



Minerva Access is the Institutional Repository of The University of Melbourne

Author/s:

Oliveira-Silva, LC;Fernandéz, DP;Sojo, V;Fisher, AN;Ryan, MK

Title:

Decolonizing Interventions for Workplace Gender Equity: An Intersectional and Latin American Lens

Date:

2025

Citation:

Oliveira-Silva, L. C., Fernandéz, D. P., Sojo, V., Fisher, A. N. & Ryan, M. K. (2025). Decolonizing Interventions for Workplace Gender Equity: An Intersectional and Latin American Lens. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 29 (4), pp.339-351. <https://doi.org/10.1177/10888683251350913>.

Persistent Link:

<https://hdl.handle.net/11343/360915>

# Decolonizing Interventions for Workplace Gender Equity: An Intersectional and Latin American Lens

Personality and Social Psychology Review  
2025, Vol. 29(4) 339–351  
© 2025 by the Society for Personality  
and Social Psychology, Inc.  
Article reuse guidelines:  
sagepub.com/journals-permissions  
DOI: 10.1177/10888683251350913  
pspr.sagepub.com



Ligia C. Oliveira-Silva<sup>1,2</sup> , Daniela P. Fernández<sup>3</sup> ,  
Victor Sojo<sup>4</sup> , Alexandra N. Fisher<sup>5</sup> , and Michelle K. Ryan<sup>2</sup> 

## Abstract

### Academic Abstract

Although gender equity is acknowledged as a global objective, existing progress parameters and interventions predominantly align with Western contexts and academic traditions, which often overlook the complex realities of the Majority World. This paper provides a critique of the dominance of such approaches and highlights the challenges of applying them universally. We examine the limitations of prevailing gender equity scholarship, including how a lack of diversity in general and intersectionality in particular, methodological biases, and individual-level solutions may inadvertently perpetuate inequities. We propose alternatives based on Latin American theory and practice to design decolonial and intersectional interventions for gender equity. Finally, we call for a systemic change by introducing the 5S framework, which advocates for interventions that (a) challenge the status quo, (b) focus on systemic changes, (c) are sensitive to social context, (d) are sustainable, and (e) are supported by evidence.

### Public Abstract

Gender equity is a global priority, but many strategies and solutions often ignore the unique challenges faced by people in different cultural and social contexts around the world. This paper explores why these one-size-fits-all approaches do not work and highlights the need for more inclusive, collaborative solutions. We examine core limitations such as the lack of focus on how gender intersects with race, class, and other factors, and the tendency to place the responsibility for change on individuals rather than addressing larger social and systemic problems. To tackle these challenges, we propose the 5S framework, which emphasizes interventions that: challenge the status quo, focus on systemic changes, are sensitive to social context, are sustainable, and are supported by evidence. Instead of offering fixed answers, we encourage collaborative and culturally sensitive efforts to create fairer and more effective ways to promote gender equity worldwide.

## Keywords

decolonization, gender, intersectionality, interventions

*“I thought I didn’t know how to do research, I feared the problem was on me as a researcher. I’ve mapped and scrutinized all the interventions for addressing gender inequity that are published in international journals and I tried to reproduce them, but it was too hard to arrange the same conditions or to find the same results. Now I realize they probably just don’t fit my context, they don’t make sense for my culture.”*

We are five authors from five different countries in the world—Brasil,<sup>1</sup> Chile, Canada, Australia, and Venezuela. The above statement was made during a conversation between two of the authors of this paper—the Brazilian (quoted) talking to the Australian. Despite the diversity of our nationalities and passports, our commonality is that we are all psychology scholars, working on gender equity, coming from

(and residing in) colonized lands. We chose to begin our article with this quote because it tells a story of invisible hierarchies and theoretical and practical mismatches. A story that dictates who teaches and who learns, who produces knowledge and who reproduces knowledge, who decrees the rules,

<sup>1</sup>Universidade Federal de Uberlândia, MG, Brasil

<sup>2</sup>The Australian National University, ACT, Australia

<sup>3</sup>University of Virginia, Virginia, USA

<sup>4</sup>The University of Melbourne, VIC, Australia

<sup>5</sup>The University of Edinburgh, Scotland, UK

### Corresponding Author:

Ligia C. Oliveira-Silva, Universidade Federal de Uberlândia, R. Ceará—  
Umuarama, Uberlândia, MG 38402-018, Brasil.

Emails: ligiacarol1987@gmail.com; ligiacarol@ufu.br

and who follows them. A story created and sustained by colonialism. Considering that “knowledge and the power to define what counts as real knowledge lie at the epistemic core of colonialism” (Tuhiwai Smith, 2021, p. xii), in this paper, we aim to provide insights on how to decolonize gender equity in workplaces, emphasizing the importance of intersectionality and local realities when designing and testing interventions across cultures.

## Where We Stand

Some of us are from Majority World countries while conducting research in Western academia, which has meant experiencing the various tensions and constraints described in this paper.<sup>2</sup> Due to the openness and horizontality of the relationships among us, we were able to gather our experiences and amplify one another. We acknowledge that our previous research has been prone to using Western theories and methodologies to secure our space as researchers in “international” academia. Progressively, we are including more Majority World theories, and now we strongly advocate that they must permeate all gender equity research. As we understand the importance of bringing our personal lived experiences and social positions (e.g., race, gender, and cultural background) to this debate, we also wrote individual positionality statements (see the Appendix).

## Citation Statement

While our work is informed by a critical perspective on Western viewpoints, we include citations from both Western and Majority World authors, drawing from publications in Spanish, Portuguese, and English. We intentionally aimed for diversity in our citations to capture the richness of Latin American scholarship. However, due to space constraints, we were only able to address the general premises of their work.

## Constraints on Generality

We acknowledge the social, historical, and political parallels shared across Majority World regions. However, we also recognize the context-specific and unique local realities, avoiding generalizations. Additionally, our primary focus on gender limits deeper analyses regarding women’s multiple sexualities, races, ethnicities, nationalities, religions, and social class, which we mainly address when discussing the importance of intersectionality.

## The Case for Intersectional and Decolonial Gender Equity Interventions in the Workplace for the Majority World

Recent scholarship on gender-based discrimination in workplaces has led to the creation of various strategies aimed at promoting gender equality (e.g., Fernández-Rodríguez &

Medina-Vincent, 2023; Ryan & Morgenroth, 2024). There is an abundance of workplace interventions to help achieve gender equity outcomes, such as diversity training (Metinyurt et al., 2021), leadership workshops (Shields, 2011), awareness-raising workshops (Guthridge et al., 2022), career flexibility interventions (Paek, 2022), peer mentoring (Woolnough, 2007), collective decisions on work-life balance (Bailyn & Harrington, 2004), career advising (Bulte et al., 2017), targets and quotas (Sojo et al., 2016), and more recently, personality-based algorithms (Kubiak et al., 2023).

Although some progress has been reported (i.e., over the past 10 years, women have advanced their representation in leadership and several industries—McKinsey & Company & LeanIn.Org, 2023) unsurprisingly, inequalities persist, with different contours across the world (World Economic Forum, 2024). We emphasize that one of the main reasons for this persistence is that gender discrimination, like all discrimination, is a contextual and locally situated phenomenon, interlocked with culture, system beliefs, and sociopolitical conditions. Therefore, we need tailored action to translate gender equity intervention scholarship to Majority World contexts.

The intersectional perspective on gender equity proposes that social identities are multiple at a microlevel (i.e., gender, race, social class) and intersect with macrostructural factors (i.e., sexism, racism, classism) to drive specific outcomes for individuals and communities (Collins, 2015). Such an approach has been used to challenge the view of gender experiences as “universal,” by addressing intertwined processes of racialization and colonization (Magliano, 2015). It has also been used to critique the essentialist “neutral” perspectives of psychology as an “objective” science, highlighting that such frameworks are rooted in White, androcentric, and U.S.-Eurocentric biases (Nogueira, 2017).

