

BREAKING through the

glass ceiling

Women in management

Update 2004

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, GENEVA

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Acknowledgements

This publication is an update of certain sections of the original *Breaking through the Glass Ceiling: Women in Management* by Linda Wirth. This update contains the most recent statistics concerning women in management, which are derived from the ILO's *Yearbook of Labour Statistics* (2003), and statistical data from governmental organizations, United Nations organizations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and research institutes. Akemi Serizawa collected and analyzed the statistical data and developed the charts. Prue Hopkins carried out additional Internet-based research, and compiled and elaborated on the information and further developed recommendations based on the analysis. Adrienne Cruz provided valuable comments and editing and Helena Leslie did the proof reading and layout. Irene Mbinkar-Gondo gave secretarial support, and Brigitte Honma helped in the acquisition of statistics.

INTRODUCTION

1

Since the book *Breaking through the Glass Ceiling: Women in Management* was published in 2001, ILO has received a number of requests for the most recent data on the situation of women in professional and managerial jobs. In response to this demand, it was decided to publish an updated version of Chapter 2: “Women in Professional and Managerial Jobs” of the original book, using data available between 2001 and 2003. Various sources of information were used in the compilation of the book, notably the ILO’s *Yearbook of Labour Statistics* (2003). Data was also collected from governmental organizations, United Nations organizations, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), and research institutes.

This updated version of Chapter 2 of the book does not presume to tackle the subject in as much depth as the original book. It aims to present the new statistical data together with various research results and material gathered from a review of the literature on the Internet, illustrating some of the institutional and attitudinal prejudices that continue to hamper women’s progress into professional and management jobs and drawing attention to some of the schemes being instigated in support of women managers. However, the review was to a certain extent limited by the lack of data from countries that do not systematically aggregate precise information on women in professional and managerial positions or that have restricted access to the Internet.

The overall employment situation of women has not evolved significantly since 2001. The ILO’s *Global Employment Trends* (2003) reported that women continue to have lower labour market participation rates, higher unemployment rates and significant pay differences compared to men. Women represent over 40 per cent of the global labour force, approximately 70 per cent of women in developed countries and 60 per cent in developing countries. There has also been little change in their share of professional jobs in the last few years. Women occupy around 30 to 60 per cent of professional jobs in the sample of countries from which new data were available. This represents an increase of 0.7 per cent between 1996-99 and 2000-02. However, considerable variations remain between women’s share in different types of professional jobs.

Cultural and social attitudes towards what constitutes “male” or “female” jobs result in occupational segregation¹, although the extent of the problem varies from country to country, and from job to job. Women are mainly concentrated in the “feminized” professions such as nursing and teaching (horizontal occupational segregation), where at the same time they remain in lower job categories than men (vertical occupational segregation). However, women continue to make small inroads into non-traditional fields such as law, information and communication technology (ICT) and computer science, and engineering, and there is evidence that employers are beginning to promote women more systematically and to introduce family-friendly policies in order to retain them. However, women who choose non-traditional jobs can face special constraints in the workplace, not least of which are isolation, limited access to mentoring and female role models, and sexual harassment.

In this publication, the ILO updates information on women in management with data available between 2001 and 2003.

The overall employment situation of women has not evolved significantly since 2001.

Despite small inroads in non-traditional fields, women continue to be mainly concentrated in the “feminized professions”.

As far as women's share of managerial positions is concerned, the rate of progress is slow and uneven.

Women are not given as many opportunities as men to do the more demanding responsible jobs, which would advance their careers.

As far as women's share of managerial positions is concerned, the rate of progress is slow and uneven. Their share ranged between 20 and 40 per cent in 48 out of the 63 countries in the sample in 2000-02. This represents an increase in the three to five years covering 1996-99 and 2000-02 of between 1 and 5 per cent.

