A Feminist Economic Perspective on Contract Law: Promissory Estoppel as an Example

Orit Gan
Sapir College

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A FEMINIST ECONOMIC PERSPECTIVE ON CONTRACT LAW: PROMISSORY ESTOPPEL AS AN EXAMPLE

Orit Gan*

Abstract

Economic analysis is a highly influential theoretical approach to contract law. At the same time, feminist analysis of contract law offers an important critical approach to the field. However, feminist economics, a prominent alternative approach to mainstream neo-classical economics drawing from both economic theory and feminist theory, has only been applied scarcely and sporadically to contract law. This Article seeks to bridge this gap and to apply the key features of feminist economics to an analysis of the doctrine of promissory estoppel. This Article uses promissory estoppel as an example to demonstrate a feminist economic analysis of contract law.

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* Sapir College. Visiting Scholar, Columbia Law School (2010-2012). For their helpful comments I would like to thank Adi Ayal, Zohar Gan, Yael Hasson, Yuval Procaccia, the participants at the faculty seminar at Sapir College, School of Law, the faculty seminar at IDC Herzliya, Harry Radzyner Law School, and at the 15th Annual International Conference on Contracts, University of the Pacific, McGeorge School of Law.
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Introduction

Economic analysis is a prominent theoretical approach to contract law. At the same time, feminist analysis is an important critical approach to contract law. However, contract law scholars have paid only

1. For economic analysis of contract law, see STEVEN SHAVELL, FOUNDATIONS OF ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF LAW 291 (2004); RICHARD A. POSNER, ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF LAW 95 (9th ed. 2014); ROBERT COOTER & THOMAS ULEN, LAW & ECONOMICS 276 (6th ed. 2012); Benjamin E. Herma lin, Avery W. Katz & Richard Craswell, Contract Law, in HANDBOOK OF LAW AND ECONOMICS 7 (A. Mitchell Polinsky & Steven Shavell eds., 2007).
scarce attention to feminist economics. This Article aims to fill this void. The integration of both feminist theory and economics contributes to contract law analysis beyond the application of each theory alone. Economic analysis of contract law infused with feminist insights contributes to the development of contract law doctrines and core values.

Using promissory estoppel as an example, this Article argues that feminist economic analysis enriches contract law. The theoretical insights of feminist economics are applicable to promissory estoppel as well as to other doctrines such as unconscionability, good faith, interpretation, duress, and undue influence, as well as to core concepts, values, and principles of contract law such as autonomy, consent, and freedom of contract.

The doctrine of promissory estoppel has captured much scholarly attention. Some scholars view promissory estoppel as an insignificant and limited doctrine, a doctrine that is a mere substitute for the doctrine of consideration or a secondary doctrine of contract formation that deviates from the basic principles of contract law. Other scholars view promissory estoppel as an important doctrine serving important functions, such as: making contract formation broader and more flexible; mitigating power imbalance between parties; strengthening the right to


4. “Feminist economics is a field that includes both studies of gender roles in the economy from a liberatory perspective and critical work directed at biases in the economics discipline.” Julie A. Nelson, *Feminist Economics*, in THE NEW PALGRAVE DICTIONARY OF ECONOMICS 4512, 4512 (3d ed. 2018). For a detailed explanation of feminist economics see infra Part II.


contract; and promoting values—such as trust, cooperation, fairness, and justice.

This Article joins the latter scholars, arguing for the significance of promissory estoppel from a feminist economic perspective. Specifically, this Article shows how feminist economic analysis enriches and expands classic economic analysis of promissory estoppel. According to feminist economics, promissory estoppel expands contract law beyond the bargain theory, thus adding to the debate regarding the relation between the doctrine of consideration and the promissory estoppel doctrine. In other words, a feminist economic analysis demonstrates how promissory estoppel complements the doctrine of consideration.

Take, for example, *Ricketts v. Scothorn*. In this classic case, a grandfather promised his granddaughter that he would financially support her so that she would not have to work. On the basis of this promise, the granddaughter quit her job. The grandfather indeed paid her the promised allowance; however, when he died, the executor of his will refused to continue paying the granddaughter. The court enforced the grandfather’s promise, stating that “having intentionally influenced the plaintiff to alter her position for the worse on the faith of the note being paid when due, it would be grossly inequitable to permit the maker, or his executor, to resist payment on the ground that the promise was given without consideration.”

This case demonstrates the importance of promissory estoppel. Enforcing the promise expands contract law beyond the bargain theory and beyond market transactions supported by consideration. Promissory estoppel in this case stretches contract law to include intra-family relations. Likewise, this case broadens contract law beyond efficiency and

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8. For economic analysis of promissory estoppel, see infra Part I.C.
15. See infra Part III.H.
utility maximization to incorporate promises motivated by love and caring for another family member. Furthermore, promissory estoppel opens up contract law to the influences of social norms, in this case of a certain lifestyle. Promissory estoppel reveals how contracts are situated within a given social context, in this case social class. In addition, this case shows that sometimes family members might have different interests and perspectives. Lastly, this case demonstrates the importance of gifts and donations.

As the brief analysis of Ricketts above demonstrates, feminist economics is relevant to contract law generally. Feminist economics contests dichotomies: The inclusion of intra-family promises in contract law goes beyond commercial promises and thus refutes the family-market binary; the enforcement of gifts made for love goes beyond utility maximization and thus refutes the economic-emotion binary; the inclusion of social norms and social context in contract analysis inherently refutes the private-public binary. Feminist economics compels contract law to take into account the social context, aspects, and effects of contracts. Specifically, feminist economics sheds light on gender norms and how the economy is affected by the social context of patriarchy, discrimination, and inequality. In other words, the dynamic between men and women is itself an important economic factor. Feminist economics renders promises between family members an integral part of contract law. These are general contributions to contract law that go beyond promissory estoppel.

This Article has four parts. After briefly explaining the doctrine of promissory estoppel and Section 90 of the Restatement (Second) of Contracts, Part I reviews the literature on this doctrine. First, it explores the literature stressing the doctrine’s marginality, secondary place, and limited, narrow scope. Then it explores the literature emphasizing its importance, significance, and contribution to contract law. Part II briefly explains feminist economics and its core theoretical tenets and features. Based on the previous parts, Part III engages in a feminist economic analysis of promissory estoppel, contributing to the debate over whether promissory estoppel is important by joining the scholars in Part I who answer in the affirmative. Part IV goes beyond promissory estoppel and shows how feminist economics can enrich contract law general-
ly. This concluding part demonstrates that feminist economics is a valuable theory: It is relevant not only to promissory estoppel but also to other doctrines, core concepts, and values at the heart of contract law.

I. Promissory Estoppel

A. The Doctrine of Promissory Estoppel

Section 90 of the Restatement (Second) of Contracts provides that

A promise which the promisor should reasonably expect to induce action or forbearance on the part of the promisee or a third person and which does induce such action or forbearance is binding if injustice can be avoided only by enforcement of the promise. The remedy granted for breach may be limited as justice requires. 20

Promissory estoppel has evolved as a mechanism to enforce non-bargained-for, relied-upon promises. 21 It is considered a secondary rule of enforceable promises and is viewed as a narrow and limited substitute for consideration. 22 While some scholars view promissory estoppel as a


22. See, e.g., Glitoso v. Kadish, 418 P.2d 129, 131 (Ariz. Ct. App. 1966) (“The distinction, though narrow, is the difference between valid consideration on the one side, and estoppel on the other, which, when the ends of justice so dictate, is a substitute for consideration.”).
contract law doctrine, according to other scholars, promissory estoppel goes beyond contractual liability. Promissory estoppel is categorized as a contract, tort, or equitable doctrine and classified, accordingly, as creating promise-based, assent-based, reliance-based, or equity-based liability.

The law requires that four elements be present in order to invoke the doctrine of promissory estoppel:

1) There has to be a clear, definite, and unambiguous promise;
2) The promisor must have had reason to expect reliance on the promise;
3) The promise must have induced such reliance and a consequent detrimental change of position; and
4) Injustice can be avoided only by enforcement of the promise.

Section 90 provides for a flexible remedy, “as justice requires.” Indeed, some courts award reliance damages and other courts awarded expectation damages.


24. Gan, supra note 5, at 56-64.

25. Id.

26. CORBIN, supra note 9, at § 8.9; FARNSWORTH, supra note 9, at § 2.19.


29. Warren A. Seavey, Reliance upon Gratuitous Promises or Other Conduct, 64 HARV. L. REV. 913, 926 (1951).

30. See, e.g., Mary E. Becker, Promissory Estoppel Damages, 16 HOFSTRA L. REV. 131, 135 (1987) ("Courts routinely award expectation damages unless those damages are too speculative, indefinite, or otherwise unavailable under traditional contract rules.");
B. Promissory Estoppel Literature

The Restatement (Second) of Contracts adopted the bargain theory and primarily enforces promises supported by consideration.\(^{31}\) However, promissory estoppel provides an alternative basis for enforcement of non-bargained-for relied-upon promises.\(^{32}\) Promissory estoppel has evolved as a secondary rule of enforceable promises—a limited and narrow substitute for consideration. The main contract formation rule is based on consideration, while promissory estoppel functions as a backup rule for non-bargained-for promises.\(^{33}\) The literature on promissory estoppel is rich and diverse, taking different views on the relationship between the doctrine of consideration and promissory estoppel.\(^{34}\)

One view is that promissory estoppel is an insignificant and limited doctrine, a mere substitute for the doctrine of consideration and a secondary doctrine of contract formation that deviates from contract law principles.\(^{35}\) Contract law scholar Charles Knapp describes promissory estoppel as “the new kid on the contracts block.”\(^{36}\) A related view stresses the difference between the doctrine of consideration and promissory

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\(^{31}\) Restatement (Second) of Conts. § 71 (Am. L. Inst. 1981) (“To constitute consideration, a performance or a return promise must be bargained for.”). For critique of the doctrine of consideration see, for example, Hila Keren, Considering Affective Consideration, 40 Golden Gate U. L. Rev. 165 (2010); Alan M. White, Stop Teaching Consideration, 20 Nev. L. J. 503 (2020).

