



# Legal Frameworks and Institutional Effectiveness in Women's Economic Empowerment: A Comparative Study of Morocco and South Korea

Kaoutar ROUGANI MARZOUKI<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Ibn Tofail University, Kenittra, Morocco.  
kaoutar.marzouki@gmail.com

**Abstract.** This comparative study of women's economic empowerment in Morocco and South Korea holds significant legal and practical relevance. It examines how both States, despite being grounded in distinct legal traditions and socio-economic environments, incorporate comparable international obligations into their respective domestic legal frameworks. From an applied perspective, the study further brings to light the progress achieved, the persistent structural and institutional shortcomings, and the potential pathways for advancing toward a more inclusive economic democracy.

**Keywords:** Law, economic empowerment, women, equality, international conventions, rights, public policy, Morocco, South Korea, economic democracy.

## 1 Introduction

**Women's Economic Empowerment: A Fundamental Right and a Lever for Sustainable Development.** Beyond simply promoting the inclusion of women into the professional scene[1], women's economic empowerment is perceived as a multidimensional process that seeks the guarantee of their rights, develop their capacities, and create opportunities allowing them equal participation in economic life, whether through decent, fairly waged employment, access to entrepreneurship, finances, social security, or ownership.

The purpose of women's economic empowerment goes beyond the sole need to ensure simple daily survival extends to enabling them to develop sustainable income and to have greater control over their resources and their life choices.[2]

Nevertheless, one cannot discuss women's economic empowerment without involving economic democracy. It not only ensures simple daily survival, but also the right equal access to economic power. This is about giving women a role in the mechanism of the economy and acknowledging their role not only as workers, but also as actors and decision-makers in productive, cooperative, or entrepreneurial models.[3]

This duality of requirements, which revolves around "rights" and "power" aiming to ensure women's economic empowerment, calls for the adoption of a gender approach in public policies to address gender inequalities. These inequalities are the result of hierarchization people based on their biological differences. Gender perspective or analysis aims to promote gender equality by taking into consideration the socially constructed differences and hierarchization that create inequalities[4].

**An International Mobilization in Favor of Women's Economic Empowerment.** - It is worth mentioning that women's economic empowerment is part of a global dynamic of seeking social justice[5]. Social justice is defined by the United Nations (UN) as a fundamental principle for peaceful and prosperous coexistence and between and within societies. The UN even identifies it as a pillar of its mission for the 2030[6] Agenda for Sustainable Development, whose objectives are based on equity, equality, and human dignity[7].[8]

In fact, gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls are particularly highlighted by Sustainable Development Goal 5 (SDG 5) of this UN agenda. The States committed to it are called upon to deploy all necessary efforts to uproot all obstacles that hinder women's access to resources and prevent them from developing the real capacity to act and decide in the economic sphere.

It can be observed that the international community has been working, for several decades, on both normative and programmatic levels, to encourage and assist States in guaranteeing women's economic empowerment. On the legal scene, the Convention adopted in 1979 on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)[9] is the central international instrument for combating discrimination against women in both the public and private spheres (civil, political, economic, social, and family law). The conventions of the International Labour Organization (ILO)[10] are complementary to the CEDAW conventions, and are specializing in the field of work and remuneration, such as Convention No. 100 on equal pay and Convention No. 111 on non-discrimination.

These conventions, which constitute legally binding commitments for the signatory States, are complemented by action plans. They represent political and moral commitments that are devoid of legal constraints but are universally recognized (Soft Law[11]). This includes the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development mentioned earlier, the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action of 1995[12], and the Women's Empowerment Principles (WEPs[13]), which are a set of principles jointly developed by UN Women and the United Nations Global Compact (UNGC[14]) in 2010.

It should be noted that this mandate, which is focusing on promoting gender equality and women's empowerment, UN Women's mission is to guide States in the process of implementing adopted international commitments (CEDAW, Beijing, 2030 Agenda, etc.) and to assist them in implementing action plans through the execution

of concrete projects dedicated to the cause. Moreover, its mandate also has a partnership dimension that works to create frameworks for exchange between developing countries through the promotion of South-South cooperation.[15]

### **Women's Economic Empowerment in Morocco and South Korea.-**

Regarding the problematic we have chosen to dedicate this study, namely women's economic empowerment in Morocco and South Korea, it it ought to be said that the commitments of the two countries with respect to international instruments display an undeniable willingness that goes beyond the mere desire to add a female dimension to pre-existing policies, but rather attempts to transform institutional frameworks in a way that promotes substantive equality, particularly in the economic field.

This comparative study would allow more appreciation of how the two countries, whose constitutional, legislative, and socio-economic tendencies are quite different, are working to achieve the same objective. We will have the opportunity to see throughout this article, that in terms of the capacity to implement their international commitments in the field of women's economic empowerment, Morocco and South Korea each represent, from their own position and in their own way, two realities swaying between "we have arrived" and "there is still a long way to go."

