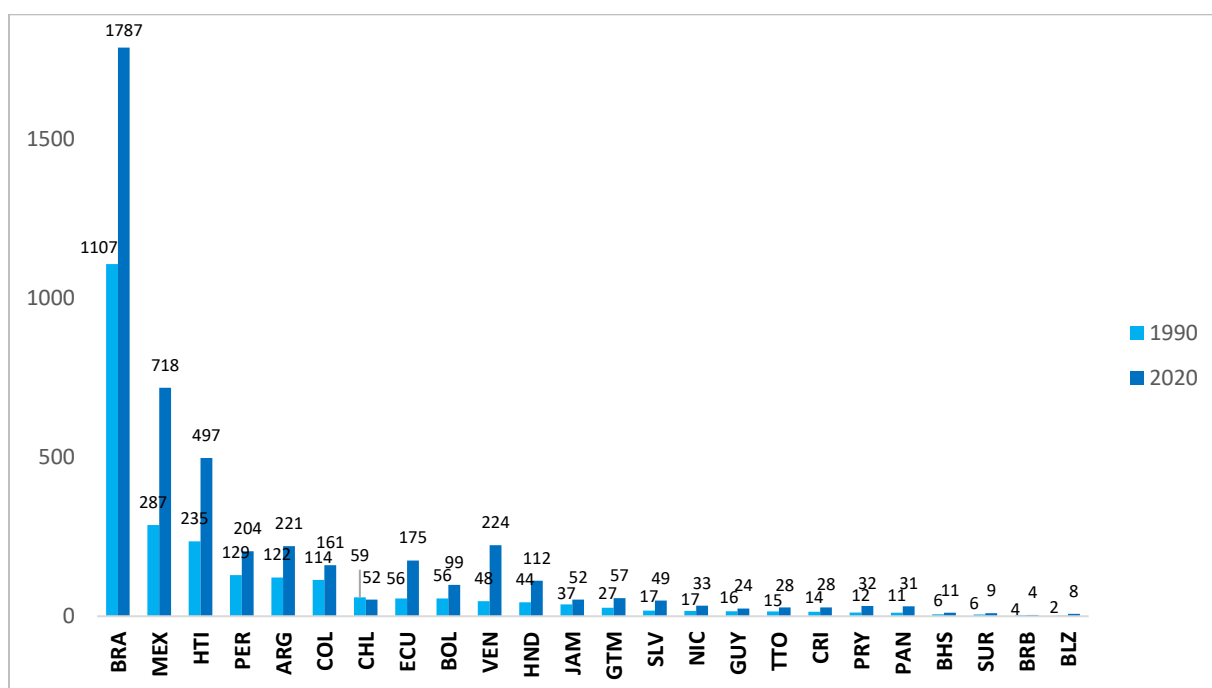


Source: Constructed based on data extracted from OECD.Stat.

<https://equileap.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/01/MSCLs-Women-on-Boards-2019-Progress-Report.pdf>

Figure 10. Deaths from Intimate Partner Violence (Total), 1990-2020

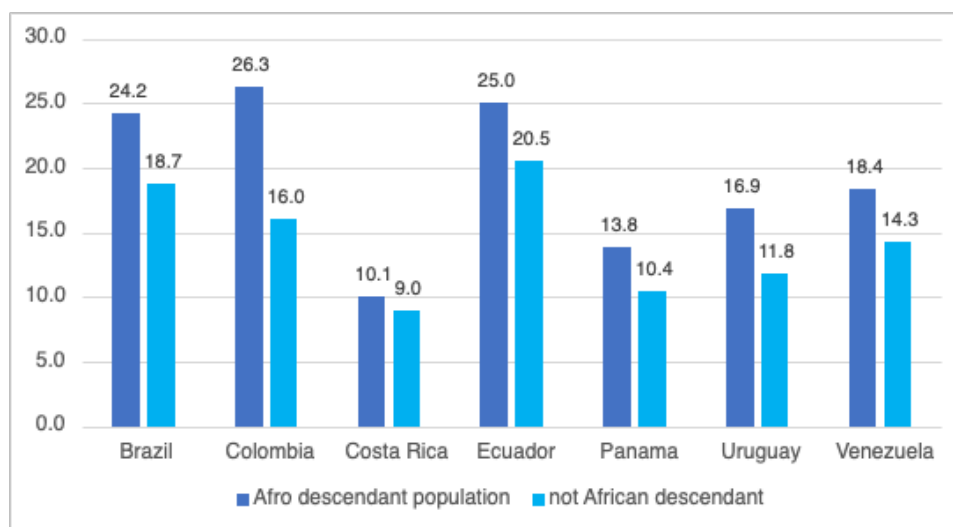
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Source: The Institute for Health Metrics and Evaluation (IHME). Results tool available at: <https://ghdx.healthdata.org/gbd-results-tool>.

Figure 11. Infant mortality rates by race (per 1,000 live births)

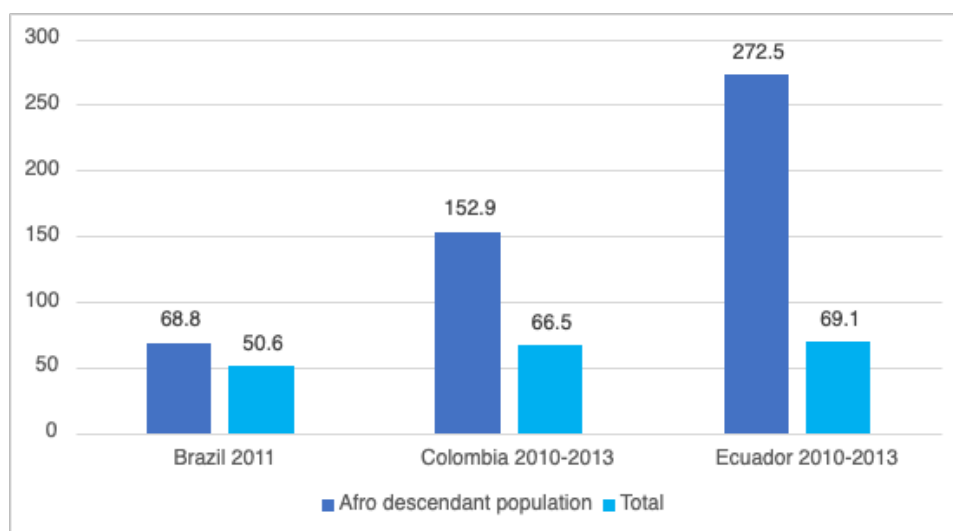
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Source: ECLAC (2017) based on the 2010 census round.

Figure 12. Maternal mortality ratios by race (deaths per 100,000 live births), circa 2011

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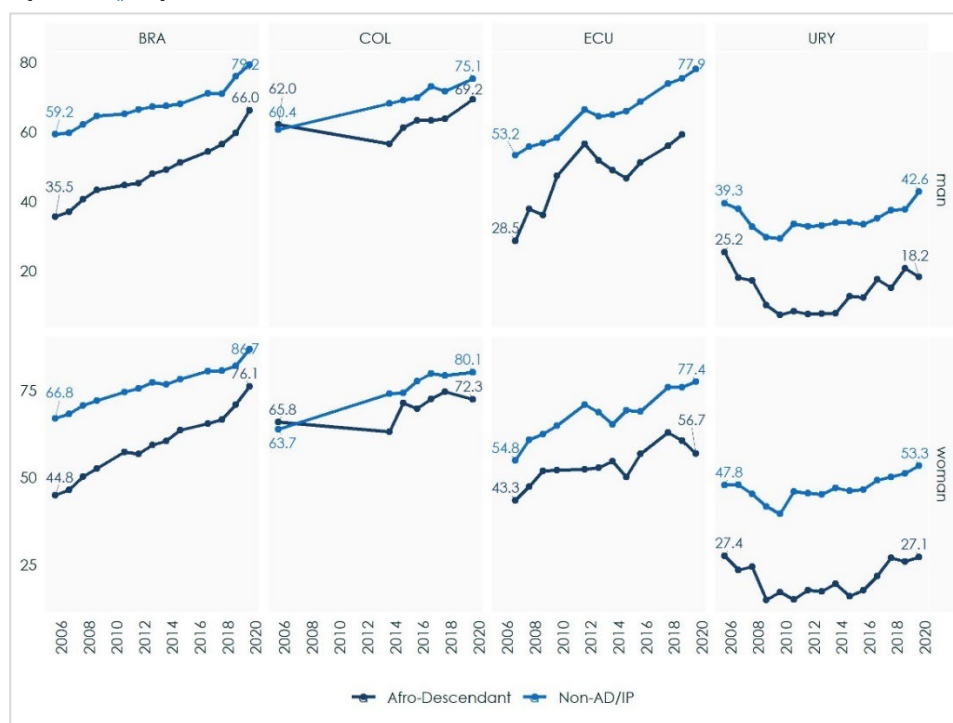


Source: ECLAC (2017).

Figure 13. Secondary education completion rate, by race and ethnicity

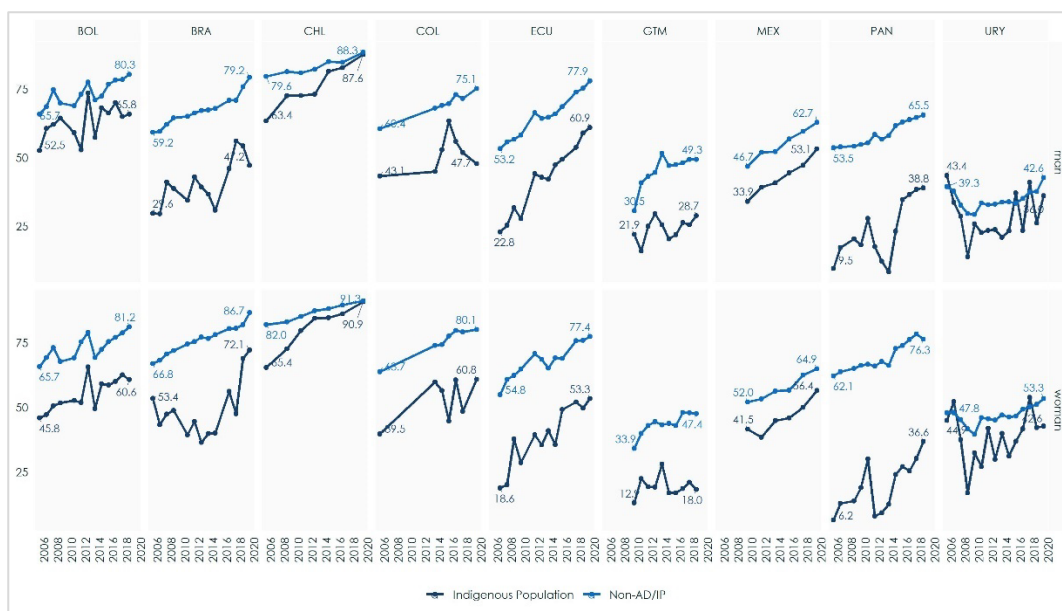
Panel a. Race

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Panel B. Ethnicity

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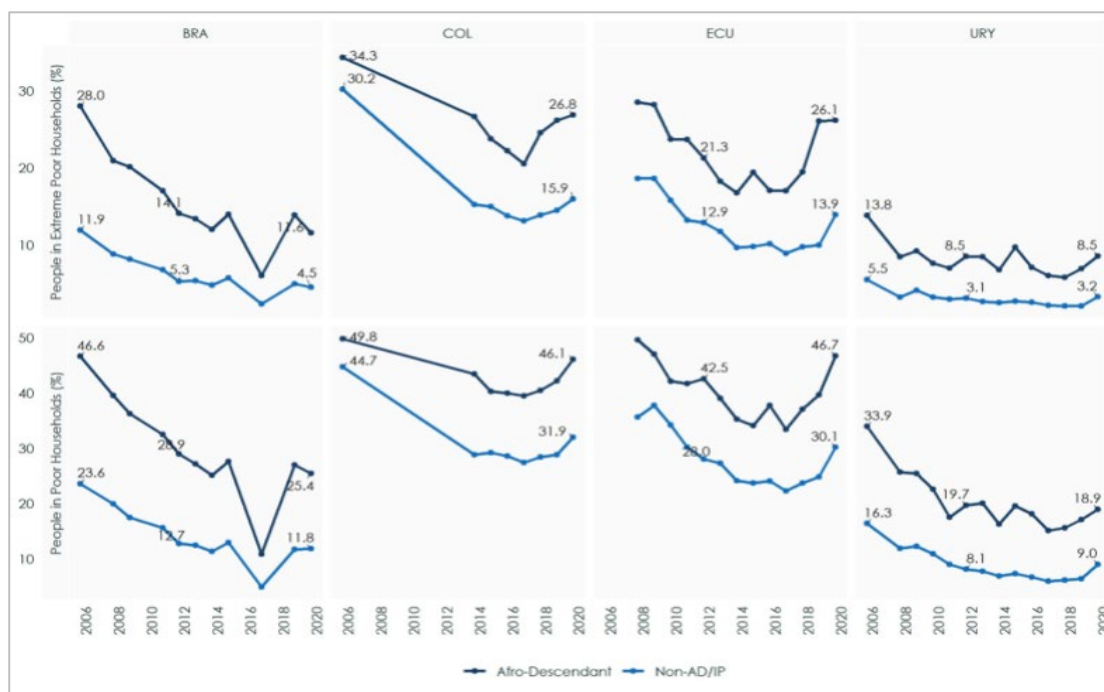


Source: Calculations based on: Inter-American Development Bank (IDB) Harmonized Household Surveys (see Table 7 for more details about the harmonization). Completion rate of secondary education for individuals 20-25 years of age.