\(^{32}\) For the relation between the doctrine of consideration and the promissory estoppel doctrine, see supra note 10.


\(^{35}\) Feinman, supra note 6, at 680; Weinstein, supra note 6, at 796; Hillman, supra note 6, at 581.

estoppel. Contract law scholar Grant Gilmore describes the relations between consideration and reliance as the relation between “matter and anti-matter,” “Restatement and anti-Restatement,” and “Contract and anti-Contract.” Other scholars argue for a broad doctrine of consideration, which would include promissory estoppel cases. According to another view, promissory estoppel is not a contract doctrine, but rather a tort or equity doctrine.

There is a body of scholarship that takes still another view of promissory estoppel. According to these scholars, promissory estoppel is not insignificant, but rather broad and important. Scholars point to different reasons promissory estoppel is a significant doctrine of contract formation.

First, promissory estoppel is a favorable addition to the bargain theory. Some scholars support broadening the notion of contract lia-

45. Gan, supra note 5, at 56.
bility under the doctrine of consideration. Accordingly, contract formation is not limited by the bargain theory, and reliance is also a basis for enforcing promises. Other scholars claim the enforcement of reliance-based promises makes contract law less individualistic, abstract, and formalistic, and more flexible, contextual, and relational. Section 90 uses the open-ended term “reliance” and provides for a flexible remedy—as justice requires. Promissory estoppel, then, relaxes the formal rules of contract formation and provides that parties are estopped from denying the contract.

Second, promissory estoppel complements the bargain theory by addressing promises in non-bargain contexts. Some scholars claim that promissory estoppel covers areas outside the scope of doctrine of consideration. Promissory estoppel is an alternative to consideration, where enforcement is based not only on free choice, but also on reliance, justice, and other public policies. Promissory estoppel complicates bargain theory’s simplistic logic of free choice, according to which enforceability of contract is based on the parties’ choice to be obligated. Enforcement of promises under promissory estoppel is based on reliance as an alternative to the doctrine of consideration.


50. Feinman, *supra* note 6, at 680.

Third, promissory estoppel promotes efficiency.\(^{52}\) It encourages cooperation, trust, and interdependence between the parties.\(^ {53}\) This results in reducing opportunistic and predatory behavior during negotiations.\(^ {54}\) In addition to promoting efficiency, promissory estoppel also promotes the fairness of contracts. It is an equitable tool to achieve justice when consideration is lacking or in the face of the misuse of formalities.\(^ {55}\)

Fourth, promissory estoppel enables courts to mitigate the power imbalance between parties and to monitor misuses of power.\(^ {56}\) It reflects a more paternalistic and protectionist contract law and greater intervention by the courts in contractual relations. For example, contract law scholar Juliet Kostritsky argues that promissory estoppel facilitates contractual relations where a power imbalance, due to the respective status or knowledge of the parties, could have prevented the transaction.\(^ {57}\)

Lastly, promissory estoppel expands and strengthens the right to contract.\(^ {58}\) “Promissory estoppel enables promisees to overcome obstacles to meeting the formalities of the doctrine of consideration and to contract nevertheless.”\(^ {59}\) Thus, promissory estoppel plays an important role in guaranteeing access to contract.

Feminist economics adds to this body of scholarship and highlights the importance of care, non-market interactions, and the influence of social norms (especially gender norms) on people’s choices and preferences.\(^ {60}\) Feminist economics provides a fresh perspective and enriches promissory estoppel scholarship. The feminist economic analysis in this Article seeks to make three primary contributions: First, based on this analysis, it argues that promissory estoppel is a broad and important doctrine and not an insignificant and secondary doctrine. Second, re-

\(^{52}\) For an economic analysis of promissory estoppel, see infra notes 61-73 and accompanying text.


\(^{57}\) Id. at 911-13.

\(^{58}\) Gan, supra note 5.

\(^{59}\) Id. at 79.

\(^{60}\) See infra Part III.
C. Economic Analysis of Promissory Estoppel

According to mainstream law and economics, promises that benefit both parties are enforceable. Courts enforce promises to promote efficient outcomes and refuse to enforce promises that fail to promote welfare maximization. Thus, promissory estoppel, like consideration, is a screening mechanism to enforce value enhancing promises. Promissory estoppel promotes optimal interactions between promisee and promisor. In other words, it makes both parties better off.

As contract law scholars Charles Goetz and Robert Scott explain, “a promise may be enforceable to the extent that the promisee has incurred substantial costs, or conferred benefits, in reasonable reliance on the promise. Promissory estoppel under Section 90 of the Restatement of Contracts is the primary enforcement mechanism when action in reliance follows the promise.” Promissory estoppel promotes efficiency by enforcing promises that caused costs to the promisee.

Law and economics scholar Richard Posner argues that a promise “induce[s] reliance that cost[s] the promisee heavily when it [is] broken, and such a cost can be avoided for the future by holding such a promisor liable for the promisee’s cost of having relied.” The enforceability of promises depends on whether imposing liability creates incentives for future value maximizing conduct. In a promissory estoppel case, a promise is enforceable to give parties incentives to behave efficiently. That is, both to induce the promisor to be careful in making a promise

62. See id. at 538 n.37.
63. Id. at 566-67.
64. Id.
66. POSNER, supra note 1, at 101.
67. Id.
and to take into account the cost that the promise has on the promisee, as well as to induce the promisee to rely on the promise. 68

Another reason to enforce promises is to prevent opportunism. 69 Since the parties do not perform their duties under the contract simultaneously, the aim of contract law is to deter opportunistic behavior and to prevent promisors from taking advantage of promisees by making promises and then breaking them after reaping their benefits. Enforcing a promise under promissory estoppel deters opportunistic behavior of promisors by making them act upon their promises that the promisees reasonably relied on.

An additional reason to enforce promises is to allocate risks efficiently between the parties. The question is: How would the parties themselves have resolved the issue had they foreseen it? Should the promisor assume the risk for the broken promise because she induced reliance? Or should the promisee assume the risk since her reliance was unreasonable? In the first instance the promise would be enforced and in the second the promise would not be enforced. The question of whether to enforce the promise also asks how to allocate the risk between the parties.

Furthermore, promissory estoppel is efficient since it protects the promisee’s investment. 70 Promissory estoppel encourages efficient precontractual investment by compensating for reliance during negotiations. Promissory estoppel polices opportunistic behavior by not allowing a promisor to benefit from the promisee’s reliance then deny the promise and refrain from acting upon it. In such cases, the promise would be enforceable, in order to promote the efficient reliance of the promisee. Promissory estoppel promotes mutual trust, which also enhances mutual gains for both parties. 71

According to contract law scholar Richard Craswell:

The legal doctrines governing offer and acceptance can be interpreted to prevent one party from withdrawing in just those cases where an enforceable commitment would have been

69. Kostritsky, supra note 61, at 567.
71. Kostritsky, supra note 61, at 567.
necessary to induce an efficient level of reliance by the other party. In those cases, I argue, even the party who now seeks to withdraw would have wanted to be committed (if he or she had been asked that question at the time the other party had to rely), precisely in order to induce efficient reliance.\textsuperscript{72}

Promissory estoppel then protects efficient reliance, which contract law scholar Avery Katz alludes to as well:

The efficiency of promissory estoppel in precontractual negotiations turns on the relative bargaining power of the parties ex post. If offerors have the bargaining power, then holding them responsible for lost reliance under the estoppel doctrine promotes optimal reliance. If offerees have the bargaining power, then optimal reliance requires them to bear the risk of loss.\textsuperscript{73}

Economic analysis of promissory estoppel concentrates on market transactions and business negotiations. It also focuses on the parties and on efficiency and utility maximization. Feminist economics provides an alternative economic analysis of promissory estoppel, looking beyond the parties to social norms (especially gender norms), and focusing instead on non-market agreements: activities such as caring, relations between household members, and intra-family agreements. Feminist economics acknowledges motivations beyond gain enhancement. Before delving into a feminist economic analysis of promissory estoppel, the next Part explains the theoretical foundations of feminist economics.

\section*{II. Feminist Economics}

Feminist economics is a critical approach to mainstream neoliberal economics.\textsuperscript{74} It exposes the gendered aspects, biases, dimensions, and

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\textsuperscript{74} For feminist economics generally, see \textit{BEYOND ECONOMIC MAN: FEMINIST THEORY AND ECONOMICS} (Marianne A. Ferber & Julie A. Nelson eds., 1993); \textit{FEMINIST ECONOMICS TODAY BEYOND ECONOMIC MAN} (Marianne A. Ferber & Julie A. Nel-
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implications of the economy. While mainstream economics maintains that gender is irrelevant, feminist economics suggests that gender relations are an important part of the economy. Feminist economics exists in the intersection of economic theory and feminist theory, drawing from both of these worlds. It also combines economic and feminist methods and insights. Feminist economics is diverse, drawing from different schools within economics and from different schools within feminism. It is not the case that feminist economics is economics for women while mainstream economics is economics for men. Rather, feminist economics is inclusive economics that goes beyond androcentric mainstream economics.