In this sense, well-known concepts like the patriarchy, although widely used, can also be troubling when they bypass how aspects such as colonialism and culture shape gender inequity (Patil, 2013). Coloniality, specifically, refers not only to colonization of people, but to the systems of thought and power that position the U.S.- and/or European-generated knowledge as universal (Cummings et al., 2021; Mignolo, 2011). Decolonial feminism, for instance, critiques both colonialism and patriarchy by challenging Western feminist thought for its universalizing tendencies and its failure to account for the experiences of women in the Majority World (Dias, 2020; Lugones, 2003).

Considering the need to expand the gender equity scholarship to encompass a more decolonial and intersectional perspective, in this paper we will: (a) address the challenges and limitations of simply transposing Western-originated evidence and interventions into Majority World settings; (b) draw upon Latin American theory and practice to discuss why these aspects are problematic, offering practical solutions; and (c) call for gender equity interventions that consider the diverse needs of the Majority World, proposing the 5S framework.

## What are the Challenges and Limitations of Prevailing Gender Equity Evidence and Interventions?

### *Challenge 1. The Need for Intersectional Research That Goes Beyond Demographic Differences*

When research analyzes demographic factors beyond gender—such as race and social class—it provides deeper, more meaningful insights. Evidence shows, for example, that interventions to increase self-advocacy are more effective for White men and White women than for minority women (O’Meara et al., 2018); and Asian and Black women are less likely than White women to be appointed to masculine leadership roles by predominantly White samples (Galinsky et al., 2013). However, it is crucial to go beyond the demographic differences; we must also acknowledge and understand the role of power dynamics (Bowleg & Bauer, 2016; Bowleg et al., 2023; Del Río-González et al., 2021). Simply identifying group differences without analyzing the power structures that create and maintain those differences may reinforce categorical thinking, besides treating minoritized individuals as homogenous groups (Billups et al., 2022). As indicated by intersectionality scholars, the experience of a Black woman is not simply the sum of being Black and being a woman; it is a distinct experience shaped by the intersection of race and gender and how these attributes are understood in a specific context of power imbalances (Crenshaw, 1989).

Despite the increased interest in intersectionality as both a framework and an approach (Rosenthal, 2016), intersectional experiences have largely been overlooked in the mainstream gender equity intervention scholarship (see Mousa et al., 2021, and Tricco et al., 2024, for reviews). This is troublesome because when we account for Majority World contexts, intersectionality reveals nuanced outcomes that challenge broad generalizations regarding workplace gender equity. For example, efforts to enhance visibility for Black women can, inadvertently, result in harmful hypervisibility, exposing them to intensified scrutiny in leadership roles (McCluney & Rabelo, 2019). Similar patterns occur when training programs address agency or assertiveness for White women and Black women in the same way (Wong et al., 2022), ignoring—for example—the existence of the “angry Black woman” stereotype. This means that when Black women assert themselves in the workplace, they may be perceived as aggressive or unprofessional in ways that White women are not. As a result, while White women may benefit from being more assertive, Black women could face negative consequences, such as poor performance evaluations and exclusion from leadership opportunities (Motro et al., 2022).

In sum, when gender research ignores intersectionality or treats it as a simple checklist of identities to be captured in demographics, it risks not capturing the complexity of lived experiences and the role of socio-structural factors (i.e., racism, poverty, sexism, government policies) to

understand inequities and different groups’ outcomes (Bauer et al., 2021; McCormick-Huhn et al., 2019). When intersectional experiences are routinely omitted from research, the needs of marginalized populations become invisible—not only within academia but also to governments, international organizations, policymakers, and practitioners—thereby reinforcing unequal power dynamics (Purdie-Vaughns & Eibach, 2008; Couto et al., 2019).

### *Challenge 2. Methodological Biases*

**Sampling.** Much of the gender equity scholarship uses U.S. and/or European samples that might not be generalizable to Majority World populations (Henrich et al., 2010; Sojo & Wheeler, 2024). This is a problem because it neglects the sampling bias that disproportionately considers White, cis-gender, Western, able-bodied, and upper-class women (Pogrebná et al., 2024). Additionally, it creates an “othering” dynamic, which frames anything else as deviant or requiring special justification. As examples, some of the authors of this paper have personally experienced the following situations: (a) being asked to justify the importance of their “exotic” samples; (b) being pressured to justify their local samples by explaining why these cultures or countries are worthy of study; (c) being forced to mention or align with “widely accepted” (i.e., Western) theories. Unfortunately, such situations often take place behind the scenes in academia; for instance, requests to justify sample selections and topic choices usually emerge during the blind review process and are not available for public scrutiny.

Another common situation often escapes scrutiny: “world-traveling” research, where researchers from dominant groups study marginalized communities (Yap, 2021). Also called “helicopter research” or “parachute research” (Haelewaters et al., 2021), they include Majority World samples to showcase diversity or inclusivity but fail to engage with the community and its culture, with the benefits of the research accruing mainly to the researchers. Such “research extraction” (Bothello & Bonfim, 2023) is more problematic when it results in tokenistic representation, treating marginalized groups as symbolic rather than essential to the research (Grimaldi et al., 2015).

**The Quantitative Bias.** Although methodological tensions within gender research have been widely discussed in academia (e.g., Masue et al., 2013; Spierings, 2016; Westmarland, 2001), quantitative approaches remain more valued in Western scholarship. While extremely useful, quantitative methods are not always well-suited or sufficient to capture the complexity of Majority World contexts (e.g., Bauer et al., 2021). The use of quantitative approaches alone may perpetuate biases and lack cultural sensitivity, besides failing to capture the nuanced experiences of diverse populations (Cokley & Awad, 2013). These are some of the reasons why

in Latin America qualitative or mixed methods approaches are so popular (Jamieson et al., 2023; Montero, 2007).

The predominance of quantitative methods presents an additional challenge for Majority World researchers: the necessity of developing culturally appropriate measures (Wagner et al., 2014). For example, the lack of widely validated measures in languages other than English limits both the scope of research questions and the selection of variables. Even when available, standardized scales might lead to misinterpretations of cultural contexts due to translation issues and lack of semantic equivalence, which happens when the same concept has different meanings across cultures (Wagner et al., 2014). Unfortunately, editors and reviewers of top-tier journals often insist on the use of established scales, sometimes without acknowledging their limitations.

The dominance of quantitative methods also has implications regarding the limits of statistical significance, such as: (a) prioritizing statistically detectable differences over lived experience and participant's own narratives; (b) treating people with intersectional experiences as mere study numbers that do not meet statistical effect and large sample size standards; (c) reinforcing the invisibility of minority groups, often excluded from statistical comparisons altogether; and (d) contributing to epistemological violence and continued colonization of knowledge via oppressive interpretations of results (Yakushko et al., 2016). To address these limitations, researchers advocate for more participatory approaches (Egid et al., 2021) and the use of mixed methods (Bowleg & Bauer, 2016), which would allow a deeper understanding of complex cultural phenomena.

### **Challenge 3. Scholarship is Predominantly in English and Western Oriented**

While gender scholarship advocates for diversity, inclusion, and equity, it lacks both linguistic and cultural diversity (Díaz, 2018). Many interventions for gender equity focus on principles and concepts that are more salient in some cultures, such as career aspirations, self-efficacy, and agency to overcome barriers (Wong et al., 2022). While some Anglophone frameworks enjoy largely unchallenged acceptance as neutral and universal, they are in fact culturally influenced—as is any other framework.

