



Economic and
Financial Committee

ECOFIN

MUNUC 38

Model United Nations of the University of Chicago

CHAIR LETTERS

Dear Delegates,

I'm Andrew Joel and I am excited to be serving as a Co-Chair of the Economic and Financial Committee, or ECOFIN, at MUNUC 38! This year, ECOFIN will focus on the two topics of regulating offshore tax havens and combating gender income inequality. I am thrilled to hear debate on these pertinent issues as we work to strengthen equity, human rights, and development of the global economy.

A bit about me: I am a Third Year Law, Letters, and Society & Political Science double major with a minor in Russian and Eastern European Studies. I hold a deep interest in the intersection of international affairs and ethics and am very excited to hear your perspectives on these issues. Last year, I was the Co-Chair of LEGAL with our Under-Secretary General Nas. I also participated in MUNUC 36 as an Assistant Chair for the Disarmament and International Security Committee where we debated state possession of weapons of mass destruction. I thoroughly enjoy working on General Assembly committees and am so excited to return as a GA Exec! Outside of MUNUC I am involved with the Alexander Hamilton Society, UChicago Institute of Politics, cheering for New York sports teams, and exploring Chicago.

I am especially excited that our committee will be focusing on two distinct issues that lie at the heart of global economic governance and social equity. The offshore tax haven topic presents critical questions about the responsibility of governments, financial institutions, and corporations in ensuring transparency and accountability in global financial flows. The gender income inequality topic allows us to address persistent and systemic disparities that continue to

limit opportunities for women and marginalized groups worldwide. Tackling these inequalities requires us to consider a range of factors, from structural discrimination to social and cultural norms, and to design comprehensive, multi-layered policy responses that advance true economic equity. I am eager to hear your creative and thoughtful approaches to this complex issue.

While wrestling with these issues, Nico, Clara, and I hope that we all have a fun and enriching weekend! One of my favorite aspects of MUNUC is hearing the diverse perspectives and solutions of delegates, so I look forward to meeting you all and hearing your thoughts. Please feel free to reach out if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Andrew Joel

aj Joel@uchicago.edu

Dear Delegates,

I am Clara Aguilar, and I am absolutely thrilled to be serving as one of your co-chairs for the Economic and Financial Committee at MUNUC 38! I am a third-year Political Science and History double major! During my time at the university, I have also served as an assistant chair for the LEGAL committee at MUNUC 37 and as an assistant chair for the “Do You Hear the People Sing?: The June Rebellion, 1832” committee at ChoMUN XXVIII. I am a voting ambassador for UChiVotes, and I am involved with the Institute of Politics. During my free time in Chicago, I love walking/biking by the lake, eating at Tilly Bagel Shop (shoutout!), going to the Art Institute, and watching Formula 1 (Forza Ferrari!)? Back home in Miami, I love hanging out with my family and friends, watching movies, exploring nature, and going to theme parks!

This year, we are ecstatic to present two distinct topics that both concern themselves with providing equitable access to wealth for all. The topic of the oversight of offshore tax havens will allow for discussion on how financial transparency can be increased and how governments can avoid being taken advantage of. The topic of gender income inequality will allow for constructive discussions on methods of ensuring that people of all gender identities are receiving equal and nondiscriminatory compensation for their work.

In your discussions of these topics, my co-chairs and I are always a resource for you to come to with any concerns or questions if you encounter anything that you believe may be offensive or inappropriate. It is very important to exercise care and respect when discussing these topics. Please do not hesitate to ask any of us questions; we are happy to help!

Nico, Andrew, and I hope that we will all have an amazing and enriching weekend in February! We are thrilled to hear your innovative ideas and see the spirit of collaboration during the conference, and we hope to help all of you on your educational journey! It is an immense

honor and joy to be one of your co-chairs this year, and I look forward to what I hope will be an incredible experience for everyone!

All the best,

Clara Aguilar

Dear Delegates,

My name is Nico Stefanov, and I am excited to be serving as one of your chairs for the Economic and Financial Committee for MUNUC 38! I am a third-year student studying English Language & Literature and Computer Science at the University of Chicago. I also work as a Student Assistant at the Manuscript Editing Department at the University of Chicago Press. Outside of school and work, I enjoy reading, watching Formula 1 (Go Mercedes), playing Cyberpunk 2077, and spending time with my family and friends back home in Los Angeles. Last year, I participated in MUNUC 37 as an Assistant Chair to the Legal Committee, and it was such a fantastic weekend, so I'm looking forward to being a chair this year!

As always, we expect delegates to display the utmost respect toward one another. MUNUC is about civil collaboration as much as it is about individual performance, so we expect you to not sacrifice one for the other. Be kind and considerate to one another when debating and discussing. Nuances may surface, so it is important that you address them with sensitivity in mind. Anything offensive or inappropriate will not be tolerated during conference.

Our goal as chairs is to create a weekend that is educational, enriching, and fun for everyone. This year's topics allow you to delve deep into areas of economic and financial concern and to use critical thinking and creativity to come up with tangible solutions with your fellow delegates. The skills you will learn and practice during this weekend are indispensable and ones I hope you can take with you beyond MUNUC. I'm beyond honored to be your chair this year, and I look forward to meeting and hearing from you all in February.

Sincerely,

Nico Stefanov

HISTORY OF THE COMMITTEE

The Second Committee of the United Nations General Assembly, known as the Economic and Financial Committee (ECOFIN), is responsible for addressing global economic and financial issues pertinent to international peace, security, and development. Established in 1945 alongside the UN itself, ECOFIN's mandate includes international trade, global financial stability, sustainable development, poverty eradication, food security, and international debt management. The committee also focuses on the particular needs of countries vulnerable to economic exploitation and most affected by inequality, such as least developed countries (LDCs), landlocked developing countries (LLDCs), and small island developing states (SIDS). In addition, ECOFIN discusses the economic impact of globalization, digital technologies, and international financial regulation. While the committee's resolutions are not legally binding, they express the consensus of the international community and influence the policies of governments, international institutions, and UN agencies.¹ All 193 UN member states participate in ECOFIN, negotiating resolutions through debate and consensus-building during the General Assembly's annual session.

¹ General Assembly of the United Nations, "Economic and Financial Committee (Second Committee)," United Nations, accessed August 9, 2025. <https://www.un.org/en/ga/second/index.shtml>.

TOPIC A: REGULATION OF OFFSHORE TAX HAVENS

Statement of the Problem

Global Overview

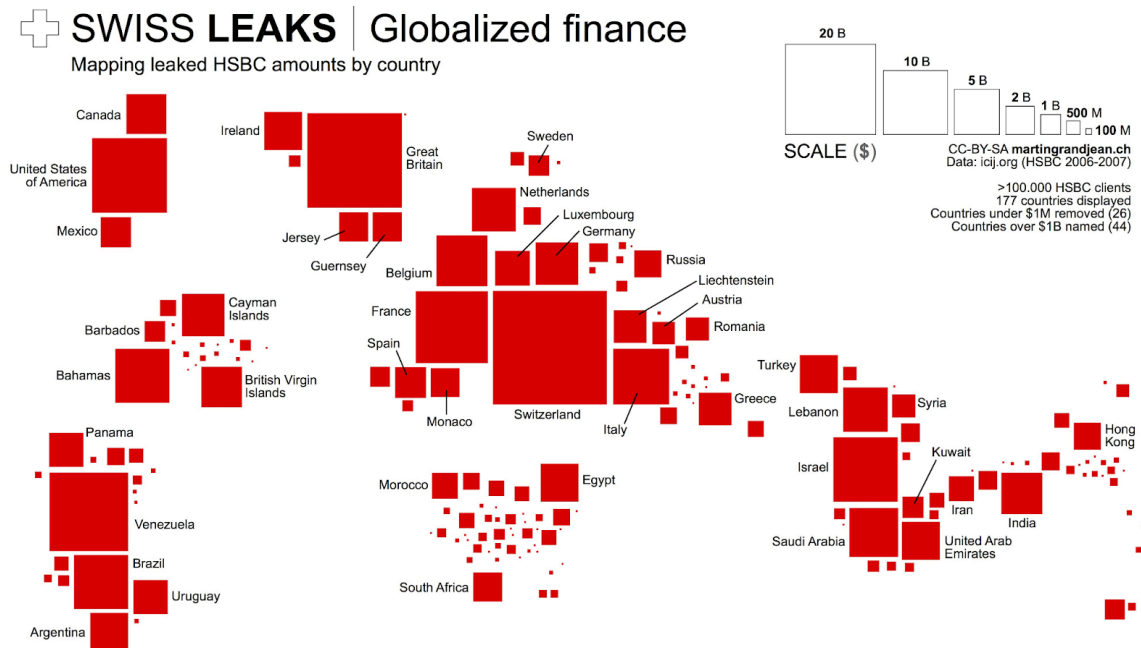
Offshore tax havens are jurisdictions, often small countries or territories such as the Cayman Islands and Switzerland, that offer low or zero tax rates, high financial secrecy, and favorable regulatory environments to foreign individuals and corporations. These jurisdictions (also known as **Preferential Tax Regimes** or PTRs) are designed to attract global capital by minimizing tax obligations and offering legal frameworks that obscure the ownership of assets.² While not illegal, the usage of PTRs raises serious economic and legal concerns related to global capital flow and sustainable development.

The appeal of offshore tax havens lies primarily in their ability to shield wealth from domestic taxation and scrutiny. Corporations and wealthy individuals typically use **shell companies**, anonymous trusts, and complex ownership structures that make it difficult for authorities to trace the true beneficiaries of accounts and assets. Typically, financial institutions and legal firms based in these havens specialize in helping clients structure their financial affairs in ways that exploit these legal loopholes.³ Though offshore tax havens are functionally sovereign states, legally using their power to enforce economic policy, these practices blur the lines between legal tax avoidance and illegal tax evasion. Though legal, there are significant consequences in tracing organized crime and tax collection. The secrecy and regulatory arbitrage

² Ronen Palan, “History of Tax Havens,” History & Policy, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://historyandpolicy.org/policy-papers/papers/history-of-tax-havens/>.

³ Dhammika Dharmapala, “Overview of the Characteristics of Tax Havens,” *Chicago Unbound*, University of Chicago Law School, 2023, https://chicagounbound.uchicago.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?params=/context/law_and_economics_wp/article/1099/&path_info=SSRN_id4437487...__overview_of_the_characteristics_of_tax_havens.pdf

provided by tax havens facilitate a wide range of illicit activities including money laundering, fraud, and the financing of terrorism.



Graph of Leaked Swiss Banking Clients by Country.⁴

For developing countries, the impact is especially severe. Offshore tax havens contribute to **capital flight** and **tax base erosion**, depriving governments of revenues needed for infrastructure, public services, and economic development. Weak regulatory institutions in these countries make them particularly vulnerable to corruption, as officials and business elites can easily hide stolen assets offshore. This dynamic undermines public trust, weakens state capacity, and fuels inequality. This dynamic is especially pernicious in countries with **oligarchical** stratified wealth distribution such as Saudi Arabia and Russia. Though a small portion of the

⁴ Martin Grandjean, *Swissleaks - the map of the bank accounts*, map, Wikimedia Commons, February 11, 2015, https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Swissleaks_-_the_map_of_the_bank_accounts.jpg

population may greatly benefit from domestic markets and natural resources, they can avoid their tax burden through storing their profits in offshore tax havens.⁵

Globally, the use of offshore tax havens exacerbates wealth disparities and undermines international cooperation on financial transparency. While tax havens are not themselves illegal, the systems they support create vast inequities and legal loopholes that threaten global economic competition, financial accountability, and governance. Addressing the issue requires coordinated international action, greater transparency, and mechanisms that balance state sovereignty with global financial integrity and equity.

Impact on Financial Transparency

While offshore companies may serve legitimate privacy or business purposes, their misuse and abuse enable individuals and organizations to obscure the origin of wealth and evade accountability. Offshore tax havens continue to pose a significant threat to global financial transparency and the prosecution of illicit activities, including money laundering, tax evasion, and terrorism financing. These aforementioned jurisdictions offer secrecy through anonymous shell companies, minimal financial disclosure, and weak regulatory oversight, creating ideal conditions for abuse.