By the 1990s, feminist economics had become widely recognized as an established subfield within economics. To date, there is rich scholarship in this field. For example, Feminist Economics was founded in the...
mid 1990s and is by now a prestigious journal. As economics scholar Cahal Moran notes:

Feminist economics is a key component of the movement for pluralism in economics and one that has, to some extent, been acknowledged by the mainstream of the profession. It seeks to highlight issues which affect women because (it claims) they have not traditionally been recognized in a field dominated by men.78

Two major themes of feminist economics are unpaid labor, mostly done by women, and discrimination women face in the economy.79

Like other schools of heterodox80 economics, feminist economics challenges mainstream neoclassical economics. Though mainstream economics itself has evolved over the years, its male bias is still acute.81 Feminist economics thus challenges the foundation of mainstream economics in the following ways.82

A. Care Work

Mainstream economics either ignores care work or analyzes care work as a commodity. Feminist economics highlights the differences between care work83 and the production and manufacture of goods.84 For example, care work involves a personal relationship between the care worker and the person cared for. Care work is also influenced by social norms.85 Thus, feminist economics critiques mainstream economics for measuring productivity, supply, and demand of care work like any other commodity. Feminist economics goes beyond paid work and produc-

79. Id.
81. Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 62.
82. Id.
83. Care work is the hands-on services that children and some adults (like elderly or disabled individuals) require. These services are tailored specifically to individuals’ needs, and involve tasks that others—who do not require care—can do by themselves. Care work can be both paid and unpaid.
84. Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 69.
85. See infra Part II.E.
tion and, unlike mainstream economics, focuses on care work.\footnote{Nancy Folbre, \textit{Measuring Care: Gender, Empowerment, and the Care Economy}, 7 J. Hum. Dev. 183 (2006); Helen Mussell, \textit{Who Dares to Care? (In the World of Finance)}, 24 Feminist Econ. 113 (2018); Rachel Connelly, Xiao-yuan Dong, Joyce Jacobsen & Yaohui Zhao, \textit{The Care Economy in Post-Reform China: Feminist Research on Unpaid and Paid Work and Well-Being}, 24 Feminist Econ. 1 (2018).} Care work is mostly done by women, which results in inequalities in both employment and the family.\footnote{Nancy Folbre, \textit{The Care Penalty and Gender Inequality}, in \textit{Oxford Handbook Women & Economics} 749 (Susan L. Averett et al. eds., 2017).} Thus, care work is gendered. Feminist economics asks questions such as: Who does the care work? (Private market entities? Public state entities? Family members? The community? Immigrant workers?) For whom and under what conditions? (How much are care workers paid?) What is good care work? How to measure the quality of care work? The analysis of care work found in feminist economics is relevant and applicable to housework and other types of unpaid work.\footnote{Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 61-72.} Feminist economics exposes the gendered nature of care work and housework and highlights their importance to the economy.

B. Non-Market

Some mainstream economics theories ignore non-market activities.\footnote{Non-market activities include, for example, domestic work and housework (such as cleaning, cooking, and caring for children).} For example, the GDP does not count domestic work.\footnote{Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 64.} Other mainstream economic theories apply the same economic rules and assumptions to non-market activities.\footnote{Gary S. Becker, \textit{A Treatise of the Family} 3-4 (1991); Richard A. Posner, \textit{Sex and Reason} B5 (1992).} As people interact in different manners, feminist economics goes beyond the market to include families and communities. Feminist economics then questions who participates in the market? On what terms? Who has non-market obligations, such as housework and care work? Feminist economics claims that housework, which is most often women’s work, is part of the economy.\footnote{Katrine Marçal, \textit{Who Cooked Adam Smith’s Dinner?} (Saskia Vogel trans., 2016); Gabrielle Meagher & Julie A. Nelson, \textit{Survey Article: Feminism in the Dismal Science}, 12 J. Pol. Phil. 102 (2004).} While men also engage in such non-market activities, the fact is that they remain primarily carried out by women,\footnote{See Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 63.} which underscores the gendered bias of classical economics’ limited view of accounting on-
ly for the market. Moreover, the market and the home are interrelated. For example, housework obligations leave less time for employment or engagement in other market activities.

Though some mainstream economics theories address non-market activities, feminist economics points specifically to the gendered nature of these activities and to their importance to the economy.

C. Economic Man

Mainstream economics holds the assumption of the individual economic man who is a selfish and rational utility maximizer as its model. Though subject to heavy critique, this model remains influential in economic analysis. This model is a reflection of hegemonic privileged men and excludes other men and women. Holding that people are not self-centered but rather interdependent, feminist economics goes beyond the model of the economic man. It presents a fuller and richer model of both men’s and women’s interactions and autonomy. It suggests that human beings are complex and not solely influenced by material factors. People are more than just rational individuals. We cooperate. We are interdependent. We are part of a community or society. Our behavior is a response to both nonmaterial and material incentives. Feminist economics challenges the gendered bias of the economic man model and offers an alternative: a holistic vision of the economic actor, motivated by a variety of factors, and behaving in different forms and not only according to one model.

D. Household Members

While mainstream economics focuses on the household as a unit, feminist economics focuses on each family member and their different

94. See Becker, supra note 91; Posner, supra note 91.
95. See generally Dequech, supra note 80, at 281-92.
97. Id. at 93-99.
98. Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 63.
100. Id.
101. Id.
interests or preferences.102 These two views of the household are poignantly divergent; for example, individual income taxes (taxing individuals) are different from family income taxes (taxing the family unit rather than individuals), and the former usually benefit women more than the latter.103 Feminist economics looks at the different gender roles women and men have in the family and the way resources are shared unequally in the household.104 Rather than a simplistic view, feminist economics suggests a more complex view of the household.105 Feminist economics exposes the gendered aspects of the household.

E. Social Norms

Mainstream economics assumes that individuals are rational and thus that their decisions reflect their choices and preferences.106 These preferences are held to be stable and unrelated to society.107 Moreover, these preferences are taken as a given and are not questioned.108 Feminist economics challenges these assumptions. Feminist economics stresses that people are not rational utility maximizers and that their preferences cannot be seen as preordained.109 People’s preferences are influenced by social norms and are not static but rather are constantly changing.110 The individual is not separate from society. Rather, there are complex relations between the individual and society, where society affects the individual and vice versa. Feminist economics especially stresses the way in which gender norms shape women’s and men’s choices, preferences, and options.111 In other words, social conditions of patriarchy, inequality, and discrimination influence how both women and men economically perform and function. Social norms might sometimes limit people’s choices, and people’s choices might change social norms.

102. Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 66.
103. Id.
104. See id. at 65-66.
106. Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 66.
107. Id.
108. Id.
109. Id. at 67.
110. See Rebecca Pearse & Raewyn Connell, Gender Norms and the Economy: Insights from Social Research, 22 FEMINIST ECON. 30 (2016); Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 67.
111. Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 67.
For example, the employment rate of mothers of young children is influenced by social attitudes and norms regarding employment and motherhood. At the same time, as more mothers of young children enter the workforce, these social attitudes and norms change.\textsuperscript{112} Though other economic schools have also pointed to the importance of social norms,\textsuperscript{113} the masculine model of economics is still dominant, and feminist economics places particular emphasis on the importance of gender norms to economic analysis.\textsuperscript{114}

F. Well-Being

According to feminist economics, well-being is not limited to monetary gains.\textsuperscript{115} For example, living in a caring and equal society and living in a society with good health and education systems each increase the well-being of women and men and of individuals and society writ large.\textsuperscript{116} Though other economic schools have advocated for broadening the analysis of well-being,\textsuperscript{117} feminist economics in particular has challenged the gendered aspects of well-being.\textsuperscript{118} It is not sufficient to account for women’s well-being in addition to men’s. Rather, it is critical to profoundly alter the very definition of well-being to include women’s perspectives on the concept.

This Article has described mainstream economics in very broad, general strokes, and has not sought to account for differences between various economic theories. Similarly, this Article has portrayed only the most general tenets of feminist economics, without addressing the different approaches within feminist economics. Furthermore, though feminist economics has theoretical dimensions as well as political,\textsuperscript{119} methodological,\textsuperscript{120} pedagogical,\textsuperscript{121} and epistemological\textsuperscript{122} dimensions, this

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{112} Id. at 67-78.
\item \textsuperscript{114} Himmelweit, supra note 75.
\item \textsuperscript{116} Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 72.
\item \textsuperscript{117} See, e.g., McGregor & Pouw, supra note 115.
\item \textsuperscript{118} Himmelweit, supra note 75, at 72.
\item \textsuperscript{120} See, e.g., Diana Strassmann, \textit{Expanding the Methodological Boundaries of Economics}, 3 FEMINIST ECON., at i, vii-viii (1997); Diana Strassmann, \textit{Feminist Economic Method-
Article focuses exclusively on the theoretical. With that, alongside this absence of certain nuances, this Article provides a broad picture of the contrast between mainstream economics and feminist economics.