Figure 14. Poverty rates by race and ethnicity

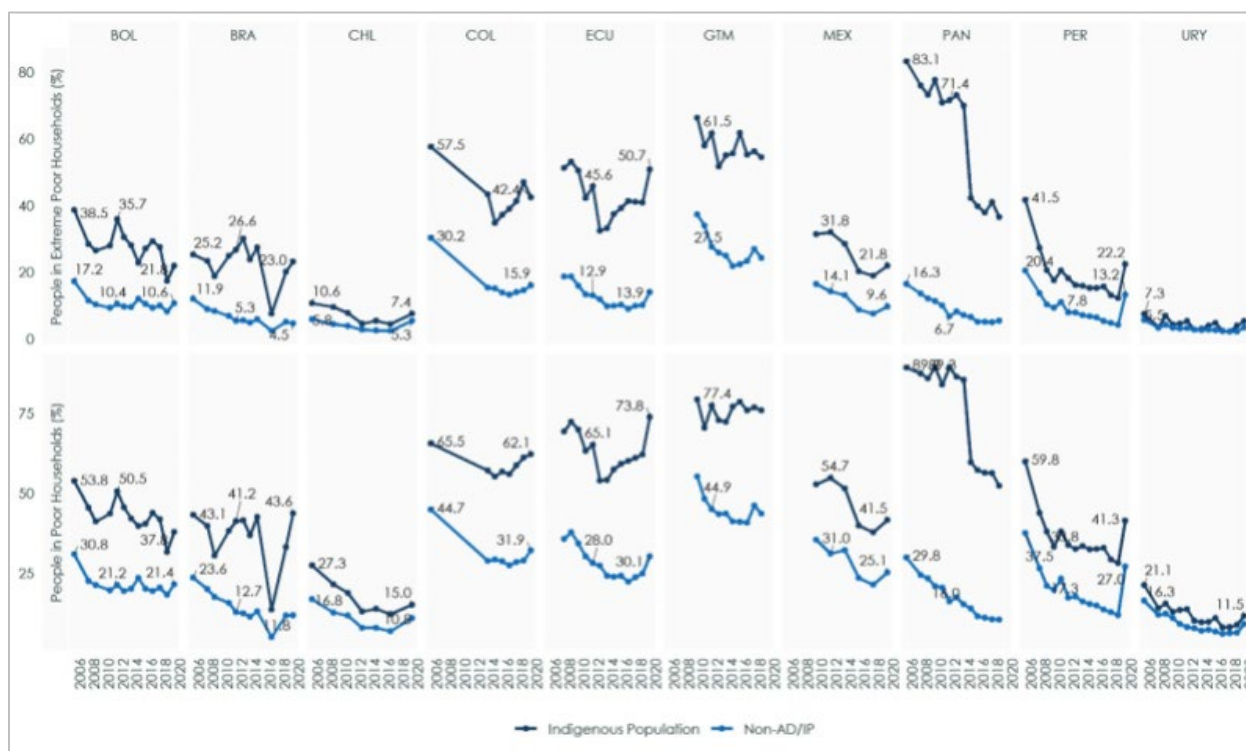
Panel a. Race

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Panel b. Ethnicity

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Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Note: Poverty is defined as the percentage of the population whose income is less than US\$5.0 per capita a day (US\$ PPP). Extreme poverty is defined as the percentage of the population whose income is less than US\$3.1 per capita a day (US\$ PPP).

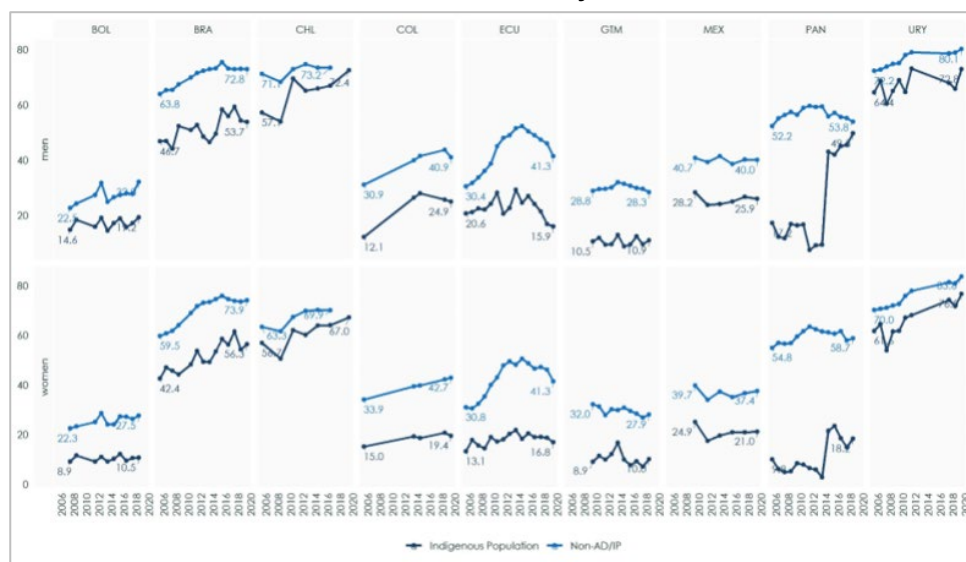
Figure 15. Rates of employment in formal sector, by race and ethnicity (working age population)

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Panel a. Race



Panel b. Ethnicity



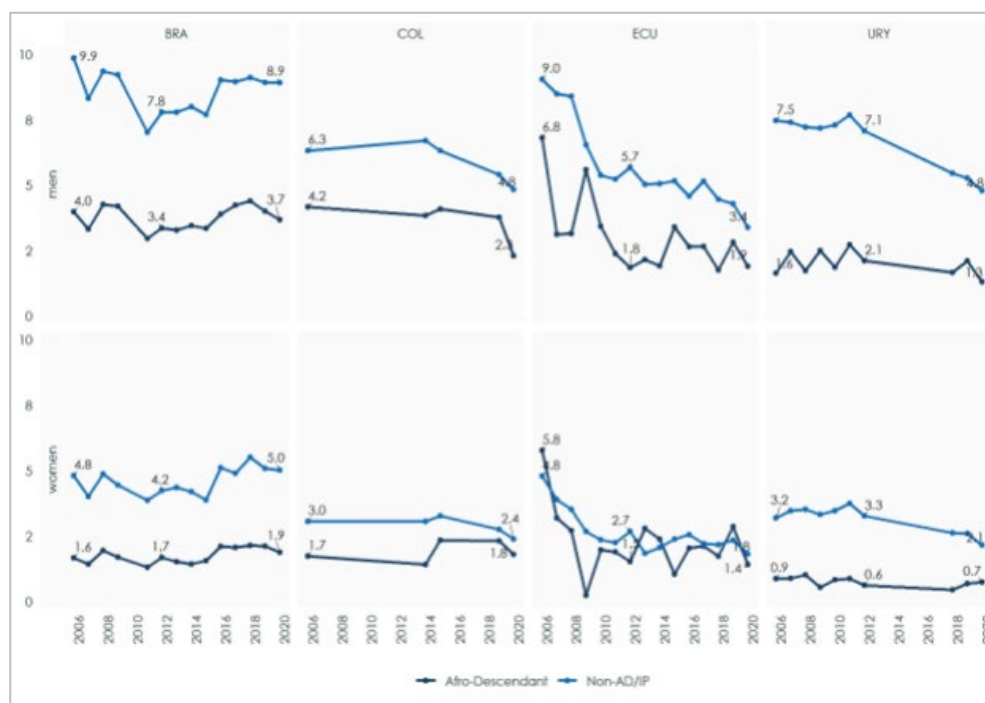
Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Notes: We use last available information for each country. Considering a consistent definition for ethnicity through the periods. Working age population are people between ages 25-64.

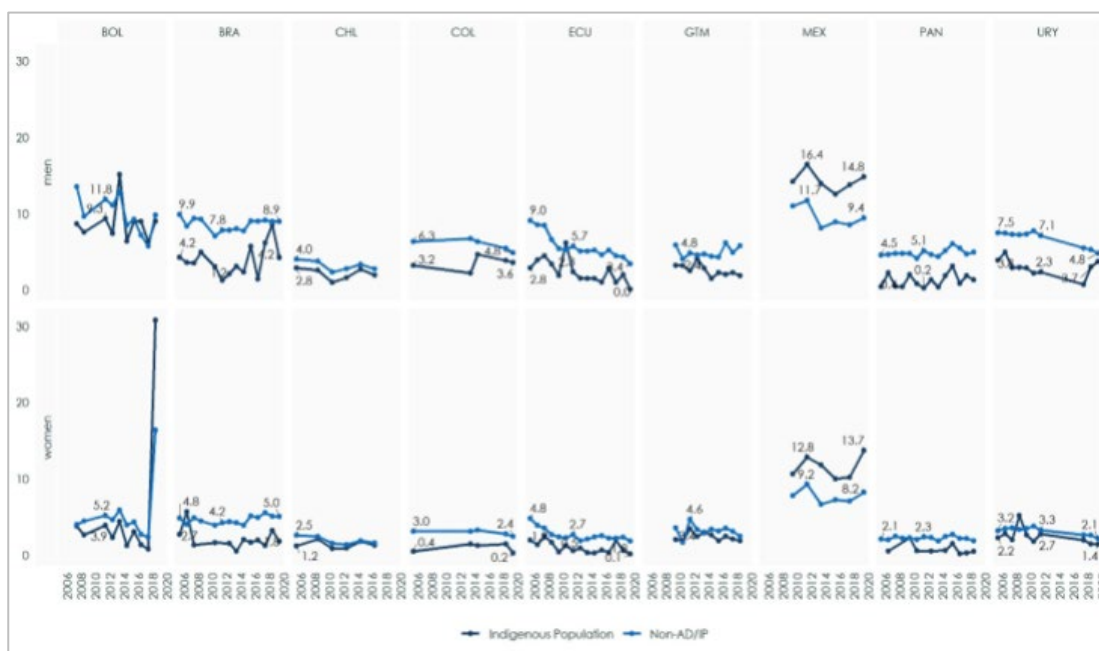
Figure 16. Entrepreneurs 25-64 (%) by gender, race, and ethnicity