Furthermore, a comparative analysis of the situation in the two countries would provide fertile ground that would allow the evaluation of the effectiveness of international law in this matter. This involves examining, on the one hand, how international legal commitments are translated into national orders, and on the other hand, the persistent gaps between norms and practice.

This study adopts a rights-based and institutional approach to women's economic empowerment, understood as the capacity to access economic resources, participate in decision-making, and exercise agency within legal and socio-economic structures.

This comparative legal analysis contributes to the literature by examining not only legal commitments but also institutional effectiveness and socio-economic outcomes.

This study adopts a qualitative comparative legal approach, combining normative analysis, institutional assessment, and socio-economic indicators to evaluate the effectiveness of women's economic empowerment frameworks.

The comparative method enables identification of structural, institutional, and socio-cultural factors shaping the effectiveness of similar international commitments in different legal contexts.

## 2 **Women's Economic Empowerment in International Law: A Systemic Human Rights Perspective**

Women's economic empowerment is assessed through labor force participation, employment conditions, access to economic resources, and representation in decision-making positions. It now occupies a central place in the normative and programmatic architecture of contemporary international law. On the legal plane, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) is considered to be the universal pillar of women's economic rights. Indeed, it is the main legally binding instrument concerning gender equality by virtue of which States parties have the obligation to "assure by all appropriate means and without delay the realization of equality between men and women.[9]"

It should be noted that CEDAW is characterized by a global vision that addresses the economic and professional aspects, as well as the civil, family, and political rights of women. Speaking about women's economic empowerment goes beyond mere professional inclusion, this approach highlights that true empowerment involves altering the fundamental structures and norms that govern women's roles in society, law, and institutions. This indivisibility of rights is moreover recognized by the United Nations by virtue of the Vienna Declaration of 1993, which stipulates that "all human rights are universal, indivisible and interdependent." [16] This is also evident through the provisions of Article 11 of CEDAW, which directly links women's economic rights (work, remuneration) to family, social, and political rights, showcasing an integrated approach to gender equality.[9]

The interlinking rights implies the impossibility to imagine women's economic autonomy with rooted family, social, and political inequalities. An author recommends in this regard that economic empowerment is an integral part of the substantive freedoms that allow individuals to exercise genuine life choices, and that it is also dependent on political, social, and civil rights [17]. This means that the guarantee of civil and political rights involves a guarantee for the exercise of economic rights. It is thus affirmed that "gender equality and women's economic empowerment cannot be achieved without the simultaneous recognition and implementation of all human rights [18]".

This interdependence is also reciprocal; it is thus considered that economic rights constitute a condition for the effectiveness of all human rights and the guarantee of individual freedoms. In fact, women's economic empowerment is likely to strengthen their capacity for action on both the social and political levels. This confirms its transversal character, which makes it a principle reflected in the framework of a systemic approach to human rights in which each guaranteed economic right conditions the realization and exercise of other individual freedoms.

Transversality is also evident in the ILO Fundamental Conventions, whose provisions reveal that women's economic empowerment is not limited to access to

employment but also extends to working conditions, social protection, and family responsibilities, among other things. Examples are numerous; let us cite in particular Convention No. 100, which is concerned with equal pay between men and women for work of equal value[19], Convention No. 111, which calls for the abolition of all discrimination against women through the promotion of equal opportunity and treatment in employment and occupation (access to vocational training and employment)[10]. Added to these two conventions are also Conventions No. 156[20], No. 183[21], and No. 190[22], which respectively emphasize the need to take into account family responsibilities, the protection of maternity, and the fight against sexual harassment in the workplace.

It should further be noted that women's economic empowerment, which the international community is working toward through these various instruments, is not merely a social or gender issue but also constitutes a substantive condition of democracy and the rule of law. This is expressly stated in the Beijing Declaration, which stipulates that: "the full participation of women in the economy is essential to democracy, social justice and sustainable development"[12]. Alongside the International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, which also inscribes economic equality in a logic of rights integrated through its provisions, which makes economic development an objective inextricably linked to social justice, health, and political participation[23].

It is clear that this transversal and systemic approach, adopted within the international normative framework regarding women's economic empowerment, is reflected in international sustainable development programs, notably the 2030 Agenda through the 17 SDGs with the ambition of anchoring gender equality (SDG 5), decent work (SDG 8), and the reduction of inequalities (SDG 10), all in a logic of interdependence of public policies. A central question can be emerged from here: What is the effectiveness of the States' commitments and the implementation of these various strategies that have been put in place? In other words, how is women's economic empowerment actually embodied in national development strategies, and what progress remains to be made to achieve substantive equality?