As noted, feminist economics is not the only heterodox economic school, and there are other approaches to economics that challenge mainstream economics. However, feminist economics is an important critique of the dominant approach to economics. Feminist economics documents the differences in well-being between men and women, advocates policies which will promote equity, and conducts research free from androcentric bias.\textsuperscript{123}

Feminist economics, then, combines insights from both economics and feminist theory. The “feminist” in feminist economics means that feminist economics seeks to challenge mainstream economics from a holistic feminist perspective. Not only does feminist economics broaden mainstream economics to include women, but it also disputes the basis of mainstream economics. It challenges mainstream economics’ purported objectivity and neutrality and exposes the male biases and androcentricity of mainstream economics. It calls into question the theoretical foundations of mainstream economics and does not make do with merely including women, but rather insists on including gender and gender analysis in a profound, substantive manner. Feminist economics exposes the ways in which the entire economy is gendered.

The “economics” in feminist economics means that feminist economics exposes the economic nature of institutions (like family) that are viewed as existing outside of the economy. It challenges the limited and narrow scope of mainstream economics that ignores women’s work. It unveils the economics of women’s labor. This makes feminist economics a unique school of feminist analysis. Just as some feminist theories focus on identity, equality, sexuality, or power, feminist economics addresses the economics of gender.\textsuperscript{124}

Though other critical approaches to contract law, such as relational contract law for example, share some insights with feminist economics, they lack the aforementioned feminist and economic aspects. In other words, feminist economics, while not the only critical perspective on contract law, is unique in its ability to challenge the gendered aspects of contract law. Relational theory of contract law, to continue with the above example, addresses social aspects of contract law, but fails to address its gender bias and the economic impact of such bias. Relational theory likewise addresses economic imbalance of power between parties, but fails to address power dynamics that result from patriarchy. Thus, the perspectives on contract law found within feminist economics are valuable even in cases in which said perspectives overlap with other critical theories.

III. A Feminist Economic Analysis of Promissory Estoppel

Formation of contract under the bargain theory focuses on market transactions. Classic contract law envisions rational parties who contract in order to maximize utility. Promissory estoppel is an alternative route to formation that opens contract law to other non-market relations and to social policy considerations. Applying the principles of feminist economics to promissory estoppel reveals how promissory estoppel broadens contract law: Formation of contract is not limited to consideration and to bargain, enforceable promises are not limited to the market sphere, and parties’ motivations are not limited to wealth maximization. Rather, promissory estoppel promotes cooperation, trust, altruism, and caring; it integrates reliance, justice, fairness, and relationships into contracts; and it includes agreements between family members as an integral part of contract law.

Promissory estoppel also makes contract law more pluralistic and inclusive. Promissory estoppel broadens contract law to include women’s interests and perspectives as an integral part of the economy. At the same time promissory estoppel challenges the gendered bias of economics under the doctrine of consideration by adding non-market activities.

125. See Posner, supra note 1.
126. Gan, supra note 5, at 48.
A. Borelli v. Brusseau

In *Borelli v. Brusseau*, a husband was very ill and wished to be cared for at home by his wife rather than by nurses in a hospital. He promised to transfer some of his personal property to his wife in exchange for her care. She performed her promised duties and took care of him until his death. Yet, he did not carry out his end of the deal, and he instead left his property to his daughter in his will. The court concluded there was no binding contract due to lack of consideration, ruling that “personal performance of a personal duty created by the contract of marriage does not constitute a new consideration supporting the indebtedness, alleged in this case.” The dissent held that the wife’s care work satisfied the required consideration, and thus an enforceable contract was made between the husband and wife. Promissory estoppel was not discussed. However, the following application of feminist economic analysis shows why the court should have applied promissory estoppel in order to enforce the promise in this case.

B. Valuing Care Work

The court’s decision in *Borelli* not only denies the wife’s right to receive the money promised to her, but also disregards and devalues her care work itself. It views her care work as part of her marital duties, and thus not as something substantive or worthy of note. It is not something she might exchange for reciprocal value. According to the majority, the woman in this case did nothing more than act as a good, obedient wife. Alternatively, the enforcement of the promise using promissory estoppel would give the care work value and importance. It would bestow high regard upon the labor of caring, and as a result, would award the wife the compensation promised for her care work. As

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128. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 17-18.
129. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 17-18.
130. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 18.
131. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 18.
132. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 20.
134. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 19.
135. See *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 19 (“[A] wife is obligated by the marriage contract to provide nursing-type care to an ill husband.”).
the dissent showed in this case, the wife did something well beyond her marital duties.

It might seem that awarding the wife compensation devalues her care work in that it treats her primarily as a nurse, rather than as a wife. Doing care work for love, it might be argued, is morally superior to doing so for money. However, awarding the wife compensation for her role as a nurse does not undermine the moral value of her role as a loving wife. The wife, in this case, provided care work both out of love and with the anticipation that she would be fairly compensated. These motivations coexist and are not mutually exclusive. Commodification considerations are valuable considerations, but enforcing the promise in a case like this would neither commodify the wife’s care work nor degrade it. By enforcing the promise, the court would validate the values both parties attached to the wife’s care work. Enforcing the contract would not mean treating the wife’s caring as a commodity provided with no emotions, or strictly as part of her professional duties. Awarding the wife the promised property would not mean she did not care for her husband or that she acted as a professional nurse.

Women’s right to contract with their husbands or others (a right women earned in the 19th century) is an important economic right that enhances women’s autonomy. The contract in this case should be treated like any other marital agreement, which can be enforced without devaluing the love relations of the couple.

136. Borelli, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 24.
C. Enforcing Intra-Family Promises

The court’s decision in Borelli excludes promises between spouses, since personal performance of marital duties does not qualify as consideration. The court thus maintains the market-family dichotomy. This leaves intra-family promises outside the scope of contract law. Enforcing a promise under promissory estoppel broadens contract law beyond the market. Promises in the intra-family context should also be binding. As the dissent pointed out, had the wife been a professional nurse and not the husband’s wife, her care work would qualify as consideration and his promise would have been enforceable. People relate to one another in different ways, not only through the market. Consideration narrowly values only one such way and excludes all others. Promissory estoppel, on the other hand, supplements the doctrine of consideration and includes in its scope other relations, and thus broadens contract law.

It might appear that enforcing intra-family promises using promissory estoppel still maintains hierarchy. Commercial promises will be enforced under the doctrine of consideration, while familial promises will be enforced by a separate doctrine of promissory estoppel. In this view, consideration is the main doctrine of contract formation, while promissory estoppel remains a secondary doctrine. In other words, if consideration is the main entrance to the contract world, the wife (and other women) could use promissory estoppel as the back door to enter into the contract world.

However, having an alternative doctrine of contract formation does not necessarily mean that there will be a hierarchy. Consideration and promissory estoppel are, in fact, two equal doctrines. In some cases, both apply and promisees argue that the promise should be enforced under either doctrine. Some scholars point out that both consideration and promissory estoppel serve the same screening goal: They both distinguish enforceable from unenforceable promises. Other scholars call for uniting both doctrines into a single doctrine. Having two formation doctrines side by side does not necessarily entail hierarchy: Both can be seen as main doors to the contract world.

139. Borelli, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 20.
140. Borelli, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 23.
143. See, e.g., Farber & Matheson, supra note 53, at 905.
D. Love as Motivation to Contract

The court decision in Borelli saw the wife’s care work as part of her marital duties and thus not subject to contract.\textsuperscript{144} Promissory estoppel acknowledges the existence of relations other than market relations, recognizes different motivations for contracting other than utility maximization, and acknowledges that there are gains other than monetary ones.

The wife in this case was motivated by her love for her husband, but this motivation should not be left outside the scope of contract law.\textsuperscript{145} She was not a selfish, rational, utility-maximizing individual; rather, their agreement reflects a relationship of trust, mutual respect, and interdependence. The wife acted in a manner that was based on her love for her husband, as well as for the sake of the money promised. Her example demonstrated that people act not only as rational wealth-maximizers, but also for other non-monetary reasons.

People are complex and behave out of more than one motivation. The court imposed a binary: The wife either contracted for money or acted on the basis of her marital duties. Promissory estoppel is an alternative rationale, which demonstrates that both are true in her case. Her love for her husband does not negate the fact that she deserves to be awarded the money promised to her. These motivations of love and the property promised are not mutually exclusive to one another: They can and often do live side by side. Rather than employing binary thinking according to which one either acts in the market sphere for selfish motivations or one acts in the family sphere for love, feminist economics provides a more complex—and humanly accurate—picture in which people may act for both reasons.\textsuperscript{146} In other words, family members may act for economic considerations, and so too may commercial parties act for non-monetary considerations. In both contexts, people act on the basis of more than one motivation.

\textsuperscript{144} Borelli, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 21.
\textsuperscript{145} For incorporating values such as love and caring into contract law, see Linda Mulcahy, \textit{The Limitations of Love and Altruism}, in \textit{Feminist Perspectives on Contract Law} 1 (Linda Mulcahy & Sally Wheeler eds., 2005).
E. Acknowledging Different Interests of Different Family Members

_Borelli_ also demonstrates that different family members often have different interests. The suit revealed a conflict of interests between the spouses: Both wanted the husband’s property, and while the husband wished to be nursed by wife at home, she preferred that he would remain instead in the hospital. The dissent hints at the fact that the wife contemplated divorcing her husband due to his health condition, but she ultimately chose instead to stay married to him and to take care of him until his death. Their agreement amounted to a compromise between these different interests and preferences. Yet the court did not enforce this compromise, valuing only the husband’s interests and preferences.