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Panel a. Race



Panel B. Ethnicity



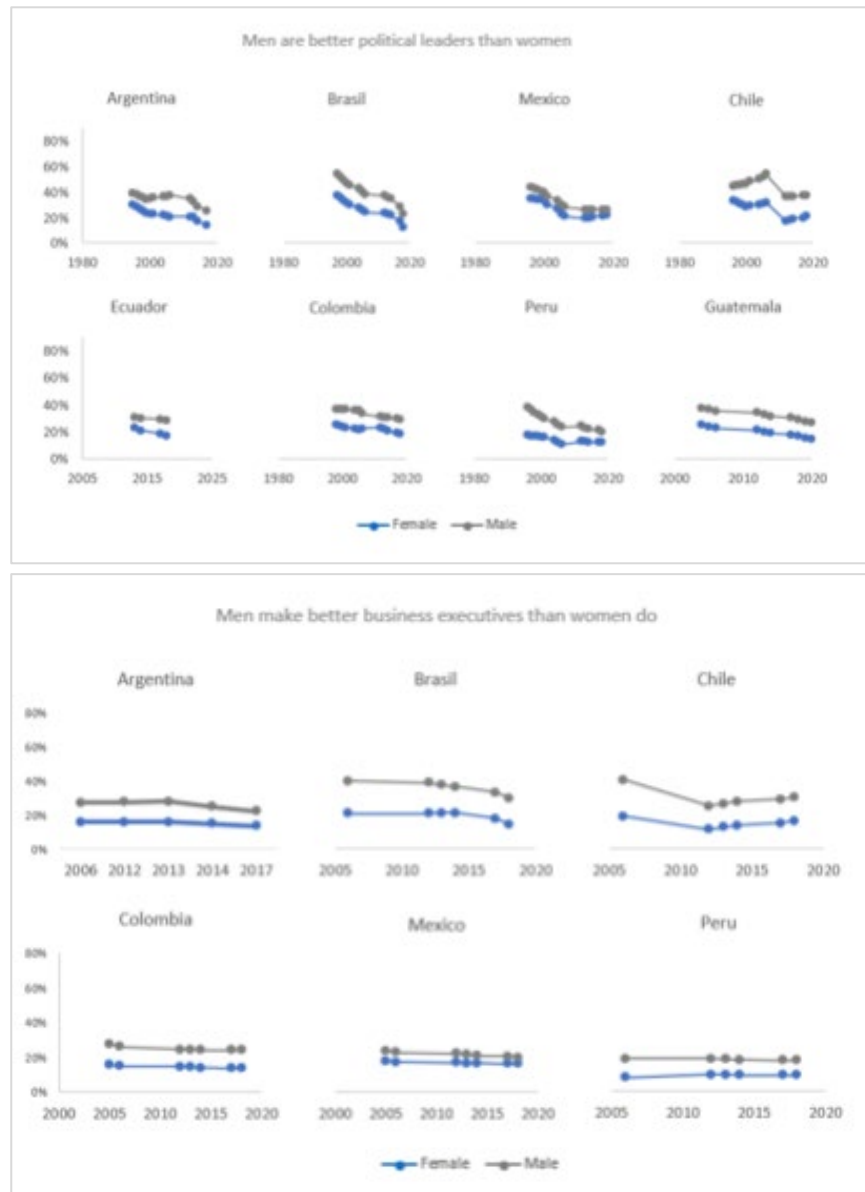
Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

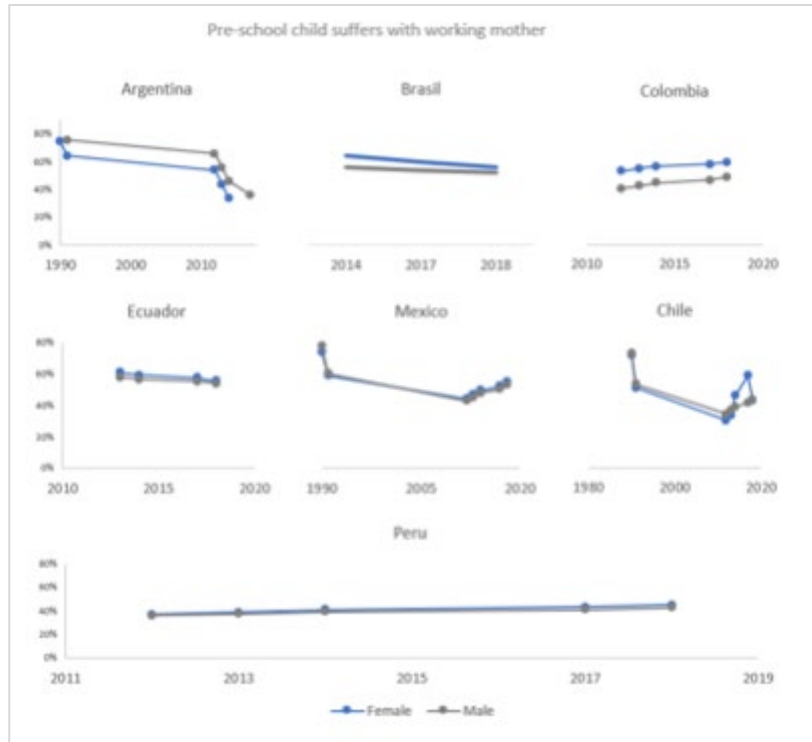
Notes: Entrepreneur is defined as being self-employed with employees. We use last available information for each country. Analysis uses a consistent ethno-racial definition within countries.

Figure 17. Gender Norms in Latin America

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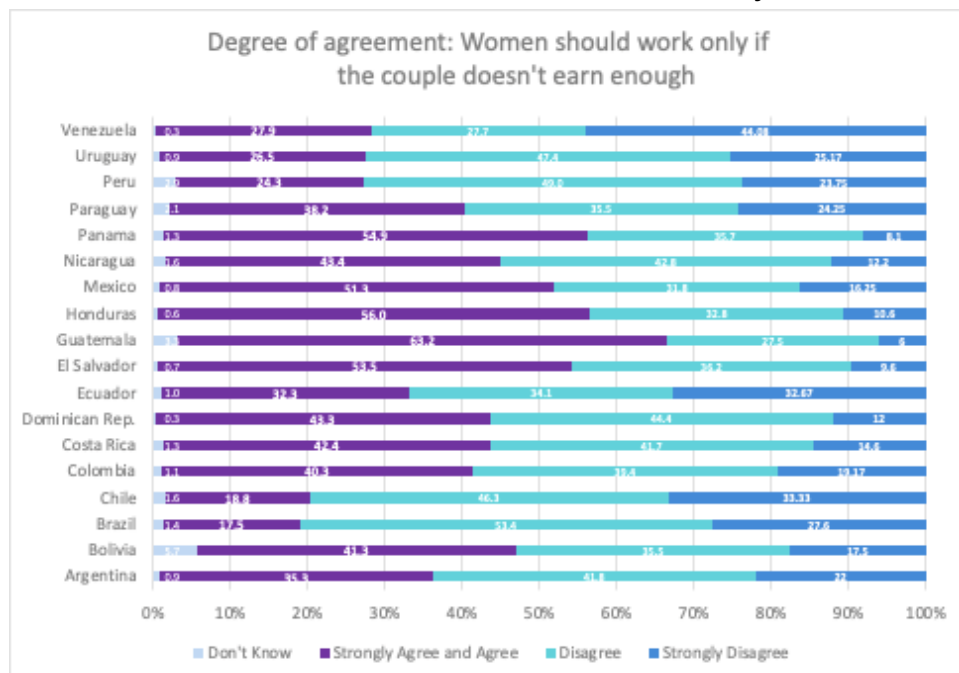
Panel a. Gender Norms





Source: World Value Survey. The y axis displays the percentage of people that agree or strongly agree with the respective phrases.
Note: Missing data between years by country were filled by interpolation.

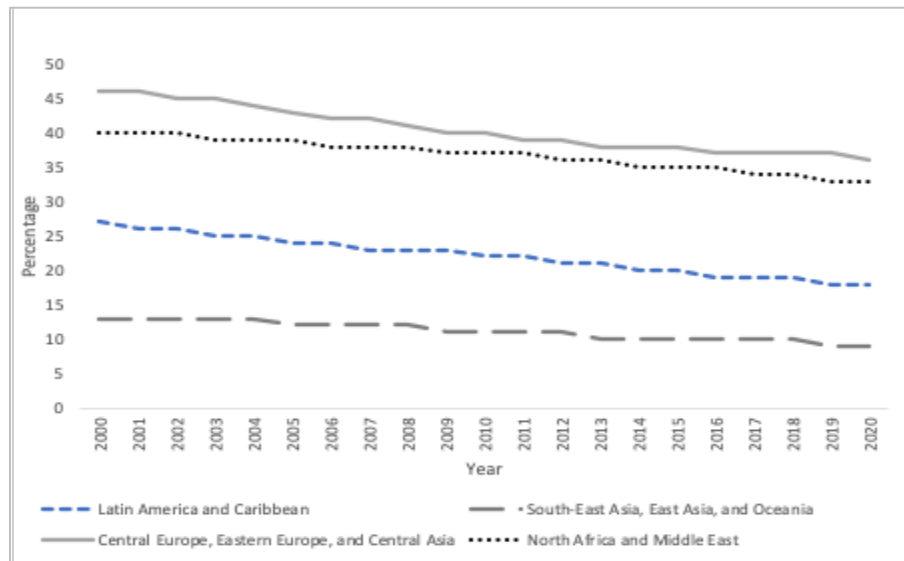
Panel b. Gender Norms. Latinobarometro Survey



Source: Latinobarometro 2000-2009. The graph presents the percentage of people that agree or strongly agree with the respective phrases. **Note:** The countries included in the analysis were Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay.

Figure 18. Evolution of unmet need for family planning (% of women ages 15-49)

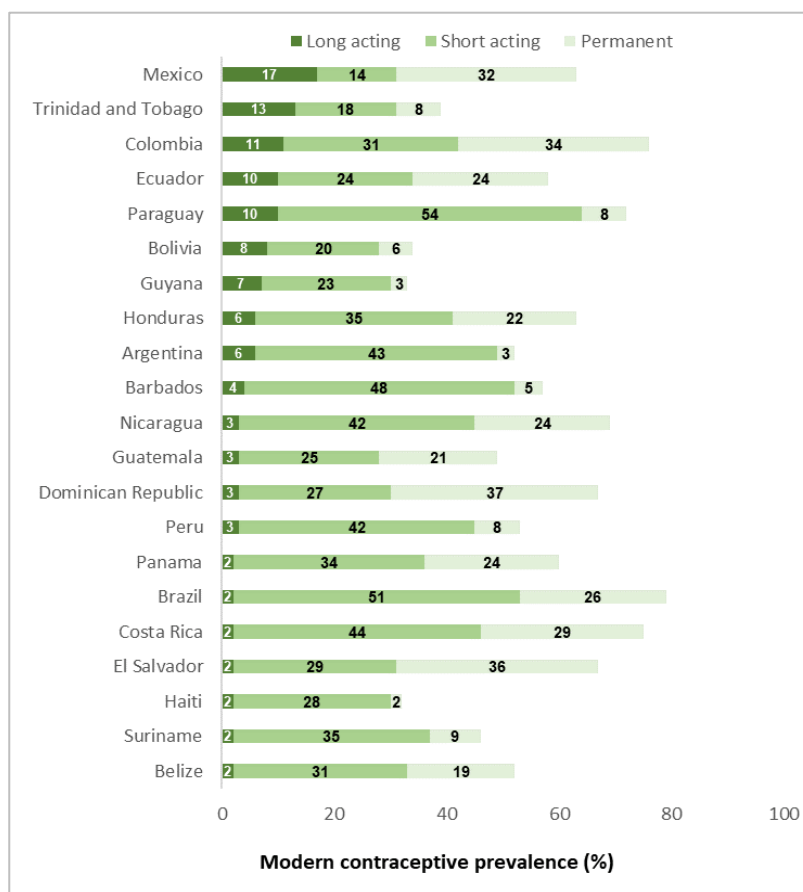
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Source: BMGF <https://www.gatesfoundation.org/goalkeepers/report/2021-report/progress-indicators/>. Note: Figure shows percent of sexually active women who do not want to become pregnant not using contraceptive methods (traditional or modern).