Likewise, the scholarship on how to design, implement, and evaluate interventions for gender equity relies largely on a Western perspective, proposing solutions for problems that are not universal and may not apply to Majority World realities. Many gender equity policies and initiatives that have been successful in “developed” countries have proven less effective in other regions, often due to a failure to consider local context and history. An example is a study that examined the impact of conditional cash transfer programs for women in Chile, Costa Rica, and El Salvador; while beneficial for addressing poverty, such programs have not significantly transformed gender relations (Martínez Franzoni &

Voorend, 2012). The Brazilian program “Bolsa Família,” on the other hand, has been a key policy in challenging traditional gender dynamics and promoting women's financial autonomy, as the program predominantly targets female heads of households, especially in rural and marginalized urban areas (De Brauw et al., 2014).

Additionally, most people in Majority World countries do not speak English as their first language, which limits the acknowledgment of their own theoretical and applied perspectives and hinders potential collaborations (Annamalai & Skutnabb-Kangas, 2020). Although the critique of having English as the mandatory language for academic dissemination is not new (see Ramírez-Castañeda, 2020), considering the Anglophone literature as the main reference is ironic for gender studies as they often purport to speak on behalf of the “marginalized.”

This focus on English has a number of consequences. For Majority World researchers, achieving academic-level proficiency in English often reflects privileged access, such as opportunities to study abroad or access to bilingual education from an early age. This reality not only underscores socioeconomic inequalities but also highlights the prevalence of classism within academia. In Latin American countries, for example, English proficiency correlates positively with researchers' higher socioeconomic origins and social class (Ramírez-Castañeda, 2020).

Finally, privileging English over other languages is problematic because it entails adopting Western academic conventions as the default (Flowerdew, 2007), given that languages inherently carry cultural and communicative norms. Because English-language publications are often seen as more prestigious and have a broader reach (Cabrera & Saraiva, 2022; Trahar et al., 2019), Majority World researchers incur extra translation expenses, face higher rejection rates, and are more frequently excluded from conferences (Ramírez-Castañeda, 2020). Consequently, they bear the constant burden of adapting established frameworks to their cultural context and overexplaining their circumstances. When obstacles arise, they may internalize the blame and begin to second-guess their skills, as illustrated in our opening quotation.

### **Challenge 4. The Absence of Multilevel Analysis and the Overemphasis on “Fixing” Women**

Another issue in gender equity scholarship is its focus on the micro/individual level rather than the structural/systemic level (Morrissey & Schmidt, 2008; Ramos, 2016; Ryan, 2023). Interventions, for instance, have mainly focused on promoting women's career progress and leadership in professional settings by prioritizing meritocracy (Choi et al., 2016), risking justifying precarious working conditions under the guise of “empowerment” (Fernández & Santillana, 2019). This approach fails to address the root causes of gender inequalities (Burkinshaw & White, 2017; Martínez-Labrin & Castela-Huerta, 2023), demanding a

shift to focus on the organizational contexts and structures that perpetuate inequalities (De Vries & van den Brink, 2016; Schiebinger & Schraudner, 2011).

In the Majority World, this is especially important as the concept of the workplace often extends beyond traditional corporate, government, and industry roles. The concept of the workplace should, for example, encompass informal and domestic labor—forms of work that are frequently undervalued and rendered invisible (Hondagneu-Sotelo, 2001). In Latin America and the Caribbean, between 11 and 18 million people are domestic workers, 93% of whom are women (Suaya et al., 2023). Similarly, many women in the Majority World work in the informal economy, with a great variability of sectors depending on the country (World Economic Forum, 2024). Their needs can differ significantly from those of a female CEO in a European country, for example. Therefore, gender scholarship must not overemphasize strategies that focus only on “fixing” women (Morrissey & Schmidt, 2008; Ryan & Morgenroth, 2024), such as “improving negotiation skills” or “becoming more assertive”. Instead of fostering genuine empowerment, this approach can reinforce oppression by privileging individualism, depoliticizing systemic issues, and upholding a narrow, homogeneous vision of womanhood (Medina-Vicent, 2020).

### **What Can We Learn from Latin American Theory and Practice to Propose Decolonial and Intersectional Interventions for Gender Equity?**

To better understand how gender dynamics play out in regions from the Majority World, such as Latin America, it is mandatory to consider how the legacies of colonialism and ongoing neocolonial practices continue to shape gender relations. Latin American gender scholars, among other scholars from multiple parts of the world, have widely discussed the importance of comprehensive, intersectional, and critical analyses that consider local realities when addressing gender issues (e.g., Busquier, 2018; González, 2020). Accordingly, to address the challenges outlined in the previous section, we present four propositions for decolonizing gender equity interventions.

#### ***Proposition 1. Adopting a Critical Approach to Intersectionality***

A decolonial approach to gender equity interventions necessitates not only further consideration of intersectionality, but also a critical approach to the concept. Latin American scholars (e.g., Mendoza & Paredes Grijalva, 2022; Roth, 2019) often critique the focus of Western intersectionality frameworks on women’s experiences in “developed” countries, without addressing how the legacies of colonialism,

slavery, racism, displacement/forced migration, and class inequalities shape gender inequalities (González, 2020; Viveros Vigoya, 2015).

An example is the Brazilian Lélia González, who since the 1980s has critiqued mainstream feminist movements for neglecting the unique struggles of Black women and other marginalized groups worldwide. This critique also reflects the peculiarities of her local context and people, as Afro-Brazilian women are disproportionately represented in low-paying, precarious jobs and frequently face discrimination and harassment (Oliveira-Silva & Barbosa-Silva, 2023). Therefore, decolonizing intersectionality is challenging because it requires attending to the historical, social, and economic contexts—including local dynamics of domination—while simultaneously contributing to a coherent, global theory of intersecting identities (Peretz, 2021; Roth, 2019).

Research on gender still falls short in integrating intersectionality as it prioritizes finding evidence for generalizable, correlational models. Further information about participants’ demographics—such as ethnicity, race, nationality, age, sexuality, education level, marital status, parental situation, religion, presence of disability—is frequently scarce, with participants being described simply as “men” and “women” (Sojo & Wheeler, 2024). This is problematic because treating “women” as a universal category ignores how neoliberal economic policies create structural constraints on women’s rights and access that differ across geopolitical contexts (Moghadam, 2005). For example, in many Latin American countries, neoliberal reforms have eroded education, health-care, and employment protections—leaving women especially vulnerable in the absence of robust social security and welfare systems (Armada et al., 2001).

Hence, we propose that gender equity scholarship should invest in *intersectionality by design*, which means that the entire research process must actively engage with and address intersectionality (e.g., Boveda & Annamma, 2023). Expanding from Windsong’s (2018) work, practical examples on how to achieve this include:

- (a) *Shifting the focus to data collection rather than only the analysis*—minorities are not homogeneous groups. Thus, researchers must ensure intragroup diversity—sampling women across varied ethnicities, ages, parental statuses, religions, social classes, and education levels—or deliberately target subgroups whose intersectional experiences are central to the research question.
- (b) *Incorporating intersectionality into research design*—expanding from Brown and Strega’s (2015) work, when formulating a research question, we could ask: Whose voices are we missing? What taken-for-granted beliefs and assumptions shape our thinking? What are the inherent power dynamics? Whose perspectives are excluded or marginalized?

Instead of asking, for example, “How does gender impact access to healthcare?” a critically intersectional research question could be, “How do sexism, racism, and classism intersect to shape experiences of healthcare access, and how do these intersections vary across different geographic locations?”

- (c) *Translating complex theoretical concepts into accessible and relatable language*—for example, researchers could develop instruments tailored to participants’ educational backgrounds and codesign interview protocols with them to ensure cultural relevance and avoid questions that do not resonate with their lived experiences.

### **Proposition 2. Challenging Widely Accepted Methodological Assumptions**

Reviewing the methodologies used to investigate gender is crucial to better understand how colonialism shapes research decisions, applicability, and repercussions. Through mixed-methods approaches, researchers can capture the diversity of experiences within groups and illuminate intersectional dynamics—eschewing oversimplified binaries like “men versus women” or “White versus non-White,” which too often assume a uniformity that does not exist and impose one-size-fits-all conclusions (DeJonckheere et al., 2019; Settles et al., 2020).