Rather than automatically assuming domestic harmony, the law should directly address conflicts between spouses, as did the dissent. In this vein, the dissent respected the compromise the couple reached. The imposed view of automatically supposed harmony obscures the power dynamics in this family: The wife performed her promise and cared for her husband, while the husband did not perform his end of the deal, though he benefited from his wife’s care work. The harmony, in this case, is actually simply the rule of the stronger party, and is thus a false harmony.

The majority in _Borelli_ perpetuated this grave imbalance. Because the majority automatically assumed the existence of unified, shared familial interests, it was unable to see the wife’s separate interests. The dissent, however, would have mitigated this disparity by recognizing the conflict of interests between the parties, enforcing the compromise they reached, and awarding the wife the promised property. The dissent balanced the different interests between two contracting parties and sought to correct the uneven distribution caused by the husband’s breach of his promise. As noted earlier, the household is not a unit but rather is composed of different members who may have conflicting interests. The dissent in _Borelli_ shows that contract law can be a tool to resolve this conflict of interests.

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147. _Borelli_, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 17.
148. _Borelli_, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 24.
149. _Borelli_, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 20.
150. _Borelli_, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 22.
151. See supra Part II.D.
F. Acknowledging Social Norms

The case of Borelli v. Brusseau demonstrates that social norms—and especially gender norms—influence the parties’ contract. The power dynamics between the spouses necessarily shape their agreement. The husband had more money than the wife,152 such that he could purchase the wife’s nursing and care work. She acted as a dutiful wife, cared for her husband, and looked after him until he died. In order to understand their agreement, we need to look at the social background. Gender roles and social expectations shaped their agreement. The wife’s decision to care for her husband was influenced by social norms and expectations of married women.

The contract is not an island isolated from its surroundings. A contract is rooted in its social context. Entering the oral agreement was not simply the result of the wife’s calculation and analysis of costs and benefits, but also derived from the societal gender role of a wife. It is no coincidence that it is the wife taking care of her husband and not the other way around.

Furthermore, one has to consider the power dynamics between men and women. Gender relations within the family are the background for the agreement between wife and husband. With that, even if it were a husband taking care of his wife, the promise should still be enforced under the doctrine of promissory estoppel. Care work, which is mostly done by women, is undervalued and should receive economic and social appreciation, whether done by women or men.153

It seems that the court was influenced by gender roles in marriage. According to the majority, the wife simply performed her marital duties.154 Promissory estoppel demonstrates alternative social norms according to which care work is valuable and, even when done with love, deserves compensation. The dissent pointed to the old precedents upon which the majority relied in order to stress that this ruling was based on archaic notions regarding marriage.155 Social norms have changed and these updated norms should apply to the parties’ agreement. Today, spouses enter contracts with one another and make marital and other

152. Borelli, 16 Cal. Rptr. 2d at 17.
154. Borelli, 16 Cal. Rptr. at 19.
agreements. In fact, the couple in *Borelli* signed a prenuptial agreement.\(^{156}\)

The dissent used the Clintons’ marriage to stress how the majority’s concept of marriage is outdated.\(^{157}\) According to the dissent, “To contend in 1993 that such a contract is without consideration means that if Mrs. Clinton becomes ill, President Clinton must drop everything and personally care for her.”\(^{158}\) The Clinton example exposes the gender bias of the majority. The care that is expected of the wife seems odd when applied to President Clinton. Though the majority uses gender-neutral language, the dissent’s role reversal (Secretary Clinton needs President Clinton’s care) reveals that the majority’s ruling is based on social roles and social expectations that apply to women but not to men. According to the dissent, care work, whether done by women or men, qualifies as consideration.\(^{159}\)

The majority stressed that marital contracts are different from other contracts since there is public interest in marriage.\(^{160}\) However, the majority failed to consider the influences of society on the marital contract. According to the majority, each spouse has a duty to care for the other spouse.\(^{161}\) The majority’s gender-neutral statement disregards both gender roles in marriage and social perceptions of husbands and wives, and the resultant expectations from each group.

*Borelli* might appear to be a modification of contract case. According to this analysis, the husband and wife had a marriage agreement obligating the wife to take care of her husband. The wife wanted to modify this agreement to include the husband’s obligation to transfer the property to her. Since this is a duress case in which the wife wanted to extort extra compensation beyond the original agreed upon compensation, the modified agreement is unenforceable. There should be no consideration for this contract modification. The wife’s care work must be seen as her obligation under the original contract, and she did not provide new consideration for the modified contract. Therefore, under this perspective, this contract is not enforceable.

However, it should be noted that even under this interpretation of the case, one still needs to look at social norms in order to determine the

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156. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. at 17.
158. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. at 24.
159. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. at 24.
160. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. at 19 (“It is fundamental that a marriage contract differs from other contractual relations in that there exists a definite and vital public interest in reference to the marriage relation.”).
161. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. at 20.
spouses’ obligations to one another under the marriage contract—that is, the original contract. The contract modification reading of the case is also based on societal conceptions of marital contract.

This case demonstrates that marriage is a social institution, one that changes over time. Marriage has many meanings: It is a coverture, a status, a contract; it is about love, it is about money; it is a relation between two people, it is a relation between two families, it is the creation of a new family; it once referred only to heterosexual couples but now includes same-sex couples. More meanings could be added to this list, but even this abbreviated litany highlights the dynamic, pluralist, and complex notion of marriage. Feminist economics urges contract law to take social context into account. Furthermore, even though Borelli is a 1993 case, societal and gender-social context remains as relevant today as it was over twenty-five years ago.

G. Furthering Distributive Justice

Not enforcing a promise has distributive implications. As the dissent pointed out, the husband and wife in Borelli made an agreement. The wife performed her part of the agreement while husband did not perform his. The majority failed to correct this imbalance. This left the husband with the care from which he benefitted as a result of the agreement, even as he did not deliver the property promised to the wife. Promissory estoppel would enable the court to intervene and restore the equilibrium. Enforcing the promise using promissory estoppel would advance distributive justice. It would enable weaker parties to enforce promises made to them. It would prevent stronger parties from denying their promise after benefitting from it. As caring is considered feminine in our society and is mostly done by women, enforcing the husband’s promise in a case like this one would promote equality between women and men. In other words, the line between enforceable and unenforceable promises is gendered and not neutral. Promissory estoppel expands the borders of contract law, making the law itself more inclusive.

It might seem that applying contract law to family agreements is harmful to women. According to this view, regulating family through

162. See supra Part II.E.
165. Gan, supra note 27.
166. Folbre, supra note 87.
cold, formal, rigid economic rules of contract law might disadvantage women, and thus it is better to leave the family outside the realm of contract law. The family should remain a place where love—rather than contracts—rules. While this is a valid concern, it should be noted that the justice element of promissory estoppel makes contract law less cold and rigid, and thus explicitly protects weaker parties, such as women, from misuse of contract law. The justice element may be used to apply public policy considerations that will guarantee contract law will not be used to harm women. Moreover, this case demonstrates the harm of excluding intra-family promises from contract law. It highlights the distributive implications of regarding the family in exclusively non-contractual terms. As family law scholar Jill Hasday observes, the law regulates economic exchange between intimates:

> The relevant legal question is not, and has never been, whether intimates will exchange economic assets; it is when they will do so, how, why, in what forms, and to what ends. Economic exchange is not foreign to intimate relations, either as a matter of first principles or as a positive matter of legal regulation.  

Furthermore, the failure to intervene in family matters is not an act of neutrality, but rather is one that actively maintains the status quo. Non-intervention and non-redistribution mean that family is left outside the law, to be governed by the privileged party, usually men. As Borelli demonstrates, the decision not to enforce the husband’s promise means that the husband gets to break his promise and still get the care he was promised. The privileged and richer party reaps the contract’s benefits, while the underprivileged, poorer party gets nothing in exchange for her care labor. More generally, contract law shaped by the insights of feminist economics will seek to benefit, rather than harm, both women and men.

According to the dissent in Borelli, the promise was enforceable under the doctrine of consideration. However, this does not mean there is no need for promissory estoppel in such cases nor does it render promissory estoppel insignificant. Promissory estoppel is a different route of enforcement; unlike consideration, it is based on reliance and justice. The fact that in some cases a promise could be enforced based

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168. *Borelli*, 16 Cal. Rptr. at 25.
on either doctrine does not mean promissory estoppel is redundant; there are many other cases in which no consideration is present and promissory estoppel becomes the only way to enforce a promise.\textsuperscript{169} In the same vein, having a broad notion of consideration means that many promissory estoppel cases will be included, but that some will still be excluded. Thus, in some cases, enforceability of promises will still depend on promissory estoppel only. Furthermore, applying promissory estoppel shuns the binary thinking (for example, the market-family dichotomy) of the doctrine of consideration and thus avoids the risk of commodifying care work. Promissory estoppel provides a complex and nuanced approach to contract formation rather than a hierarchal one. Though the end result is the same, enforcing the promise because care work qualifies as consideration is different than enforcing the promise because of the promisee’s reliance.

It might seem that \textit{Borelli} raises family law issues rather than contract law issues. In other words, this legal conflict should be resolved by applying laws of inheritance and succession instead of contract law. However, this legal dispute is about a breach of promise.\textsuperscript{170} The parties to this legal suit are a promisor and a promisee, not the wife and the daughter. The wife’s argument is that her late husband’s promise should be honored, and that she, not the daughter, is the rightful owner and that the deceased’s promise should overrule the will. Framing this case as an inheritance case takes the promise, which is the basis of the case, out of the picture.