Figure 19. Modern contraceptive prevalence by country according to the type of contraceptive method being used (long acting, short acting, or permanent) among women ages 15-49

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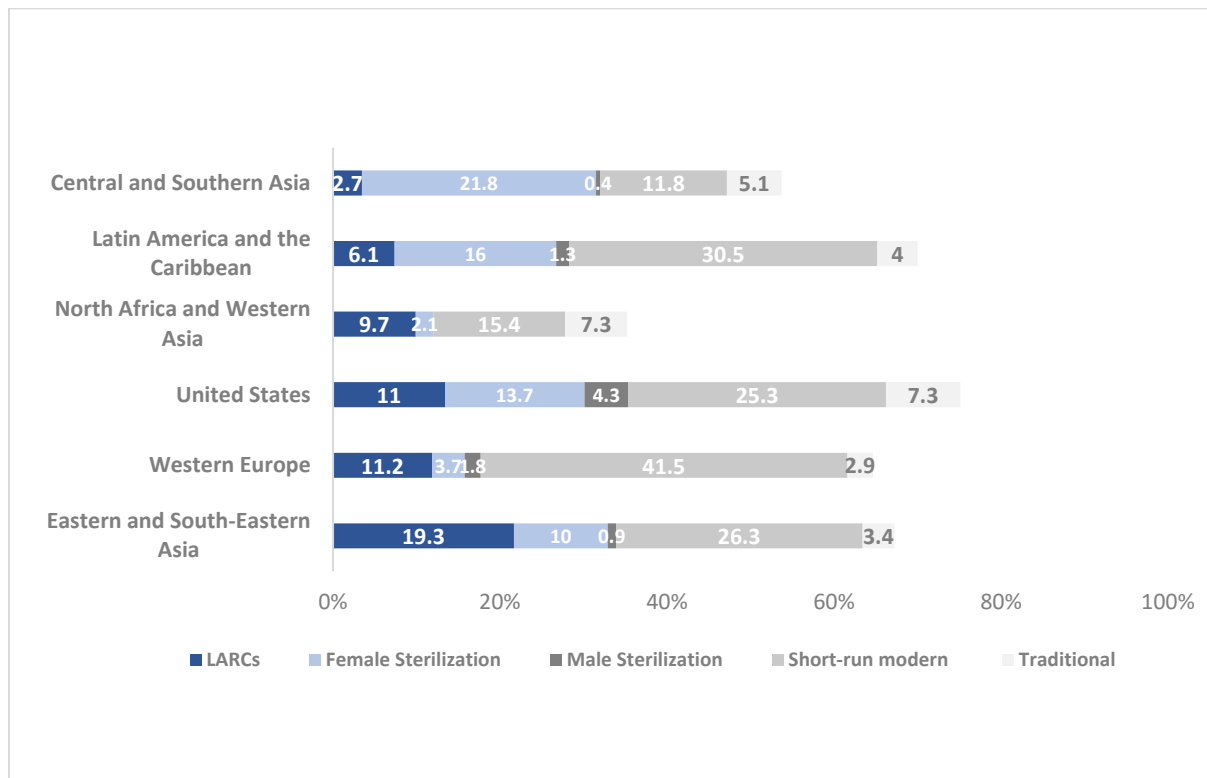


Source: Gomez et al., 2019. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X\(18\)30481-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2214-109X(18)30481-9)

Note: Estimates for Argentina and Brazil are restricted to women married or in a union. All other estimates are based on sexually active women irrespective of marital status.

Figure 20. Contraceptive methods by regions, women ages 15-49 years

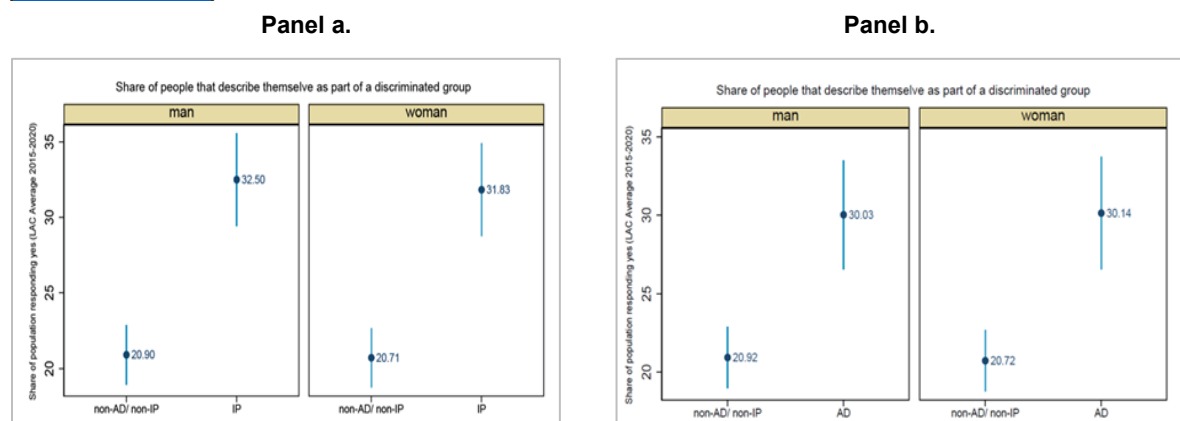
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Source: UN Contraceptive Use by Method 2019. Includes methods used by women or their partners.
LARC: Long-acting reversible contraceptives

Figure 21. Reported Discrimination. Latinobarometro Survey

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Source: The model uses 74,283 observations from years 2015 and 2020. The share of the population reporting as part of a discriminated group is predicted after fuente for the survey year, country, and the age of the respondents.

Table 1. Share of women's labor income of total labor income of the country (%)

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Country	Total		
	2008	2019	2020
ARG	34.5	38.1	38.7
BHS	39.2		
BLZ	29.1		
BOL	29.4	33.9	34.1
BRA	33.5	36.2	36.6
BRB	45.3		
CHL	28.2	35.6	38.5
COL	37	40.4	40.4
CRI	28	36	36.6
DOM	26.4	35.3	34.4
ECU	29.1	34.8	35.6
GTM	29.3	29.9	
GUY		33.5	
HND	31.7	34.6	
JAM	47.8		
MEX	29.3	30.8	31.2
NIC	33.1		
PAN	32.7	36.4	
PER		34	34.4
PRY	29.3	33	32.8
SLV	37.2	37	37.9
SUR		35.8	
TTO	35.7		
URY	34.4	40.5	44.8
VEN	35.5	29.1	27.6

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank. Notes: Tables presented are circa 2008 and 2020 with a maximum difference of two years. Afro-Descendant (AD), Indigenous (IP). Calculations follow methodology in Neef & Robilliard, 2021.

Table 2. Education Indicators by Gender, Race, and Ethnicity

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Table 2a. Completion rate for primary (in%) by gender, race, and ethnicity

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Panel a. Men												
Country	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
ARG										94.0	97.5	95.7
BHS												
BOL				89.8	91.6		93.3	94.8		91.8	94.1	96.3
BRA	67.7	93.2	93.4	78.9	97.0	91.8	80.4	96.0	97.4	73.0	94.3	95.0
CHL				97.6	97.7	96.5	98.0	97.4	97.1	98.0	97.4	97.0
COL	70.1	75.5	86.9	67.0	71.2	81.8	88.4	91.6	92.3	86.5	89.3	91.4
CRI										88.7	95.4	96.2
DOM										79.8	91.3	89.9
ECU	84.3	91.0		81.8	98.2	93.3	90.4	97.9	96.7	89.5	97.5	95.8
GTM				54.7	67.7		65.9	79.7		60.9	74.7	
GUY											91.1	
HND										73.4	85.7	
JAM										99.2	99.2	
MEX				93.3	96.5	97.3	95.1	98.0	97.7	94.4	97.5	97.6
PAN		97.3		68.8	86.7		93.3	97.7		91.0	95.8	
PER		95.8	97.7		96.8	98.0		96.8	98.1	90.6	94.7	96.9
PRY										85.3	91.9	92.5
SLV										72.3	84.1	87.4
SUR											84.6	
URY	87.8	98.5	85.5	93.0	93.7		93.5	98.1	96.6	93.2	98.1	94.5
VEN										88.8	83.7	
Panel b. Women												
Country	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
ARG										97.1	97.7	98.2
BHS												
BOL				88.8	93.1		89.2	97.2		89.0	96.5	97.5
BRA	77.8	96.2	96.4	64.4	95.8	98.9	86.0	97.5	98.0	81.2	96.7	97.1
CHL				97.9	98.7	97.4	98.4	97.8	98.5	98.4	97.9	98.3
COL	79.9	93.4	95.4	78.1	80.8	88.5	92.1	96.0	95.7	93.0	95.5	95.4
CRI										93.8	97.3	98.5
DOM										89.0	96.1	96.6
ECU	84.9	93.5	89.8	82.5	99.6	92.7	92.6	97.8	98.5	91.4	97.8	97.4
GTM				44.6	64.1		66.7	86.6		58.8	76.6	
GUY											92.6	
HND										79.0	91.2	
JAM										99.6	99.8	
MEX				94.9	97.9	98.2	97.6	98.5	98.4	96.0	98.3	98.4
PAN		99.6		64.1	93.5		96.2	99.2		93.8	98.2	

PER	95.7	96.9		97.4	98.2		98.0	98.1	90.2	96.2	96.6
PRY									89.2	94.2	94.9
SLV									79.2	88.1	89.8
SUR										91.2	
URY	91.8	97.1	98.1	97.2			96.8	98.1	96.8	96.5	98.1
VEN										94.0	86.3

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Notes: Tables presented are circa 2008 and 2020 with a maximum difference of two years. Afro-descendant (AD), Indigenous peoples (IP). This table presents the percentage of individuals ages 20-25 who have completed primary education.

Table 2b. Completion rate for secondary education (%) by gender, race, and ethnicity

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Panel a. Men												
Country	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
ARG										63.7	66.6	65.3
BHS												
BOL				62.0	65.8		74.7	80.3		68.8	77.7	71.6
BRA	40.5	59.6	66.0	40.9	54.2	47.2	62.0	75.8	79.2	50.3	65.9	71.3
CHL				72.5	82.7	87.6	81.3	84.8	88.3	80.8	84.6	88.3
COL	39.9	63.6	69.2	26.0	51.8	47.7	63.2	71.5	75.1	60.8	70.4	73.7
CRI										42.0	54.3	59.2
DOM										44.5	57.6	55.8
ECU	37.7	59.1	37.2	25.2	58.9	60.9	55.6	75.3	77.9	52.6	73.0	74.1
GTM				21.9	28.7		30.5	49.3		27.4	41.9	
GUY											38.1	
HND										25.7	40.0	
JAM										74.2	81.7	
MEX				33.9	47.2	53.1	46.7	59.5	62.7	44.2	56.0	60.1
PAN		57.6		17.0	38.8		53.8	65.5		51.3	60.3	
PER		70.4	75.1		88.4	90.2		88.2	89.3	73.8	82.3	85.6
PRY										48.4	59.5	62.8
SLV										43.1	56.1	62.8
SUR											25.0	
URY	17.0	20.6	18.2	28.5	26.0	36.0	32.6	37.5	42.6	31.8	36.6	39.9
VEN										53.6	71.7	
Panel b. Women												
Country	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
ARG										70.7	79.1	78.0
BHS												
BOL				50.5	60.6		73.1	81.2		63.1	76.9	74.3
BRA	50.1	70.9	76.1	47.3	68.8	72.1	70.6	82.0	86.7	60.0	75.4	80.4
CHL				72.6	86.2	90.9	83.1	89.5	91.3	82.3	89.1	91.2
COL	52.6	74.5	72.3	43.6	48.3	60.8	65.8	79.1	80.1	64.6	77.9	78.7
CRI										47.8	64.6	71.0
DOM										58.2	72.8	74.4
ECU	47.2	60.5	56.7	20.0	49.7	53.3	60.8	75.8	77.4	57.4	72.4	73.8

GTM				12.9	18.0			33.9	47.4		25.9	35.9	
GUY												57.1	
HND											33.3	50.5	
JAM											82.9	89.0	
MEX				41.5	49.9	56.4	52.0	62.4	64.9	45.5	58.9	62.6	
PAN		78.0		12.6	36.6		63.7	76.3		59.7	71.1		
PER		60.5	72.7		87.3	87.0		87.9	89.1	71.1	81.6	84.6	
PRY										51.5	64.7	68.1	
SLV										41.3	57.8	63.6	
SUR											41.5		
URY	24.3	25.8	27.1	37.4	42.0	42.6	45.1	51.1	53.3	44.2	49.7	49.8	
VEN										68.2	78.0		

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Notes: Tables presented are circa 2008 and 2020 with a maximum difference of two years. Afro-descendant (AD), Indigenous peoples (IP). This table presents the percentage of individuals ages 20-25 who have completed secondary education.