Prioritizing intersectionality and decoloniality also demands that researchers, reviewers, and journal editors realign expectations regarding strategies for obtaining data and sample sizes. Paying for participants through online platforms might not be an option when we consider some Latin American countries’ legislation. In Brasil, for instance, compensating research participants is prohibited—payments are viewed as potentially coercive in a context of pronounced socioeconomic inequality (National Health Council, 2012). At the same time, recruiting sufficient participants to achieve the necessary statistical power becomes challenging when no remuneration is offered. Monetary compensation also may not be the most effective incentive, depending on the sample (Brown & Strega, 2015). This can apply to native populations that do not primarily depend on money for survival, as well as to highly paid women CEOs, for whom financial compensation in research may hold little value.

Large sample requirements present an additional challenge, as data from minorities (e.g., indigenous communities severely impacted by historical and ongoing decimation/genocide) or underrepresented groups (e.g., women in leadership positions) can be difficult to access. In such cases, smaller samples allow for greater attention to informed consent, confidentiality, trust, reciprocity, and, most importantly, results that meet participants’ needs. This approach is crucial for ensuring that research benefits, rather than exploits, marginalized communities. It also helps to avoid overburdening

underrepresented groups, who are frequently the subject of research without adequate consideration for their well-being. Finally, smaller studies also foster a more collaborative approach, as demanded by community-based participatory research and codesigned interventions, as they often require longitudinal data and strong partnerships with groups and institutions (Bolados-García & Sánchez-Cuevas, 2017; Kossek et al., 2017; Oliveira-Silva & Barbosa-Silva, 2023).

### **Proposition 3. Integrating Local Context and History**

Imposing “universal” assumptions of gender equity without accounting for local contexts, histories, and power dynamics enforces a one-size-fits-all model, perpetuating Western-centric colonial influences. To reverse this trend, we can draw insights from Latin American scholars, whose research emphasizes the value of community knowledge, reflecting the region’s rich tradition of participatory and action-oriented research (Gutberlet et al., 2014). Such approaches emerged in the 1970s with roots in critical theory and popular education (Breda, 2015). Key figures like Paulo Freire and Orlando Fals-Borda pioneered participatory action research, combining research, education, and social action to empower marginalized communities, promote community development, and advocate for social justice (Asaba & Suárez-Balcázar, 2018; Gutberlet et al., 2014).

With such a tradition in mind, in the context of gender interventions, instead of simply replicating generic programs idealized overseas, we recommend: (a) partnering with local grassroots organizations; (b) enhancing codesign; (c) ensuring that locals are active decision-makers in the research process; and (d) moving away from a “savior” mindset, recognizing that colonialism is also embedded in paternalistic attitudes and benevolent superiority. To achieve this, we highlight the importance of analyzing how colonialism has shaped gender roles, gendered expectations, and power dynamics within communities. Interventions, therefore, should create spaces and opportunities where people from varied backgrounds can share their lived experiences.

### **Proposition 4. Shifting from Empowerment to Activism**

We conceptualize “empowerment” approaches as those mainly focused on individual agency (i.e., “leaning-in,” ambition, motivation, self-efficacy), differentiating them from activism and resistance approaches, focused on collective action and structural change. This distinction is important as Latin American gender scholarship attempts to move beyond simplistic victim/oppressor narratives (e.g., González, 2020; Lugones, 2003), acknowledging women’s activism and resistance and highlighting that gender never exists in a social vacuum.

International policy and gender gap reports, conversely, often prioritize standardized solutions to gender issues, overlooking social movements and reinforcing neoliberal ideologies of individual empowerment and market-led development (Álvarez, 2010; Jenson & Nagels, 2018). Critics argue that these initiatives reproduce colonial frameworks of development, ignoring the complexity of gendered power relations (Dixit & Banday, 2022; Oyhantcabal, 2021).

The emphasis on standardization and universalism often excludes ways of knowing and being that are not recognized by Western scholars. To embrace activism in gender equity scholarship, it is essential to make concessions on expectations of what is known as objective, scientific, and rigorous. Latin American and decolonial feminists have long challenged such approaches, highlighting the need to consider colonial history and its patriarchal, capitalist, and racist logics (Oyhantcabal, 2021). By connecting theory and research with collective action and social movements, Latin American researchers contribute to dismantling gendered systems of oppression and highlight the importance of praxis in achieving social change (González, 2020; Lugones, 1987).

Workplace gender equity scholarship in Latin America actively embraces activism, particularly when it highlights the role of women in labor union organizations (Arriaga & Medina, 2020). In Chile, for instance, women have been instrumental in defending human rights in socio-environmental conflicts caused by extractivism—the exploitation of natural resources for export, which leads to environmental damage and social injustice. By taking leadership in social movements to challenge these practices, they have been pivotal in creating a political feminist ecology (Bolados-García & Sánchez-Cuevas, 2017). This demonstrates how women's activism directly contributes to both social and environmental justice. Therefore, we underscore the importance of scholarship on activist gender interventions, since women's movements have been central in advancing gender equity legislation, resisting neoliberal policies, and improving living conditions across Majority World regions (Cabezas-González & Revilla-Blanco, 2020; Lebon & Maier, 2010).

## **A Call for Action on Decolonizing Interventions for Gender Equity: The 5S Framework**

Although the literature points to a wealth of interventions and programs for gender equity (for reviews, see Guthridge et al., 2022; Lau et al., 2023; Mousa et al., 2021), an approach that focuses on historical, political, economic, cultural, and intersectional considerations is still lacking. Drawing on the discussed challenges and potential solutions we presented in the previous sections, we propose a framework based on five overarching principles—what we term the 5S—to critically analyze existing interventions and, specially, to guide future ones.

The first “S” stands for Status-Quo Busting and recommends that interventions should focus on questioning and addressing the underlying processes that create and reinforce gender inequities. This “S” responds, for instance, to Challenge 1—the need for intersectional approaches that go beyond demographic differences. Gender equity interventions should not only be intersectional but also challenge the power structures embedded within intersectionality. This involves dismantling colonial and binary notions of gender while addressing the unequal, gendered distribution of both paid and unpaid labors. To approach such an ambitious goal, researchers and practitioners should consider the following questions: (a) What are the (generalizing) underlying assumptions involved in the design of an intervention? (b) What intersectional perspectives, if any, have been considered in the design of an intervention? (c) What efforts have been made to address power structures and imbalances?

The second “S” is for Systemic, whereby interventions should aim for multiple levels of action, but target mainly systemic changes in institutional structures and practices rather than trying to “fix” women individually. This responds to Challenge 4—the absence of multilevel analysis and the overemphasis on “fixing” women. Systemic interventions should, therefore, consider that individuals are embedded in collectives such as teams, families, and institutions that have large and dynamic impacts on their lives (Sojo & Wheeler, 2024). Furthermore, the intervention design process should integrate an intersectional gender equity lens at every stage—needs assessment, design, implementation, and evaluation—to ensure that it reduces, rather than exacerbates, structural disparities (Williamson et al., 2024). Systemic interventions should also embody Proposition 4's shift from empowerment to activism by partnering with existing organizing efforts at the individual, family, institutional, and societal levels—coordinating their work to ensure impact and avoid duplication. The following questions could be asked: (a) How to avoid interventions that attempt to “fix” women and other minoritized majority groups individually?; and (b) How to design multilevel interventions that prioritize institutional and societal change?

The third “S” is for Sensitive to Social Context and means interventions should avoid universal solutions by addressing intersectional, cultural, economic, political, and historical dimensions. As explored by Challenge 3—gender equity research is predominantly published in English and is Western oriented—socioeconomic and cultural aspects play an important role but are still unexplored in the intervention literature. It is essential to be aware of the assumptions embedded in different countries, regions, and languages for cross-cultural recommendations. In line with Proposition 3—integrating local context and history—gender equity interventions targeting marginalized women must account for community-specific beliefs about gender, discrimination, and work, thereby capturing each group's unique particularities rooted in their history, traditions, and geographic setting.