The above feminist economic analysis criticizes the court’s decision in \textit{Borelli} and calls for the enforcement of the husband’s promise in this case. Denying that a contract was made in this case results in distributive injustice. The majority opinion maintains a strong divide between the market and the family, and between rational wealth maximization and altruistic care work. Not enforcing the promise in \textit{Borelli} disregards intra-familial promises and care work.

Applying promissory estoppel would respect such promises. It would expand contract law to these promises, though they are outside the scope of the market. It will not only advance distributive justice and equity but will also refute traditional gender roles in marriage. Including intra-family promises in contract law will broaden formation of contract and refute binary thinking and the market-home hierarchy. The next

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169. For example, gratuitous promises are enforced using promissory estoppel. \textit{See infra} notes 182-84.
170. \textit{Borelli}, 16 Cal. Rptr. at 17.
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subpart will go beyond the *Borelli* example to discuss a general feminist economic analysis of promissory estoppel.

**H. Promissory Estoppel from a Feminist Economics Perspective**

The contribution of feminist economics to the doctrine of promissory estoppel is apparent in other cases. Recall the *Ricketts* case, whose facts were given in the introduction. Like *Borelli*, this case shows the importance of broadening contract law beyond the market, and enforcing promises in spite of lack of consideration. Both of these cases include agreements between family members in contract law. The bargain theory leaves such promises outside of the world of contract; however, promissory estoppel enables family members to manage their relations using contracts. Furthermore, these cases expand contract law beyond efficiency considerations and utility maximization. Parties are not only players in the market, but they are also family members. Market transactions are important, but so are gifts and care work; commercial relations are important, but so are family relations; economic considerations and motivations are important, but so are love and caring.

In *Ricketts* (like in *Borelli*) family members treated each other with love and care. Their contracts reflect caring and devotion to one another. At the same time, *Ricketts* (like *Borelli*) reflects that different family members might have different interests. The executor, who represented the deceased’s interests, maintained that the promise should not be enforced; the granddaughter, who quit her job in reliance on her grandfather’s promise, had the opposite interest. Though relations between family members are much closer than market relations, family members too have differences of opinions. Contract law might be a tool to manage these differences by reaching compromises. Finally, *Ricketts* demonstrates the importance of social background. The grandfather’s promise was based on his statement that none of his grandchildren work. Thus, his promise reflects his class, and his perception of work and lifestyle. The granddaughter immediately quit her job and retained the lifestyle she could now afford thanks to her grandfather. This social context is important in order to understand the contract, the grandfather’s promise, and the granddaughter’s reaction to his promise.

172. *See also*, e.g., *Harvey* v. *Dow*, 962 A.2d 322 (Me. 2008).
As these examples show, promissory estoppel is an important doctrine. Promissory estoppel goes beyond commercial agreements to also include promises made in the family setting. Promissory estoppel opens the possibility of enforcing promises between family members and not only between two parties conducting business together. It is sometimes difficult to meet the requirements of the doctrine of consideration. Promissory estoppel provides a route to enforce such promises in the non-market setting. This broadens the boundaries of contract law and relaxes the market-home binary. It treats family agreements as an integral part of contract law.

Promissory estoppel cases in the family context show that the household is not a singular unit, but rather that different household members may have different interests, perspectives, and preferences. These different views might lead to a legal conflict between family members. If the family is not a singular unit, it makes sense to talk about contracts between family members. Contract is the way in which family members might choose to manage their conflicts and disagreements. Contracts may be used to enforce compromises between family members. Promissory estoppel, then, is the main formation rule for contracts in the family setting.

Promissory estoppel cases cover a variety of contractual relations, and not only intra-family relations. Some of these cases deal with promises made during market activities such as employment, construction deals, insurance, franchise, and loans. However, other cases


deal with charity, donations, and gifts. The analysis of feminist economics is not limited to intra-family settings and is relevant to these promissory estoppel cases as well.

Take, for example, King v. Trustees of Boston University. Dr. Martin Luther King Jr., an alumnus of Boston University, promised in a
note to transfer title to his papers to Boston University.\textsuperscript{186} His wife, the administrator of his estate, challenged the University’s claim.\textsuperscript{187} The court nevertheless ruled that “Dr. King made a promise to give absolute title to his papers to BU in a letter signed by him . . . and that the promise to give the papers was enforceable as a charitable pledge supported by consideration or reliance.”\textsuperscript{188} Though the court did not adopt the standard of Section 90 of the Restatement (Second) of Contracts, it did rule based on the elements of promise and reasonable reliance.\textsuperscript{189}

The feminist economic analysis in this Article supports the enforcement of the note in this case. Like in the former cases, doing so expands contract law beyond the market. It enforces promises in non-commercial contexts: donations, charities, and gifts, in addition to families. Furthermore, it demonstrates that people act not just as rational utility maximizers. Here, the gift to the University was not based on profits or enhancing benefits to King, but rather on a wish that the papers would be used for academic research.\textsuperscript{190}

This case also demonstrates the importance of social context. The promise to the University was based on the relations of an alumnus to his university. The University wanted its library to hold the papers of its famous alumnus and King wanted his writings to be archived and to be the subject of historical and other academic studies.\textsuperscript{191} Like family relations, these relations reflect a richer world of relationships not limited to commercial bargains. Race is also part of the social context. King was approached by Morehouse College, his undergraduate alma mater.\textsuperscript{192} He was concerned that he would be criticized for preferring Boston University to a Black institution in the South.\textsuperscript{193} Racial considerations played a part in his decision whether to give his papers to Boston University or to Morehouse College.

Lastly, this case demonstrates that family is not a singular unit but rather consists of individuals with different perspectives, interests, and preferences. Dr. King and his wife did not see the gift to Boston University the same way: While he wrote a note stating his wishes to donate his papers to the University, after his death, his wife did not wish to deliver

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187. \textit{King}, 647 N.E.2d at 1198.
188. \textit{King}, 647 N.E.2d at 1199.
189. \textit{King}, 647 N.E.2d at 1200-03.
190. \textit{King}, 647 N.E.2d at 1199.
191. \textit{King}, 647 N.E.2d at 1199.
192. \textit{King}, 647 N.E.2d at 1198.
193. \textit{King}, 647 N.E.2d at 1198.
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the papers to the University. Enforcing the non-bargained-for promise in this case enriches contract law by broadening it and including within its scope promises in contexts of donations and gifts. The donor-donee relations are significant and it is thus important that contract law applies to these relations in cases where the promisor withdraws his or her promise.

Feminist economics is relevant even to commercial promissory estoppel cases. Take, for example, *Quake Construction, Inc. v. American Airlines, Inc.* In this case, a subcontractor sued the contractor for failing to reach an agreement following a letter of intent. Mayor Harold Washington, the first Black mayor of Chicago, sought to open up public projects to minority businesses. The subcontractor was such a minority owned business. Following a bid for the expansion of the O’Hare Airport the subcontractor was told it has been awarded the contract for the project. Though a letter of intent was sent no contract was signed. After the subcontractor participated in a preconstruction meeting for the project it was told that it would not take part in the project. The subcontractor sued for breach of contract. In this promissory estoppel case one needs to look at the political and racial context of the negotiations for construction work at the O’Hare Airport. This important background includes the political agenda of promoting minority businesses in Chicago. As in the previous cases, the promise and the reliance on the promise in this case are rooted in social context.

The same applies also to promissory estoppel in the employment context. Take, for example, the famous *Feinberg v. Pfeiffer Co.* In that case, the employer made a promise to an employee to pay her a retirement pension for life. She retired, relying on this promise. The court awarded her promised pension based on promissory estoppel. Like the aforementioned cases, the relations between the parties provide important background to the case. In particular, gender norms in the job market provide important social context. Gender influences wom-

194. King, 647 N.E.2d at 1203.
197. See Maute, supra note 196, at 122-29 (putting Quake Constr. in a political and historical context).
199. Feinberg, 322 S.W.2d at 165-65.
200. Feinberg, 322 S.W.2d at 166.
201. Feinberg, 322 S.W.2d at 168-69.
en’s decisions to work (rather than stay at home), what kind of work they do (as the job market is segregated), their employment conditions and terms (as employment discrimination still prevails), their retirement, and so on.

This sample of promissory estoppel cases highlights the diversity of relations between parties. Parties interrelate with each other in different settings and they are motivated by factors other than utility maximization. For example, cases involving charity and donations demonstrate that people wish to donate to good causes and to benefit people they care about. People are not only selfish and rational but also act for altruistic and caring reasons. Promissory estoppel paves the way to include these motivations and promises within the scope of contract law. Enforcing such promises using contract law awards them the respect and value they deserve.

Broadening contract law to include non-bargained-for promises and non-commercial promises does not mean all promises will be enforced under promissory estoppel. Some promises will not satisfy Section 90’s elements and thus will not be enforced. Other promises will not be enforceable because the parties did not wish to be legally bound. Even a significant doctrine of promissory estoppel still leaves some promises outside of the contract world. In addition, claiming promissory estoppel is an important doctrine does not mean it is flawless. It is both an important doctrine and one that might be challenged.