Table 2c. Net attendance rate by education level: tertiary (%) by gender, race, and ethnicity

Panel a. Men												
Country	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
ARG										29.1	33.5	32.5
BOL				31.4	26.3		44.0	41.1		38.3	38.4	
BRA	7.6	16.0	15.2	11.9	13.4	21.3	20.9	28.9	30.0	13.7	20.9	21.0
CHL				28.4	41.2	47.4	37.2	45.7		36.6	45.2	51.0
COL	18.9	13.5	13.3	2.4	5.9	6.7	15.8	20.1	18.6	16.6	19.2	17.8
CRI										17.7	19.2	19.8
DOM										18.1	20.6	
ECU	15.8	9.5	4.9	9.2	12.0	8.2	28.5	26.8	29.1	26.5	24.3	25.3
GTM				4.4	3.0		4.3	8.7		4.3	6.5	
GUY											5.1	
HND										10.0	13.8	
JAM										3.2		
MEX				15.9	21.0	23.2	26.5	31.7	33.1	23.3	28.6	30.4
PAN		21.6		6.8	14.1		21.5	33.3		20.4	27.9	
PER		21.7	13.0		31.5	24.5		34.8	26.8		32.4	24.8
PRY										17.3	21.2	18.1
SLV										14.5	14.9	16.4
SUR											20.0	
URY	5.7	7.0		15.2	15.2		20.1	23.0		19.4	22.2	
VEN										12.7	15.5	12.8
Panel b. Women												
Country	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
ARG										36.9	47.7	43.4
BOL				32.6	22.5		45.8	44.8		40.0	40.2	
BRA	10.9	20.7	23.4	8.1	16.7	8.7	26.0	34.7	37.4	18.1	26.2	29.0
CHL				27.9	44.9	46.4	40.9	51.5	67.6	39.9	50.7	56.1
COL	15.1	13.0	13.9	4.3	11.9	10.8	16.2	20.9	20.1	16.6	20.1	19.2
CRI										20.8	24.7	25.8
DOM										31.9	35.2	
ECU	21.6	19.1	11.7	6.2	6.9	10.2	33.9	35.2	33.7	31.5	31.4	29.8
GTM				2.5	3.9		7.4	8.6		5.6	6.8	

[illegible]

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Notes: The age considered for tertiary education is 18-23. Tables presented are circa 2008 and 2020 with a maximum difference of two years. Afro-descendant (AD), Indigenous peoples (IP). Information from Uruguay 2020 is not reported due to changes in sample size (53,580 to 4,880 2020) and changes in methodology to measure attendance rates.

Table 2d. Average years of completed education (+25) by gender, race, and ethnicity

[illegible]

CHL				8.1	9.7	10.7	10.0	10.6	11.6	9.8	10.5	11.5
COL	7.2	8.6	8.7	4.8	6.6	7.1	7.3	9.2	9.3	7.8	9.1	9.2
CRI										8.4	9.0	9.3
DOM										7.8	9.3	9.3
ECU	6.5	8.6	8.3	3.0	4.3	5.0	8.0	9.1	9.2	7.6	8.7	8.8
GTM				1.9	5.9		5.4	7.7		4.1	7.2	
GUY											8.7	
HND										5.5	6.9	
JAM										9.6	9.5	
MEX				6.5	7.6	7.9	8.5	9.5	9.9	7.7	8.9	9.3
NIC										5.9		
PAN		10.8		3.0	5.5		9.8	11.1		9.5	10.5	
PER		6.6	7.0		6.6	6.8		10.2	10.0		8.8	8.8
PRY										7.4	9.1	9.2
SLV										6.1	6.7	7.0
SUR											9.2	
TTO												
URY	7.4	8.1	8.8	8.3	8.9	9.5	9.0	10.0	10.2	9.0	9.9	10.1
VEN										8.9	10.8	10.6

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Notes: Tables presented are circa 2008 and 2020 with a maximum difference of two years. Afro-descendant (AD), Indigenous peoples (IP)

Table 3. Labor Market Indicators by Gender, Race, and Ethnicity

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Table 3a. Employment rate (%) (ages 25-64) by gender, race, and ethnicity

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Country	Panel a. Men											
	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
ARG										88.5	85.1	80.3
BHS										87.6		
BOL				95.4	96.7		93.2	91.2		94.5	92.9	89.7
BRA	86.8	77.9	71.4	83.9	84.8	73.6	87.6	82.5	77.2	87.1	79.9	73.9
CHL				83.5	84.9	76.6	84.6	85.7	66.4	84.6	85.7	77.3
COL	83.7	87.0	82.1	85.8	90.5	89.5	84.7	87.6	84.7	87.0	87.6	84.6
CRI										88.3	84.7	76.0
DOM										87.0	90.6	
ECU	93.5	89.9	85.2	95.6	97.0	95.6	93.2	92.0	90.5	93.4	92.3	90.8
GTM				90.0	96.8		85.7	93.6		87.0	94.7	
GUY											65.0	
HND										91.8	90.1	
JAM										86.1		
MEX				90.5	92.6	89.4	88.8	90.6	86.6	90.1	91.2	87.4
PAN		91.2		98.0	93.0		91.7	91.1		92.0	91.3	
PER		94.4	86.1		93.9	85.4		91.8	79.7		92.1	81.6
PRY										92.1	92.8	92.2
SLV										88.4	87.7	85.0
SUR											78.7	
TTO										86.9		
URY	90.2	85.8	83.3	89.2	84.3	84.4	89.8	86.6	84.7	89.8	86.5	84.4
VEN										88.9	80.9	81.7

[illegible]

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Notes: Tables presented are circa 2008 and 2020 with a maximum difference of two years. Afro-descendant (AD), Indigenous peoples (IP).

Table 3b. Formality: Employed persons contributing to social security 25-64 (% of the employed population) by gender, race, and ethnicity

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[illegible]

[illegible]

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Notes: Tables presented are circa 2008 and 2020 with a maximum difference of two years. Afro-descendant (AD), Indigenous peoples (IP).

Table 3c. Entrepreneurs 25-64 (%) by gender, race, and ethnicity

[illegible]

URY	1.7	2.1	1.3	2.9	3.0	3.7	7.2	5.3	4.8	6.9	5.1	4.6
VEN										6.4	2.5	42.3
Country	Panel b. Women											
	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
ARG										3.3	2.6	1.7
BHS										5.9		
BOL				3.8	30.8		4.0	16.3		3.8	21.3	24.5
BRA	1.9	2.1	1.9	1.3	3.2	1.8	4.9	5.1	5.0	3.5	3.5	3.4
CHL				1.2	1.3	2.7	2.6	1.5	3.6	2.5	1.5	3.5
COL	1.2	2.3	1.8	5.0	1.4	0.2	3.5	2.7	2.4	2.9	2.7	2.3
CRI										2.1	3.5	3.2
DOM										2.2	2.4	
ECU	2.7	2.8	1.4	2.4	0.6	0.1	3.5	2.3	1.8	3.4	2.2	1.6
GTM				2.0	1.8		3.5	2.4		3.3	2.3	
HND										6.2	6.5	
JAM										1.8		
MEX				10.6	10.2	13.7	7.8	7.0	8.2	3.6	8.0	9.9
PAN		2.1		0.5	0.5		2.4	1.8		2.3	1.8	
PER		1.6	1.5		2.5	1.6		3.7	2.3		3.2	2.0
PRY										2.9	3.9	2.8
SLV										2.9	4.3	3.5
SUR											1.1	
TTO										3.0		
URY	1.0	0.7	0.7	2.0	1.4	1.4	3.5	2.6	2.1	3.4	2.5	2.1
VEN										2.2	1.2	56.4

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Notes: Tables presented are circa 2008 and 2020 with a maximum difference of two years, with the exception of Chile whose figures are for 2017 because 2020 data had inconsistencies due to the changes in the survey during COVID-19. Afro-descendant (AD), Indigenous peoples (IP).

Table 4. Poverty (\$5 US per capita) by Gender, Race, and Ethnicity

[\[Return to main document\]](#)

Panel a. Men												
Country	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
ARG										16.6	19.6	24.1
BHS										2.6		
BOL				45.1	30.7	36.3	21.8	18.3	21.3	39.0	21.6	26.4
BRA	38.9	26.3	24.5	41.1	31.6	41.1	19.8	11.7	11.4	30.7	20.6	29.8
CHL				20.1	11.6	14.7	12.0	6.2	10.4	12.9	6.9	11.2
COL	52.0	41.5	44.4	66.8	59.4	60.6	45.1	28.6	31.7	44.0	31.9	34.9
CRI										18.5	14.3	23.1
DOM										38.8	16.0	
ECU	47.0	40.0	41.9	67.6	61.4	74.8	35.1	24.4	29.6	40.4	30.3	37.8
GTM				79.5	75.2		55.2	42.5		69.1	55.2	
GUY											48.3	
HND										55.3	57.3	
JAM										62.4		
MEX				52.3	37.0	40.6	35.3	20.8	24.4	37.4	26.5	30.0
PAN		10.4		87.5	50.2		24.2	10.2		29.9	15.4	
PER		21.3	35.4		27.6	41.0		11.6	26.2		19.9	45.4
PRY										36.4	21.8	21.0
SLV										48.3	29.7	29.6

SUR											52.7	
TTO										8.1		
URY	24.6	15.9	17.9	13.4	8.3	11.0	11.8	6.1	8.6	12.6	6.7	4.8
VEN										20.6	95.3	90.0
Panel b. Women												
Country	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
ARG										16.8	19.3	23.2
BHS										3.3		
BOL				45.6	32.3	39.2	23.0	17.9	21.6	39.4	21.8	27.7
BRA	40.1	27.5	26.2	38.5	34.6	46.1	19.9	11.6	12.2	31.1	21.0	31.3
CHL				22.7	12.5	15.3	13.1	7.2	11.1	14.1	8.0	11.9
COL	47.8	42.8	47.7	64.3	62.7	63.5	44.4	29.1	32.2	44.5	32.6	35.7
CRI										18.9	15.7	24.2
DOM										40.9	16.7	
ECU	52.3	39.3	50.5	70.9	62.5	72.7	36.1	25.2	30.6	41.3	30.9	38.6
GTM				79.0	76.4		55.0	44.4		69.0	57.0	
GUY											49.1	
HND										54.4	56.4	
JAM										65.1		
MEX				53.2	38.4	42.3	35.5	21.9	25.8	38.5	27.6	31.4
PAN		12.0		87.1	54.2		24.4	10.6		30.4	16.6	
PER		25.2	37.1		28.4	41.5		11.9	27.8		20.4	45.8
PRY										36.9	22.4	21.9
SLV										48.7	29.9	32.5
SUR											54.6	
TTO										9.0		
URY	26.6	18.1	19.8	14.6	9.2	11.8	11.9	6.5	9.3	12.8	7.1	5.2
VEN										21.4	95.3	91.4

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank. Notes: Tables presented are circa 2008 and 2020 with a maximum difference of two years. Afro-descendant (AD), Indigenous peoples (IP). Poverty is defined as the percentage of the population whose income is less than \$5.0 per capita a day (\$ PPP).

Table 5. Percentage of individuals living in households with internet access (%) by gender, race, and ethnicity

[\[Return to main document\]](#)

Panel a. Men												
Country	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
BHS										100.0		
BOL				1.7	9.8	40.9	7.1	28.9	65.5	3.4	24.1	58.8
BRA	14.5	79.7		15.6	77.5		34.4	88.3		24.0	83.3	
BRB												
CHL				18.2	75.6		33.9	81.5		32.8	80.9	
COL		28.0	34.8		20.7	17.5		44.3	51.0	12.8	42.4	48.5
CRI										15.0	76.5	84.3
DOM											29.8	36.3
ECU	1.6			1.0			7.8			6.8		
GTM				1.5	6.1		9.0	24.3		6.1	17.3	
GUY												
HND										2.3	1.2	
JAM										58.5	68.6	
MEX				10.2	28.5	42.4	23.5	47.1	61.8	13.5	41.0	55.6
NIC										1.1		
PAN		75.9			39.4			77.4			72.0	

PER	29.9	35.2		25.7	29.4		49.5	51.7		39.4	42.5	
PRY									42.9	25.4	35.7	
SLV									4.3	22.5	29.2	
URY	6.1	54.7		10.0	63.1		12.5	71.6		12.3	70.8	
VEN									8.7	39.5	17.0	
Panel b. Women												
Country	AD			IP			Non-AD/IP			Total		
	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020	2008	2019	2020
BHS										100.0		
BOL				2.5	9.4	41.0	7.0	29.2	67.3	3.8	24.0	59.8
BRA	15.1	81.1		18.3	78.0		34.6	88.3		24.9	84.3	
BRB												
CHL				17.3	75.4		33.9	81.2		32.8	80.7	
COL		29.1	37.9		19.2	18.3		47.3	54.7	13.5	45.2	52.1
CRI										15.2	77.3	85.9
DOM											31.4	38.2
ECU	2.0			0.9			7.8			6.9		
GTM				1.4	6.2		9.3	24.7		6.2	17.5	
GUY												
HND										2.1	1.2	
JAM										56.5	74.5	
MEX				10.9	29.0	43.9	24.2	47.8	63.1	13.5	41.7	56.9
NIC										1.3		
PAN		78.1			36.8			79.5			73.6	
PER		29.3	31.9		25.3	29.0		49.8	52.3		39.0	42.1
PRY										41.2	25.3	36.6
SLV										4.4	23.1	30.4
URY	6.0	52.4		7.3	66.0		13.0	72.1		12.8	71.1	
VEN										9.5	41.6	17.4

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Notes: Tables presented are circa 2008 and 2020 with a maximum difference of two years. Afro-descendant (AD), Indigenous peoples (IP).