One of the most notable exposures of the function and impact of offshore tax havens is the Panama Papers leak of April 2016. The Panama Papers leak involved approximately 11.5 million documents from the Panamanian law firm Mossack Fonseca leaked to the German newspaper, *Süddeutsche Zeitung*, and shared with the International Consortium of Investigative

⁵ Nikhil Kalyanpur et al., *The Oligarch's Offshore Dilemma*, Calvinthrall.com, revised September 2022, https://www.calvinthrall.com/assets/oligarchs_ajps.pdf

Journalists (ICIJ).⁶ The leaked documents revealed the internal operations of over 210,000 offshore entities and exposed how politicians, business elites, and criminals used offshore accounts and shell companies to hide assets, evade taxes, and launder money.⁷

Among those implicated were 12 current or former heads of state, including Vladimir Putin's close associates, the Prime Minister of Iceland, and relatives of Chinese and Syrian leadership. Individuals used complex ownership structures to untraceably move money across jurisdictions, effectively placing their wealth beyond the reach of tax authorities and prosecutors.⁸ The documents also exposed significant gaps in **due diligence** by law firms and financial institutions in handling funds, leading regulators to call for global minimum standards.⁹



Former Icelandic Prime Minister Sigmundur Davíð Gunnlaugsson, who was exposed in the Panama Papers leak.¹⁰

⁶ Luke Harding, "What are the Panama Papers? A guide to history's biggest data leak," The Guardian, April 5, 2016, <https://www.theguardian.com/news/2016/apr/03/what-you-need-to-know-about-the-panama-papers>

⁷ Ibid.

⁸ The International Consortium of Investigative Journalists, "Giant Leak of Offshore Financial Records Exposes Global Array of Crime and Corruption," OCCRP, April 3, 2016, <https://www.occrp.org/en/project/the-panama-papers/giant-leak-of-offshore-financial-records-exposes-global-array-of-crime-and-corruption>

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ Control Arms, *Icelandic PM addressing the event*, image, Flickr, September 25, 2014, <https://www.flickr.com/photos/controlarms/15349321181>

The Panama Papers leak additionally exposed how tax havens are not merely passive jurisdictions offering favorable economic conditions, but often play an active role in facilitating financial crime. The aforementioned law firm helped clients fabricate ownership records and create backdated documents.¹¹ Additionally, these services were not only used to help wealthy individuals, but were often used by government officials to hide public funds stolen through corruption and embezzlement.¹² Though the leak to international outrage and criminal probes, the power of prosecutors are limited in defense of the sovereignty of offshore tax havens.

In addition to tax evasion and money laundering, offshore secrecy fuels money laundering and terrorism financing. The Financial Action Task Force (FATF) warns that anonymous shell companies and trust structures make it difficult for authorities to trace the origins of funds or identify those financing illicit networks.¹³ Terrorist organizations and organized crime groups exploit these jurisdictional blind spots to fund operations and channel resources globally. Moreover, limited regulatory oversight in offshore havens obstructs cross-border legal cooperation.¹⁴ Investigators frequently face challenges in obtaining ownership records or financial data, which slows asset recovery and enables impunity.

Global Consequences & Inequality

The consequences of offshore tax havens extend far beyond the movement of individual fortune. By allowing wealth to be shielded from taxation, these jurisdictions actively distort

¹¹ The International Consortium of Investigative Journalists, “Giant Leak of Offshore Financial Records Exposes Global Array of Crime and Corruption,” OCCRP, April 3, 2016, <https://www.occrp.org/en/project/the-panama-papers/giant-leak-of-offshore-financial-records-exposes-global-array-of-crime-and-corruption>

¹² Ibid.

¹³ FATF, *FATF Report: Money Laundering Using Trust and Company Service Providers*, (FATF, October 2010), 35, <https://www.fatf-gafi.org/content/dam/fatf-gafi/reports/Money%20Laundering%20Using%20Trust%20and%20Company%20Service%20Providers.pdf>.

¹⁴ Naomi Fowler, “Drug War Myths, part 1: the Tax Justice Network podcast, the Taxcast,” Tax Justice Network, September 28, 2023, <https://taxjustice.net/2023/09/28/drug-war-myths-part-1-the-tax-justice-network-podcast-the-taxcast/>

global economic systems, exacerbate inequality, and erode trust in legal and political institutions. Offshore tax havens disproportionately benefit corporate conglomerates, oligarchs, and the politically connected who can afford the legal and financial services required to exploit such regimes. Thus, citizens, especially in developing nations, bear the burden of underfunded public services and structural poverty.

At a macroeconomic level, offshore tax avoidance depletes public revenues and reduces the capacity of nations to provide essential public services such as education, healthcare, and infrastructure. This is particularly devastating in the developing world where institutions are already underfunded and wealth is stratified. In countries such as Nigeria, Angola, and Guatemala, billions of dollars in extractive industry profits have been funneled into offshore structures rather than contributing to national development — leading to a weakened government and stagnant development.¹⁵

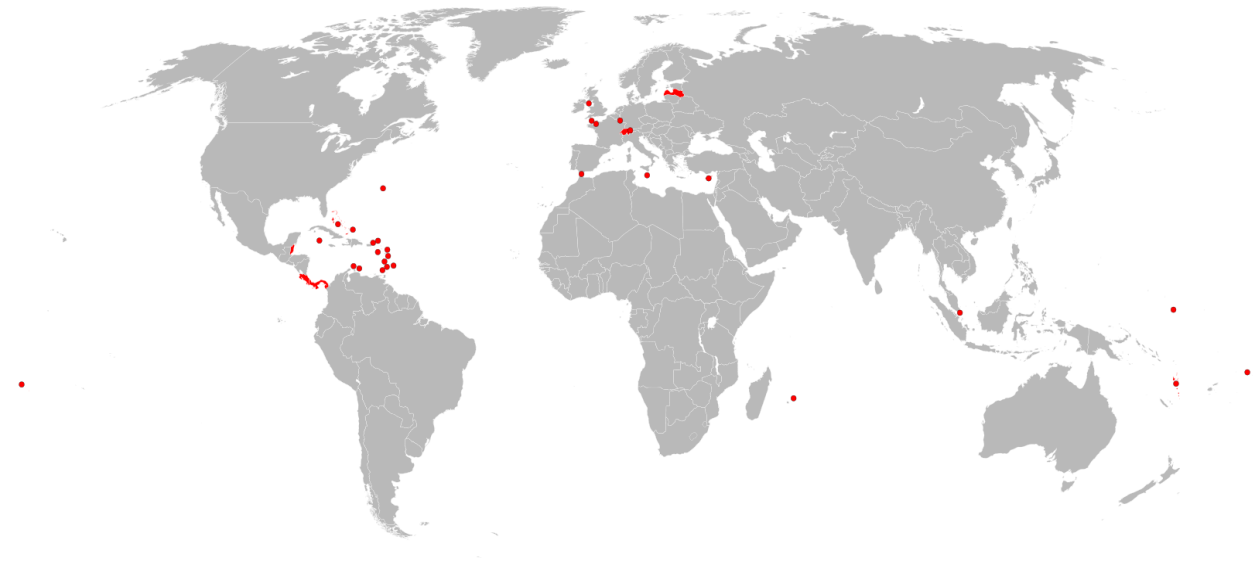
Wealth hoarded offshore compounds already-existing inequalities in and between countries. While citizens pay taxes on wages and consumption, elites accumulate assets in secrecy and face little effective accountability in contributing to the tax burden. This disparity undermines the legitimacy of tax systems and fosters public cynicism toward democratic governance.¹⁶ As underfunded public institutions cannot enforce tax policies, a vicious cycle erodes trust in governments obliged to provide public services.

Notably, inequality generated is not limited to income and tax contributions. Offshore secrecy manipulates markets by allowing companies with hidden ownership to avoid legal

¹⁵ Ludwig Wier, *Corporate tax haven sand their impact on development*, IGC, June 2024, <https://www.theigc.org/sites/default/files/2024-07/Corporate%20tax%20havens%20Policy%20toolkit.pdf>

¹⁶ Nicholas Shaxson, “Tackling Tax Havens,” International Monetary Fund, September 2019, <https://www.imf.org/en/Publications/fandd/issues/2019/09/tackling-global-tax-havens-shaxon>

scrutiny, beat competition, and outmaneuver national regulatory frameworks. Corruption becomes normalized, reform efforts are obstructed, and civil society is weakened.



Map of global tax havens (indicated by the red dots).¹⁷

Current Challenges

Efforts to curb the abuse of offshore tax havens face various structural and political issues. The difficulty in developing an international regulatory framework stems from the complex intersection of legal sovereignty, global competition, and the economic self-interest of powerful actors who benefit from offshore tax havens. The central challenge lies in the fragmented nature of international tax and financial regulation. There is no single global authority empowered to enforce transparency or prosecute abuse internationally. Institutions like the OECD, FATF, and the UN Tax Committee have issued guidelines and recommendations, but

¹⁷ Arkyan, *Tax havens*, image, Wikimedia Commons, June 6, 2008, https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Tax_havens.svg

these are non-binding. Participation is voluntary, and compliance varies widely.¹⁸ Many countries have shown willingness for reform, but key jurisdictions, including notorious havens like the British Virgin Islands and Switzerland, still resist full cooperation.

Moreover, sovereign states have strong incentives to maintain tax haven industries. For small island economies like the Cayman Islands and Jersey, offshore finance represents a significant share of GDP. Relatively larger states such as Luxembourg and Switzerland leverage financial secrecy to attract foreign capital. Attempts to impose binding standards are met with legal or diplomatic resistance, interpreted as encroachments on national sovereignty.¹⁹ Additionally, a lack of political will for reform within powerful nations whose elites benefit from offshore structures contributes to the lack of action. Financial institutions, law firms, and accounting firms that engineer offshore systems often lobby against stricter regulations.

Furthermore, digital innovation makes offshore wealth increasingly difficult to regulate. Cryptocurrencies, **decentralized finance** (DeFi), and digital asset anonymization tools present new frontiers for offshore-style secrecy beyond traditional sovereign states.²⁰ These technologies enable rapid, borderless transfers of value outside of traditional banking systems, challenging regulators' ability to detect financial crime.

Regulating offshore tax haven abuse requires more than transparency norms, necessitating mutual cooperation and a comprehensive regulatory framework. Without

¹⁸ OECD, *Fighting Tax Crime - The Ten Global Principles*, OECD, May 2024, <https://www.oecd.org/content/dam/oecd/en/topics/policy-issues/tax-and-crime/fighting-tax-crime-the-ten-global-principles-country-chapters.pdf>

¹⁹ Edoardo Anziano et al., "We Investigate Corruption. Swiss Law Calls That a Crime.," OCCRP, April 10, 2025, <https://www.occrp.org/en/feature/we-investigate-corruption-swiss-law-calls-that-a-crime>

²⁰ "Cryptocurrencies, corruption and organised crime: Implications of the growing use of cryptocurrencies in enabling illicit finance and corruption," Transparency International, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://knowledgehub.transparency.org/helpdesk/cryptocurrencies-corruption-and-organised-crime-implications-of-the-growing-use-of-cryptocurrencies-in-enabling-illicit-finance-and-corruption>

international action, **piecemeal legislation** will allow the inequality and corruption that stem from these structures to perpetuate.

History of the Problem

Rise of Modern Tax Havens

The emergence of offshore tax havens stems from the major political and financial shifts of the 20th century. While the practice of protecting wealth abroad is centuries old, the modern system of tax havens offering low or zero tax rates, robust financial secrecy, and minimal regulatory oversight was shaped by postwar economic realignments and rising globalization. In 1934, the Swiss government, in one of the earliest examples, passed the Federal Banking Law, which made it a criminal offense for bankers to disclose client identities or account information.²¹ Though partially designed to protect Jewish-owned assets from Nazi confiscation, the law established Switzerland's continuous role as a haven for financial secrecy. Over time, Switzerland's neutrality and stable political system attracted not only legitimate investors but also tax evaders, corrupt officials, and criminal networks. Switzerland became a prototype for future tax havens, offering a confidential and lucrative environment for foreign capital.²²

With early Swiss Banking laws as a precedent, offshore tax havens proliferated over the decades following World War II despite the **Bretton Woods System**. In the wake of WWII, countries aimed to promote global economic stability and prevent future depressions by pegging global currencies to the US dollar—which was backed by gold at the time.²³ Additionally, the **International Monetary Fund** and **World Bank** were created to further sustainable development and promote mutual economic aid. While under Bretton Woods, strict capital controls managed currency exchange and financial flow, and the **Eurodollar** market began to

²¹ Henri B. Meier et al., “Swiss Bank (Customer) Secrecy and the International Exchange of Information,” in *Swiss Finance*, (Palgrave Macmillan, 2023), 159-250, https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1007/978-3-031-23194-0_4

²² Ibid.