Men are in the majority among managers, top executives, and higher levels of professional workers whilst women are still concentrated in the lower categories of managerial positions. Both visible and invisible rules have been constructed around the "male" norm, which women sometimes find difficult to accommodate: male and female colleagues and customers do not automatically see women as equal with men, women tend to have to work much harder than men to prove themselves, and sometimes they have to adapt to "male" working styles and attitudes more than necessary. Furthermore, women tend to be excluded from the informal networks dominated by men at the workplace, which are vital for career development. The problem is compounded by employers' assumption that women, unlike men, are not able to devote their full time and energy to paid work because of their family responsibilities. Consequently, women are not given as many opportunities as men to do the more demanding responsible jobs, which would advance their careers. However, there is evidence to show that once women attain the upper levels of management, attitudes towards them are not much different to those towards men.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Facilitating women's progression to management and executive positions requires:

High-level commitment to change the existing culture within a firm or organization

Equal employment opportunity policies which are transparent, objective, fair and closely monitored

1. Strategies to facilitate women's progression to management and executive positions require high-level commitment to change the existing culture within a firm or organization.

- ◆ Sensitization programmes at all levels of the hierarchy should be geared to refuting the myths surrounding women's capabilities and dedication to work, improving managers' understanding of gender and family issues, and endorsing the valuable contribution women can make to an organization's image and to its productivity.

- ◆ In order to compete on a par with men, it is also essential that women have access to management training and line experience, mentors and role models at the highest levels, as well as admittance to formal and informal networks and channels of communication at work.

2. Integrated and sustained efforts also need to be made to ensure that components of equal employment opportunity policies (including recruitment, job assignment, career planning, grading, wages, transfer and promotion) are closely monitored and that the procedures are transparent, objective and fair.

- ◆ More incentive elements can be added to ensure that women are not penalized financially for motherhood, such as the elimination of retirement plan forfeitures for career breaks, the provision of unpaid leave of absence with a guarantee of a job on return to work, and the promotion of women who work part-time.

3. One of the main characteristics of professional and managerial work is the extended working hours that are entailed to obtain

promotion. At times it is difficult for both men and women to reconcile the long hours required of management employees with their family responsibilities. Therefore:

- ◆ Family-friendly policies (including flexible working hours, parental leave for men and women, child care facilities, etc.) should be important elements in any integrated package of measures supporting women at work.

4. Measures that employers can take to improve the work environment of women in non-traditional jobs should include:

- ◆ ensuring that anti-discrimination legislation is enforced at the workplace so that women have equal access to jobs;
- ◆ implementing no-nonsense sexual harassment policies whilst providing education about sexual harassment to create a climate of respect in the workplace;
- ◆ and providing forums for women to address issues affecting them in non-traditional jobs.

There are still significant earnings gaps between women and men, which plagues not only managers and workers with the same qualifications but also the labour market in general. Women earn on average only two-thirds of men's pay. Occupational segregation is the principal reason for these persistent pay gaps. Women are also likely to have shorter careers than men of the same age because they tend either to leave their jobs or work part-time in order to fulfil family responsibilities and return to full-time employment at a later stage. This leads to slower promotion and less pay. Differences in fringe benefits and bonuses offered to men and women managers are also factors contributing to earnings gaps.

Family-friendly policies

Enforcement of anti-discrimination legislation and implementation of no-nonsense sexual harassment policies

There are still significant earnings gaps between women and men.

RECOMMENDATION

5. More decisive measures are needed to harmonize remuneration structures for both male and female employees, such as:

- ◆ making wage systems more transparent and employees' eligibility for different components of remuneration more specific;
- ◆ ensuring that all employees' conditions and benefits are equal and giving part-time workers the same entitlements, conditions and benefits as full-time workers on a pro-rata basis;
- ◆ subjecting wages to review procedures, and regularly monitoring and evaluating pay systems.