Based on this question, we will carry out a comparative analysis of national trajectories between the Kingdom of Morocco and the Republic of South Korea, two countries with dissimilar economic, cultural, and institutional contexts, but which both set themselves the same objective, namely: to make women's economic empowerment a driver of inclusion, growth, and social justice.

### 3 Legal Frameworks and Practical Realities of Women's Economic Empowerment in Morocco and South Korea

In truth, our interest in a comparative study between Morocco and South Korea regarding women's economic empowerment is not fortuitous, given the analytical richness it offers for questioning the mechanisms of transposing the same universal normative framework in two divergent socio-legal contexts. As a matter of fact, the evaluation of the effectiveness of public policies in promoting women's empowerment as expected by international instruments is likely to open the way to a global reflection on the contextual translation of international standards, which makes it possible, in a general way, to deviate from the abstract universality of human rights discourse, and reveals, in particular, that women's economic empowerment is not solely dependent on texts but depends above all on situated social, political, and institutional construction, and distinguished trajectories.

**Case of Morocco:** The Kingdom of Morocco has pursued, for several decades, a legislative strategy that seeks gender equality and women's economic empowerment. On the international scale, Morocco proceeded to ratify CEDAW in 1993, testifying legal commitment to guarantee equal access to economic resources and employment[24]. This accession was strengthened by the progressive withdrawal of reservations initially formulated by the country, particularly reservations related to family law and nationality, thus consolidating the internal scope of the Convention.

At the national level, the 2011 Constitution marked a major turning point in this regard, notably through its Article 19, which states that "men and women enjoy, on an equal basis, rights and freedoms of a civil, political, economic, social, cultural, and environmental nature," and which announces the creation of the Authority for Parity and the Fight Against All Forms of Discrimination (APALD), whose mission would be to promote a culture of equality[25]. The implementation of this constitutional clause was provided for by Law No. 79-14 adopted in 2017. The latter grants APALD a mandate for monitoring, recommending, and evaluating public policies on equality and the fight against discrimination[26]. Nevertheless, the mission of APALD is limited to the advisory aspect as it remains devoid of any binding or constraining power.

In this regard, the International Federation for Human Rights (FIDH) considers that the text instituting APALD "has been emptied of its substance" compared to international standards, given that the institution lacks any faculty to issue enforceable decisions or to seize the courts in cases of sex-based discrimination[27]. It is also advocated that the Moroccan legal arsenal in this regard, although advanced, remains symbolic, due to the lack of enforceable mechanisms of justiciability and insufficient coordination between institutional actors[28].

At the level of public policies, Morocco has adopted the National Strategy for Equality Between Women and Men for the period spanning 2012 to 2030, led by

the Ministry of Solidarity, Women, Family and Social Development. This strategy sets as its major objectives the promotion of women's employment, equitable access to productive resources, the strengthening of egalitarian governance, and the integration of gender-sensitive budgeting in public management[29]. An initiative that was highly praised both at the national and international levels. In this regard, the French Development Agency (AFD) notes that Morocco is among the few African countries to have institutionalized gender budgeting within the Ministry of Finance, and considers that the strategy marks considerable progress in economic equity[30].

In the same objective, specific support programs have been implemented with the aim of promoting female entrepreneurship through financing and supporting micro-enterprises run by women, such as the "Intilaka" program in 2020 and the "Forsa" program in 2022.

The efforts are certainly multiple for the promotion of economic autonomy in Morocco, but there is still a long way to go for effective and tangible empowerment. In this regard, it is considered in a UN Women report on gender analysis of Moroccan laws that implementation gaps are highlighted. This report suggests that the objectives that were the source of all legislative and institutional reforms are not yet tangible, particularly regarding the expected socio-economic transformations, especially in the informal and rural sectors[31].

Women's economic empowerment in Morocco undeniably faces a dual limitation: on the one hand, insufficient participation of women in the labor market, and on the other hand, incomplete translation of the legal-institutional dimension into practice. In this regard, statistics provided by the High Commission for Planning reveal that the female activity rate was estimated at approximately 19% in 2023, compared to approximately 69% for men.[32] This low participation is accompanied by female unemployment of 18.3% and a lower employment rate than that of men[33]. It is also estimated that the insertion of women in the Moroccan labor market still experiences strong sectoral segregation, predominant informal employment, and systematically lower wages than those of men[34], and this despite the legislative developments experienced by the country in this regard.

This reality thus confirms that formal added value of texts alone is insufficient: real women's economic empowerment requires both institutional and social transformation and transcends simple legal framework. Efforts are indeed undeniable at the legislative level, as several important reforms have been undertaken in Morocco, but their implementation remains difficult. An earlier World Bank study had already highlighted this problem in 2014 by considering that for Morocco "legal equality continues to be de facto circumvented by weak implementation of public services and non-implementation of legislative provisions, particularly when they come into tension with social norms[35]". Similarly, it is also estimated that, in the Moroccan case, the rate of women's participation in the workforce declined from ~30% to ~26% between 1999 and 2010, which suggests that simple economic growth

and the rise in education levels experienced by the country during this period are not enough to reverse the trend[36].