²³ “Creation of the Bretton Woods System,” Federal Reserve History, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.federalreservehistory.org/essays/bretton-woods-created>

develop. Throughout the 1950s and 1960s, US dollars could be deposited and loaned outside the United States, most notably in London, beyond the reach of American federal regulations.²⁴ Simultaneously, various small territories, including British colonial dependencies and former colonies such as the Cayman Islands and British Virgin Islands, began offering offshore capital services.²⁵ These jurisdictions lacked large domestic economies and thus looked to offshore finance as a strategy for economic growth. With guidance from British financial and legal institutions, they began to provide specialized financial services to non-resident clients who were exempt from local taxes and legal scrutiny.²⁶ By leveraging geopolitical ties and the ability to offer loose financial regulation, these jurisdictions were able to attract large amounts of international capital.



*Common Financial Methods of Offshore Tax Avoidance.*²⁷

²⁴ Vanessa Ogle, "Archipelago Capitalism," *The American Historical Review* Vol. 122, No. 5 (2017): 1431-1458, <https://www.jstor.org/stable/26580663>

²⁵ Ronen Palan, "History of Tax Havens," History & Policy, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://historyandpolicy.org/policy-papers/papers/history-of-tax-havens/>.

²⁶ Kristine Sævoid, *Tax Havens of the British Empire*, (University of Bergen, 2022), <https://bora.uib.no/bora-xmlui/bitstream/handle/11250/3033912/archive.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>

²⁷ True Tamplin, *Methods of Tax Avoidance*, in "Tax Avoidance," infographic, Finance Strategists, last modified on July 12, 2023, <https://www.financestrategists.com/tax/tax-planning/common-reporting-standard-crs/>.

The collapse of the Bretton Woods system, caused by the US suspending gold convertibility standard and a heightened lack of faith in the dollar, was followed by the neoliberal economics of the 1980s and onwards— ushering in a period of rapid expansion for offshore finance.²⁸ Under neoliberal policies and innovations, including the removal of capital controls, liberalization of financial markets, and advances in computer technology, there were massive increases in cross-border financial flows throughout the 1980s.²⁹ Under the economic policies of President Reagan and UK Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher, economic deregulation became a central issue, and competition to offer appealing tax systems intensified.³⁰ **Offshore financial centers** became integral to the operations of multinational corporations, which used these favorable jurisdictions to structure global operations in ways that minimize their tax burden. High-net-worth individuals also turned to offshore trusts, shell companies, and various opaque financial instruments to obscure wealth from tax authorities. Major American and Western European law and accounting firms played a major role in expanding and legitimizing the offering of these practices by designing complex financial structures that exploit mismatches between national tax systems.³¹

From the 1990s and onwards, offshore tax havens have become a centerpiece of the global financial system. With the fall of the Soviet Union, the 15 newly independent states experienced capital flight on an unprecedented scale. Wealth from the natural resource-rich

²⁸ “The Rise and Fall of the Bretton Woods Fixed Exchange Rate System,” American Express, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.americanexpress.com/en-us/business/trends-and-insights/articles/the-rise-and-fall-of-the-bretton-woods-fixed-exchange-rate-system/>

²⁹ Eric Helleiner, “Explaining the Globalization of Financial Markets: Bringing States Back In,” *Review of International Political Economy*, Vol. 2, No. 2 (1995): 315-341, <https://www.jstor.org/stable/4177148?seq=1>

³⁰ Vanessa Ogle, “Archipelago Capitalism,” *The American Historical Review* Vol. 122, No. 5 (2017): 1431-1458, <https://www.jstor.org/stable/26580663>

³¹ Sydney P. Freedberg et al., “How America’s biggest law firm drives global wealth into tax havens,” *International Consortium of Investigative Journalists*, October 4, 2021, <https://www.icij.org/investigations/pandora-papers/baker-mckenzie-global-law-firm-offshore-tax-dodging/>

post-communist countries, particularly Russia, flowed into offshore jurisdictions, reinforcing the connection between offshore finance and global corruption.³² Simultaneously, technological innovations in electronic banking made it increasingly easy to move money across borders and obscure ownership through multi-layered legal entities. Jurisdictions including Seychelles, Panama, and Dubai expanded their offerings of secretive legal and financial mechanisms.³³ These mechanisms are used not only to reduce tax burdens but also to launder money, evade sanctions, and conceal illicit funds. Despite the evident international problem, global regulation remains fragmented and largely ineffective.

Increasing International Awareness & 21st Century Challenges

The 21st century has brought heightened public awareness and scrutiny of offshore tax havens, driven mostly by a series of prominent leaks. Firstly, the 2008 global financial crisis intensified pressure on governments to prosecute tax avoidance as they faced increasing budget deficits and public backlash over economic inequality.³⁴ The 2016 Panama Papers, 2017 Paradise Papers, and 2021 Pandora Papers exposed how powerful individuals and multinational corporations were using offshore vehicles such as shell companies, secret trusts, and anonymous bank accounts to shift and conceal wealth. These leaks, based on millions of internal documents from law firms and financial service providers, revealed how deeply embedded tax havens had become in the global economy.³⁵ While some practices disclosed were technically legal, many

³² William H. Buiter et al., “Capital flight and capital outflows from Russia: symptom, cause and cure,” *European Bank*, working paper No. 73 (June 2022), <https://willembuiter.com/cap.pdf>

³³ Policy Department D for Budgetary Affairs, *The Impact of Schemes revealed by the Panama Papers on the Economy and Finances of a Sample of Member States*, European Parliament, April 2017, [https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/STUD/2017/572717/IPOL_STU\(2017\)572717_EN.pdf](https://www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/STUD/2017/572717/IPOL_STU(2017)572717_EN.pdf)

³⁴ “Tax Havens & Financial Crisis,” Tax Justice Network, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://tjn-old.dev.taxjustice.net/topics/finance-sector/tax-havens-financial-crisis/>

³⁵ Emilia Díaz-Struck et al., “Pandora Papers: An offshore data tsunami,” *International Consortium of Investigative Journalists*, October 3, 2021, <https://www.icij.org/investigations/pandora-papers/about-pandora-papers-leak-dataset/>

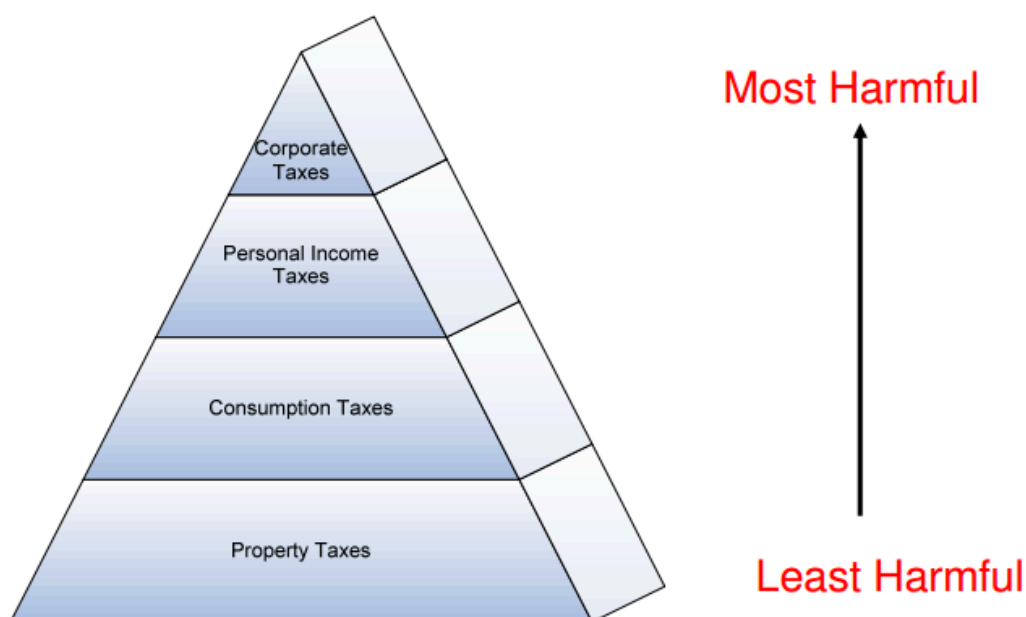
relied on exploiting legal gray zones across jurisdictions. Others crossed into clear violations, including fraud, sanctions evasion, and money laundering.

The scandals revealed how unprepared and under-resourced many national tax authorities were in prosecuting international financial fraud. More broadly, they exposed the extent to which major law firms, accounting networks, and financial institutions actively facilitate this system—designing intentionally opaque legal structures that reduce accountability while ensuring secrecy. In response to mounting global pressure, international organizations launched a number of initiatives aimed at improving financial transparency. The OECD’s **Base Erosion and Profit Shifting (BEPS)** project targeted the strategies that multinational corporations use to shift profits to low- or no-tax jurisdictions.³⁶ The Common Reporting Standard (CRS) established a global framework for the automatic exchange of financial information between tax authorities.³⁷ These reforms mark important steps, but enforcement remains inconsistent, and many tax havens have simply adapted to the new rules with more complex financial tools.

³⁶ “Base erosion and profit shifting (BEPS),” OECD, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.oecd.org/en/topics/policy-issues/base-erosion-and-profit-shifting-beps.html>

³⁷ OECD, *Standard for Automatic Exchange of Financial Account Information in Tax Matters, Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, 2017, https://www.oecd.org/en/publications/standard-for-automatic-exchange-of-financial-account-information-in-tax-matters-second-edition_9789264267992-en.html.

OECD Hierarchy of Taxes: Which tax affects economic growth?



*OECD Graph of Tax Avoidance Effect on Sustainable Development.*³⁸

Despite increasing international awareness and outrage, tax havens have been notably resilient. Many jurisdictions have adapted to new regulations by offering even more complex financial services. Major economies including the United States and the United Kingdom host domestic tax havens with favorable corporate tax structures, such as Delaware and the City of London—complicating global reform efforts and blurring the line between “favorable policy” and “haven”. The modern persistence of tax havens reflects not only an evident obstacle to global equality and sustainable development, but also structural incentives of the international financial system that reward financial secrecy and regulatory arbitrage.

³⁸ Britishfinance, *OECD Hierarchy of Taxes*, image, Wikimedia Commons, November 11, 2018. https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:OECD_Hierarchy_of_Taxes.png.

Past Actions

Throughout the years, actions have been taken in order to address the concerns related to the use of offshore tax havens. Some of these actions have included initiatives by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, standards set by the Financial Action Task Force, European Union tax haven blacklists, and much more.

Base Erosion and Profit Shifting Project

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) is an international organization formed in 1961 that supports policies for economic and social growth for all individuals across the world. The Group of Twenty (G20) is an international forum that concerns itself with solving global economic issues and supporting growth.³⁹ The G20 includes the European Union (EU), the African Union, and nineteen additional countries. The OECD and G20 worked together to address base erosion and profit shifting (BEPS). The “base erosion” part of this strategy involved decreasing the amount of income that would incur high taxes in a certain country by claiming **deductions**.⁴⁰ The “profit shifting” part of this strategy means moving the profits made to a place with lower taxation (like a tax haven) through methods like **transfer pricing**.⁴¹ All in all, this strategy is bad for the countries with high taxes because they lose the revenue that they should be gaining from the business conducted within their borders. This ruins their **tax base**, and the money gained from these taxes are what funds public services like infrastructure, healthcare, and emergency services, thus this base erosion is especially

³⁹ “The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development | OECD,” OECD, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.oecd.org/en.html>.

⁴⁰ Annet Wanyana Oguttu. “Tax Base Erosion and Profit Shifting in Africa – Part 1: Africa’s Response to the OECD BEPS Action Plan,” *The Institute of Development Studies and Partner Organisations*, December 31, 2016, <https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12413/12802>.

⁴¹ Ibid.

detrimental for citizens. In 2013, countries that are a part of the OECD and G20 created a fifteen-point document detailing actions that would curtail BEPS.⁴² The project aimed to ensure taxation is aligned with economic activities. It still does this by creating mutual international tax rules that would offer stability and protection for tax bases and taxpayers alike. The fifteen points in the document aim to address BEPS by implementing transfer pricing documentation, mandated reporting on how corporations report transfer pricing in every country, and more.⁴³ In 2016, a step forward was taken, and the **Inclusive Framework** was made for any country that wishes to participate in it. There are currently more than 100 participating states in this framework that collaborate with the OECD and G20 to create standards that address BEPS and to implement monitoring. The Framework created four minimum standards: Action 5 for harmful tax practices, Action 6 for treaty abuse, Action 13 for country-by-country reporting, and Action 14 for dispute resolution.⁴⁴ The Framework ensures that these standards are being met through monitoring with entities such as the Forum on Harmful Tax Practices (FHTP). In 1998, the OECD created the FHTP to perform reviews on preferential regimes and look for any potential harm that could be done to the tax bases of other countries.⁴⁵ Today, the FHTP also peer reviews the Action 5 framework by sharing information on rulings related to the taxpayer to ensure that there is no BEPS.