Western gender equity research often emphasizes access to education and employment, but this focus can eclipse other critical dimensions—reproductive rights, political participation, and freedom from violence—which are central to women’s lives in the Majority World. Effective interventions must therefore broaden their scope to address these often-overlooked areas while also drawing on the unique strengths and resources of local communities. In practice, this means partnering with marginalized groups in ways that recognize and amplify the survival strategies they already employ, ensuring that programs both meet urgent needs and build on existing capacities. To further engage with social context, researchers and practitioners could ask the following questions: (a) How to address social and historical dimensions when codesigning interventions?; and (b) How can we acknowledge local struggles while simultaneously highlighting and leveraging the existing strategies, strengths, and resources within communities?

The fourth “S” is for Sustainable, whereby interventions should create long-term impacts that meet the present needs of participants (i.e., assurance of achieved basic rights) without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. Even well-resourced, evidence-based workshops, training programs, and tutorials often have minimal long-term impact when delivered as isolated, short-term initiatives (Mousa et al., 2021). At worst, they can reinforce “savior” attitudes and breed skepticism or distrust. As Proposition 4 recommends—shifting from empowerment to activism—interventions must adopt a collaborative approach that values participants’ lived experiences and expertise, and cocreate strategies with communities to foster sustainable change. To achieve such a goal, we should ask: (a) How to design interventions to generate long-term impacts? and (b) How to ensure interventions do not exacerbate existing disparities?

Finally, the fifth “S”—Supported by Evidence—stipulates that every stage of an intervention must be grounded in the best available, contemporary, and context-specific evidence, as well as in sound theoretical and methodological frameworks. In line with Challenge 2’s focus on methodological biases, developing truly evidence-based gender equity interventions requires situated, multilevel theorizing supported by a multimethod, multidisciplinary research approach (Sojo et al., 2023).

Proposition 2 urges us to challenge widely accepted methodological norms and to rethink what qualifies as “good evidence.” In practice, this means acknowledging that research on Majority World contexts is often carried out by outsiders rather than by scholars who belong to the communities under study—an imbalance that can introduce

significant biases in both data collection and interpretation. We must ask: to what extent are our research designs and methods genuinely inclusive and contextually appropriate? To ensure they are, it is vital to establish and nurture locally led research programs in Majority World settings—programs rooted in the lived realities of communities. Such initiatives will generate systematic, context-specific knowledge to guide the design, implementation, and evaluation of effective gender equity interventions.

The 5S framework—while still in its early, largely propositional phase—was designed to guide the future of intervention research, policy, and practice through intersectional and decolonial lenses. In light of the urgent need for strategies that tackle deeply entrenched social and structural gender inequities (Cronin & George, 2020), it lays the groundwork for critical reflection and invites ongoing refinement of its core principles.

## Final Remarks

This paper advances the future of social and personality psychology by demonstrating how to integrate decolonial and intersectional perspectives into gender research and interventions for Majority World contexts. Mainstream gender literature—predominantly Western in origin—can foster exclusionary mindsets by overlooking the structural drivers of inequity (cultural norms, economic disparities, and imbalanced power relations) and thus reinforce colonial power dynamics.

Rather than prescribing a “one-size-fits-all” methodology, our aim is to shed light on the current challenges within gender equity scholarship and to offer a set of guiding principles for interventions worldwide. Drawing on Freire’s (1970) *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* and bell hooks’ (1984) reminder that “the oppressed are not obliged to educate the oppressor”, we call on Western scholars to recognize their own role in perpetuating systems of domination and to take active responsibility for dismantling them. Translating these principles into practice demands time, effort, and a collective commitment—otherwise, the burden of change falls unfairly on minoritized groups and we risk perpetuating the very colonization we aim to dismantle.

Ultimately, we invite researchers, educators, practitioners, and policymakers to adopt a more reflexive, collaborative approach in designing gender equity interventions. By centering local knowledge and privileging context-specific insights, we can produce more inclusive, nuanced, and culturally resonant scholarship—both deepening our understanding of gender inequality and fostering power shifts that inspire solutions around the globe.

## Appendix

### Extended Positionality Statements

As the first author, I am a Brazilian bisexual mixed-race woman, locally called “parda,” an ethnicity derived from Indigenous, African, and European ancestors. I am the first only person in my family to attend a foreign university, receive a PhD degree, and become a higher education professor. I was born and raised in the Northeast of Brasil, known for a history of colonization and slavery that has left a legacy of accentuated social inequalities and economic impoverishment that impacted my family. I currently live and work in the colonized indigenous lands of Minas Gerais, Brasil. My background in Work and Social Psychology, along with my experience in both Anglophone and Lusophone academic settings, has exposed me to many of the situations addressed in this paper. It also influenced me to advocate for the need to decolonize psychology as a whole, which includes gender in workplaces—my main focus of research.

As the second author, I acknowledge my standpoint as a Latina woman who, in the past 5 years, has been working in academia in a Western country. This has meant I have had to navigate different identities and theories at different political and cultural historical events. Hence, my research and reflections are informed by the tensions of being from a “minoritized group” and the demands of being “objective” while including methodologies learned in my training as a psychologist in Chile, particularly qualitative and mixed methods.

As the third Author, I come to this discussion as a Black gay man, of Black Venezuelan and Spanish descent, with 20+ years of training, academic and industry practice in psychology on colonized lands (Venezuela and Australia). My thinking on gender psychology and gender equity is heavily influenced by Latin American qualitative social psychology and liberation psychology, with a keen focus on the social construction of reality and the need to dismantle oppressive power structures.

As the fourth author, I join this discussion as a White, Canadian-born settler, cisgender woman who has primarily lived and worked on the colonized, unceded lands of the Songhees, Esquimalt, and W̱SÁNEĆ people in Canada and of the Ngunnawal and Ngambri people in Australia. Speaking of (in)visible hierarchies, my identities carry unearned privilege and are centered within Western gender equity research. They bias the questions I ask and the ways in which my research is received within the field (e.g., I have never been asked to justify why my sample was North American). I view these biases as limiting the progress and inclusivity of our field as a whole, and seek to do better by deepening my understanding and practices around decolonizing research, guided by critical, Indigenous, and intersectional feminist perspectives.

As the fifth author, I acknowledge my standpoint as a Chinese Australian woman who lives and works on colonized Ngunnawal and Ngambri land in Australia.

### Declaration of Conflicting Interests


The author(s) declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

### Funding


The author(s) disclosed receipt of the following financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article: This work received financial support from the Brazilian National Council for Scientific and Technological Development - CNPq [grant numbers 406604/2021-5 and 401131/2022-0].

### ORCID iDs

Ligia C. Oliveira-Silva  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7487-9420>

Daniela P. Fernández  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0620-6926>

Victor Sojo  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1477-0677>

Alexandra N. Fisher  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3892-034X>

Michelle K. Ryan  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1091-9275>

### Supplemental Material

Supplemental material for this article is available online.

### Notes

1. Considering the decolonial urge, Brasil is written as in Portuguese, and in accordance with the new Brazilian government campaign “We are Brasil, spelled with the letter S.” For more information, visit *We are Brasil, spelled with the letter S. And this is our brand.*
2. Ribeiro, D. (2024). *Where we stand*. Yale University Press. We decided to name our positionality statement with the expression coined by Djamila Ribeiro, Brazilian philosopher, writer, and social activist, known for her work in Black feminism and her advocacy for racial and gender equality. “Where We Stand” is her foundational book, discussing how one’s social position—shaped by race, gender, and class—affects both the ability to speak and to be heard. In Portuguese, the name of the book is “Lugar de Fala,” also translatable to “Speaking Place.”