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In 2000-01, women made up between 40 and 60 per cent of all tertiary education (*see Section 10, Definition of Terms*) enrolment in 26 of the 35 countries from which data were drawn. However, their high level of education was not directly reflected in the positions they occupied in the labour market. The main reason for this is that women students' study choice is often influenced by gender role socialization. They are also inclined to have weaker aspirations for career advancement than male students. Consequently they tend to choose study areas that do not give them the qualifications to enable them to

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Women students' study choice is often influenced by gender role socialization.

follow more ambitious career paths and advance into higher professional and managerial positions. Women are also aware that employers tend to categorize jobs as being more "suitable" for women or men; for this reason women tend to adapt the subjects they study and their choice of profession accordingly, thus perpetuating occupational sex segregation.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Sex-stereotyped images should be eliminated from school curricula and discriminatory practices should be removed from teaching and vocational guidance.

Programmes are needed to improve the presence of female mentors and role models in the academic hierarchy.

Employers need programmes to help them recognize the benefits women can bring to their businesses.

6. Strategies to encourage female students to widen their study choices include:

- ♦ eliminating sex-stereotyped images of women and men and sexist language from school curricula (teaching materials and teaching methods) so that women's equal participation in all areas of society is instilled into children's consciousness from an early age;
- ♦ sensitization programmes for teachers, focusing on removing discriminatory practices and attitudes from teaching and vocational guidance, and awareness raising campaigns among students' families and friends, and among the community at large.

7. Female mentors and role models on which students can shape their career aspirations are in short supply at the tertiary level because the teaching profession tends to be dominated by women in the more junior positions.

- ♦ Programmes are needed to improve their presence in the academic hierarchy, particularly in non-traditional subject areas. These programmes could take the form of affirmative action or quota systems to promote women teachers from within schools and universities, nominate them to selection committees, and provide them with high-profile professorial chairs.

- ♦ The provision of on-campus child care facilities would not only give teachers the work flexibility they need but may also increase tertiary level enrolment of women with young children. Also, more women may be persuaded to enrol in scientific and technological fields if promotional materials on university courses in non-traditional subjects specifically targeted female students.

8. Lastly, in order to overcome the general discriminatory view of women with non-conventional qualifications, programmes need to be developed to help employers recognize the capabilities of women and the benefits they can bring to their businesses.

WOMEN IN PROFESSIONAL JOBS

2

Progress in gender equality in the labour market is reflected in women's share of professional jobs. Women work in a variety of professional services all over the world. They are predominantly found in traditionally female professions such as nursing, teaching and administration, although they have also been infiltrating many of the male-dominated fields, particularly the ICT sector and judicial systems around the world.

The statistics show that there has been little change in their share over the last three to five years with women continuing to occupy close to half or more of professional jobs in many countries. However, considerable variations remain between women's share in the different professions.

Recent data

♦ Recent data from the ILO's *Yearbook of Labour Statistics* (2003, see figures 2.1 and 2.2) from 63 countries in 1996-99 and 2000-02 (48 using ISCO-88 classification and 15 using ISCO-1968²) show that women held 30 to 60 per cent of professional jobs in 45 out of 63 countries in 2000-02, and more than 60 per cent in 12 countries. The level has remained steady since 1996-99.

The standard years for the data shown in the graphs have been set at 1998 and 2002. For countries where data for 1998 or 2002 were not available, data for the nearest years have been used. Therefore, it would not be strictly accurate to compare the data between countries or to calculate the average growth rates across the different countries, without taking the data years into account.

♦ Women's overall share of professional jobs in 2000-02 was highest in Eastern Europe and the Confederation of Independent States (CIS). In 48 countries using ISCO-88, women held in excess of 60 per cent of professional jobs in Lithuania (70.2 per cent), Latvia (67 per cent), Estonia (66 per cent), Georgia (64.8 per cent), Ukraine (63.7 per cent), Slovakia (63.1 per cent), Poland (60.9 per cent), and Moldova (60.3 per cent). The reason that these countries have a high proportion of women in professional jobs is due to long-standing policies supporting working mothers.