Table 6. Socioeconomic indicators by disability status

[\[Return to main document\]](#)

6a. Completion rate for primary (%) by disability status						
Country	Men		Woman		Total	
	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD
BOL	98.1	83.0	98.3	86.6	98.2	85.0
CHL	99.4	90.7	99.3	96.4	99.3	93.7
CRI	97.6	87.4	98.0	80.1	97.8	86.1
MEX	97.1	82.5	98.1	86.7	97.6	84.5
6b. Completion rate for Secondary (%) by disability status						
Country	Men		Woman		Total	
	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD
BOL	76.0	71.6	76.4	54.2	76.4	63.6
CHL	85.4	76.1	89.7	83.4	89.7	79.9
CRI	54.6	34.6	64.7	34.6	64.7	34.6
MEX	56.7	36.8	59.6	32.8	58.2	35.1
6c. Employment rate in % (25-64) by disability status						
Country	Men		Woman		Total	
	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD

BOL	93.4	83.2	66.4	65.5	79.4	74.0
CHL	87.9	73.2	62.2	50.5	74.4	59.9
CRI	88.2	48.2	54.7	26.7	70.4	38.4
MEX	93.2	69.8	61.1	46.1	76.2	57.5
6d. Formality rate in % (25-64) by disability status						
Country	Men		Woman		Total	
	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD
BOL	24.8	21.0	21.6	16.1	23.4	18.7
CHL	73.5	67.2	71.1	60.4	72.5	63.8
CRI	78.4	66.4	67.2	49.3	73.8	60.8
MEX	36.6	24.4	32.2	18.7	34.7	22.0
6e. Extreme Poverty (\$3 US per capita) by disability status						
Country	Men		Woman		Total	
	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD
BOL	13.7	18.0	13.8	18.2	13.7	18.1
CHL	2.1	2.6	2.6	2.5	2.3	2.5
CRI	6.0	7.2	7	6.3	6.5	6.7
MEX	10.8	13.2	11.2	11.9	11.0	12.5
6f. Percentage of individuals living in households with internet, cellphone or computer access (%) by disability status.						
Country	Internet		Cellphone		Computer	
	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD	PWOD	PWD
BOL	17.6	12.0	88.4	73.5	60.6	50.8
CHL	80.62	66.08	97.94	96.21	62.48	48.3
CRI	76.02	61.19	96.97	91.37	48.81	34.96
MEX	42.6	31.3	88.5	76.8	29.1	17.8

Source: Harmonized Household Surveys. Inter-American Development Bank.

Note: Percentage completing Secondary School, individuals 20-25 years of age. Percentage completing Primary School, individuals 16-19 years of age. Monthly value of the poverty line US\$3.0 per capita per day in local currency and adjusted to 2011 PPP. Circa 2018. Available data for Chile 2017. Persons without Disabilities (PWOD), Persons with Disabilities (PWD).

Table 7. Changes in methodology on the ethnic-racial question by country and source

Country	Survey Acronym	Year	Question	Possible Answers	IP	AD	Other
BOL	EH	2005-2009	Do you consider yourself to belong to any of the following original/indigenous peoples?	1. Quechua, 2. Aymara, 3. Guaraní, 4. Chiquitano, 5. Mojeño, 6. Other (specify), 7. None	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	-	7
		2011	Do you belong to any native peasant indigenous nation or people, such as Afro-Bolivian, Chiquitano, Weenhayek, etc?	Afro-Bolivian; Araona; Aymara; Ayoreo; Baure; Canichana; Cavineño; Cayubaba; Chacobo; Chipaya; Chiquitano; Esse Ejja; Guaraní; Guarasuwe; Guarayo; Itonama; Joaquiniano; Kallawaya; Leco; Machinerí; Maropa; Mojeño; Moré; Mosetén; Movima; Murato; Pacahuara; Quechua; Sirionó; Tacana; Tapiete; Tsimane; Weenayek;	All but the "Does not know/ Do not answer " categories	-	Does not belong

Country	Survey Acronym	Year	Question	Possible Answers	IP	AD	Other
				Yaminawa; Yuki; Yuracaré; Yuracaré - Mojeño; Does not belong; Do not know/do not answer			
		2012-2020	As a Bolivian, do you belong to any native indigenous or peasant or Afro-Bolivian nation or people? To which?	1. Sí, 2. Does not belong, 3. I am not Bolivian, 9. NA.	1	-	2
BRA	PNAD	2005-2015	The color or race of ... Is	0 - Indigenous; 2 - White (Branca); 4 - Black (Preta); 6 - Yellow (Amarela); 8 - Brown (Parda)	0	4, 8	2, 6
	PNADC	2016-2020	Color or race?	1 - White (Branca); 2 - Black (Preta); 3 - Yellow (Amarela); 4 - Brown (Parda); 5 - Indigenous; 9 - Ignored	5	2, 4	1, 3
CHL	CASEN	2006-2017	In Chile, the law recognizes the existence of 9 indigenous peoples, do you belong to or are you a descendant of any of them?	1. Aymara; 2. Rapa Nui; 3. Quechua; 4. Mapuche; 5. Atacameño; 6. Coya; 7. Kawaskar; 8. Yagan; 9. Diaguita; 10 o 90. does not belong to any indigenous community	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9	-	90 (until 2008) 10 (starting 2009)
	CASEN	2020	En Chile, la ley reconoce la existencia de 9 pueblos indígenas, ¿pertenece usted o es descendiente de alguno de ellos?	1. Aymara; 2. Rapa Nui; 3. Quechua; 4. Mapuche; 5. Atacameño; 6. Coya; 7. Kawaskar; 8. Yagan; 9. Diaguita; 10. Chango; 11. does not belong to any indigenous community	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10	-	11
COL	GEIH	2007-2020	According to its culture, people, or physical features, ... is it or is it recognized as:	P6080: 1- Indigenous 2- Gypsy - Rom 3- Raizal of the archipelago of San Andrés and providencia 4- Palenquero of San basilio or descendant 5- Black (Negro(a)), mulatto (mulato(a)), Afro-Colombian or Afro-descendant 6- None of the above (mestizo, white, etc.)	1	3, 4, 5	6
ECU	ENEMDU	2005-2009	How are you considered?	1- Indígena 2 - Blanco 3 - Mestizo 4 - Negro 5 - Mulato 6 - Otro, cuál?	1	4, 5	2, 3, 6

Country	Survey Acronym	Year	Question	Possible Answers	IP	AD	Other
		2010-2020	How do you identify (...) according to your culture and customs?:	1- Indigenous 2 - afroecuatorian 3 - Black (negro) 4 - Mulatto (mulato) 5 - Montubio 6 - Mestizo 7 - White 8 - Other	1	2, 3, 4	5, 6, 7, 8
GTM	ENEI	2010-2019	Do you consider yourself to belong to one of the following groups?	1 - xinka 2 - Garífuna 3 - ladino 4 - Foreign 5 -maya	1, 2, 5	-	3
MEX	ENIGH	2010-2020	According to (NAME's) culture, does she (he) consider herself indigenous?	1- Yes 2- No	1	-	2
PAN	EH	2005-2014	Do you consider yourself indigenous?	1 - non-indigenous; 2 - Indigenous	2	-	1
	EHPM	2015-2018	Do you consider yourself indigenous? (p4d) Do you consider yourself black or Afro-descendant? (p4f)	p4d: 1 - indigenous; 0 - non-indigenous p4f: 1- afro; 0 - non-afro	p4d = 1 and p4f = 0	p4f = 1	p4d and p4f = 0
		2019-2019	Do you consider yourself indigenous? (p4d) Do you consider yourself black or Afro-descendant? (p4f)	p4d: 1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6; 7; 8; 9; 10 - other; 11- is not indigenous p4f: 1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6; 7 - other; 8 - is not Afro-descendant	p4d different from 11 and p4f = 8	p4f different from 8	Both p4d = 11 and p4f = 8
PER	ENAH0	2005-2011	For your ancestors and according to your customs you. Origin is considered:	1 Quechua 2 Aymara 3 From the amazon 4 Black/ Mulatto/ Zambo (Negro / Mulato / Zambo) 5 White 6 Mestizo 7 Other	1, 2, 3	4	5, 6, 7
		2012-2016	Because of your ancestors and according to your customs, do you consider yourself:	1 Quechua 2 Aymara 3 Native or Indigenous of the Amazon 4 Black/ Mulatto/ Zambo/ Afro-Peruvian (Negro / Mulato / Zambo/Afroperuano) 5 White 6 Mestizo 7 Other 8 Does not know	1, 2, 3	4	5, 6, 7
		2017-2020	Due to your customs and ancestors, do you feel or consider yourself:	1 Quechua 2 Aymara 3Native or Indigenous of the Amazon 4 Black/ Brown/ Zambo Mulatto/ Afro-Peruvian or Afro-descendant People (Negro/ Moreno/ Zambo Mulato/Pueblo Afroperuano o Afrodescendiente) 5 White 6 Mestizo 7 Other 8 Do not know /do not answer 9 Belonging to or part of another indigenous or native people	1, 2, 3, 9	4	5, 6, 7

Country	Survey Acronym	Year	Question	Possible Answers	IP	AD	Other
URU	ECH	2006-2007	Do you think you have ancestry...?	e30_1= 1Afro or black(Afro o negra)e30_2=1 Yellow (Amarilla) e30_3=1 White e30_4=1 Indigenous e30_5_1=1 Other	e30_4 = 1	e30_1= 1	Both e30_4 and e30_1 = 0
		2008-2020	Do you think you have ancestry...? Which do you consider to be the main of those declared?	<i>Principal:</i> 1 Afro or Black (Afro o Negra) 2 Asian or Yellow (Asiatica o Amarilla) 3 White 4 Indigenous 5 Other	4	1	2, 3, 5

Source: Extracted and translated from the document Race and Ethnicity Data Harmonizing Variables in Latin America and the Caribbean. IDB. Cesar Lins Oliveira, María Antonella Pereira & Nathalia Maya Scarpetta (Morrison and Robles, 2021).

Table 8. Abbreviations for LAC countries

ISO 3166-1 alpha-3 country codes	Country	LAC-19
ARG	Argentina	X
BHS	Bahamas	
BRB	Barbados	X
BLZ	Belize	
BOL	Bolivia	X
BRA	Brazil	X
CHI	Chile	X
COL	Colombia	X
CRI	Costa Rica	X
DOM	Dominican Republic	X
ECU	Ecuador	X
SLV	El Salvador	X
GTM	Guatemala	X
GUY	Guyana	
HTI	Haiti	
HND	Honduras	X
JAM	Jamaica	
MEX	Mexico	X
NIC	Nicaragua	X
PAN	Panama	X
PRY	Paraguay	X
PER	Peru	X
SUR	Suriname	
TTO	Trinidad y Tobago	
URY	Uruguay	X
VEN	Venezuela	X

Source: International Organization for Standardization (ISO).