⁴² *OECD/G20 Base Erosion and Profit Shifting Project* (OECD), OECD, accessed August 9, 2025, https://www.oecd.org/en/publications/oecd-g20-base-erosion-and-profit-shifting-project_23132612.html.

⁴³ “What is BEPS?” Thomson Reuters, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://tax.thomsonreuters.com/en/beps/what-is-beps>.

⁴⁴ “BEPS Minimum standards,” State Secretariat for International Finance (SIF), August 8, 2023, <https://www.sif.admin.ch/en/beps-minimum-standards>.

⁴⁵ “Harmful tax practices,” OECD, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.oecd.org/en/topics/sub-issues/harmful-tax-practices.html>.



World leaders at the G20 Bali Summit in 2022.⁴⁶

Financial Action Task Force

The Financial Action Task Force (FATF) is an independent inter-governmental body that was created in 1989 as a guard dog against global money laundering and terrorist financing.⁴⁷ The FATF makes international standards and policies in order to stop illegal activity and the use of illicit funds for major crimes. There are 40 members of the FATF, and over 200 countries and jurisdictions have adopted FATF standards in an effort to prevent organized crime.⁴⁸ The standards take the form of FATF Recommendations, which include, but are not limited to, deeming money laundering illegal, requiring transaction records from financial institutions, mandating the reporting of suspicious transactions by all financial institutions, and providing

⁴⁶ Executive Office of the President of the United States, *President Biden Talked to Ursula von der Leyen During a Meeting of the 2022 G-20 Bali Summit*, image, Picryl, November 16, 2022, <https://picryl.com/media/president-biden-talked-to-ursula-von-der-leyen-during-a-meeting-of-the-2022-e239f2>.

⁴⁷ “Who we are,” FATF, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.fatf-gafi.org/en/the-fatf/who-we-are.html>.

⁴⁸ Ibid.

mutual legal assistance between countries for investigations of money laundering and terrorist financing.⁴⁹

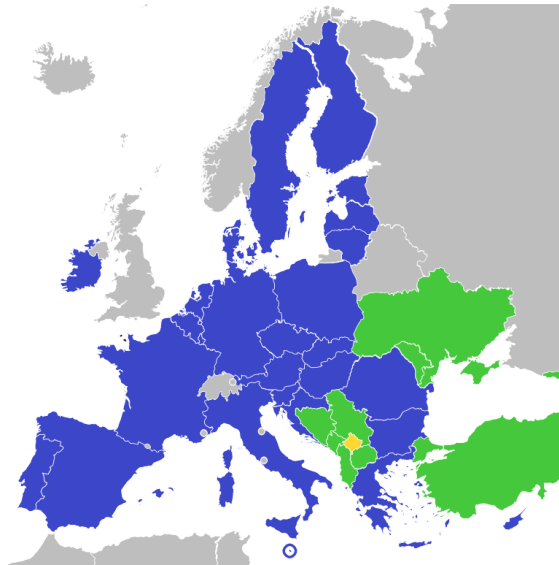
List of Non-Cooperative Jurisdictions for Tax Purposes

The Council of the European Union created a list of non-cooperative countries for tax reasons on October 8, 2024. The eleven countries on the list include American Samoa, Anguilla, Fiji, Guam, Palau, Panama, Russia, Samoa, Trinidad and Tobago, U.S. Virgin Islands, and Vanuatu; these countries did not meet the standards for compliance with **tax good governance** criteria within a certain time or simply did not take any action to do so.⁵⁰ By watching these countries and creating this list, the EU is improving methods of tax good governance, making taxation fairer, and increasing global tax transparency. This list ended up being released as an annex to conclusions made by the ECOFIN Council of the EU—aiming to push these countries to change their tax laws for the better.⁵¹

⁴⁹“International Standards on Combating Money Laundering and the Financing of Terrorism & Proliferation,” FATF, last modified June 2025, www.fatf-gafi.org/en/publications/Fatfrecommendations/Fatf-recommendations.html.

⁵⁰ “EU list of non-cooperative jurisdictions for tax purposes,” Council of the European Union, last modified February 18, 2025, <https://www.consilium.europa.eu/en/policies/eu-list-of-non-cooperative-jurisdictions/>.

⁵¹ Ibid.



European Union member states (blue), candidates (green), and potential candidates (yellow).⁵²

Common Reporting Standard

The Common Reporting Standard (CRS) was created by the OECD in 2014 at the behest of the G20 to stop tax evasion.⁵³ It is an information standard for the **Automatic Exchange of Information (AEOI)** for finance. The United States Foreign Tax Compliance Act (FATCA) is related to this in that it requires foreign financial institutions to report on what foreign assets their U.S. account holders have.⁵⁴ Both AEOI under the CRS and FATCA have tax administrations sharing major amounts of information on financial accounts.⁵⁵ They help both governments and financial institutions ensure that standards are being met. Overall, the CRS asks countries to

⁵² European Union member states and candidates v3., infographic, Wikimedia Commons, accessed August 9, 2025, https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?title=File:European_Union_member_states_and_candidates_v3.svg&oldid=1000952470.

⁵³ “Common Reporting Standard Frequently Asked Questions,” Morgan Stanley, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.morganstanley.com/content/dam/msdotcom/atwork/support/pdfs/crs-faq.pdf>.

⁵⁴ “Foreign Account Tax Compliance Act (FATCA),” IRS, last modified December 4, 2024, <https://www.irs.gov/businesses/corporations/foreign-account-tax-compliance-act-fatca>.

⁵⁵ OECD, Automatic Exchange of Information: Guide on Promoting and Assessing Compliance by Financial Institutions, OECD Publishing, 2020, <https://doi.org/10.1787/7655bed0-en>.

collect information from financial institutions and share it with other countries annually.⁵⁶ With this constant flow of information, it is harder for financial assets and income to be hidden in offshore accounts, which increases transparency and ultimately helps prevent tax evasion.

Common Reporting Standard (CRS) Objectives	
OBJECTIVES	DESCRIPTION
Enhancing Tax Transparency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Facilitates Automatic Exchange of Financial Information Identifies Undeclared Offshore Assets/Income
Combatting Tax Evasion and Tax Fraud	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Deters Evasion by Sharing Financial Information Enables Detection/Pursuit of Evaders Promotes Fairness



Objectives of the Common Reporting Standard.⁵⁷

⁵⁶ OECD, *Standard for Automatic Exchange of Financial Account Information in Tax Matters, Second Edition*, OECD Publishing, 2017, https://www.oecd.org/en/publications/standard-for-automatic-exchange-of-financial-account-information-in-tax-matters-second-edition_9789264267992-en.html.

⁵⁷ True Tamplin, *Common Reporting Standards (CRS) Objectives*, in “Common Reporting Standard (CRS),” infographic, Finance Strategists, last modified on July 12, 2023, <https://www.financestrategists.com/tax/tax-planning/common-reporting-standard-crs/>.

Possible Solutions

The first possible solution that would increase tax transparency is strengthening international regulatory cooperation. Something similar to this is the list that the EU created, calling out the countries that did not comply with tax good governance criteria. Methods like this would encourage countries to cooperate with the criteria, and strengthening cooperation would mean expanding sanctions against countries that have not complied. These sanctions could include asset freezes, travel bans, and trade restrictions.⁵⁸ These sanctions and trade penalties could help change the behavior of non-cooperative jurisdictions and warn others of what could happen if they do not cooperate. There could also be a creation of binding multilateral treaties that target financial secrecy by having multiple countries agree to punish the hiding of assets. These treaties would ensure that the involved states watch out for tax avoidance, which would increase global tax transparency.

Additionally, **global beneficial ownership registries** could be created to identify ultimate asset holders. By identifying the people in charge and what assets they own, they can be held accountable for potential money laundering or tax evasion. The FATF had global beneficial ownership standards as a part of its recommendations made in 2022.⁵⁹ Creating databases would further transparency because it allows countries to take an even closer look at the taxes being paid by corporate ownership.

Finally, another possible solution would be to support capacity building for developing states in order to improve domestic financial regulation and enforcement. Capacity building is the process of improving the skills, knowledge, processes, and resources that are needed by

⁵⁸ “What are sanctions?” Government Offices of Sweden, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.government.se/government-policy/foreign-and-security-policy/international-sanctions/what-are-sanctions/>.

⁵⁹ FATF, Guidance on Beneficial Ownership for Legal Persons, FATF, March 10, 2023, <https://www.fatf-gafi.org/en/publications/Fatfrecommendations/Guidance-Beneficial-Ownership-Legal-Persons.html>.

jurisdictions to survive, develop, adapt, and succeed.⁶⁰ Countries that have more knowledge and resources on financial regulation and enforcement could share these with developing countries to help strengthen their regulation programs. These developing countries could be invited to join and adopt these treaties that target financial secrecy. Giving these countries a seat at the table where these treaties and lists are made will show them the methods that have succeeded in financial regulation and enforcement of standards. This will help improve global tax transparency because more countries will know how to ensure they are collecting all the revenue they should from the business being conducted in their area and ultimately protect their tax bases.

⁶⁰ “Capacity-Building,” United Nations, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.un.org/en/academic-impact/capacity-building>.

Bloc Positions

Offshore Financial Centers

Offshore financial centers are states with many financial institutions that are conducting business with non-citizens or non-residents of the state.⁶¹ These states generally provide some combination of low taxation, no taxation, less regulation of finances, and decreased transparency in banking. Some countries that are classified as offshore financial centers include the Cayman Islands, the British Virgin Islands, Singapore, and Vanuatu.⁶² These countries would attract individuals who want to conceal their potentially illicit financial activities, and the business of these individuals would, in turn, help the industries of these states. Therefore, these countries would have a collective interest in preventing the regulation of finances in order to benefit the people who are bringing capital to their industries. Together, these states would be generally opposed to any major regulatory reforms due to the harm that they could bring to their industries.

Developed Countries with Divided Interests

Developed countries, such as the United States and European Union member states, may have conflicting views on what actions to take on offshore tax havens. States like these both benefit from offshore flows, but these states could also find it useful to push for reform in order to secure their domestic tax bases. For example, the United States has both benefits and disadvantages when it comes to offshore tax havens. United States law allows for non-citizens to make anonymous investments in the country, which allows them to make significant wealth

⁶¹ “Monetary and Exchange Affairs Department of the International Monetary Fund, “Offshore Financial Centers IMF Background Paper,” International Monetary Fund, June 23, 2000, <https://www.imf.org/external/np/mae/oshore/2000/eng/back.htm>.

⁶² “Glossary: List of offshore financial centres,” Eurostat, accessed August 9, 2025, https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Glossary:List_of_offshore_financial_centres.

gains without getting taxed on their assets.⁶³ These anonymous investments help the American economy. On the other hand, if American citizens are using offshore tax havens to avoid paying taxes in the United States, then the United States is losing revenue that could be used to help fund the government. This is just one example of developed countries that have both pros and cons to the use of offshore tax havens, and many will have a collective interest in discussing the best path forward for ensuring that their economies remain supported by eliminating tax avoidance and revenue loss.

Developing Nations

Developing nations, such as nations in the African Union and small island nations, would have a common interest in the regulation of offshore tax havens. These developing nations may experience instability due to the fact that they may be more prone to experiencing capital flight—meaning these nations would lose out on revenue that could be collected from the taxes on that wealth. In order to stop capital flight and prevent further revenue loss, these developing nations could work together to make a strong push for greater transparency. This would diminish and prevent the detrimental effects of offshore tax havens on these nations.

International Organizations

International organizations, such as the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, United Nations, Financial Action Task Force, and International Monetary Fund, already have a history of pushing for regulations that attempt to diminish the harmful effects of

⁶³ Daniel J. Hemel, "The United States as the Ultimate Tax Haven: Testimony Before the House Ways and Means Subcommittee on Oversight", *Public Law and Legal Theory Working Paper Series*, No. 793 (2022). <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3980787>.

offshore tax havens. Together, these organizations advocate for strengthened global regulatory frameworks and the sharing of information on assets in order to increase transparency as a whole. Increasing transparency would allow for a closer look at the financial activities of wealthy individuals in order to ensure no illicit activity, such as tax avoidance, is occurring. Countries that are a part of these international organizations would be a part of the group that pushes for these regulatory measures.