Puerto Rico was the only other country with a high proportion of women professionals (60.5 per cent). However, in seven countries in Eastern Europe and the CIS (the Czech Republic, Estonia, Moldova, Poland, Romania, Slovenia, Ukraine), small decreases in women's share of professional jobs were recorded (-1 to -4.3 per cent) between 1996-99 and 2000-02.

♦ In the 15 countries using ISCO-1968, women's share in professional jobs was highest in the Philippines (65.7 per cent), followed by Brazil (61.9 per cent), and Venezuela (61.3 per cent).

Progress in gender equality in the labour market is reflected in women's share of professional jobs.

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Women's overall share of professional jobs in 2000-02 was highest in Eastern Europe and the Confederation of Independent States and in Puerto Rico, the Philippines, Brazil and Venezuela.

♦ Women's share in South Asian and Middle Eastern countries was markedly lower at around 30 per cent or less, for example in Cyprus (17.9 per cent), Bahrain (19.4 per cent), Bangladesh (25 per cent), and Pakistan (25.6 per cent). This comparatively low proportion may be attributable to societal views of women's labour force participation and to women prioritizing family responsibilities.

♦ In 44 out of the 63 countries, women's share in professional jobs increased marginally by 0.1 to 5 per cent between 1996-99 and 2000-02, notably in Bolivia (16.1 per cent), El Salvador (10.9 per cent), and South Korea (10.3 per cent). However, there was a relatively large decline in Cyprus (-26.5 per cent), Costa Rica (-26 per cent), and Bangladesh (-9.8 per cent). This decline may have its roots in the global economic downturn experienced during the reporting period.

Figure 2.1: Women's share as professional, technical and related workers, 1996-99 and 2000-02

Source: ILO 2003 *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, Table 2C
 Countries with ISCO-68 classifications. Major group 0/1