### References

- Álvarez, A. A. (2010). El “mainstreaming” de género y sus nuevos desafíos: repensando el concepto de igualdad(es). *Revista Del Clad Reforma Y Democracia*, 47–70.
- Annamalai, E., & Skutnabb-Kangas, T. (2020). 19 Social justice and inclusiveness through linguistic human rights in education. In A. Schalley & S. Eisenchlas (Eds.), *Handbook of home language maintenance and development: Social and affective factors* (pp. 377–400). De Gruyter Mouton. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9781501510175-019>
- Armada, F., Muntaner, C., & Navarro, V. (2001). Health and social security reforms in Latin America: The convergence of the World Health Organization, the World Bank, and transnational corporations. *International Journal of Health Services: Planning, Administration, Evaluation*, 31(4), 729–768. <https://doi.org/10.2190/70BE-TJ0Q-P7WJ-2ELU>
- Arriaga, A. E., & Medina, L. (2020). Activismo de género en las organizaciones sindicales. Reivindicaciones y estrategias emergentes en los Encuentros Nacionales de Mujeres. *Trabajo y sociedad*, 21(34), 91–100.

- Asaba, E., & Suarez-Balcazar, Y. (2018). Participatory research: A promising approach to promote meaningful engagement. *Scandinavian Journal of Occupational Therapy, 25*(5), 309–312. <https://doi.org/10.1080/11038128.2018.1541224>
- Bailyn, L., & Harrington, M. (2004). Redesigning work for work–family integration. *Community, Work & Family, 7*(2), 197–208. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1366880042000245470>
- Bauer, G. R., Churchill, S. M., Mahendran, M., Walwyn, C., Lizotte, D., & Villa-Rueda, A. A. (2021). Intersectionality in quantitative research: A systematic review of its emergence and applications of theory and methods. *SSM—Population Health, 14*, 100798. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2021.100798>
- Billups, S., Thelamour, B., Thibodeau, P., & Durgin, F. H. (2022). On intersectionality: Visualizing the invisibility of Black women. *Cognitive Research: Principles and Implications, 7*, 100. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s41235-022-00450-1>
- Bolados García, P., & Sánchez Cuevas, A. (2017). Una ecología política feminista en construcción: El caso de las “Mujeres de zonas de sacrificio en resistencia.” Región de Valparaíso, Chile. *Psicoperspectivas, 16*(2), 33–42. <https://dx.doi.org/10.5027/psicoperspectivas-vol16-issue2-fulltext-977>
- Bothello, J., & Bonfim, L. (2023). Marginalized communities and the problem of research extraction. *Journal of Management Studies, 62*(1), 526–532.
- Boveda, M., & Annamma, S. A. (2023). Beyond making a statement: An intersectional framing of the power and possibilities of positioning. *Educational Researcher, 52*(5), 306–314.
- Bowleg, L., & Bauer, G. (2016). Invited reflection: Quantifying intersectionality. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 40*(3), 337–341. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0361684316654282>
- Bowleg, L., Malekzadeh, A. N., AuBuchon, K. E., Ghabrial, M. A., & Bauer, G. R. (2023). Rare exemplars and missed opportunities: Intersectionality within current sexual and gender diversity research and scholarship in psychology. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 49*, 101511. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.copsyc.2022.101511>
- Breda, K. L. (2015). What is old is also new—Participatory action research. *Texto & Contexto Enfermagem, 24*, 9–10.
- Brown, L. A., & Strega, S. (2015). *Research as resistance: Revisiting critical, indigenous, and anti-oppressive approaches*. Canadian Scholars' Press.
- Bulte, E., Lensink, R., & Vu, N. (2017). Do gender and business trainings affect business outcomes? Experimental evidence from Vietnam. *Management Science, 63*(9), 2885–2902. <https://doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.2016.2472>
- Burkinshaw, P., & White, K. (2017). Fixing the women or fixing universities: Women in HE leadership. *Administrative Sciences, 7*(3), 30. <https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci7030030>
- Busquier, L. (2018). Interseccionalidad en América Latina y el Caribe? *ConX, 4*, e023. <https://doi.org/10.24215/24690333e023>
- Cabezas-González, A. C., & Revilla-Blanco, M. (2020). Women's movements. In N. Naples (Ed.), *Companion to women's and gender studies*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119315063.ch21>
- Cabrera, M., & Saraiva, I. (2022). Principales problemáticas de las publicaciones científicas: un análisis en perspectiva latinoamericana. *e-Ciencias de la Información, 12*(1), 188–210. <https://doi.org/10.15517/eci.v12i1.46145>
- Choi, S. L., Goh, C. F., Adam, M. B., & Tan, O. K. (2016). Transformational leadership, empowerment, and job satisfaction: The mediating role of employee empowerment. *Human Resources for Health, 14*(1), 73. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12960-016-0171-2>
- Cokley, K., & Awad, G. H. (2013). In defense of quantitative methods: Using the “Master’s Tools” to promote social justice. *Journal for Social Action in Counseling & Psychology, 5*(2), 26–41. <https://doi.org/10.33043/JSACP.5.2.26-41>
- Collins, P. H. (2015). Intersectionality's definitional dilemmas. *Annual Review of Sociology, 41*(1), 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-soc-073014-112142>
- Couto, M. T., de Oliveira, E., Alves-Separavich, M. A., & do Carmo Luiz, O. (2019). La perspectiva feminista de la interseccionalidad en el campo de la salud pública: revisión narrativa de las producciones teórico-metodológicas. *Salud Colectiva* [online]. v. 15. <https://doi.org/10.18294/sc.2019.1994>
- Crenshaw, K. (1989). Demarginalizing the intersection of race and sex: A black feminist critique of antidiscrimination doctrine, feminist theory and antiracist politics. *University of Chicago Legal Forum, 1989*(1), 139–167.
- Cronin, M. A., & George, E. (2020). The why and how of the integrative review. *Organizational Research Methods, 26*(1), 168–192. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428120935507>
- Cummings, S., Munthali, N., & Shapland, P. (2021). A systemic approach to the decolonisation of knowledge. In D. Ludwig, B. Boogaard, P. Macnaghten, & C. Leeuwis, *The politics of knowledge in inclusive development and innovation* (pp. 65–79). Routledge.
- de Brauw, A., Gilligan, D. O., Hoddinott, J., & Roy, S. (2014). The impact of Bolsa Familia on women's decision-making power. *World Development, 59*, 487–504.
- De Vries, J. A., & van den Brink, M. (2016). Transformative gender interventions: Linking theory and practice using the “bifocal approach.” *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal, 35*(7/8), 429–44.
- DeJonckheere, M., Lindquist-Grantz, R., Toraman, S., Haddad, K., & Vaughn, L. M. (2019). Intersection of mixed methods and community-based participatory research: A methodological review. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research, 13*(4), 481–502. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689818778469>
- Del Río-González, A. M., Holt, S. L., & Bowleg, L. (2021). Powering and structuring intersectionality: Beyond main and interactive associations. *Research on Child and Adolescent Psychopathology, 49*(1), 33–37. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10802-020-00720-w>
- Dias, M. C. (2020). Feminismo e decolonialidade: contribuições de Maria Lugones para a promoção da justiça em sociedades periféricas. In M. C. Dias, L. Gonçalves, P. Gonzaga, & S. Soares, (Org.) *Feminismos Decoloniais—Homenagem à Maria Lugones*. Ape'ku.
- Díaz, A. (2018). Challenging dominant epistemologies in higher education: The role of language in the geopolitics of knowledge (Re)production. In I. Liyanage (Ed.), *Multilingual education yearbook 2018*. Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-77655-2\\_2](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-77655-2_2)
- Dixit, A., & Banday, M. U. L. (2022). Problematising the digital gender gap: Invoking decoloniality and intersectionality for inclusive policymaking. *Gender & Development, 30*(3), 437–457. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2022.2117930>
- Egid, B. R., Roura, M., Aktar, B., Quach, J. A., Chumo, I., Dias, S., Hegel, G., Jones, L., Karuga, R., Lar, L., Lopez, Y., Pandya, A., Norton, T. C., Sheikhattari, P., Tancred, T., Wallerstein, N., Zimmerman, E., & Ozano, K. (2021). “You want to deal with power while riding on power”: Global perspectives on power in participatory health research and co-production approaches.