Promissory estoppel’s justice element opens contract law to social values and public policy considerations, such as balancing power dynamics and promoting distributive justice. This derives from the view that parties and society are interrelated because every contract is formed in a specific society. Society influences the contract and the contract is influenced by society. Justice and reliance are open ended concepts and

202. For example, the decision states that “[i]t is a matter of common knowledge that it is virtually impossible for a woman of that age to find satisfactory employment, much less a position comparable to that which plaintiff enjoyed at the time of her retirement.” Feinberg, 322 S.W.2d at 169.

203. See supra notes 182-84.


205. See supra note 26 and accompanying text.
applying them should include a contextual analysis of both the relationship between the parties and the social circumstances surrounding the contract.

From a feminist economic standpoint, the gender dynamics between parties are crucial to understanding agreements. Specifically, the social context of patriarchy, discrimination, and inequality is important when women enter into contracts. Promissory estoppel incorporates this context to the legal analysis of contracts by considering both intra-party and inter-party relationships. Such context enhances contract law by looking beyond the traditional economic market and thereby making contract formation more flexible. Promissory estoppel thus expands contract law’s boundaries and makes them more inclusive. As described above, the value of promissory estoppel therefore rests in its ability to supplement to the doctrine of consideration.

The above also shows the difference between mainstream economic analysis and feminist economic analysis. Mainstream economics focuses on market transactions: It is concerned with efficiency, assumes parties are rational utility maximizers, and supports the status quo. On the other hand, feminist economics focuses on family and other social settings: It looks at the social context (and primarily the gendered social context) of the contract, assumes parties are motivated by love and care as well as by personal gains, and seeks to promote gender equality and redistribution. Feminist economics not only broadens economic analysis (i.e., by providing a broader definition of well-being or utility) but also constitutes a profound transformation of economic analysis itself. Feminist analysis enriches economics by challenging its male bias and opening economics to include women’s perspectives.

Other scholars have stressed the importance of promissory estoppel for a variety of reasons, and on the basis of a number of theories. This Article adds to this scholarship a fresh analysis from a feminist economic perspective. In other words, the above feminist economic analysis joins together with other theories and can be used to provide additional support to and evidence for the importance of promissory estoppel. Feminist economics has general applications to contract law beyond the doctrine of promissory estoppel, as elaborated in the next part.

206. See supra Part I.C.
207. See supra notes 43-59 and accompanying text.
IV. Feminist Economics Analysis of Contract Law

Feminist economics is a heterodox economic theory. Feminist economics means more than just “add feminism and stir.” Rather, it fundamentally challenges the gendered foundations of mainstream economics. The combination of both economic theory and feminist theory results in an integrated theory that is more powerful than the sum of its parts. Feminist economics analysis enriches contract law, as the following demonstrates. The main features of feminist economics are relevant to contract law more generally and are not limited to the doctrine of promissory estoppel.

A. Other Contract Law Doctrines

The doctrine of promissory estoppel was provided in this Article as one example, but the above insights are relevant to other doctrines as well. For instance, interpretation of contract should take into account the interconnectedness between the parties and society. This social context is important for understanding the contract’s meaning. In other words, feminist economics joins other scholarship in supporting contextual interpretation. Take for example the question of what the term “sandwich” means in a given contract. Does it include a burrito? An answer to this question is not a matter of the dictionary definition of a sandwich, but rather must stem from an engagement with cultural, ethnic, racial, and class aspects.

Another doctrine that is contextual is unconscionability. The famous case of Walker-Thomas illustrates the importance of gender, class, and race when analyzing predatory business practices and the relationship between the parties and the contract.

211. See, e.g., Catherine Mitchell, Interpretation of Contracts 54 (2d ed. 2019) (discussing contextual interpretation).
214. Anthony R. Chase, Race, Culture, and Contract Law: From the Cottonfield to the Courtroom, 28 Conn. L. Rev. 1, 63 (1995); Amy H. Kastely, Out of the Whiteness: On Raced Codes and White Race Consciousness in Some Tort, Criminal, and Contract Law, 63 U. Cin. L. Rev. 269, 305-10 (1994); Blake D. Morant, Law, Literature, and
parties were a retail furniture store and a poor Black woman. According to its installment contract, Walker-Thomas retained title in all of her furniture purchases until the total of all the monthly payments made equaled the stated value of an item. In the event of a default in the payment of any monthly installment, Walker-Thomas could repossess the item. The imbalance of power between the parties and the misuse of it by Walker-Thomas is an important background to the court’s unconscionability analysis. This case demonstrates the predatory practices faced by poor Black women. Feminist economics, then, exposes the gendered economic aspects of the unconscionability doctrine.

Damages for breach of contract are also gendered. For example, damages for a deformed nose as a result of plastic surgery were awarded within a context of gendered notions of beauty and looks. In *Sullivan v. O’Connor*, the plaintiff, a professional entertainer, underwent an operation to shorten her nose. Afterwards, she sued, claiming the operation had worsened her appearance. In its decision, the court described her nose before and after the operation. It awarded her damages for pain and suffering, mental distress, and worsening her conditions, even though she did not show she suffered loss of employment. Thus the damages award was intended to reflect the loss of her looks as a woman, not the effect on her as a professional.

Unconscionability and good faith doctrines integrate into contract law values other than efficiency. These doctrines highlight parties’ cooperation, interdependence, trust, and caring. They portray parties as more than rational utility maximizers. Instead of a simplistic, narrow account of the parties, these doctrines allow a richer, more complex and fuller view of the parties. Also, these doctrines integrate into contract law social values and public policy. For example, these doctrines can battle discrimination practices and promote equality. If parties are part of soci-
eternity and contract is a social tool, then these values are important factors of contract law. While mainstream law and economics explains these doctrines on the basis of efficiency, feminist economics enriches this explanation beyond efficiency.

Social context is also important to the doctrines of duress and undue influence. Especially in the family context, the story behind these legal claims is a story of patriarchy, power dynamics between women and men, social norms, and gender roles. For example, threats made by husbands against their wives while negotiating a prenuptial agreement are based on social gender power structures. Another example is pressures husbands place upon their wives to sign as a surety for the husband’s business debt. In a related vein, the doctrine of undue influence covers pressures resulting from discrimination against LGBTQ individuals.

B. Core Values and Concepts

Feminist economics provides an alternative analysis to contract law. It gives values such as cooperation, interdependence, relations, trust, care, fairness, and justice central places in contract law, and goes well beyond narrow concepts such as wealth maximization and efficiency. It gives a fresh account of basic concepts like consent, and autonomy. These concepts should be reframed to include

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social norms and expectations. Parties' choices and preferences cannot be analyzed without taking into account social context, such as social status, position, background, and circumstances. Specifically, gender dynamics operating under a system of patriarchy constitute an important social context. Feminist economics, then, challenges the standard concept of consent, given that people are differently situated in society, have diverse opportunities and choices, and face unique limitations and constraints to their agency and autonomy. Parties' preferences are not stable and fixed, but are rather the result of ever-changing social norms and contexts. As I argue elsewhere:

Consent is not binary, but exists along a spectrum. In between full and free consent, on one end, and no consent, on the other, lie hypothetical consent and implied consent, as well as partial, questionable, and intermediate consent. Consent is nuanced and contextual and depends on circumstances; it varies in different types of contracts, and is in part determined by the type of relationship between contracting parties. Consent is influenced not only by the relationships between the parties, but also by larger cultural and social context. Consent is socially situated: the consenting party’s position in society (gender, race, class) shapes his or her consent.

Feminist insights on the variety of contractual relations, the different preferences and interests of parties, and the importance of care provide a more complex picture of the world of contract. Thus, one needs to situate contracts in the social context of discrimination and inequality and relations of class, race, and gender. Rather than a simplistic and reductive notion of consent, feminist economics provides complex and nuanced concepts of freedom and autonomy. As Kathryn Abrams explains, autonomy is gendered.

225. Gan, supra note 222, at 660.
C. Non-Binary Thinking

Feminist economics critiques binary thinking and hierarchies in contract law, such as those drawn between market and home. As demonstrated, contract law is not limited to market transactions, as people relate to one another in different forms and in different settings. People interact with one another in communities and in families, not only through the market. These are important relations to the parties themselves, as well as to the economy. Therefore, contract law should account for these agreements too. This not only reveals how the boundaries of contract law are set in a gendered way but also how contract law could be more inclusive. Feminist economics refutes simplistic ideas about parties and their motivations as solely rational utility maximizers. It provides, instead, a more nuanced model of parties’ relations and preferences and of the complex interaction between the self and society, as well as that between the contract and the social background. Contract law doctrines are not only procedural but also reflect and promote values such as justice, fairness, efficiency, autonomy. In other words, contract law goes beyond procedure to advance moral values. As discussed above, promissory estoppel not only distinguishes enforceable promises from unenforceable promises but also strengthens the right to contract. It protects weaker promisees and mitigates power imbalances between the parties in addition to the doctrine of formation of contract. Other binaries that should be relaxed are those of objective-subjective, and of form-substance.\footnote{For binary thinking in contract law, see generally Clare Dalton, An Essay in the Deconstruction of Contract Doctrine, 94 YALE L.J. 997, 1039-65, 1066-94 (1985).} As will be further discussed in the next subpart, contract law is not simply private, but has social aspects as well.