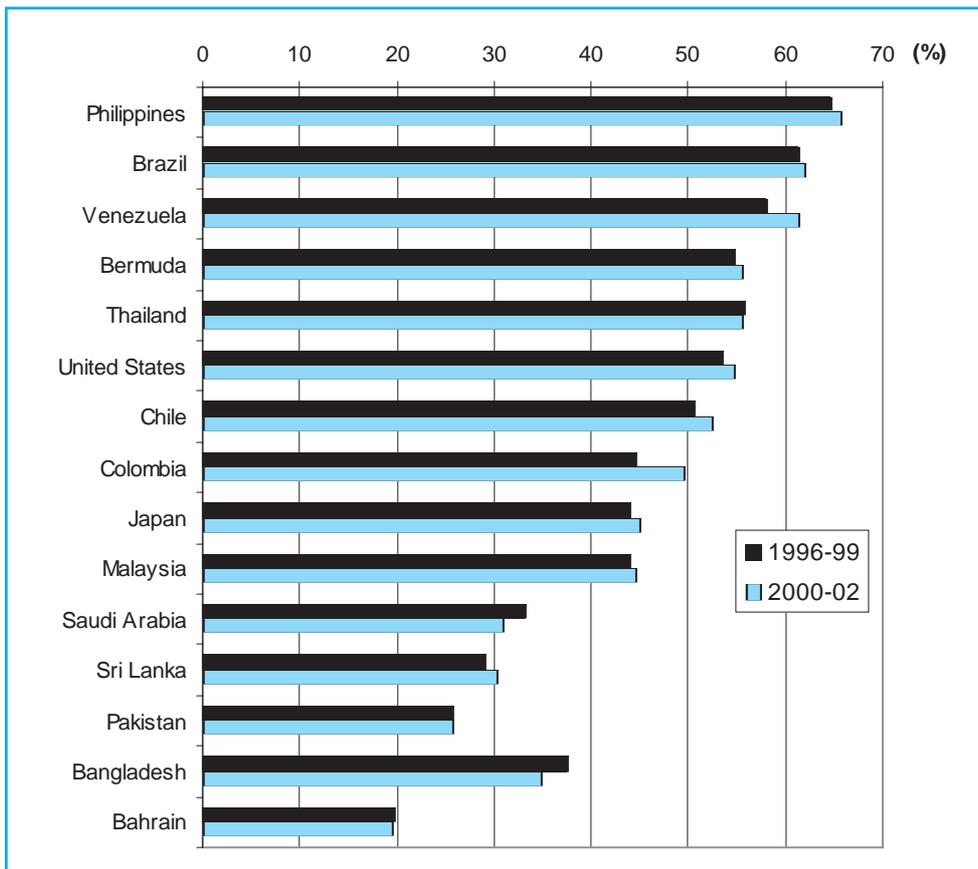
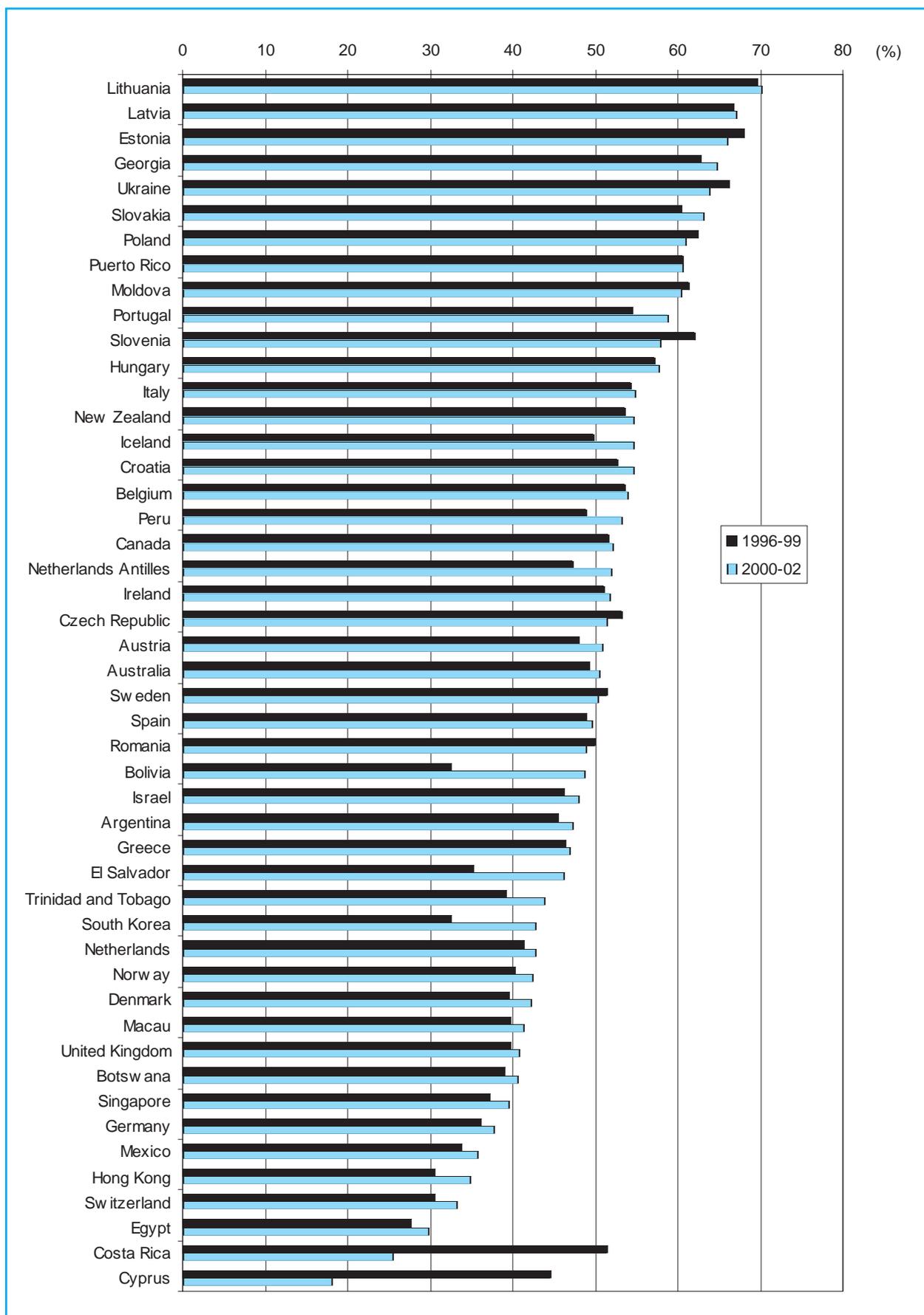