- BMJ Global Health*, 6(11), e006978. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-006978>
- Fernández, N., & Santillana, A. (2019). El regreso del FMI al Ecuador y la retórica del feminismo empresarial: Los posibles efectos en la vida de las mujeres. *Revista Economía*, 71(114), 13–33. <https://doi.org/10.29166/economia.v71i114.2221>
- Fernández-Rodríguez, C. J., & Medina-Vicent, M. (2023). Critical Management Studies y la perspectiva feminista: Una revisión de los debates en el campo de los análisis críticos de la gestión. *Cuadernos de Relaciones Laborales*, 41(2), 247–264. <https://doi.org/10.5209/crla.87774>
- Flowerdew, J. (2007). The non-Anglophone scholar on the periphery of scholarly publication. *AILA Review*, 20(1), 14–27.
- Freire, P. (1970). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Continuum.
- Galinsky, A. D., Hall, E. V., & Cuddy, A. J. C. (2013). Gendered Races: Implications for Interracial Marriage, Leadership Selection, and Athletic Participation. *Psychological Science*, 24(4), 498–506. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797612457783>
- González, L. (2020). *Por um Feminismo Afro-Latino-Americano: Ensaios, Intervenções e Diálogos*. Zahar.
- Grimaldi, E., Serpieri, R., & Spanò, E. (2015). Positionality, symbolic violence and reflexivity. Researching the educational strategies of marginalised groups. In K. Bhopal & R. Deuchar (Eds.), *Researching Marginalized Groups* (pp. 134–148), Routledge.
- Gutberlet, J., Tremblay, C., & Moraes, C. S. (2014). The community-based research tradition in Latin America. In R. Munck, L. McIlrath, B. Hall & R. Tandon (Eds.), *Higher education and community-based research* (pp. 167–180). Palgrave Macmillan.
- Guthridge, M., Kirkman, M., Penovic, T., & Giummarra, M. J. (2022). Promoting gender equality: A systematic review of interventions (September 1, 2022). *Social Justice Research*, 35, 318–343. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11211-022-00398-z>
- Haelwaters, D., Hofmann, T. A., & Romero-Olivares, A. L. (2021). Ten simple rules for Global North researchers to stop perpetuating helicopter research in the Global South. *PLoS Computational Biology*, 17(8), e1009277. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pcbi.1009277>
- Henrich, J., Heine, S. J., & Norenzayan, A. (2010). Most people are not WEIRD. *Nature*, 466(7302), 29–29. <https://doi.org/10.1038/466029a>
- Hondagneu-sotelo, P. (2001). *Doméstica: Immigrant Workers Cleaning and Caring in the Shadows of Affluence* (2nd ed.), University of California Press.
- hooks, b. (1984). *Feminist theory from margin to center*. South End Press.
- Jamieson, M. K., Govaart, G. H., & Pownall, M. (2023). Reflexivity in quantitative research: A rationale and beginner’s guide. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 17(4), e12735. <https://doi.org/10.1111/spc3.12735>
- Jenson, J., & Nagels, N. (2018) Social policy instruments in motion. Conditional cash transfers from Mexico to Peru. *Social Policy & Administration*, 52, 323–342. <https://doi.org/10.1111/spol.12275>
- Kossek, E. E., Su, R., & Wu, L. (2017). “Opting out” or “pushed out”? Integrating perspectives on women’s career equality for gender inclusion and interventions. *Journal of Management*, 43(1), 228–254. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206316671582>
- Kubiak, E., Efremova, M. I., Baron, S., & Frasca, K. J. (2023). Gender equity in hiring: Examining the effectiveness of a personality-based algorithm. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 14, 1219865. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2023.1219865>
- Lau, V. W., Scott, V. L., Warren, M. A., & Bligh, M. C. (2023). Moving from problems to solutions: A review of gender equality interventions at work using an ecological systems approach. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 44(2), 399–419. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2654>
- Lebon, N., & Maier, E. (2010). *Women’s activism in Latin America and the Caribbean: Engendering social justice, democratizing citizenship*. Rutgers University Press.
- Lugones, M. (1987). Playfulness, “World”—Travelling, and loving perception. *Hypatia*, 2(2), 3–19. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1527-2001.1987.tb01062.x>
- Lugones, M. (2003). *Pilgrimages = peregrinajes: Theorizing coalition against multiple oppressions*. Rowman & Littlefield.
- Magliano, M. J. (2015). Interseccionalidad y migraciones: Potencialidades y desafíos. *Revista Estudos Feministas*, 23(3), 691–712. <https://doi.org/10.1590/0104-026X2015v23n3p691>
- Martínez Franzoni, J., & Voorend, K. (2012). Blacks, whites, or grays? Conditional transfers and gender equality in Latin America. *Social Politics*, 19(3), 383–407. <https://doi.org/10.1093/SP/JXS008>
- Martínez-Labrin, S., & Castela-Huerta, I. (2023). Narrativas de subjetivación en académicas de Chile y Colombia: neoliberalismo y género en la universidad. *Quaderns De Psicologia*, 25(2), e1910. <https://doi.org/10.5565/rev/qpsicologia.1910>
- Masue, O. S., Swai, I. L., & Anasel, M. G. (2013). The qualitative-quantitative “Disparities” in social science research: What does qualitative comparative analysis (QCA) brings in to bridge the gap? *Asian Social Science*, 9, 211.
- McCluney, C. L., & Rabelo, V. C. (2019). Conditions of visibility: An intersectional examination of black women’s belongingness and distinctiveness at work. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 113, 143–152. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2018.09.008>
- McCormick-Huhn, K., Warner, L. R., Settles, I. H., & Shields, S. A. (2019). What if psychology took intersectionality seriously? Changing how psychologists think about participants. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 43(4), 445–456. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0361684319866430>
- McKinsey & Company, & LeanIn.Org (2023). *Women in the workplace 2023*. <https://leanin.org/women-in-the-workplace>
- Medina-Vicent, M. (2020). Los retos de los feminismos en el mundo neoliberal. *Revista Estudos Feministas*, 28(1), e57212. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1806-9584-2020v28n157212>
- Mendoza, B., & Grijalva, D. P. (2022). The epistemology of the south, coloniality of gender, and Latin American Feminism. *Hypatia*, 37(3), 510–522. <https://doi.org/10.1017/hyp.2022.26>
- Metinyurt, T., Haynes-Baratz, M. C., & Bond, M. A. (2021). A systematic review of interventions to address workplace bias: What we know, what we don’t, and lessons learned. *New Ideas in Psychology*, 63, Article 100879. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.newideapsych.2021.100879>
- Mignolo, W. D. (2011). *The darker side of Western modernity: Global futures, decolonial options*. Duke University Press.
- Moghadam, V. M. (2005). *Globalizing women: Transnational feminist networks*. JHU Press.
- Montero, M. (2007). The political psychology of liberation: From politics to ethics and back. *Political Psychology*, 28, 517–533. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9221.2007.00588.x>