Recent statistics and studies on this subject have come to confirm this reality, which suggests that, although a regulatory framework dedicated to the cause is indispensable, it remains true that women's economic empowerment can only be real and effective if it is inscribed in a situated process that also involves economic rights and practices, institutions, and social norms. Moreover, even women's participation in the labor force, which represents economic empowerment in the strict sense of the term, cannot be sufficient as a single indicator. It is indeed considered that several realities are likely to hinder the real agency of women in Morocco, as is the case for informal work, precariousness, unpaid domestic work, and gender norms within each household[37].

**Case of South Korea:** It should be noted that South Korea offers a singular model with respect to the legal and institutional transposition of women's economic empowerment. The country adhered very early to international instruments concerning gender equality: it ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) in December 1984, and adhered to the Optional Protocol in 2006, paving the way for individual communications after exhaustion of domestic remedies[38].

At the level of national legislation, gender equality constitutes a fundamental constitutional principle. This is what we can discern from Article 11, paragraph 1, of the Korean Constitution, which prohibits any discrimination based on sex in political, economic, social, or cultural life. Likewise, Article 36 of the same text recognizes the protection of maternity and enshrines equality within the family[39]. These constitutional provisions served as a platform for a range of laws and public policies dedicated to structuring the State's action to promote women's rights and guarantee their economic inclusion.

Thus, the Framework Act on Women's Development of 1995, which was replaced in 2014 by the Framework Act on Gender Equality, constitutes the cornerstone of Korean national policy for gender equality. By virtue of the provisions of this law, public authorities are obligated to integrate the gender dimension into all sectors, including economic ones[40]. It should be noted in this regard that the guarantee of the implementation of this main framework law of Korean gender policy is ensured by a dedicated ministry, namely the Ministry of Gender Equality and Family (MOGEF), which sets as its mission to coordinate all national policies regarding parity, work, and work-life balance[41].

In the same spirit, the Gender Impact Analysis and Assessment Act (2011) makes the conduct of a gender impact assessment mandatory for all government policies and programs. Gender-sensitive budgeting has been introduced in the National Finance Act, requiring public institutions to measure the differentiated

impact of their expenditures on women and men[42]. These instruments, inscribed in the logic of gender mainstreaming, have given equality a transversal and measurable dimension in public governance.

Furthermore, several texts adopted have been exclusively dedicated to economic empowerment, such as the "Equal Employment Opportunity and Work-Family Balance Assistance Act," which frames equality in employment and the reconciliation between professional and family life[43]; the "Act on the Promotion of the Economic Activities and Prevention of Career Interruption of Women," whose objective is to prevent career interruptions and facilitate return to employment[44]; as well as the "Act on Support for Female-Owned Businesses," which establishes support mechanisms for female entrepreneurship, through notably access to financing, public procurement, and training[45]. These legal texts are accompanied and supported by advanced statistical and monitoring mechanisms, such as the "Gender Equality Index" and panel surveys from the "Korea Women's Development Institute," the implementation of which aims to monitor developments in employment, representation, and access to resources[46].

It is beyond doubt that these reforms have not remained a dead letter, as they have produced considerable progress. As a matter of fact, according to indicators, for instance *Statistics Korea*, the rate of women's participation in the active population reached 56% in 2023, compared to 73.6% for men[47], and the female employment rate between 16 and 64 years was 61.7% in the fourth quarter of 2023[48]. Data provided by the World Bank also confirms a continuous growth in the female activity rate over a long period[49]. However, it has been revealed, according to national statistics, that the proportion of women holding management positions remains below 20%[50], and that the wage gap is not negligible: Korean women earn on average approximately 68% of men's wages[51].

#### **4 Morocco and South Korea: Two Different Socio-Legal Contexts Faced to a common Requirement**

The comparative analysis of Morocco and South Korea regarding women's economic empowerment has made it possible to detect the existence of a convergent logic concerning the commitment of the two countries on the international level, but divergent in their implementation methods and the results obtained.

Certainly, through the ratification of CEDAW, the two countries have committed themselves to guaranteeing equal access to economic resources and employment. Nevertheless, the *modus operandi* of appropriation adopted by each marks significant differences: South Korea, a signatory as early as 1984, opted for an integrated institutional approach, while Morocco, ratifying in 1993, favored a gradual strategy, reconciling legal adaptation and social equilibrium.

South Korea proceeded through structural internalization, which consisted in inscribing gender equality in its public governance mechanisms through notably a gender-sensitive budget integration generalized across all sectors, a gender impact assessment, and a legal obligation of representation. Conversely, the approach adopted by Morocco consists in legislative progression illustrated by the constitutionalization of equality, the consecration of parity and the fight against sex-based discrimination through some laws, as well as the creation of a dedicated body.