The bloc positions here serve as a guiding framework for how groups could fit into committee. This is not an exhaustive list of blocs that could be formed. Delegates are encouraged to create new ideas for bloc formation and solutions and should utilize their own creativity and collaboration skills to form blocs and solutions that are equitable for all countries involved.

Glossary

Automatic Exchange of Information (AEOI) - The sharing of information by tax administrations across borders.

Base Erosion and Profit Shifting (BEPS) - Tax planning strategies that international corporations use to exploit loopholes in tax rules to move profits to low or no-tax locations as a way to avoid paying tax.

Bretton Woods System - A system established in 1944, where countries fixed their currencies' values relative to the US dollar, which was convertible to gold, allowing for limited adjustments based on economic conditions. It was intended to bring stability to monetary systems across the world.

Capital Flight - A phenomenon characterized by large outflows of assets and/or capital from a country due to some events, resulting in negative economic consequences to that country.

Decentralized Finance - An emerging peer-to-peer financial system that uses blockchain and cryptocurrencies to allow people, businesses, or other entities to transact directly with each other in order to remove third parties like banks from the financial system, thereby reducing costs and transaction times.

Deductions - An amount you subtract from your income when you file your taxes, so you don't pay tax on it and thus lower your taxes. Examples include home mortgage interests, money you put in your health savings account, and more.

Due Diligence - Reasonable steps taken by a person in order to satisfy a legal requirement, especially in buying or selling something.

Eurodollar - Bank deposit liabilities expressed in U.S. dollars but not subject to U.S. banking regulations.

Global Beneficial Ownership Registries - Databases of public knowledge on the people who own a company.

Inclusive Framework - A plan by the OECD and G20 to have large international corporations pay their fair share of taxes in the countries where they do business through monitoring of the implementation of all the BEPS Actions and annual reports to the G20 on progress. Some of these actions in this framework include addressing harmful tax practices, treaty abuse, country-by-country reporting, and dispute resolution.

International Monetary Fund - A global organization and specialized agency of the United Nations working to achieve sustainable growth and prosperity for all of its 191 member countries by supporting economic policies that promote financial stability and monetary cooperation

Offshore Financial Centers - States with a lot of financial institutions that are conducting business with non-citizens or non-residents of the state.

Oligarchical - A small group of people having control of a country, organization, or institution.

Piecemeal Legislation - The practice of addressing complex issues through a series of small, incremental laws or policies rather than a comprehensive overhaul.

Preferential Tax Regimes - Jurisdictions where the level of income tax is lower in comparison with other jurisdictions and sometimes offer unique tax benefits.

Shell Companies - A corporation without active business operations or significant assets that are not all necessarily illegal.

Tax Base - The total amount of income, property, assets, consumption, transactions, or other economic activity subject to taxation by a tax authority.

Tax Base Erosion - The destruction of the total amount of income that a jurisdiction has due to the shifting of profits from higher-tax jurisdictions to lower-tax jurisdictions.

Tax Good Governance - The practice of ensuring fair, transparent, and good behavior in taxes by individuals, governments, and corporations.

Transfer Pricing - A technique used by multinational corporations to shift profits out of the countries where they operate and into tax havens.

World Bank - An international development organization owned by 189 countries with the goal of reducing poverty by lending money to the governments of its poorer members to improve their economies and to improve the standard of living of their people.

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TOPIC B: ADDRESSING GENDER INCOME INEQUALITY

Statement of the Problem

The phrase “gender income inequality” refers to the disparity in earnings between workers of different genders. While this issue is most commonly discussed as the pay gap between men and women, with men earning more on average, it is important to recognize that this is a problem that expands over a much broader spectrum of genders. As this committee explores the issue of gender income inequality, it will explore how it affects all gender identities, including non-binary, transgender, and other gender minorities, whose experiences have historically been underrepresented in economic data, leading to a lack of visibility and, consequently, a lack of protections in policy.

Global Overview

The difference in earnings between men and women is the most researched aspect of this topic and remains a strong indicator of discrimination within labor markets. As of 2025, the wage gap is estimated to be around 20% globally, meaning that, on average, women earn 80 cents for every dollar earned by men.⁶⁴ However, this figure looks different across nations and regions. For example, as of 2025, South Korea holds an exceptionally high gap at 31.2% and, in Azerbaijan and Benin, the gender wage gap is greater than 40%.⁶⁵ In contrast, Luxembourg reports a reverse gap of -0.7%, meaning women end up earning more than men.⁶⁶ However, this

⁶⁴ “International Equal Pay Day,” United Nations, accessed August 18, 2025, <https://www.un.org/en/observances/equal-pay-day>.

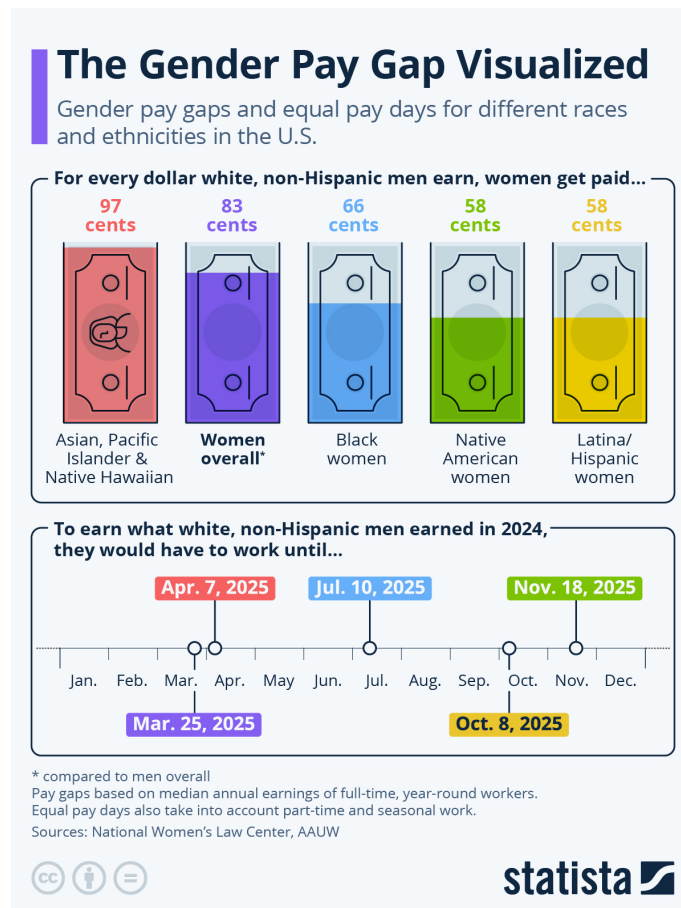
⁶⁵ “ITUC Economic and Social Policy Brief: The Gender Wage Gap” International Trade Union Confederation, accessed August 18, 2025, https://www.ituc-csi.org/IMG/pdf/the_gender_wage_gap_en.pdf.

⁶⁶ Michael Holder, “Gender Pay Gap Statistics 2025: A Comprehensive Analysis,” Equal Pay Today, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.equalpaytoday.org/gender-pay-gap-statistics/>.

reverse gap is very rare, and global trends point to income inequality remaining a persistent issue across the international world and affecting nearly every country. These low wages lead to women having a higher risk of poverty and lower social security entitlements, leaving them especially vulnerable as they get older. In the EU alone, women have **pensions** that are around 37% less than men's.⁶⁷ Despite the efforts in some countries to close this gap, concrete change is slow. Estimates show that, at the current speed, gender differences in pay will not close until at least 2069, given that the trends continue to operate on an upward trajectory.⁶⁸ Gender income inequality is a pressing issue worldwide and demands solutions for global fairness and the eradication of gender-based discrimination.

⁶⁷ "ITUC Economic and Social Policy Brief: The Gender Wage Gap" International Trade Union Confederation, accessed August 18, 2025, https://www.ituc-csi.org/IMG/pdf/the_gender_wage_gap_en.pdf.

⁶⁸ "Take Five: At the Current Rate of Progress, No Equal Pay until 2069," UN Women, February 24, 2017, <https://www.unwomen.org/en/news/stories/2017/2/take-five-chidi-king-equal-pay>.



*The Gender Pay Gap Visualized.*⁶⁹

Intersectionality

Understanding the issue of gender income inequality requires an understanding of **intersectionality**, the way in which gender issues interact with other social aspects such as race, age, etc. These identities tend to overlap and compound the disadvantages faced in regards to income. The economic disparities faced by women have been shown to increase based on race and age. In predominately white nations, women of color earn significantly less than white women. For example, in the United States in 2022, Black, Hispanic, and Native American

⁶⁹ Buchholz, Katharina, “The Gender Pay Gap Visualized,” infographic, Statista, March 8, 2023. <https://www.statista.com/chart/3958/gender-pay-gap-by-ethnicity/>.

women faced the harshest difference in earnings, with Black women earning 70% as much as white men and Hispanic women earning only 65% as much (white women and Asian women faced less severe disparities, with their ratios standing at 83% and 93%, respectively).⁷⁰ Native American women earned only 51 cents for every dollar a man made.⁷¹ The disadvantages faced by women of color appear across other predominately white countries as well. In 2016, Canada reported that women of color earned less than their white counterparts, with Arab and West Asian women earning only 53% of what white, Canadian-born men did.⁷² In 2021, the United Kingdom reported that women born outside of the UK faced a much higher pay penalty than British-born women.⁷³ These gaps reflect deeper structural disadvantages and biases within workforces, from hiring to compensation. Income inequality is not just a gender issue but it is also a racial and ethnic one, influenced by systemic power structures and historical discrimination.

⁷⁰ Rakesh Kochhar, “The Enduring Grip of the Gender Pay Gap,” *Pew Research Center*, March 1, 2023, <https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2023/03/01/the-enduring-grip-of-the-gender-pay-gap/>.

⁷¹ “More than a 51-Cent Problem: Native Women and the Gender Pay Gap,” NCAI, March 1, 2024, <https://www.ncai.org/news/podcast-more-than-a-51-cent-problem-native-women-and-the-gender-pay-gap>.

⁷² Aneta Bonikowska, “Gender Earnings Ratio Differences among Population Groups in Canada,” *Economic and Social Reports* 4 (11), November 27, 2024, <https://doi.org/10.25318/36280001202401100003-eng>.

⁷³ Strategy&, “Ethnicity Pay Gap Report 2021,” PwC, accessed August 9, 2025., <https://www.strategyand.pwc.com/uk/en/insights/ethnicity-pay-gap-report-2021.html>.

The unadjusted gender pay gap by age (%), 2023

	< 25 years	25 - 34	35 - 44	45 - 54	55 - 64	65 years +
Belgium ^(*)	-8.3	-5.0	-0.1	1.2	8.0	7.7
Bulgaria	6.9	16.8	21.0	14.3	2.9	-8.7
Czechia ^(*)	8.2	13.0	21.1	20.9	13.0	8.3
Denmark	5.7	11.1	14.2	17.0	16.9	10.6
Germany	1.7	8.4	16.4	22.8	26.3	9.2
Greece	-4.4	6.1	12.5	15.9	19.2	25.1
Ireland	1.0	4.9	8.5	11.1	13.2	9.1
Spain	0.4	2.9	8.7	10.8	12.6	33.3
France	-7.2	5.7	11.9	14.4	21.4	17.3
Croatia	3.9	6.4	9.4	11.3	5.8	6.4
Italy	8.3	2.7	4.4	4.5	3.3	7.7
Cyprus	4.4	8.9	6.3	14.3	25.7	29.7
Latvia	9.9	14.7	18.5	14.5	11.5	9.0
Lithuania	13.9	9.8	10.9	9.9	5.3	4.3
Hungary	7.1	15.0	22.1	20.1	14.5	13.2
Malta	-2.0	-4.3	6.6	12.5	16.0	8.6
Netherlands	2.1	1.7	7.4	16.6	19.2	14.3
Poland	6.1	8.8	13.2	9.9	-5.7	4.7
Portugal	8.2	8.3	11.1	12.2	4.5	6.0
Romania	2.7	2.5	6.4	0.3	-3.6	-19.6
Slovenia	6.6	7.6	8.5	7.3	4.0	8.7
Slovakia	7.7	11.9	19.3	17.7	12.4	17.6
Finland	-0.5	9.6	14.9	19.1	18.7	20.3
Sweden	5.4	7.0	11.7	15.3	14.2	8.6
Iceland	0.6	4.0	9.5	14.9	14.9	10.6
Norway ^(*)	1.2	6.2	12.2	16.2	17.6	16.7
Switzerland	3.6	6.0	13.1	23.1	25.2	27.7

(.) not available

Note: For all the countries except Czechia: data for enterprises employing 10 or more employees, NACE Rev. 2 B to S (-0); for Czechia: enterprises employing 1 or more employees, NACE Rev. 2 B to S;

Data breakdown by age not available for EE, LU, AT

Gender pay gap data for 2023 are provisional until benchmark figures, taken from the Structure of Earnings survey, become available in

(*) Definition differs (see metadata)

(*) Confidential data: BE : 65 years+.