Figure 2.2: Women's share as professional workers, 1996-99 and 2000-02

Source: ILO 2003 *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, Table 2C

Countries with ISCO-88 classifications. Major group 2



OCCUPATIONAL SEX SEGREGATION IN PROFESSIONAL WORK

The main factors contributing to occupational sex segregation are:

Social attitudes towards what constitutes a “male” or “female” job

Gender inequality in education and training

In Europe, nursing is the job most dominated by women.

Though women are in the majority as primary teachers, their share as tertiary teachers is markedly smaller.

The main factors contributing to occupational sex segregation are cultural and social attitudes towards what constitutes a “male” or “female” job and gender inequality in education and training, which have resulted in both sexes being streamed (or streaming themselves) into different professions. In many countries, occupational sex segregation in professional jobs is still prevalent, although the extent of the problem varies from country to country, and from job to job.

Traditionally, engineering, physics, the judiciary, law and health service administration are considered “male” jobs and library work, nursing and teaching (especially in primary education) are considered “female” jobs. This phenomenon is called “horizontal occupational segregation”. Even in jobs dominated by women, there is also “vertical occupational segregation” where men are more likely to hold the more senior and better-remunerated positions. For example, in the health sector men predominate as doctors and administrators. New areas where women are making headway in non-conventional jobs in some parts of the world include in the information and communications technology sector and the judiciary.

In spite of the slow but steady increase being seen in the share of professional women in the workplace, the nature of women’s career paths continues to block them from making progress in the organizational hierarchies in which they work. On recruitment, qualified women tend to be placed in jobs that have a lower value in terms of skill requirements and remuneration. They find themselves in what are considered “non-strategic” jobs, rather than in line and management jobs leading to higher positions. Thus, they effectively become support staff for their more strategically positioned male colleagues.

Recent data

♦The ILO SEGREGAT database³ assembles data on employment disaggregated by sex and occupational groups. Data collected in 2000 from 28 countries, mainly in Europe, on eight professional job categories (physicists and chemists; mathematicians and statisticians; computer programmers; architects and engineers; health professionals except nurses; nurses; jurists; librarians) showed nursing to be the job most dominated by women. In 16 of these countries, the average share of women in nursing was a striking 86 per cent. There were no data available for eight of the 28 countries. Women librarians followed nurses with an average share of 70 per cent in the 28 countries.

♦Figure 2.3 showing United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE) statistics⁴ for women’s share as teachers in Europe in 2000-01 reveals that although women were in a majority as primary teachers (70 to 90 per cent), their share as tertiary teachers was generally only around 30 to 40 per cent. For instance, in Italy women primary teachers had the highest share (94.8 per cent), followed by secondary teachers

(64.7 per cent) and tertiary teachers (28.8 per cent).