Non-binary thinking in contract law is more nuanced and reflects the complexity of contractual situations. Rather than black and white dichotomies, contract law should include shades of gray. Furthermore, binaries are oftentimes hierarchal in that they not only separate two options, but frequently situate one option as superior to the other. In other words, not only do such binaries stress the difference between private and public—or the market and the home—but also enable a preference of the former over the latter. Such binaries establish an exclusionary form of contract law. Rather than dichotomize between one (private) or the other (public), it is critical to acknowledge that the two are interrelated in many subtle ways.
D. Social Aspects

Feminist economics highlights the interconnectedness of contract and society and the interrelation between the private and the public. According to feminist economics, parties are influenced by society and their contracting is shaped by social context. The contract is shaped by social norms, by the parties’ respective social statuses, and circumstances. Ignoring this background will necessarily limit the contract analysis. In order to fully understand a contract, one needs to look at the social context that exists beyond the specific language of the contract. Specifically, one needs to take into account gender roles, gender stereotypes, and power dynamics. As Debora Threedy shows, the Arthur Murray cases are based on gendered notions of widows. One also needs to consider inequalities and discrimination on the basis of sex, class and sexual orientation. Doing so would result in a fuller, more complex analysis that goes beyond binaries. Contract law, although considered private law, has important social aspects. Feminist economics supports contextual contract law.

Consent, a basic concept of contract law, is also socially constructed. As I have argued elsewhere:

Consent is undoubtedly connected to the will, choices, and intentions of the parties, but it is also molded by public policy considerations that go beyond the parties’ interactions. As such, consent is dynamic, its nature changing over time as the result of broader social changes. In this light, consent must be viewed not only as a decision based on full information and reached without coercion, but also one which is socially and culturally situated. Similarly, consent is not only a matter of dynamics between contracting parties, but also a

228. See supra Part II.E.
229. See Threedy, Dancing Around Gender, supra note 2.
230. See id. at 761 (arguing that the Arthur Murray cases portray women litigants as vulnerable elderly widows in need of the paternalistic defense of the law).
product of external societal circumstances, pressures, constraints, morals, norms, conventions, and understandings that go beyond the parties’ own relationships. Contract law contains an inherent element of public considerations, which clearly renders consent as a social construct with public dimensions greater than the scope of a personal decision based on the contracting parties’ will and choices. Consent is not only an individualistic process, formed in a vacuum between the contracting parties’ will, autonomy, interests, and preferences. Consent is necessarily formed under social circumstances.

Consent is gendered and formed within the context of patriarchy.

E. Contracts Between Family Members

If the household is treated as a singular unit, it makes no sense to talk about contracts between family members. However, feminist economics views the household as a group of individuals with different interests and preferences that might sometimes conflict. Therefore, contract law should include intra-family contracts. This opens contract law to more nuanced relations, and more agreements. It stretches contract law beyond the market and beyond pure commercial or economic agreements. More people will benefit from contract law; more relations will be covered by contract law. Conflicts in the family might be resolved using contracts. And at the same time, incorporating family values can influence contract law. Both institutions might benefit from the existence of intra-family contracts. Contract law should not be limited to commercial agreements. As Hanoch Dagan explains, “spousal contracts operate, of course, in a different contract sphere than commercial ones, but they perform a similar empowering service, and are thus no less (or more) central to the idea of contract in law.”

Furthermore,

232. Gan, supra note 222, at 652.

233. See Neil G. Williams, What to Do When There’s No “I Do”: A Model for Answering Damages Under Promissory Estoppel, 70 WASH. L. REV. 1019, 1043 (1995) (arguing that promissory estoppel should be used to award damages for breach of promise to marry); see generally Alex M. Johnson, Jr., The Legality of Contracts Governing the Disposition of Embryos: Unenforceable Intra-Family Agreements, 43 SW. L. REV. 191 (2013).

contract law will enable a plurality of family arrangements.\footnote{235} Each family will be able to use contract law in order to shape the family setting as they see fit. Rather than one standard for all families, each family will choose the relational model that best suits them.

There are arguments against applying contract law in the family setting. Family relations are unique, it could be argued, and thus cannot be thought of in contractual terms. Others could claim that family is about relations of love and not about economic relations. Furthermore, it might be posited that the involvement of economic values could harm family members. Commodification concerns and concerns regarding the reduction of intra-family relations to an economic exchange are not only frequently inaccurate, but may, in fact, result in injustice. This is not to say such critique is not valuable, nor that commodification isn’t a genuine concern. However, it is clear that contract law can be stretched to include intra-family contracts, while still safeguarding against alienation.\footnote{236} Feminist economics will make contract law more relational and strengthen the trust, cooperation, and interdependence between the parties. Contract law applied to intra-family agreement is not rigid and formalistic, entailing a focus on efficiency only, but rather is a version of contract law that connects parties to each other.\footnote{237}

Take, for example, the hypothetical issue of baby selling. Landes and Posner proposed a market for babies based on a mainstream eco-
Their analysis uses supply and demand, and the costs and benefits considerations of such market. However, feminist economics would take into account the values of caring for children, their humanity, commodification concerns, the parents-children relations and the social harms to society, as well as the racial and class aspects of such a market regime.

More broadly, Richard Posner, for example, assumes preferences, rational choice, and a free market in his economic analysis of sexuality. Feminist economics, on the other hand, places sexuality within a larger social context, such as that of power dynamics between men and women. As these examples demonstrate, feminist economics is not a rigid application of economic principles, but rather is an economics aware of social concerns, including commodification and other moral public policy and fairness concerns. Feminist economics goes beyond rationality and efficiency and is sensitive to feminist and other social considerations. Thus, applying feminist economics analysis to the family does not raise genuine concerns of alienation and commodification as would the application of mainstream economics to the same sphere.

As shown by Borelli, decisions regarding what promises to enforce are gendered. In other words, setting the boundaries of contract law is not gender neutral. The decision to leave family outside contract law’s reach results in distributive injustice. It has devastating economic consequences for women, often leaving them without the promised exchange or other recourse. Recall that in Borelli the husband’s promise was not enforced and the wife did not get the property that he promised her. Women’s inability to use contract law to further their economic interests hurts them financially. Women’s poverty is an important concern. Contracts with family members can provide women with some financial support. In the past, women could not own property or contract at all, thus leaving them dependent on their fathers or husbands. Furthermore, applying contract law in the family setting does not mean that

239. Id. at 329.
240. For a critique of baby selling, see Margaret Jane Radin, Market Inalienability, 100 HARV. L. REV. 1849, 1925-28 (1987).
241. POSNER, supra note 91; see also BECKER, supra note 91.
244. See Chused, supra note 138, at 48-49.
everything in the family is a matter of contract. Some things are outside the realm of contract law. For example, baby selling is prohibited for commodification reasons. At the same time, applying contract law in the family setting includes applying doctrines that protect vulnerable family members (usually women), such as unconscionability and good faith. These contract doctrines ensure that family values and family members are not hurt by rigid contract law, but rather that contract law applied in the family sphere is relational, flexible, just, fair, protectionist, and contextual.

All of the above makes contract law broader and more inclusive. It goes beyond the market and efficiency to incorporate diverse relations, interests, and preferences. It promotes a variety of values and includes a wide range of different parties. It is sensitive to commodification, alienation, inequality, and discrimination. In other words, feminist economics does not only enrich the literature of promissory estoppel but contract law scholarship in general, as well.

Feminist economics joins other theories in stressing the aforementioned insights. It is not the only theory to challenge formal liberal contract law; relational theory of contract and other critical theories such as feminist theory and critical race theory do so as well. For example, Ian R. MacNeil has criticized the individualistic nature of classic contract law and pointed to the relational and social aspects of contract law. However, MacNeil failed to account for power dynamics between men and women. Feminist economics’ use of both economics and feminist insights provides a new perspective on contract law. In other words, feminist economics is an important theoretical tool with which to analyze contract law, even if some of its conclusions echo those of other theories. Furthermore, as demonstrated above, feminist economics enriches contract law, making it more inclusive, pluralistic, contextual, egalitarian, and just. Since economic analysis of contract law is immensely important, it is critical to integrate feminist insights into its core. As economics scholar Susan Himmelweit concludes, “feminist

245. Another example of commodification in family law is the practice of women offering money to their husbands in exchange for a gett (Jewish decree of divorce) that the husband would otherwise refuse to agree to. See Orit Gan, Trading the Gett: Between Contractual Right and Inalienability, 32 Bar Ilan L. Stud. 797 (2020) (Isr.).
248. For relational theory, see, for example, IAN R. MACNEIL, THE NEW SOCIAL CONTRACT: AN INQUIRY INTO MODERN CONTRACTUAL RELATIONS (1980); see also THE RELATIONAL THEORY OF CONTRACT: SELECTED WORKS OF IAN MACNEIL (David Campbell ed., 2001).
Economics is not just another school of economics—and certainly not as economics just for women—but is simply better economics. Therefore, feminist economics provides a better theoretical analysis of contract law. The former, this Article concludes by analyzing that feminist economics is a valuable and important supplement to economic analysis in contract law. The latter is a valuable and important supplement to economic analysis in contract law. This Article concludes that the latter is a valuable and important supplement to economic analysis in contract law.

Conclusion

Economic analysis is a highly influential theoretical approach to contract law. Feminist economics provides a better theoretical analysis of contract law. This Article concludes that the latter is a valuable and important supplement to economic analysis in contract law. The former, this Article concludes by analyzing that feminist economics is a valuable and important supplement to economic analysis in contract law.