Source: Eurostat (online data code: earn_gr_gpgr2ag)

eurostat

The unadjusted gender pay gap by age (%).⁷⁴

Age is another significant factor. The existing pay gap for women tends to widen as they age. The European Union reported in 2023 that income inequality for younger women is much less severe than for older women, with women under 34 seeing the least intense disparity in income compared to men.⁷⁵ Non-EU nations report similar findings. In 2022, the United States reported that women in the range of 25-34 years are more likely to earn more than any other age group of women.⁷⁶ A 2023 study in China reported that the wage gap between men and women increases by an average of 0.79% for every year of age for women.⁷⁷ Across many countries, income inequality does not affect all women equally. There is a clear bias for younger women

⁷⁴ *Gender Pay Gap Statistics*, table, Eurostat, accessed August 9, 2025, https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Gender_pay_gap_statistics#Gender_pay_gap_much_lower_for_young_employees.

⁷⁵ Ibid.

⁷⁶ Rakesh Kochhar, "The Enduring Grip of the Gender Pay Gap," *Pew Research Center*, March 1, 2023, <https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2023/03/01/the-enduring-grip-of-the-gender-pay-gap/>.

⁷⁷ Jing Liu et al., "Retirement Policy, Employment Status, and Gender Pay Gap in Urban China," *Journal of Asian Economics* 85 (April): 101587, April 2023, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asieco.2023.101587>.

that leaves older women with the most disadvantages, and these disadvantages only grow in size as women age.

These numbers indicate that gender-based discrimination in the workforce is a long-term issue and reflects the complexity of the issue. In order to successfully target and eradicate this issue, it is crucial to understand and find solutions to the compounding, intersectional variables that disproportionately affect women based on their race, age, migration status, and more.

Other Gender Identities

While data on gender minorities other than cisgender women is limited, research has so far indicated that nonbinary and transgender workers face a substantial inequality in income, suffering from both high unemployment rates and wage discrimination. The Human Rights Campaign reports that transgender, non-binary, genderqueer, genderfluid and two-spirit workers earn around 70 cents for every average dollar a cisgender worker makes in the United States, with transgender women seeing the most severe difference at just 60 cents.⁷⁸ As with cisgender women, this wage gap worsens for gender minorities of color. Transgender people of color suffer from higher rates of poverty and discrimination in labor markets than their white counterparts. Given the lack of research, the experiences of nonbinary and transgender workers tend to suffer from a lack of visibility, leading to a lack of protection in formal policies and legislature has failed. In a world of gender diversity, there is an urgent need to both collect more inclusive data and work toward more inclusive laws where all genders are economically respected and compensated equally and fairly.

⁷⁸ HRC Foundation, “The Wage Gap among LGBTQ+ Workers in the United States.” Human Rights Campaign, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.hrc.org/resources/the-wage-gap-among-lgbtq-workers-in-the-united-states>.

Economic Implications

Gender income inequality does not just affect individual livelihoods but has also been shown to have significant adverse effects on a nation's economy. Limiting the earning potential of around half of the population reduces household incomes and restricts consumer spending. Less spending means fewer sales for businesses, which slows down a nation's economy. Furthermore, limited wages mean that gender minorities contribute less to taxes and social security programs, forcing governments to spend more on public services. A 2018 study done by the World Bank Group found that, for the 141 countries analyzed, the loss in **human capital wealth** due to gender inequality was estimated at \$160.2 trillion, which is about twice the value of **GDP** globally.⁷⁹ Global GDPs stand to gain trillions of dollars if nations were to pay all genders equal wages. Lessening the pay gap would increase participation in the labor force and strengthen economies worldwide. Addressing and seeking solutions for gender income inequality has not just social benefits but clear economic ones. In order to both guarantee all genders fair treatment in the workforce and maximize the growth of a nation's economy, it is imperative to implement effective solutions to close the wage gap and eliminate gender income inequality.

⁷⁹ "Unrealized Potential: The High Cost of Gender Inequality in Earnings," World Bank Group, May 30, 2018, <https://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/gender/publication/unrealized-potential-the-high-cost-of-gender-inequality-in-earnings>.

History of the Problem

Educational Differences

In the past, the disparity of education between genders was used to explain the consequential income inequality. Women especially have suffered historical barriers to education, being barred from formal education for years after men. Universities would often spend the first years of their founding as male-only before finally opening their doors to women for equal access—degrees from the University of Oxford were only offered to men for the first six centuries of its existence, and Yale University had been operating for nearly 300 years before admitting women to its undergraduate college, to name a couple of examples.^{80,81} Women's education consistently comes secondary to men's. Even as of 2019, UNESCO reported that many countries, such as Afghanistan, Angola, and Chad, suffer from a strong disparity in school enrollment for men and women, with men enrolling at much higher rates.⁸² Too many women remain out of school and, consequently, their future employment options are much more limited than their educated counterparts. While this has certainly explained the gender wage gap in the past and is likely still a significant contributor for countries that struggle to educate women, the worldwide education disparity has been shown to be shrinking in many nations.⁸³ However, in nations that are seeing good gender equality in terms of education, their income inequality does not shrink at the same rate, meaning that education is no longer a satisfactory explanation for why men are earning more. Rather, occupation appears to be a much more accurate explanation for the shortcomings of wages for gender minorities.

⁸⁰ ““Lectures for Ladies”” Museum of Oxford. December 14, 2021, <https://museumofoxford.org/lectures-for-ladies/>.

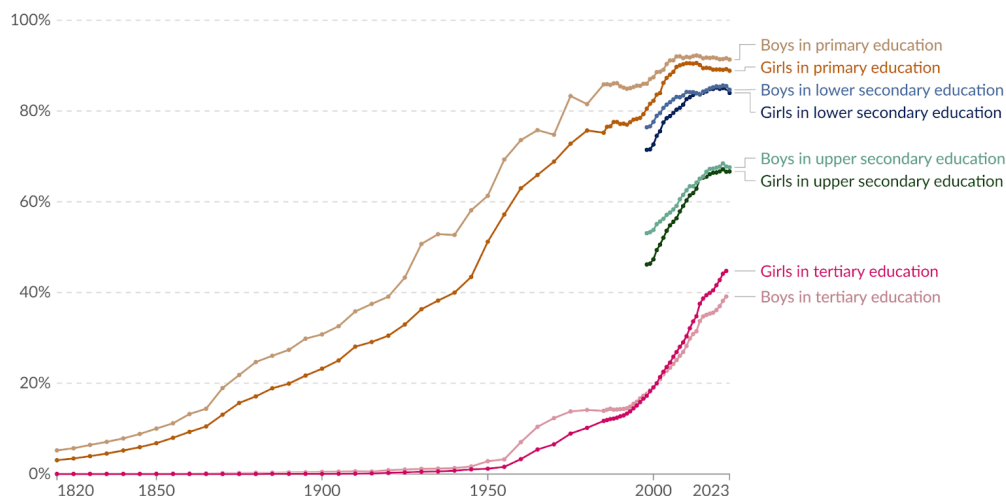
⁸¹ Ashley Fetters, “Yale’s First Women Changed Their School amid a Changing America,” *The Atlantic*, September 22, 2019, <https://www.theatlantic.com/education/archive/2019/09/first-undergraduate-women-yale/598216/>.

⁸² “School Enrollment, Primary (%)” World Bank Group, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://genderdata.worldbank.org/en/indicator/se-prm-enrr>.

⁸³ “Average Years of Schooling, Adjusted Gender Parity Index,” Our World in Data, 2025, <https://ourworldindata.org/grapher/gender-ratios-for-mean-years-of-schooling?time=latest>.

Gender gap in primary, secondary and tertiary education, World

Share of boys or girls within the relevant age group who are enrolled in primary¹, lower secondary², upper secondary³, and tertiary⁴ education.



Data source: Multiple sources compiled by World Bank (2024); Lee and Lee (2016); UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2025)

Note: This is given as the 'gross' rate, which includes children of any age entering the level of education; this can result in percentages greater than 100 because children may enter education late or repeat a year.

OurWorldinData.org/global-education | CC BY

Gender gap in primary, secondary and tertiary education, 1820–2023.⁸⁴

Occupational Differences

All over the world, women tend to be overrepresented in low-paying jobs that give them more flexibility because they tend to do a lot more unpaid domestic labor than men, which requires them to have flexible hours to attend to these responsibilities.⁸⁵ American economist Claudia Goldin explores this link using data from the United States, finding that women disproportionately seek jobs, both part-time and full-time, that are compatible with family responsibilities such as raising children.⁸⁶ Because of this, women are expected to have

⁸⁴ *Gender Gap in Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education, World*, infographic, Our World in Data, accessed August 9, 2025. <https://ourworldindata.org/grapher/gender-gap-education-levels?time=earliest..latest>.

⁸⁵ “Female-To-Male Ratio of Time Devoted to Unpaid Care Work,” Our World in Data, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://ourworldindata.org/grapher/female-to-male-ratio-of-time-devoted-to-unpaid-care-work>.

⁸⁶ Claudia Goldin, “A Grand Gender Convergence: Its Last Chapter,” *American Economic Review*, 104 (4): 1091–1119, April 4, 2014, <https://www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/aer.104.4.1091>.

flexibility and find jobs that allow for shifting hours of work or rearranging shifts to accommodate sudden situations at home. Jobs with this amount of flexibility tend to be lower earning per hour, even when the total number of hours worked is the same. This is further proven when the data shows that, over the last couple of decades, women in the United States increased their participation only in the fields that made technological advancements that allowed the positions to become more flexible, such as pharmaceuticals.⁸⁷

The ‘Motherhood Penalty’

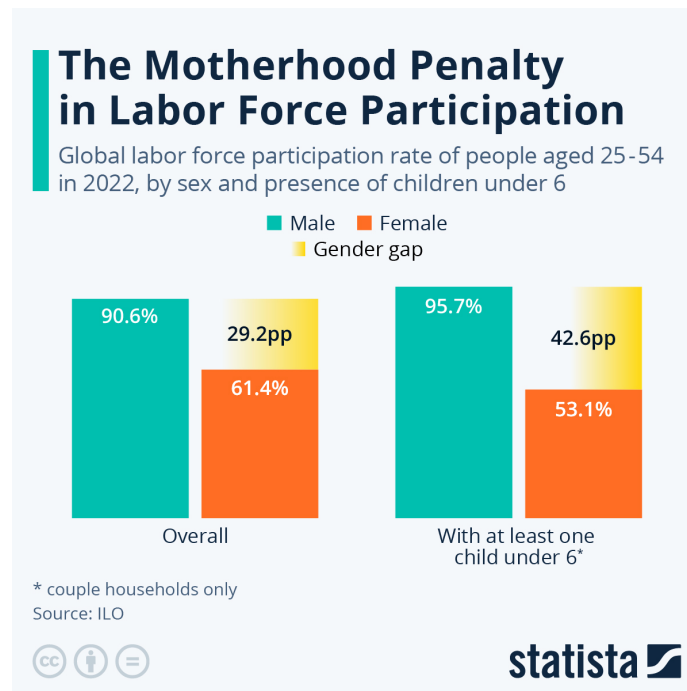
The issue of work interruptions due to motherhood is a very prominent occurrence. This is referred to as the ‘**motherhood penalty**.’ A 2017 study done in Denmark concluded that women who have children earn persistently less because of having children, explaining the decline in their annual earnings by women working less when their children are young and then getting paid less when their children are older.⁸⁸ This study also explained the decline in their hourly earnings by women moving to lower-paid jobs that are closer to home in order to stay closer to their children.⁸⁹ A 2018 study explains that this phenomenon is called the ‘motherhood penalty’ and not the ‘parenthood penalty’ because data on men and women over the period 1980–2013 in Denmark found that, after the first child, women’s earnings took a steep drop that never fully recovered while men with children and women without children did not exhibit this same drop.⁹⁰

⁸⁷ Ibid.