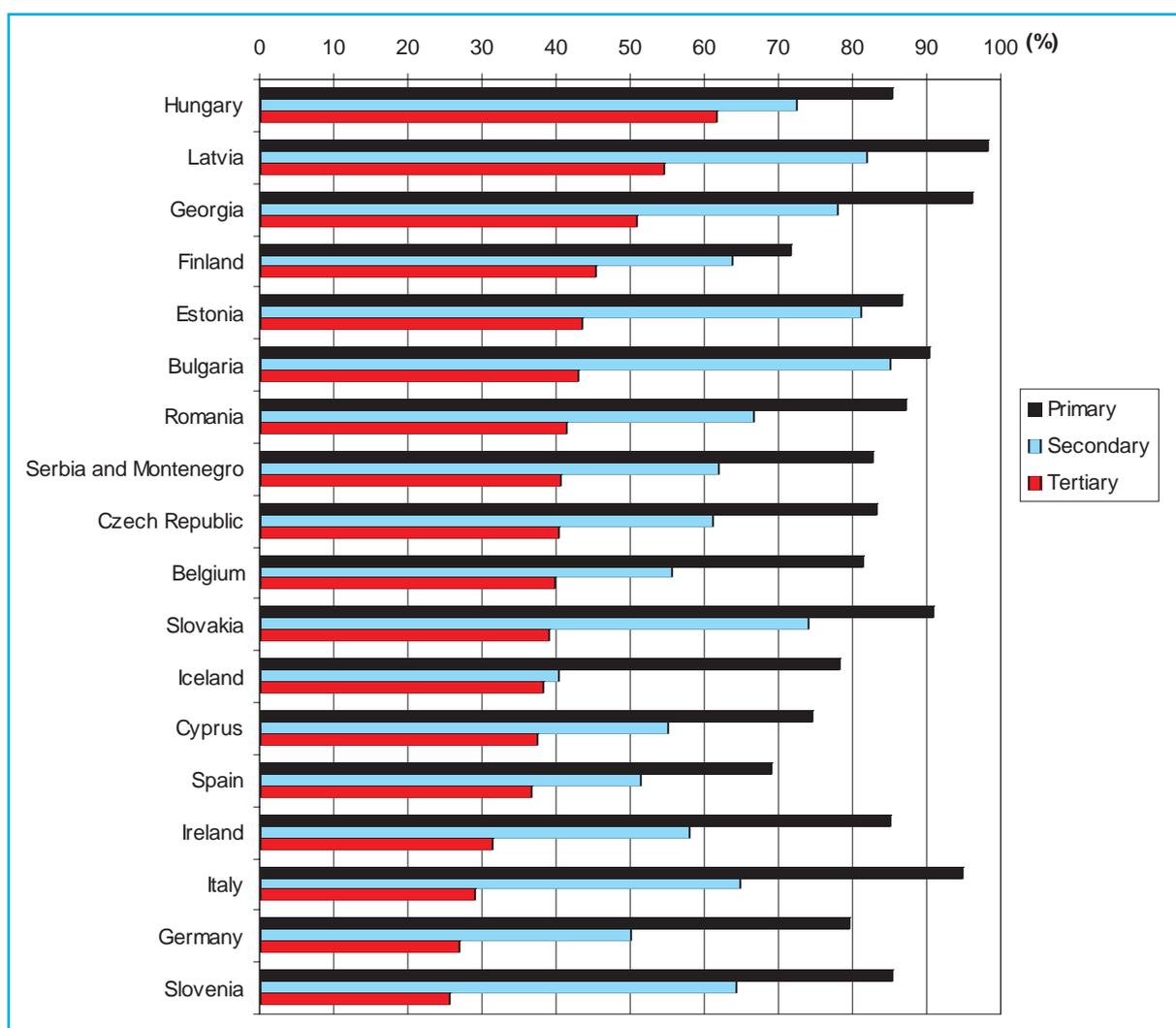
♦ In Canada in 2001, 79 per cent of women employees were in teaching, nursing, clerical/administrative, and sales/services jobs, which were occupied by only 30 per cent of male employees⁵. However, women have made inroads into male-dominated professional occupations. In 2001, professional women were working as doctors and dentists (54 per cent), business and financial professionals (50 per cent), and in natural sciences, engineering, and mathematics (20 per cent) compared with 41 per cent, 44 per cent, and 17 per cent respectively in 1987.