Based on the analysis of these two operating modes, we can see that in terms of women's economic empowerment, the Korean model is based on the systematicity of the gender approach and on legally enforceable tools that offer a certain effectiveness, while the Moroccan model relies on legislative (and moreover limited) and institutional symbolism with limited enforcement capacity, leaving considerable inequalities between men and women in this regard, as backed by the pre-indicated statistics. Moreover, it is this dissimilarity of institutional organizations that partly explains the asymmetry observed between the formalization of rights and their economic effectiveness.

It should be said then that the inequalities detected regarding women's economic empowerment between the two countries (e.g., wage gap in Korea / gap in female labor participation in Morocco) are far from reflecting inaction, but rather a diversity of constraints. Indeed, in the Korean case, it is the rigidity of professional and family norms that seems to limit career advancement, since Korean society remains characterized by persistent gender norms and work culture expectations, implying a social hierarchy where women are still perceived as a family support element. Furthermore, the dominant culture in Korean companies conceives of performance in terms of total availability, which implies that women are excluded from management positions because of their biological nature. In the case of Morocco, it is rather the obstacles that hinder access to the labor market, property, and credit that influence women's participation in the labor force. In fact, given that the Moroccan labor market is heavily segmented, women find themselves concentrated in the informal sector, agriculture, and unpaid domestic work. The contrast between the two models thus represents two forms of glass ceiling: institutional and cultural in South Korea, structural and socio-economic in Morocco[52]. While data availability differs, selected indicators allow a comparative understanding of structural barriers and institutional effectiveness. Despite institutional differences, both countries face structural barriers that limit the full realization of economic empowerment.

However, both models share a common vision: The promotion of economic empowerment is not restricted to the presence of women in the professional world, but refers to the necessity of guaranteeing women the ability to possess real control over resources and economic choices. In this framework, South Korea demonstrates an interest in gender impact assessment mechanisms, while Morocco strengthens its

normative and programmatic system to offer better conditions for Moroccan women and especially conducive to real economic empowerment (education, awareness campaigns, support, etc.). Morocco also symbolizes the success of a gender-sensitive budget consolidated by the Ministry of Finance, a first, moreover, at the continental level.

**Proposals:** Whether in Morocco or South Korea, improving women's economic empowerment requires aligning the means with the goals. Several approaches can be suggested:

Policy experiences suggest that strengthening institutional enforcement mechanisms could improve effectiveness and draw inspiration from the Korean model (the powers of the Gender Equality Commission) Regarding the reinforcement of social protections for economic rights linked to gender equality. Indeed, endowing APALD with decision-making power or direct quasi-judicial power that goes beyond simple advisory competence would be likely to make it possible to combat discriminatory practices that prevent effective women's economic empowerment; if not through the issuance of sanctions or obtaining it through the judiciary system, at least through its dissuasive character.

It would also be worthwhile for Morocco to consider integrating mandatory gender assessment into employment and investment policies to accompany the gender-sensitive budgeting integrated by the Moroccan Ministry of Finance. The agency of Moroccan women today requires a lever of modernization represented by a shift from a budget logic to a logic of real effectiveness.

Furthermore, it would be appropriate for both Morocco and South Korea to adopt binding public monitoring whose objective is to correct salary gaps and strengthen the representativeness of women in decision-making positions. In the Korean case, this would make it possible to strengthen the transparency of wages and corporate accountability and consequently reduce the salary gap noted. Regarding Morocco's case, this will allow the country to be equipped with a numerical monitoring mechanism, until today nonexistent, yet indispensable for linking public policies to the quantitative objectives of the SDGs to which it has committed itself. In this regard, it is considered that the European Directive on Wage Transparency would be a good model for Morocco to follow.

In a comparative framework, these instruments have already proven their efficiency in other countries. Citing Iceland as an example, which is considered a "figurehead" in terms of salary equality, thanks to the effectiveness revealed by the implementation of a mandatory certification mechanism for companies by virtue of which tax benefits are conditional on respect for parity[53]. The Canadian model for effective economic empowerment of women is also worth mentioning, notably the proactive equal pay law, imposing periodic audits of comparable value jobs[54]. Furthermore, Norway and Sweden also constitute a source of inspiration, particularly

regarding their approach of making shared parenting a central lever of empowerment, which guarantees each parent an individual and non-transferable leave, in order to remedy any discrimination against women in the workplace that would be based on the absence of total availability. These practices have made it possible to achieve female employment rates exceeding 70%, while reducing salary gaps to less than 10%[55].