⁸⁸ Petter Lundborg et al., “Can Women Have Children and a Career? IV Evidence from IVF Treatments.” *American Economic Review*, 107 (6): 1611–37, June 6, 2017, <https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.20141467>.

⁸⁹ Ibid.

⁹⁰ Henrik Kleven et al., “Children and Gender Inequality: Evidence from Denmark.” *National Bureau of Economic Research*, January 1, 2018. <https://www.nber.org/papers/w24219#fromrss>.



*The Motherhood Penalty in Labor Force Participation.*⁹¹

It is important to note that both of these data sets come from Denmark, a nation that has many legal guarantees that protect women from losing their jobs after giving birth and ranks high in overall gender equality.⁹² This shows that, despite family-friendly policies improving mothers' participation in the labor force, they cannot solve the problem on their own, as the issue continues to persist even in nations like Denmark. Even when generous paid leave is offered and childcare is subsidized, inequities in pay continue to disproportionately affect mothers.

⁹¹ Felix Richter, "The Motherhood Penalty in Labor Force Participation," infographic, Statista, May 12, 2023, <https://www.statista.com/chart/29990/gender-gap-in-labor-force-participation/>.

⁹² "Gender Development Index," Our World in Data, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://ourworldindata.org/grapher/gender-development-index>.

Social and Legal Gender Roles

To explain the gender differences in occupations, in the past, a common argument was that there are biological differences in preferences and abilities that lead women to pick more flexible jobs and deal with more unpaid domestic labor. This argument, however, has very little support, as discussed in a review of evidence done in 2017.⁹³ Observed gender differences are not biologically fixed and are better explained by ‘**social gendering**’ that imposes stereotypical gender roles early in life—stereotypes that discourage women from pursuing skills used in high-paying jobs and encourage them to pursue motherhood.

Occupational differences between men and women were historically attributed not just to social roles but also institutional barriers. In 1970, only six countries prohibited gender discrimination in employment, a number that has been growing over the years but holds decades of hiring inequality toward gender minorities.⁹⁴ For example, women only began to obtain medical degrees and practice medicine in the mid-19th century across various nations worldwide. In present day Afghanistan, women are still explicitly banned from medical training and practice.⁹⁵ When gender minorities are legally barred from taking on the same jobs as men, their wages will reflect those differences.

⁹³ Francine D. Blau, “The Gender Wage Gap: Extent, Trends, and Explanations.” *Journal of Economic Literature* 55 (3): 789–865., September 2017, <https://www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/jel.20160995>.

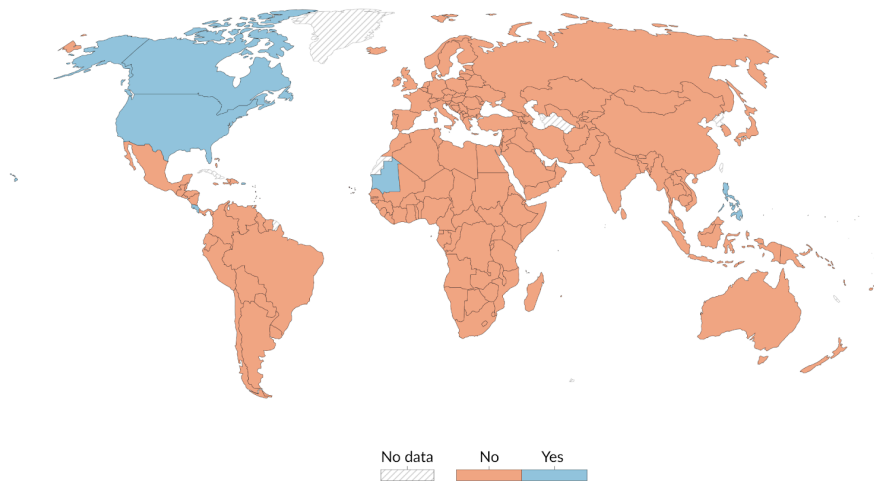
⁹⁴ “Employment Discrimination Based on Gender Prohibited,” Our World in Data, 2020, <https://ourworldindata.org/grapher/law-mandate-nondiscrimination-hiring?tab=table>.

⁹⁵ Sahar Fetrat, “Afghanistan’s Taliban Ban Medical Training for Women.” Human Rights Watch. December 3, 2024. <https://www.hrw.org/news/2024/12/03/afghanistans-taliban-ban-medical-training-women>.

Employment discrimination based on gender prohibited, 1970

The law prohibits employers from discriminating based on sex or gender, or mandates equal treatment of women and men in employment.

Our World
in Data



Data source: World Bank - Women, Business and the Law (2024)

OurWorldinData.org/women-rights | CC BY

Employment discrimination based on gender prohibited, 1970.⁹⁶

Married women faced additional challenges that restricted their employment opportunities in the 20th century when policies adopted by firms and school boards to not hire married women and fire single women when they married.⁹⁷ Around the time the United States entered World War II, an estimated 87% of school boards would not hire a married woman and 70% would not continue to employ a woman who got married while employed.⁹⁸ This becomes especially constricting when considering that unmarried women in the United States historically faced many restrictions. Women were not able to open a bank account without having a male-cosigner present, which was usually a husband, and this made it more difficult for

⁹⁶ Employment Discrimination Based on Gender Prohibited,” Our World in Data, 2020, <https://ourworldindata.org/grapher/law-mandate-nondiscrimination-hiring?tab=table>.

⁹⁷ Claudia Goldin, “Marriage Bars: Discrimination against Married Women Workers, 1920’s to 1950’s.” *National Bureau of Economic Research*, October 1988,

https://www.nber.org/system/files/working_papers/w2747/w2747.pdf.

⁹⁸ Ibid.

unmarried women.⁹⁹ These legal restrictions coupled with societal expectations gave women strong reasons to get married, only for their employment to suffer because of their marital status. No matter what path women took, married or unmarried, they experienced the institutional consequences that suppressed their financial independence and earnings.

Other Gender Minorities

A prominent issue with looking into the history of the wage gap for gender minorities other than cisgender women is that there is much less data reported for this demographic, especially over a long period of time. Most data is fairly recent, but it is still vital to examine, especially when looking for future solutions. A common economic struggle reported amongst gender minorities is unemployment. Previous research has found that LGBTQ+ people are more likely to be unemployed or underemployed compared to their straight and cisgender peers, and, historically, this difference was made most apparent during the COVID-19 pandemic.¹⁰⁰ During the pandemic, LGBTQ+ people faced a sharp increase in unemployment and research has shown that the economic consequences of the pandemic are heightened for LGBTQ+ people compared to the general adult population.¹⁰¹ With these numbers in mind, The Human Rights Campaign estimates that the history of the wage gap for non-cisgender gender minorities is still being written and is moving in the opposite direction of progress, showing signs that it is widening rather than closing.¹⁰² Compared to cisgender women, who see an increase in pay equality that is

⁹⁹ Mary Mannion, “Women in Wealth throughout History: A United States Timeline,” J.P. Morgan Wealth Management, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.chase.com/personal/investments/learning-and-insights/article/women-in-wealth-throughout-history-a-united-states-timeline>.

¹⁰⁰ HRC Foundation, “The Wage Gap among LGBTQ+ Workers in the United States.” Human Rights Campaign, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.hrc.org/resources/the-wage-gap-among-lgbtq-workers-in-the-united-states>.

¹⁰¹ Human Rights Campaign Foundation and PSB Insights, “COVID-19 and the LGBTQ Community: Vaccinations and the Economic Toll of the Pandemic,” *Human Rights Campaign*, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://hrc-prod-requests.s3-us-west-2.amazonaws.com/files/documents/COVID-Vaccines-Brief-030821.pdf>.

¹⁰² Ibid.

slow but an increase nonetheless, other gender minorities are still seeing only a decrease. Even just looking at numbers from 2021 compared to 2024, the average LGBTQ+ household went from earning about 90 cents for every dollar a non-LGBTQ+ household made to earning 85 cents for every dollar, according to surveys done by the The Human Rights Campaign in 2021 and the Center for American Progress in 2024.^{103,104} Although the data on the pay gap for this demographic doesn't reach very far in the past, recent years have shown that a disparity exists and is worsening.

Looking Forward

The foundation of stereotypes and gendered culture that underlies gender income inequality makes the origin of the issue difficult to pinpoint. Social norms have unclear beginnings and are often so tightly interwoven into societies that creating a timeline of their lifespans is nearly impossible. The historical roots of gender income inequality cannot be found in a single law or policy, but rather in deeply embedded societal beliefs and institutional practices. Expectations of gender roles and discrimination are difficult to trace or undo, and the normalization of these structural inequalities makes reform a complex and often contested process. However, from what we can examine based on current and past sets of data and key historical events, it is clear that gender income inequality has been a longstanding issue that spans across the globe, and it is influenced by a myriad of factors that only work to complicate the problem. Despite advances in policy, the persistence of income inequality demonstrates that no single solution can fix the problem. Structural inequality requires intersectional strategies that

¹⁰³ HRC Foundation, “The Wage Gap among LGBTQ+ Workers in the United States.” Human Rights Campaign, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.hrc.org/resources/the-wage-gap-among-lgbtq-workers-in-the-united-states>.

¹⁰⁴ Steve Bonitatibus, “The 2024 LGBTQI+ Wage Gap,” *Center for American Progress*, June 17, 2025, <https://www.americanprogress.org/article/the-2024-lgbtqi-wage-gap/>.

target both the visible, institutional barriers and the invisible, social ones. A complex issue such as this requires complex solutions, ones that can build off past attempts in order to reach a global goal of bridging the gap between genders.

Past Actions

In recent decades, there have been pushes across the globe to remediate the pay disparity between workers of different genders. Among these efforts have been conventions, proposed laws, and more — getting closer to ensuring equality in earnings among people of all gender identities.

Equal Remuneration Convention

The International Labour Organization (ILO) is a specialized United Nations agency that aims to further social justice and support **decent work**. The ILO was originally formed in 1919 as a result of the Treaty of Versailles, which ended World War I.¹⁰⁵ It was created with the intention to spread social justice to help contribute to enduring peace in the world, and within a year of the founding of the United Nations, the ILO was adopted as a specialized agency.¹⁰⁶ The ILO holds an annual conference in Geneva, Switzerland, to determine the labor standards that must be followed around the world and the policies that govern the ILO. In the thirty-fourth session of the General Conference of the International Labour Organization, the topic of “equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value”, also known as equal pay for people of different gender identities, was made the seventh item on the agenda for that conference.¹⁰⁷ The conference had decided that some of the proposals made would be adopted, and this would occur on June 29th, 1951, when the Equal Remuneration Convention was adopted.¹⁰⁸

¹⁰⁵ “History of the ILO,” International Labour Organization, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.ilo.org/about-ilo/history-ilo>.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

¹⁰⁷ “C100 - Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100),” International Labour Organization, accessed August 9, 2025, https://normlex.ilo.org/dyn/nrmlx_en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100_INSTRUMENT_ID:312245.

¹⁰⁸ Ibid.



Mr. Guy Ryder, the ILO Director General at that time, pictured here addressing the 110th Session of the International Labour Conference.¹⁰⁹

This convention holds fourteen articles, which define how equal remuneration would be approached. Article 2 outlines how equal remuneration would be enacted, which includes national laws, legally established mechanisms for determining wages, agreements made between the employers and the employees, or a mix of these actions.¹¹⁰ Article 3 states that the objective appraisal of jobs, based on the tasks assigned to employees, will be determined by those responsible for setting remuneration rates.¹¹¹ These articles clarify that workers of different gender identities would be paid the same if they are performing the same level of work.

¹⁰⁹ International Labour Organization, *110th Session of the International Labour Conference*, image, Flickr, June 3, 2022, <https://www.flickr.com/photos/ilopictures/52119369776>.

¹¹⁰ “C100 - Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100),” International Labour Organization, accessed August 9, 2025, https://normlex.ilo.org/dyn/nrmlx_en/f?p=NORMLEXPUB:12100:0::NO::P12100_INSTRUMENT_ID:312245.