Table 9. Review of Evidence

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Par. Number	Type of Policy	Summary Evidence	Citations			Region	Assessment of Summary
			Descriptive	Rigorous Studies	Meta-analysis		
A. Interventions to address gaps that arise from structural factors							
A.1 Compensatory Policies							
3.4	Compensatory education policies *	In the region quotas in education have had positive impacts on college completion and earnings of AD. Evidence from India shows impact on educational attainment and labor market outcomes as well.		Francis & Tannuri-Pianto, 2012 ; Bagde et al., 2016; Bertrand et al., 2010		LAC, developed, developing countries outside the region	Strong evidence
3.5	Affirmative action policies in employment*	There is evidence of positive impacts of race or caste-based policies but no impacts for gender quota.	Coate & Loury, 1993	Prakash, 2021; Khanna, 2020	Miller, 2017	LAC & developed countries	Strong evidence, no evidence for LAC
3.6	Employment quotas for PWD	Firms above the threshold of employment quotas employ a higher percentage of persons with disabilities than firms under the threshold. However, in some sectors the impacts were adverse. Also, the direct effects on the employment of PWD may be attenuated by firms reclassifying their own workers and poaching from other firms.		Smith et al., 2022, Lalive et al., 2013; Malo & Pagán, 2014; Mori & Sakamoto, 2018 Lima de Araújo, 2021		LAC & developed countries	Strong evidence, more research needed in LAC
3.7	Affirmative action policies in political representation	Studies have generally found that women's representation increases after the adoption of electoral quotas, particularly mandatory ballot quotas. Women's likelihood of receiving votes has been shown to increase if they are placed higher in the electoral list the ballot.	Cruz et al., 2021	Araujo, 2001; Schmidt-Saunders, 2004; McCann, 2013; Besley et al., 2017	Clayton, 2021	LAC, developed, developing countries outside de region	Some evidence
3.8	Affirmative action policies in procurement*	Affirmative contracting program find positive impacts of the preferential contracting policies on African Americans in the US.		Kurtulus,2016; J.P. Smith and Welch, 1984; Ashenfelter and Heckman 1974	Miller, 2017	Developed countries	Strong evidence, no evidence for LAC
3.9	Wage Subsidies*	Wage subsidies have positive effects on long-term employment in specific population subgroups. These interventions, with complementary support such as job-search assistance, have positive effects on job placement and retention.		Gupta et al. 2015	Cumming and Bloom, 2020	Developed countries	Strong evidence, no evidence for LAC

Par. Number	Type of Policy	Summary Evidence	Citations			Region	Assessment of Summary
			Descriptive	Rigorous Studies	Meta-analysis		
3.10	Land Titling*	Studies show that secured land ownership provides stability and enables communities to invest in their physical and human capital and contribute to climate change mitigation.		Peña et al., 2017; Blackman et al. 2017; Romero & Saavedra, 2020; Schling & Pazos, 2022	Right and Resources Initiative, 2021	LAC countries	Some evidence
A.2 Enabling Environment							
3.13	Childcare Interventions*	There is evidence of positive impact of access to subsidized or affordable childcare on women's labor force participation. Also, daycare conditions compatible with working hours are positively correlated with women's labor supply. Effects are also found with respect to entrepreneurial opportunities and there is mixed evidence on women's income.		Contreras et al., 2012 ; Goldstein et al., 2022	Mateo Díaz & RodriguezC hamussy, 2016	LAC, developed, developing countries outside the region	Strong evidence
3.14	Parental Leave*	There is solid evidence in the region and in Europe and North America that parental leave improves women's job continuity. Additionally, paternity leave increases the time fathers spend childrearing.		Albagli and Rau (2019); Etcheverry, 2020	Rossin-Slater (2017)	LAC & developed countries	Strong evidence
3.15	Flexible Practices	There is some evidence that practices such as flexible work hours and work from home can reduce barriers to mother's employment. However, more research is needed in the region			Fuller & Hirish, 2018; Goldin, 2014; Matteazzi et al., 2017	Developed Countries	Strong evidence, more research needed for LAC.
3.16	Accessibility of infrastructure and services for PwD	Reasonable accommodation and universal design policies address the longstanding lack of accessibility of infrastructure and services for PWD.					Promising practice, no well-identified
3.16	Assistive technologies	A large knowledge gap remains regarding the state of needs of assistive technologies in the region.					Promising practice, no well-identified
A.3 Differentiated programs or services							
3.18	Financial Inclusion	Mixed evidence according to the service and policy. Overall, the effects of financial services on core economic indicators such as incomes, assets or spending, and on health status and other social outcomes, are small and inconsistent. Combined training with another component, such as mentorship, financial transfer or technical		de Mel et al., 2009; Fafchamps et al., 2014; C. Martínez et al., 2018	Duvendack & Mader, 2020; Revenga & Dooley, 2020	LAC & developed countries	Strong evidence

Par. Number	Type of Policy	Summary Evidence	Citations			Region	Assessment of Summary
			Descriptive	Rigorous Studies	Meta-analysis		
		assistance, had a larger impact on women entrepreneurs than training alone.					
3.19	Savings Programs	There is evidence of small and positive effects on economic outcomes.			Duvendack & Mader, 2019; Steinert et al., 2018	LAC, developed, developing countries outside de region	Some evidence, none or more research needed for LAC
3.20	Intercultural education*	Positive impact of intercultural bilingual education on the learning outcomes of indigenous students.		Bando et al. 2019; Gallegos et al. 2019; IPA 2020a	Näslund-Hadley et al., 2022	LAC countries	Strong evidence
3.21	Culturally adapted healthcare services*	Culturally adapted healthcare services enhance agency for indigenous peoples and AD and improves health outcomes.	Lubbock & Stephenson, 2008; Mignone et al., 2007	Gabrysch et al., 2009; Nierkens, 2013		LAC & developed countries	Strong evidence
3.22	Biocultural stewardship	Programs that protect traditional livelihoods, cosmovision, and the management of ecosystems support the economic and cultural well-being of local communities.		Arriagada et al. 2018		LAC & countries outside of region	Some evidence
3.23	Skills training for women in STEM or digital skills	There is little evidence of the impact of training programs, such as coding bootcamps, on employability.		Mulas and Paradi-Guilfor, 2021		LAC & developed countries	Promising practice, no well-identified studies
3.23-3.24	Mentoring programs and training programs for women	There is not strong evidence of positive impacts of mentoring and training programs for women in the region. Mentoring workshops for women had positive impacts on career advancement in the US. Some studies show negative or no impact of entrepreneurial training programs on women's profits or earning. Other studies in the region suggest that training linked to the demand for salaried employment has improved employability for women.		Ginther & Kahn, 2004; Valdivia, 2015; McKenzie and Woodruff, 2014; Kaplan et al 2015; Jakiela and Ozier, 2016 ; Ubfal et al. 2016; Arraiz et al. 2018.		LAC & Developed countries	Some evidence, more evidence needed for LAC
3.25	Women-led Small and Medium Enterprises WSME	Impacts of providing micro-credit or grants to WSME does not translate into improved business performance and growth.		Siegrist, 2022			Some evidence, more evidence needed for LAC
3.26	Masculinity programs to reduce GBV	There is some evidence outside of the region regarding the effectiveness of programs that aim to engage men and promote new models of masculinity. In general,	Roza et al. 2021	Ashburn et al. 2017; Bustelo, Frisancho and Viollaz, 2020; Agüero et al., 2018		LAC & developed countries	Some evidence, more evidence needed for LAC

Par. Number	Type of Policy	Summary Evidence	Citations			Region	Assessment of Summary
			Descriptive	Rigorous Studies	Meta-analysis		
		considering all approaches, there is evidence regarding intermediate outcomes such as awareness of services or use of services, however there is very little evidence regarding the effect of programs on reducing violence					
A.4 Universal Policies							
3.29	Minimum Wages*	While minimum wage policies contribute to reduce racial earning gaps, there is also evidence that it can have negative effects on employment. Raising the minimum wage should be avoided in conditions likely to produce unintended consequences, such as when set far above the market clearing rate.		Derenoncourt & Montialoux, 2020; Derenoncourt et al., 2021; Katzkowicz et al., 2021.		LAC & developed countries	Strong evidence
3.30	Reproductive Health Services*	Family planning and access to skilled care are recognized as the most effective interventions to reduce maternal and neonatal mortality.		Stover and Ross 2010; McNellen et al 2019		LAC & developed countries	Strong evidence
3.31	Adolescent fertility	There is evidence that educational efforts to dissuade sexual activity are not effective on preventing adolescent births. There is emerging evidence in the region about the importance of providing access to effective contraceptives. Interventions focused on the education and employability of teen mothers have been found to be effective in postponing and preventing additional teen births. While CCTs in LAC do not target the reproductive health of adolescents, they have been shown to be effective at reducing adolescent fertility if the cash transfer is sufficiently large to have meaningful impacts on income or education.		Ceni et al., 2021; Novela and Ripani, 2016; Kruger et al., 2014; Oringanje et al., 2016; Lindberg et al., 2016; Cortés et al., 2016; Harker et al., 2017; Olson et al., 2018; Baird et al., 2016		LAC & developed countries	Strong evidence
3.32	Tax Policy	Progressive taxation can contribute to gender and diversity equity through the reduction of ender gaps in net incomes.	Coelho et al., 2022			LAC & developed countries	Some evidence
3.33	Non-contributory pensions	Non-contributory pensions are an important instrument for reducing the poverty risk and gender gaps in health frailty.	Cafagna et al., 2019	Aguila et al., 2014		LAC countries	Some evidence

Par. Number	Type of Policy	Summary Evidence	Citations			Region	Assessment of Summary
			Descriptive	Rigorous Studies	Meta-analysis		
3.34	High quality preschool*	High quality preschool has been shown to have disproportionate returns for Afro-descendant children.		Deming, 2009; Friedman-Krauss and Barnett, 2020		Developed countries	Strong evidence, no research for LAC
B. Interventions to address unequal treatment of women and diverse groups							
B.1 Policies to prevent or discourage unequal treatment							
3.37	Legal frameworks. Anti-discrimination law	There is some evidence that legal frameworks, such as laws, statutes and regulations prohibiting discrimination based on gender, race, or ethnicity, can contribute to reduce gaps.		Collins, 2003; Stevenson, 2007; Acemoglu & Angrist, 2001		Developed countries	Some evidence, none or more research needed for LAC
3.38	Recognition of LGBTQ+ rights	The impact of legislation that prohibits discrimination based on sexual orientation has yet to be documented					No evidence
3.39	Anonymizing processes to prevent discriminatory behavior*	There is evidence that anonymized application process can reduce discrimination in the initial stage of recruitment. However, it does not guarantee that bias will not enter in a later stage.		Goldin and Rouse, 2000; Rinne, 2018; Johnson and Kirk, 2020; Bartlett et al., 2020		Developed countries	Some evidence, none or more research needed for LAC
B.2. Programs to reduce bias from service providers							
3.41	Role models*	Role models can positively influence academic performance, choice of major and career choice by countering exposure to erroneous stereotypes.		Koefoed et al. 2017, Porter & Serra, 2018, Lim & Meer 2018, Carrell et al 2010, Gershenson et al. 2017, Birsdsall et al 2020, Carlana 2019		Developed countries	Strong evidence, no evidence for LAC
3.42	Diversity Training	There is very limited evidence regarding the effectiveness of training given the scarcity of rigorous studies. The effectiveness of G&D training may be conditioned by the pre-existing attitudes of the target population.	Green & Hagiwara, 2020	Chang et al., 2019	Bezrukova et al., 2016;	Developed countries	Some evidence, no evidence in LAC
3.43	Antibullying interventions.	There is emerging evidence regarding the effectiveness of school-based antibullying interventions on reducing discrimination. Policies might be effective at reducing bullying if their content is based on evidence and sound theory and if they are implemented with a high level of fidelity.		Burk et al., 2018	Hall, 2017	Developed & Developing countries outside the region	Some evidence, no evidence in LAC

Par. Number	Type of Policy	Summary Evidence	Citations			Region	Assessment of Summary
			Descriptive	Rigorous Studies	Meta-analysis		
3.44	Change stereotypes through teacher's education	There is some emerging evidence on the effectiveness of teacher training to reduce gender stereotypes about STEM.		UNICEF, 2020			Some evidence
3.45	Diverse panels for assessment	There is no evidence that having more diverse panels improves hiring outcomes. There is no evidence in the region.		Hospido et al. 2019 Deschamps 2018, Bagues and Esteve-Volart, 2010		Developed countries	Strong evidence, no evidence for LAC
3.46	Information and Media campaigns*	Media, textbook interventions to change perceptions		The World Bank, 2018; la Ferrara, 2016; Bosch et al. 2021; Alesina et al., 2018		LAC & developed countries	Some evidence, more research needed for LAC
3.47	Competition *	Increased competition can erode biased treatment by employers that is based on characteristics rather than skills		Ederington and Sandford, 2016; Hirata and Soares, 2020, Heywood et al., 2006		LAC & developed countries	Strong evidence
C. Policies to strengthen institutional capacity for advancing gender and diversity							
3.48	Adequate institutional frameworks	Adequate institutional frameworks within the structure of the state have a fundamental role in advancing the agenda of G&D equity					Promising practice
3.50	Gender equality relies on strong commitment from political leaders	Commitment and political will are crucial to progress in specific gender equality goals.					Promising practice
3.51	Clear gender equality policy goals and mainstreaming processes to achieve them	Mainstreaming processes is a core strategy to promote and achieve gender equality goals					Promising practice
3.52	Gender and diversity ministries	Having a specific ministry or ministries in charge of the G&D agenda can provide a strong signal of political will, relevance, and prioritization of equity and inclusion.					Promising practice
3.53	Quality data disaggregated by gender and diverse groups	Increasing the availability of quality data disaggregated by gender and diverse groups is key for advancing G&D equity					Promising practice

Notes: * Indicates that the evidence is strong regarding the effectiveness of the policy. The summary column describes the main findings in or outside the region regarding the effects of that type of policy. The last column is assessing the summary of the statement according to the following criteria.