The key challenge for both countries, and especially Morocco, centers not on adopting additional legislation, but on translating existing laws into tangible practice. Progress thus requires connecting legal equality with measurable objectives, consolidating coordination between different institutions, and establishing results-based accountability mechanisms. It is through this interconnection of Law, public policy, and practice that women's economic empowerment becomes a real lever for sustainable development. The findings highlight that legal commitments alone are insufficient; institutional capacity, socio-cultural norms, and policy implementation mechanisms determine real empowerment outcomes.

Future research could extend this comparative approach to other Afro-Asian contexts to assess the transferability of institutional mechanisms promoting gender equality.

## References

- [1] F. Guelaud-Leridon, "Gubbels Robert, La citoyenneté économique de la femme (compte-rendu)," *Population*, vol. 22, no. 5, p. 937, 1967. [Online]. Available: <https://www.cairn.info/revue-population-1967-5-page-937.htm> . Accessed: Sept. 7, 2025.
- [2] E. Combaz and C. McLoughlin, "Voice, empowerment and accountability," in *Social and Economic Empowerment, Topic Guide*. Birmingham: GSDRC, 2014. [Online]. Available: [https://gsdrc.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/07/GSDRC\\_VEA\\_topic\\_guide.pdf](https://gsdrc.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/07/GSDRC_VEA_topic_guide.pdf).
- [3] V. M. Moghadam and L. Senftova, "Mesurer l'autonomisation des femmes : participation et droits dans les domaines civil, politique, social, économique et culturel," *Revue internationale des sciences sociales*, no. 184, pp. 423-449, 2005. [Online]. Available: <https://shs.cairn.info/revue-internationale-des-sciences-sociales-2005-2-page-423> . Accessed: Sept. 9, 2025.
- [4] Adéquations, "Définitions de l'approche de genre et genre & développement," 2017. [Online]. Available: <https://www.adequations.org/spip.php?article1515> . Accessed: Sept. 10, 2025.
- [5] P. Adair, "La Théorie de la justice de John Rawls. Contrat social versus utilitarisme," *Revue française de science politique*, vol. 41, no. 1, pp. 81-96, 1991. [Online]. Available: [https://www.persee.fr/doc/rfsp\\_0035-2950\\_1991\\_num\\_41\\_1\\_394540](https://www.persee.fr/doc/rfsp_0035-2950_1991_num_41_1_394540) . Accessed: Sept. 10, 2025.
- [6] United Nations General Assembly, *Transforming Our World: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, A/RES/70/1, Sept. 25, 2015.

- [7] United Nations Development Programme, “Objectifs de développement,” n.d. [Online]. Available: <https://www.undp.org/fr/sustainable-development-goals> . Accessed: Sept. 10, 2025.
- [8] United Nations, “What is social justice and how does the UN help make it a reality?,” UN News, Feb. 20, 2025. [Online]. Available: <https://news.un.org/fr/story/2025/02/1153256> . Accessed: Sept. 10, 2025.
- [9] United Nations, Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), G.A. Res. 34/180, Dec. 18, 1979. [Online]. Available: <https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/text/econvention.htm> . Accessed: Sept. 12, 2025.
- [10] International Labour Organization, Equal Remuneration Convention (No. 100), 1951, and Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention (No. 111), 1958. [Online]. Available: <https://normlex.ilo.org/> . Accessed: Sept. 12, 2025.
- [11] La Toupie, “Droit souple,” Le dictionnaire politique, Nov. 28, 2021. [Online]. Available: [https://www.toupie.org/Dictionnaire/Droit\\_souple.htm](https://www.toupie.org/Dictionnaire/Droit_souple.htm) . Accessed: Sept. 13, 2025.
- [12] United Nations, Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, Fourth World Conference on Women, 1995. [Online]. Available: <https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/beijing/platform/> . Accessed: Sept. 13, 2025.
- [13] UN Women and UN Global Compact, “Women’s Empowerment Principles (WEPs),” n.d. [Online]. Available: <https://www.weps.org/about> . Accessed: Sept. 13, 2025.
- [14] UN Global Compact, “The Ten Principles,” n.d. [Online]. Available: <https://unglobalcompact.org/what-is-gc/mission/principles> . Accessed: Sept. 13, 2025.
- [15] ONU Femmes, Traduire les promesses en actions : l’égalité des sexes dans le Programme de développement durable à l’horizon 2030. New York: ONU Femmes, 2018. [Online]. Available: <https://www.unwomen.org/fr/digital-library/publications/2018/2/gender-equality-in-the-2030-agenda-for-sustainable-development-2018> . Accessed: Sept. 7, 2025.
- [16] United Nations, Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action, A/CONF.157/23, June 25, 1993. [Online]. Available: <https://www.ohchr.org/fr/instruments-mechanisms/instruments/vienna-declaration-and-programme-action> . Accessed: Sept. 13, 2025.
- [17] A. Sen, Development as Freedom. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1999. [Online]. Available: <https://archive.org/details/amartya-kumar-sen-development-as-freedom-alfred-a.-knopf-inc.-2000> . Accessed: Sept. 13, 2025.
- [18] UN Women, Progress of the World’s Women 2022: Transforming Economies, Realizing Rights. New York: UN Women, 2022. [Online]. Available: <https://www.unwomen.org/en/digital-library/publications/2022/05/progress-of-the-worlds-women-2022> . Accessed: Sept. 11, 2025.
- [19] Organisation internationale du Travail, “Le combat pour les droits des femmes au travail dans l’histoire de l’OIT,” Feb. 25, 2014. [Online]. Available:

- <https://www.ilo.org/fr/resource/article/le-combat-pour-les-droits-des-femmes-au-travail-dans-lhistoire-de-loit> . Accessed: Sept. 13, 2025.
- [20] International Labour Organization, Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention (No. 156), 1981. [Online]. Available: [https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100\\_ILO\\_CODE:C156](https://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100_ILO_CODE:C156) . Accessed: Sept. 13, 2025.
- [21] International Labour Organization, Maternity Protection Convention (No. 183), 2000. [Online]. Available: [https://normlex.ilo.org/dyn/nrmlx\\_en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:55:0::NO::P55\\_TYP\\_E.P55\\_LANG.P55\\_DOCUMENT.P55\\_NODE:REV.en.C183./Document](https://normlex.ilo.org/dyn/nrmlx_en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:55:0::NO::P55_TYP_E.P55_LANG.P55_DOCUMENT.P55_NODE:REV.en.C183./Document) . Accessed: Sept. 13, 2025.
- [22] International Labour Organization, Violence and Harassment Convention (No. 190), 2019. [Online]. Available: [https://normlex.ilo.org/dyn/nrmlx\\_en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100\\_INSTRUMENT\\_ID:3999810](https://normlex.ilo.org/dyn/nrmlx_en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100_INSTRUMENT_ID:3999810) . Accessed: Sept. 11, 2025.
- [23] United Nations, International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, Dec. 16, 1966. [Online]. Available: <https://www.ohchr.org/fr/instruments-mechanisms/instruments/international-covenant-economic-social-and-cultural-rights> . Accessed: Sept. 11, 2025.
- [24] UN Women Morocco, Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW): Texts and Status of Ratifications in Morocco. Rabat: UN Women Morocco, 2018.
- [25] Kingdom of Morocco, Constitution of the Kingdom of Morocco, Official Bulletin No. 5964 bis, July 30, 2011.
- [26] Kingdom of Morocco, Law No. 79-14 on the Authority for Parity and the Fight against All Forms of Discrimination (APALD), Dahir No. 1-17-47, Sept. 21, 2017.
- [27] Fédération internationale des droits humains, “Maroc : l’Autorité pour la Parité et la Lutte contre toutes formes de Discrimination - Un projet de loi vidé de substance,” Mar. 10, 2015. [Online]. Available: <https://www.fidh.org/fr/regions/maghreb-moyen-orient/maroc/maroc-l-autorite-pour-la-parite-et-la-lutte-contre-toutes-formes-de> . Accessed: Sept. 9, 2025.
- [28] A. Bakour, “L’égalité de genre dans la Constitution marocaine de 2011 : entre proclamation et effectivité,” Revue marocaine d’administration locale et de développement, no. 165, pp. 45-62, 2022.
- [29] Ministry of Solidarity, Social Development, Equality and Family, National Report on the Implementation of CEDAW (2015-2020). Rabat, 2020.
- [30] Agence française de développement, “Maroc : quand l’égalité femmes-hommes irrigue la politique budgétaire,” May 7, 2021. [Online]. Available: <https://www.afd.fr/fr/actualites/maroc-egalite-femmes-hommes-budget-genre> . Accessed: Oct. 10, 2025.
- [31] UN Women Morocco, Gender Analysis of Moroccan Laws, May 2023. [Online]. Available: <https://morocco.unwomen.org/fr/digital->