¹¹¹ *Ibid.*

Equal Pay Act of 1963

Another action taken in the past to address gender income inequality was the passage of the Equal Pay Act of 1963 in the United States. The Equal Pay Act is a law that still stands today and was originally made as an amendment to the Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA), which was a part of President Franklin Delano Roosevelt's program to fix the American economy after the Great Depression (the *New Deal*).¹¹² The FLSA created a federal minimum wage and overtime pay, among other provisions.¹¹³ The Equal Pay Act was later amended to FLSA by President John F. Kennedy as a part of his New Frontier Program that aimed to alleviate social and economic issues.¹¹⁴ This act provides protection against wage discrimination on the basis of gender—including protections for salary, overtime pay, bonuses, life insurance, vacation pay, benefits, and much more.¹¹⁵ This law states that if there is a difference in wages between people of different gender identities who essentially have the same jobs (based on their tasks), the employer must change their pay to be equal, while not decreasing the wages of other employees.¹¹⁶

Equal Pay International Coalition

At the seventy-second session of the UN General Assembly in 2017, the Equal Pay International Coalition (EPIC) was created with the goal of ensuring equal pay between different gender identities at all levels, including regional, national, and global. The efforts to create this

¹¹² The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, "New Deal," Encyclopedia Britannica, August 9, 2025, <https://www.britannica.com/event/New-Deal>.

¹¹³ Sarah A. Donovan, "The Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA): An Overview," March 8, 2023, <https://www.congress.gov/crs-product/R42713>.

¹¹⁴ "Chapter 6: Eras of the New Frontier and the Great Society 1961-1969," U.S. Department of Labor, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.dol.gov/general/aboutdol/history/dolchp06>.

¹¹⁵ "Equal Pay for Equal Work," U.S. Department of Labor, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.dol.gov/agencies/oasam/centers-offices/civil-rights-center/internal/policies/equal-pay-for-equal-work>.

¹¹⁶ Ibid.

coalition were spearheaded by the aforementioned International Labor Organization, UN Women, and the **Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)**. EPIC helps governments, employers, and employees improve their progress in eliminating gender income inequality.¹¹⁷ EPIC is the only **multi-stakeholder partnership** that is trying to accomplish this goal, and they are doing this through advocacy work, spreading knowledge, building capacity for equal pay, providing technical advisory services, data analysis, and monitoring.¹¹⁸



The launch event of the Equal Pay International Coalition (EPIC) at the 72nd Session of the UN General Assembly.¹¹⁹

¹¹⁷ “About EPIC,” Equal Pay International Coalition, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.equalpayinternationalcoalition.org/en>.

¹¹⁸ “EPIC Launch at the UN General Assembly,” Equal Pay International Coalition, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.equalpayinternationalcoalition.org/en/events/epic-launch-at-the-un-general-assembly-en/>.

¹¹⁹ UN Women, *Equal Pay International Coalition (EPIC) at GA72*, image, Flickr, September 18, 2017, <https://www.flickr.com/photos/unwomen/37142697892>.

Pay Transparency Tools

The aforementioned Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) would go on to make a report in 2021 that was titled *Pay Transparency Tools to Close the Gender Wage Gap*, which found that women lack representation in jobs where employees work long hours and have a large proportion of representation in part-time jobs.¹²⁰ This report examined the steps that OECD member states could take to promote pay transparency and how this could help alleviate the gender pay gap. Some of the tools mentioned include the reporting of pay gaps, **equal pay audits**, job classification systems (that are not based on gender), and monitoring. Reporting of the pay gap would include **private sector** firms conducting research on the gender pay gap and reporting it to stakeholders, such as employees, the government, and those representing employees.¹²¹ Next, there are equal pay audits, which analyze pay structures in order to point out any differences in pay between genders and provide measures to fix that gap.¹²² The job classification systems would allow for fair evaluation of jobs by ensuring they are neutral to gender and looking out for any gender bias in wages.¹²³ Lastly, constant monitoring would ensure that these tools have clear guidelines, strong methods of enforcement, and the ability to change to further the progress and success of these tools.¹²⁴ Of the OECD countries, almost half use the job classification systems.¹²⁵ Eighteen of them have regular reporting by the private sector, and nine have the equal pay audits implemented within their countries.¹²⁶

¹²⁰ OECD, *Pay Transparency Tools to Close the Gender Wage Gap, Gender Equality at Work*, *OECD Publishing*, 2021, <https://doi.org/10.1787/eba5b91d-en>.

¹²¹ Ibid.

¹²² Ibid.

¹²³ Ibid.

¹²⁴ Ibid.

¹²⁵ Ibid.

¹²⁶ Ibid.



*Member states of the OECD.*¹²⁷

¹²⁷ *OECD-memberstates*, image, Wikimedia Commons, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?title=File:OECD-memberstates.png&oldid=505554957>.

Possible Solutions

Taking all of these past actions into account, there are some potential solutions that could help further the elimination of the gender pay gap. First, countries could require that reports be regularly released on pay transparency and demographics on wages for all public and private companies. These periodic reports would help consistently identify any disparities in wages between people of different gender identities, which would ensure that any action taken by a company that would contribute to gender income inequality is brought to light. These reports could also include measures that these companies could take in order to undo any actions that perpetuate the gap, or preventative actions to ensure the gap cannot continue in the future. Considering pay gap reporting has already been implemented in certain OECD countries, there is already an example for other countries to utilize when they are trying to implement this themselves.

Another possible solution could be supporting the increase of **blind hiring**, which is also known as blind recruitment. Blind hiring means that when someone is applying for a job at a company, some of the personal information about the candidate is kept hidden from those evaluating the candidate's application to prevent any bias from affecting the candidate's chances of getting the job.¹²⁸ Bias could be conscious or unconscious, so this hiring would ensure that there is less discrimination in the hiring process. This would help reduce gender income inequality because when the candidate is offered the job, the salary is often included in that offer letter too, so this measure would ensure that the salary given in the offer letter is not determined by any gender bias.

¹²⁸ Charles Hipps, "Blind Recruiting: What Is It And How Do You Do It?" *Forbes*, June 1, 2022, <https://www.forbes.com/councils/forbeshumanresourcescouncil/2022/06/01/blind-recruiting-what-is-it-and-how-do-you-do-it/>.

Another solution to aid income equality could include increasing the minimum wage for female-dominated professions, such as nurses and teachers.¹²⁹ Providing more financial support to female-dominated professions would be a form of **reparation** for the historical loss of wages that women have incurred due to discrimination. Additionally, the creation of media that discourages professional gender stereotypes would help get the people themselves involved in the push to decrease gender income inequality. Working with large news outlets that can publish reports that outline the differences in workplace treatment between people of different gender identities could help provide much of this media. One of the Equal Pay International Coalition's goals is spreading knowledge on gender income inequality, so working with EPIC to get the media to cover this issue would inform more people and potentially get them to mobilize to address this issue as well.

The last possible solution that could help eliminate gender income inequality is the improved enforcement of anti-discrimination laws. Ensuring that something like the Equal Pay Act in the United States stays intact and getting similar laws to spread to other countries would help increase gender income equality worldwide. Part of improving enforcement on these laws is ensuring moments of discrimination are addressed and action is taken to correct them. The constant monitoring that some OECD countries have undertaken helps ensure that the pay transparency tools are strongly enforced. These OECD countries and their successes, as well as the Equal Pay Act from the United States, can act as examples for other countries that are beginning to address gender discrimination within the workplace—creating stronger enforcement of anti-discrimination laws and reducing gender income inequality.

¹²⁹ “Most common occupations for women in the labor force,” U.S. Department of Labor,, last updated April 2025, <https://www.dol.gov/agencies/wb/data/occupations/most-common-occupations-women-labor-force>.

Bloc Positions

Countries with Stronger Patriarchal Societies

Countries with stronger patriarchal societies may not support addressing gender income inequality. In countries like Afghanistan and Chad, the **patriarchy** persists, and women's rights are consistently attacked. Furthermore, these patriarchal countries may have issues when pushed to dismantle stereotypes that are detrimental to gender minorities as a whole. These countries that do not traditionally support the equal standing of all genders in society would have a collective disinterest in equitable income policy because they may believe that men should be earning more income.

Countries with Larger Gender Pay Gaps

Countries with the largest gender pay gaps, such as South Korea and Latvia¹³⁰, would all find it more difficult to close the gender pay gap. For instance, South Korea has the largest gender pay gap among OECD nations, with its gap at 31.2%.¹³¹ These countries may face the issue of keeping old traditions where men earn income for the family and women are seen as having their place solely in the home and taking care of home activities. These countries are not necessarily strongly patriarchal, but they simply are perpetuating old stereotypes. Due to these old traditions persisting in their society, these countries may want to push for the closing of the gender pay gap in order to modernize and push for equality. However, to close such a large gap means they need to create a plan to deal with the economic implications of eliminating income inequality and how it would be done as a whole.

¹³⁰ Julia Wendling, "The Largest Gender Pay Gaps in OECD Countries," *Visual Capitalist*, April 2, 2024, <https://www.visualcapitalist.com/the-largest-gender-pay-gaps-in-oecd-countries/>.

¹³¹ Moon Joon-hyun, "Outdated gender roles keep South Korea's wage gap stubbornly high: labor union survey," *The Korea Herald*, March 9, 2025, <https://www.koreaherald.com/article/10437088>.

Countries with Greater Diversity

Countries with greater diversity face greater complexities with intersectionality in their wage gaps. Countries that are very diverse may have ethnic, linguistic, and racial factors that must be considered when looking at why there is income inequality—especially through the lens of gender identity for this topic. Countries like the United States, Uganda, South Africa, and India have populations of very diverse backgrounds, so differences in income may also be due to these factors. For example, in the United States from 2020 to 2021, white, non-Hispanic women aged 20-29 earned 31% more than Black, non-Hispanic women aged 20-29 earned 17% more than Hispanic women aged 20-29.¹³² Asian women aged 20-29 earned 54% more than Black, non-Hispanic women and 38% more than Hispanic women.¹³³ Due to race and ethnicity, the issue of the unequal earnings of women and other gender minorities becomes more complex because of the inequality associated with these two other aspects, and such inequality could extend to many other factors as well. When considering how to tackle gender income inequality, these deeply diverse countries also have to consider these factors when coming up with a plan for how they want to address this issue.

The bloc positions in this document are meant to be examples of directions delegates could take in formulating how groups could fit into committee. There are many more ways that blocs could be formed that are not mentioned here. Delegates should be motivated to form new ideas for bloc formation and solutions and should use their own creativity and collaborate with each other to form equitable blocs and fair solutions.

¹³² “Earnings of Women Aged 20–59, by Age Group and Race/Ethnicity, 2020–2021,” Social Security Administration, accessed August 9, 2025, <https://www.ssa.gov/policy/docs/factsheets/at-a-glance/earnings-women-age-race-ethnicity.html>.

¹³³ Ibid.

Glossary

Blind Hiring - A practice consisting of blocking out some of a job candidate's personal information to conceal information that could negatively affect a hiring decision.

Decent Work - Opportunities for work that is productive and delivers a fair income, security in the workplace, and social protection for all, freedom for people to express their concerns, organize, and participate in the decisions that affect their lives, and equality of opportunity and treatment for all women and men.

Equal Pay Audits - a process conducted by an employer that should include an analysis of the proportion of women and men in different positions, an analysis of the job evaluation and classification system used, and detailed information on pay and differences in pay based on gender.

Gross Domestic Product (GDP) - A comprehensive measure of U.S. economic activity. GDP measures the value of the final goods and services produced in the United States (without also counting the intermediate goods and services used up to produce them). Changes in GDP are the most popular indicator of the nation's overall economic health.

Human Capital Wealth - The economic value of a worker's experience and skills, which is furthered by education, training, intelligence, skills, health, and other qualities employers value, such as loyalty and punctuality. Human capital is a non-physical resource that adds value to a business, such as increased productivity and profitability.

Intersectionality - A framework for understanding the interaction and combined effects of multiple forms of discrimination affecting the daily lives of individuals

Motherhood Penalty - The phenomenon of the economic disadvantages that women face in the workplace due to the fact that they have children.

Multi-Stakeholder Partnership - A union through which interested people can collaborate on specific challenges or exploit opportunities in ways that achieve greater impact than they could achieve alone.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) - An international organization founded in 1961, focused on supporting policies that support economic and social growth for the people of the world.

Patriarchy - Social organization marked by the supremacy of the father in the group or family, the legal dependence of wives and children, and the usual occurrence of inheritance going through the male line.

Pensions - A fund into which amounts are paid regularly during an individual's working career, and from which periodic payments are made to support the person's retirement from work.

Private Sector - The part of the national economy that is not under direct government control.

Reparation - The making of amends for a wrong one has done, by paying money to or otherwise helping those who have been wronged.

Social Gendering - The process through which a culture's gender-related rules, norms, and expectations are learnt.

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