- Morrissey, C. S., & Schmidt, M. L. (2008). Fixing the system, not the women: An innovative approach to faculty advancement. *Journal of Women's Health* (2002), 17(8), 1399–1408. <https://doi.org/10.1089/jwh.2007.0708>
- Motro, D., Evans, J. B., Ellis, A. P., & Benson III, L. (2022). Race and reactions to women's expressions of anger at work: Examining the effects of the "angry Black woman" stereotype. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 107(1), 142–152. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000884>
- Mousa, M., Boyle, J., Skouteris, H., Mullins, A. K., Currie, G., Riach, K., & Teede, H. J. (2021). Advancing women in healthcare leadership: A systematic review and meta-synthesis of multi-sector evidence on organisational interventions. *eClinicalMedicine*, 39, 101084. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eclinm.2021.101084>
- National Health Council. (2012). *Resolution 466/2012 on Research Involving Human Subjects*.
- Nogueira, C. (2017). *Interseccionalidade e Psicologia feminista*. Devires.
- Oliveira-Silva, L. C., & Barbosa-Silva, L. (2023). Career interventions for promoting gender equality: Methodological aspects. *Paidéia (Ribeirão Preto)*, 33, e3320. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1982-4327e3320>
- Oyhantcabal, L. M. (2021). Los aportes de los feminismos decolonial y latinoamericano. *Anduli. Revista Andaluza de Ciencias Sociales*, 20, 97–115.
- Paek, E. (2022). Manager gender and changing attitudes toward schedule control: Evidence from the work, family, and health study. *Community Work Fam*, 27(1), 98–115. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2022.2043827>
- Patil, V. (2013). From patriarchy to intersectionality: A transnational feminist assessment of how far we've really come. *Signs*, 38(4), 847–867. <https://doi.org/10.1086/669560>
- Peretz, T. (2021). Locally specific matrices of domination: Towards a global theory of intersectionalities. In *Women's Studies International Forum* (Vol. 89, p. 102540). Pergamon. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2021.102540>
- Pogrebna, G., Angelopoulos, S., Motsi-Omoijiade, I., Kharlamov, A., & Tkachenko, N. (2024). The impact of intersectional racial and gender biases on minority female leadership over two centuries. *Scientific Reports*, 14(1), 111. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-023-50392-x>
- Purdie-Vaughns, V., & Eibach, R. P. (2008). Intersectional invisibility: The distinctive advantages and disadvantages of multiple subordinate-group identities. *Sex Roles*, 59, 377–391. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-008-9424-4>
- Ramírez-Castañeda, V. (2020). Disadvantages in preparing and publishing scientific papers caused by the dominance of the English language in science: The case of Colombian researchers in biological sciences. *PLoS One*, 15(9), e0238372. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0238372>
- Ramos, C. G. G. (2016). "No somos feministas". Género, igualdad y neoliberalismo en Chile. *Revista Estudos Feministas*, 24(3), 871–889. <https://doi.org/10.1590/1806-9584-2016v24n3p871>
- Roth, J. (2019). Intersectionality. In O. Kaltmeier, J. Raab, M. S. Foley, A. Nash, S. Rinke & M. Rufer (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook to the History and Society of the Americas*. Routledge.
- Rosenthal, L. (2016). Incorporating intersectionality into psychology: An opportunity to promote social justice and equity. *American Psychologist*, 71(6), 474–485. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0040323>
- Ryan, M. K. (2023). Addressing workplace gender inequality: Using the evidence to avoid common pitfalls. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 62(1), 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1111/bjso.12606>
- Ryan, M. K., & Morgenroth, T. (2024). Why we should stop trying to fix women: How context shapes and constrains women's career trajectories. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 75(1), 555–572. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-032620-030938>
- Schiebinger, L., & Schraudner, M. (2011). Interdisciplinary approaches to achieving gendered innovations in science, medicine, and engineering. *Interdisciplinary Science Reviews*, 36, 154–167.
- Settles, I. H., Warner, L. R., Buchanan, N. T., & Jones, M. K. (2020). Understanding psychology's resistance to intersectionality theory using a framework of epistemic exclusion and invisibility. *Journal of Social Issues*, 76(4), 796–813. <https://doi.org/10.1111/josi.12403>
- Shields, C. M. (2011). Transformative Leadership: An Introduction. *Counterpoints*, 409, 1–17. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/42981292>
- Sojo, V., & Wheeler, M. (2024). Organizational research. In A. L. Nichols & J. E. Edlund (Eds.), *The Cambridge Handbook of Research Methods and Statistics for the Social and Behavioral Sciences* (Vol. 2, pp. 116–139). Cambridge University Press.
- Sojo, V., Wheeler, M., & Ryan, M. (2023). Accelerating gender and sexuality inclusion in organisations: Introduction to the special issue and research agenda. *Australian Journal of Management*, 48(4), 683–692. <https://doi.org/10.1177/03128962231181427>
- Sojo, V., Wood, R., Wood, S., & Wheeler, M. (2016). Reporting requirements, targets, and quotas for women in leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 27(3), 519–536. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.12.003>
- Spierings, N. (2016). Introduction: Gender and comparative methods. *Politics & Gender*, 12(3), E6, 1-5.
- Suaya, A., Kaplan, D. S., & Etcheverry, L. (2023). *Public policies for unlocking the value of paid domestic labor in Latin America and the Caribbean*, 1–19. <https://doi.org/10.18235/0005348>
- Trahar, S., Juntrasook, A., Burford, J., von Kotze, A., & Wildemeersch, D. (2019). Hovering on the periphery? "Decolonising" writing for academic journals. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 49(1), 149–167. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03057925.2018.1545817>
- Tricco, A. C., Parker, A., Khan, P. A., Nincic, V., Robson, R., MacDonald, H., Warren, R., Cleary, O., Zibrowski, E., Baxter, N., Burns, K. E. A., Coyle, D., Ndjaboue, R., Clark, J. P., Langlois, E. V., Ahmed, S. B., Witteman, H. O., Graham, I. D., El-Adhami, W., ... Straus, S. E. (2024). Interventions on gender equity in the workplace: a scoping review. *BMC Medicine*, 22(1).
- Tuhiwai Smith, L. (2012). *Decolonizing methodologies* (2nd ed.). Zed Books.
- Viveros Vigoya, M. (2015). Social mobility, whiteness, and whitening in Colombia. *The Journal of Latin American and Caribbean Anthropology*, 20(3), 496–512. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jlca.12176>
- Wagner, W., Hansen, K., & Kronberger, N. (2014). Quantitative and qualitative research across cultures and languages: cultural metrics and their application. *Integrative Psychological & Behavioral Science*, 48(4), 418–434. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12124-014-9269-z>

- Westmarland, N. (2001). The quantitative/qualitative debate and feminist research: A subjective view of objectivity. *Forum Qualitative Social Research, 2*, 11.
- Williamson, A., Smith, K., Sojo, V., Barraket, J., Ong, S., Reilly, J., Mitchell, E., & Teo, J. (2024). *Equitable Foundations: A Framework for Gender-wise Philanthropy in Partnerships*. Australians Investing In Women and Melbourne Social Equity Institute, The University of Melbourne. <https://doi.org/10.26188/24813873>
- Windsong, E. A. (2018). Incorporating intersectionality into research design: An example using qualitative interviews. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology: Theory & Practice, 21*(2), 135–147. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13645579.2016.1268361>
- Wong, C. Y. E., Kirby, T. A., Rink, F., & Ryan, M. K. (2022). Intersectional invisibility in women's diversity interventions. *Frontiers in Psychology, 13*, 791572. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.791572>
- Woolnough, H. M. (2007). *A longitudinal study to investigate the impact of a career development and mentoring programme on female mental health nurses*. The University of Manchester.
- World Economic Forum. (2024). *Global Gender Gap 2024: Insight Report*.
- Yakushko, O., Hoffman, L., Morgan Consoli, M. L., & Lee, G. (2016). On methods, methodologies, and continued colonization of knowledge in the study of “ethnic minorities”: Comment on Hall et al. (2016). *American Psychologist, 71*(9), 890–891. <https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000060>
- Yap, A. (2021). Hidden costs of inquiry: Exploitation, world-travelling and marginalized lives. *Kennedy Institute of Ethics Journal, 31*, 153–173.