- [library/publications/2023/05/analyse-genre-des-lois-marocaines](#) . Accessed: Sept. 16, 2025.
- [32] Haut-Commissariat au Plan, *Analyse intersectionnelle de la participation des femmes au marché du travail marocain : Une étude comparative entre la région de Casablanca-Settat et de l'Oriental*, 2025. [Online]. Available: [https://www.hcp.ma/Analyse-intersectionnelle-de-la-participation-des-femmes-au-marche-du-travail-marocain-Une-etude-comparative-entre-la\\_a3852.html](https://www.hcp.ma/Analyse-intersectionnelle-de-la-participation-des-femmes-au-marche-du-travail-marocain-Une-etude-comparative-entre-la_a3852.html) . Accessed: Oct. 16, 2025.
- [33] Haut-Commissariat au Plan, "La situation du marché du travail en 2023," Feb. 5, 2024. [Online]. Available: [https://www.hcp.ma/La-situation-du-marche-du-travail-en-2023\\_a3816.html](https://www.hcp.ma/La-situation-du-marche-du-travail-en-2023_a3816.html) . Accessed: Oct. 11, 2025.
- [34] O. Canuto and H. Kabbach, "Gender inequality in the labor market: the case of Morocco," Policy Brief No. 12/23, Policy Center for the New South, Mar. 2023.
- [35] World Bank, *Morocco: Mind the Gap - Empowering Women for a More Open, Inclusive and Prosperous Society*. Washington, DC: World Bank, 2014. [Online]. Available: <https://documents.worldbank.org/en/publication/documents-reports/documentdetail/798491468000266024> . Accessed: Oct. 11, 2025.
- [36] Y. Morikawa, "The opportunities and challenges for female labor force participation in Morocco," Brookings Institution, July 13, 2015. [Online]. Available: <https://www.brookings.edu/articles/the-opportunities-and-challenges-for-female-labor-force-participation-in-morocco/> . Accessed: Oct. 14, 2025.
- [37] C. Somerville, E. Balkas, D. Guetarni, and N. Hashweh, *Women's Economic Empowerment in the MENA Region: Morocco, Iraq, Saudi Arabia*. Geneva: Geneva Graduate Institute and Geneva Centre for Human Rights Advancement and Global Dialogue, 2025.
- [38] Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Korea, "Status of adherence to the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)," 2024. [Online]. Available: <https://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw/states.htm> . Accessed: Oct. 14, 2025.
- [39] Korea Legislation Research Institute, *Constitution of the Republic of Korea*. Seoul: KLRI, 2018. [Online]. Available: <https://elaw.klri.re.kr> .
- [40] Korea Legislation Research Institute, *Framework Act on Gender Equality (No. 12525)*. Seoul: Government of the Republic of Korea, 2014.
- [41] Ministry of Gender Equality and Family, "About MOGEF and its missions," Seoul, 2023. [Online]. Available: <https://www.mogef.go.kr> . Accessed: Oct. 14, 2025.
- [42] United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, *Gender Budgeting in the Republic of Korea: Country Case Study*. Bangkok: UN ESCAP, 2022.
- [43] Korea Legislation Research Institute, *Equal Employment Opportunity and Work-Family Balance Assistance Act (No. 15501)*. Seoul: KLRI, 2018.

- [44] International Labour Organization, Act on the Promotion of Economic Activities and Prevention of Career Interruption of Women (No. 18320). Geneva: ILO NATLEX, 2022.
- [45] Korea Legislation Research Institute, Act on Support for Female-Owned Businesses (No. 5942). Seoul: KLRI, 1999.
- [46] Korea Women’s Development Institute, The Korean Women Manager Panel Survey 2022: Main Findings. Seoul: KWDI, 2023.
- [47] Statistics Korea, Labor Force Statistics 2023. Daejeon: KOSTAT, 2023.
- [48] Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Women’s Employment and Fertility in Korea: A Literature Review. Paris: OECD Publishing, 2024.
- [49] World Bank, “Labor force participation rate, female (% of female population ages 15+) - Korea, Rep.,” 2024. [Online]. Available: <https://data.worldbank.org> . Accessed: Oct. 16, 2025.
- [50] Statistics Korea, SDG Indicator 5.5.2 - Women in Managerial Positions. Seoul: Government of the Republic of Korea, 2024.
- [51] Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, Gender Pay Gap in OECD Countries: 2023 Update. Paris: OECD, 2023.
- [52] EuroMed Rights, Situation Report on Discriminations against Women in Morocco, 2023. [Online]. Available: [https://euromedrights.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/03/factsheet-Morocco\\_EN-2.pdf](https://euromedrights.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/03/factsheet-Morocco_EN-2.pdf) . Accessed: Oct. 9, 2025.
- [53] Nordic Council of Ministers, “Equal Pay Standard Certification in Iceland,” 2023. [Online]. Available: <https://www.government.is/topics/human-rights-and-equality/equality/equal-pay-certification/> . Accessed: Oct. 5, 2025.
- [54] Government of Canada, Pay Equity Act - Implementation Framework, 2023. [Online]. Available: <https://www.canada.ca/en/services/jobs/workplace/human-rights/overview-pay-equity-act.html>.
- [55] Nordic Council of Ministers, Shared Parental Leave and Gender Equality in the Nordic Region, 2024. [Online]. Available: <https://www.norden.org/en/publication/shared-and-paid-parental-leave> . Accessed: Oct. 5, 2025.

**Open Access** This chapter is licensed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc/4.0/>), which permits any noncommercial use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license and indicate if changes were made.

The images or other third party material in this chapter are included in the chapter's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the chapter's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder.