Strong evidence: at least 2 well-identified studies (facilitating causal identification of effects)

Some evidence: 1 well-identified study

Promising practice: intervention has a strong theory of change but no well-identified studies

Annex II. Lines of Action related to G&D in other Sector Framework Documents

Support to SMEs and Financial Access/Supervision SFD (GN-2768-7)

Line of action:

1. Financing for other groups and segments with productive potential not fully served by the market, such as companies run or owned by women, indigenous peoples, or Afro-descendants. To fulfill these lines of action, financing is proposed for the following operational and knowledge activities (¶5.11):
 - a. Global credit programs with a particular focus on SMEs, startups, and young companies, and companies run or owned by women, indigenous peoples, or Afro-descendants, including, for example, refinancing credit insurance, agricultural insurance, guarantee funds, factoring, support for seed capital and angel investors, and capital finance in general (¶5.11a).
 - b. Provision of technical assistance to the private sector (including companies run or owned by women, indigenous peoples, or Afro-descendants) to improve access to credit and productivity-enhancing technologies, techniques, and good practices, such as new digital technologies and green technologies (¶5.11a).
 - c. Improving credit evaluation processes for women, indigenous peoples, and Afro-descendants (¶5.11a).
 - d. The knowledge agenda should introduce company-level surveys that can help to expand knowledge of the difficulties in obtaining access to finance (for example, in the case of companies run or owned by women, indigenous peoples, or Afro-descendants) and serve as a basis for studies on the impact of policies and programs on conditions for access to finance (¶5.11b).
 - e. Design of methodologies and of gender- and ethnicity-specific impact evaluation studies for productive development financing interventions (¶5.11b).

Decentralization and Subnational Governments SFD (GN-2813-8)

Line of action:

Promote that subnational governments operate with greater transparency and accountability through the inclusion of the dimensions of gender, diversity, and climate change (¶5.12).

Early Childhood Development SFD (GN-2966-2)

Line of action:

1. Promote efficient management and well-informed public policy:
 - a. Support will be provided to adapt the design and content of services to make them relevant to the conditions and circumstances of the children of migrant families and of indigenous peoples and Afro-descendants and strengthen the development of their cultural identity from the first few years of life (¶5.8).
 - b. Support efforts to include children with various types of disabilities in ECD services, recognizing that these children require: (i) a rethinking of some aspects of their design and implementation; (ii) additional funding; (iii) investment in training and

support personnel working with children and families; and (iv) very close coordination with other sectors (¶5.8).

Integration and Trade SFD (GN-2715-11)

Line of action:

The IDB Group's operational, knowledge generation and dissemination, and policy dialogue work will be guided by specific consideration of gender and climate change with a view to promoting the sustainability of the interventions (¶5.1).

Address knowledge gaps such as: the relationship between trade and gender, the possible existence of biases in the tariffs applied by countries to goods depending on consumer gender could be explored, along with the response of trade in these goods to the tariff barriers concerned; and the extent to which digital platforms enable the participation of women in international trade could be studied (¶5.3).

Promote high-quality trade promotion and investment services customized to meet the needs of the region's enterprises. To this purpose the SFD proposes the production of new knowledge for the design, monitoring, and evaluation of interventions in trade and investment promotion. In particular, research on the opportunities and risks of policies and measures on climate change and gender (to the extent that the availability of data allows it) for the export of goods and services and for attracting investment (¶5.5c).

Housing and Urban Development SFD (GN-2732-11)

Line of action:

1. Overcoming Structural Social Exclusion: Promote better access to urban benefits and opportunities to build communities for low-income households, households led by women or people with disabilities, and households whose members identify as Afro-descendant, Indigenous, LBGTQ, migrants or ethnic minorities. All of these through (¶5.3):
 - a. Upgrading underserved and informal and neighborhoods (¶5.4).
 - b. Increasing access to adequate housing: To support dynamic housing markets that enable more people to access better housing. Specific actions include supporting inclusion of women on property deeds (¶5.5).
 - c. Expanding the provision of safe public spaces for all: Cities need to provide safe and enjoyable public and green spaces that allow people to interact safely with each other and with nature. Specific actions include removing existing architectural and infrastructure barriers that limit access to public spaces by the elderly, people with disabilities, and children (¶5.6).
 - d. Knowledge gaps to overcome structural social exclusion (¶5.7).

Skills Development SFD (GN-3012-3)

Lines of action:

1. Ensure access to high-quality and relevant learning opportunities throughout life: To tackle the large percentage of adolescents that drop out of school provide safe school environments, flexible learning offerings; and promote secondary education completion among boys to reduce the gender gap in graduation (¶5.5).

2. Actively promote the generation and use of evidence-based decision making in skills development:
 - a. Promote the production of rigorous evidence, taking advantage of new technologies and big data to assess the impact of skills interventions on different population groups, with disaggregated data by gender and sexual orientation, ethnicity, race and presence of disabilities (¶5.12).
 - b. Increase knowledge on effective strategies to increase access to quality postsecondary education; inclusive, intercultural and bilingual education and that provide gender equalizing opportunities (¶5.13).

Labor SFD (GN-2741-12)

Lines of action:

1. Interventions to accelerate the recovery of employment and bring people back to work: Related to the gender analysis that needs to be made, research should focus on the consequences of intrahousehold allocation of tasks and long-term labor market outcomes of the pandemic (¶5.4).
2. Multisectoral approaches to increase productivity growth and ensure that gains are shared equitably: identify potential differential effects of the impact of investments in robotics and AI on productivity and labor market outcomes by gender and across disadvantaged groups (¶5.7).
3. Strategies to promote a more inclusive labor market:
 - a. Countries should promote policies that advance reasonable accommodations in the workplace to promote the inclusion of persons with disabilities (¶5.14).
 - b. More data is needed on about excluded groups, particularly for specific groups that are still not represented in national statistics (e.g., LGBTQ+ community) (¶5.16).
 - c. There is also a need better understand how policies can help improve labor market outcomes for specific groups. Evaluations should try to analyze the extent to which the differences in outcomes that we observe in the labor market are a product of unequal initial conditions, social norms, or discrimination behavior, as well as understanding and the potential unintended consequences of implementing policies to curb discrimination particularly for persons with disabilities, Afro-descendants, indigenous peoples and the LGBTQ+ community (¶5.16).

Health SFD (GN-2735-12)

Lines of action:

1. Multisector action to promote population health: strengthen policy dialogue, knowledge generation, and technical assistance to consolidate information that can improve countries' capacities to design and implement multi-sector policies and programs. These would include policies that address gender inequalities which can affect neglected aspects of physical and mental health and reduce barriers to seeking health care services (¶5.2).
2. Improve the organization and quality of healthcare service delivery particularly for diverse groups: Inequities in healthcare service access and quality can be reduced. The IDB Group will continue to research and measure gaps in health outcomes and

healthcare quality experienced by lower income groups, indigenous people, African descendants, and people with disabilities (¶5.12).

3. Explore how to support governments in addressing challenges facing people of varying sexual orientation; and research healthcare service approaches that promote social innovation and incorporate diverse groups as agents of change who bring their own perspectives, knowledge, and worldviews (¶5.12).

Social Protection and Poverty SFD (GN-2784-12)

Lines of action:

1. Support Long Term Care (LTC) systems that promote autonomy of older persons:
 - a. Support government and private-sector efforts to expand and improve the supply of LTC services with a focus on home-based and person-centered care, and on rebalancing the burden of care across genders (¶5.6).
 - b. Knowledge production will also center on the relationship between LTC and other care services, such as assistance for PwD with high support needs and care for children, which together constitute the care economy (¶5.6).
 - c. Study ways to ensure that LTC services are culturally adapted to serve the needs of indigenous people (¶5.6).
 - d. Long-term care, part of the silver economy, has significant potential to create good employment opportunities, especially for women. IDB Group will support policies and regulations that foster private LTC initiatives, both for and not-for profit (¶5.7).
2. Support services for the inclusion and autonomy of PwD:
 - a. Give technical assistance and operational support to implement disability assessments, build national registries of PwD and develop policies based on this information (¶5.8).
 - b. To increase access to social protection services, the IDB Group will also support reasonable accommodations and universal design to ensure that the websites, documents, and services of social protection programs are accessible to people with disabilities (¶5.8).
 - c. Expand and improve the supply of trained personal assistance for PwD as an alternative to unpaid family assistance. As a complement to personal assistance, support training for family members with a focus on autonomy, and the supply of assistive technologies to increase autonomy and facilitate interpersonal communications (¶5.9).
 - d. Work with clients through policy dialogue, technical assistance, and operations focusing on implementation of cash transfer programs that alleviate poverty associated with having a disability (¶5.10).
 - e. Support efforts to remove operational rules that limit PwD's autonomy through eligibility requirements (¶5.10).
3. Address knowledge gaps in: (i) sustainable financing frameworks for provision of assistive technology and personal assistance; (ii) benefits of providing personal assistance and assistive technology for beneficiaries' well-being and personal autonomy; (iii) relative effectiveness of alternative modality of provision of personal

assistance; and (iv) the cultural adaptation of personal assistance for indigenous PwD (¶5.9).

Water and Sanitation SFD (GN-2781-13)

Lines of action:

1. Promote universal access to quality water and sanitation services with equity, inclusion, and affordability:
 - a. Regional, socioeconomic, and ethnic gaps in access to services are reduced, particularly in the case of diverse and disabled populations. Targeting and prioritization arrangements should be designed to ensure support for low-income households and the most vulnerable population groups (indigenous populations, women, and children, and the disabled population) (¶5.4).
2. Improve the governance and financing frameworks:
 - a. Investments in water and sanitation boost the economy by creating jobs (largely for unskilled workers) and have the potential to foster gender-equitable employment (¶5.11).
3. Drive innovation in the sector:
 - a. Innovation governance in the water and sanitation sector. Support the development of a specific regulatory initiatives for validating innovations, fostering gender equity, and stimulating innovation supply and demand in the sector (¶5.16).

Innovation, Science, and Technology SFD (GN-2791-13)

Line of action:

1. Boost investment in key public goods for innovation: Particular attention should be paid to programs focused on STEM fields and on incorporating women, candidates from rural areas, and diverse groups (Indigenous, Afro descendants, persons with disabilities, and the LGBTIQ+ community, among others) (¶5.7).
2. Strengthen key institutions to drive innovation: Strengthen the public and private institutional framework to promote gender equality and diversity in their efforts to promote innovation in the private sector, strategies for mainstreaming gender and diversity in public policies or gender parity initiatives, among other things (¶5.23).
3. Knowledge agenda: Develop a knowledge agenda on the effect of gender asymmetries on all mechanisms for supporting STI activities (¶5.27).

Tourism SFD (GN-2779-12)

Line of action

1. The design and implementation of social inclusion plans for destinations, adapting actions to the specific needs of each group by income, gender, race, age, physical ability, or other exclusion factor (¶5.9).

Fiscal Management SFD (GN-2831-12)

Lines of action:

1. Increase the redistributive impact of fiscal policy, with respect to gender, through spending and tax reforms that improve targeting. (Executive Summary).

2. Increase the impact of fiscal policy and management on inequality and equity: Assistance will be provided in the development and implementation of schemes with a gender approach in budget management and public procurement, and the generation of capacities for the inclusion of gender perspectives in fiscal actions, including tax reforms (¶5.6).

Citizen Security and Justice SFD (pending for approval)

Line of action:

1. Prevention and social care of crime and violence with emphasis on vulnerable populations:
 - a. Promote the use of private sector mechanisms, such as financing instruments and advice to women-led companies, to promote the economic empowerment of women for the prevention of violence against women (¶5.7).
 - b. Actions to contribute to the transformation of social and cultural norms to prevent GBV (¶5.7).
 - c. Actions to prevent GBV in physical and virtual public spaces will be included (¶5.7).
2. Strengthening the effectiveness and legitimacy of police institutions to prevent, deal with and solve crime:
 - a. The branch of public management will work to improve the police profile, the selection of personnel, initial and continuous training – with a gender approach and inclusion of vulnerable populations (¶5.11).
 - b. Work will be done on the design and application of evidence-based police management and deployment models that involve a community approach, procedural justice and the use of information, taking into account considerations of gender and diversity (¶5.12).
3. Strengthening the effectiveness of the institutions of the justice sector for an efficient, coordinated, transparent and timely investigation and resolution of cases
 - a. The selection processes, career development, training of judges and justice operators will be strengthened, taking into account the gender and diversity perspective (¶5.15).

Climate Change SFD (pending for approval)

Line of action:

1. Build effective governance: Promote stakeholder engagement and participatory approaches to climate policy design. This can be accomplished by engaging with ministries, academia, think tanks, guilds and trade unions, indigenous organization, and ordinary citizens (¶5.4).

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