The reason for the slow increase in women working in male-dominated professions can to a certain extent be attributed to the different constraints they face compared to women who work in traditionally female professions. Workplace discrimination, such as a lack of acceptance by male supervisors or colleagues, lack of proper training, isolation, and limited access to mentoring and female role models, is more likely to make them leave their jobs. Sexual harassment also tends to occur more frequently in non-traditional work environments. Women may be subjected to inappropriate language or unwelcome sexual conduct. Also, if male supervisors or colleagues resent the presence of women in their workplace, they may use sexually harassing behaviour to humiliate them.

Women who work in male-dominated professions face different constraints from women who work in traditionally female professions.

Figure 2.3: Women's share as teachers (full time and equivalent) 2000-01

Source: United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, Gender Statistics Database, www.unece.org



Women in ICT

Is there a rosy future for women managers in the ICT field?

One area where there should be boundless potential for professional women to make inroads is in the information and communications technology (ICT) sector, despite the fact that economic recession and an oversupply of telecommunications capacity contributed to a slowing down of the sector in 2000 and 2001. China had the world's fastest growing ICT market. Eastern Europe also saw significant spending increases⁶. The software industry exceeded any other ICT sector, showing a 100 per cent growth between 1995 and 2001. The Internet and e-Business continue to gain momentum. The total number of e-Business users also increased, with business-to-business spending up 83 per cent and business-to-consumer spending up 64 per cent in 2001. So is there a rosy future for women managers in the ICT field?

In some countries, women's share in the ICT sector is already on the increase. A Silicon.com Skills Survey⁷ carried out in the United Kingdom in 2003 showed that women were already relatively well established, making up 13 per cent of the 3,830 respondents. Of the 13 per cent, 17.2 per cent were ICT managers, 11.9 per cent were consultants and 4.5 per cent were directors or Chief Executive Officers (CEOs). In Australia in 2001, women made up 19.8 per cent of computer professionals (not including electronics engineers)⁸. In 1999, women comprised over 20 per cent of workers in Brazil's software industry⁹.

However, Catalyst, a research and advisory organization in the United States working to advance women in business, casts doubt on the idea of women managers thriving in the technology sector. In a recent regional survey of 75 senior executives, it found that companies were not promoting women to management positions. Respondents cited corporate culture, the lack of career development opportunities, women's isolation and lack of role models or networks and mentors, and the all too familiar argument that work and family responsibilities are mutually exclusive¹⁰.

Women in legal systems

Women are highly-placed in the legal systems of 15 UNECE countries.

One interesting and surprising trend shows women making inroads into a male-dominated profession. The review revealed a high incidence of highly placed women in the legal systems of 15 countries of the United Nations Economic Commission for Europe (UNECE)¹¹.

Women's share as judges in 2001 and 2002 was more than 50 per cent in six Eastern European countries including Hungary (70 per cent), Romania (68.7 per cent), the Czech Republic and Estonia (62.2 per cent), Croatia (61.7 per cent), and Lithuania (51.8 per cent). The lowest share was recorded in the United Kingdom (15.6 per cent), Ireland (19.2 per cent), and Armenia (20.6 per cent). In 2001, women accounted for 26.5 per cent of Polish high court judges, 35.5 per cent in the highest administrative court and 16.6 per cent in other administrative courts¹². In early 2003, out of the 18 judges elected to the International Criminal Court (ICC), seven were women¹³. This result demonstrates the impact of voting procedures used during the elections which were based on fair representation of female and males judges elected to the Court.

However, many women still leave the profession for family-related reasons.

In spite of these encouraging findings, resistance to women's progression to traditionally male-dominated professions is still prevalent. For instance, women

lawyers in the United Kingdom find it difficult to progress in their careers because of the inflexibility of the profession's working conditions. In 2003, a survey¹⁴ by the Young Solicitors' Group, the Association of Women Solicitors and the Law Society drew attention to the fact that women lawyers were defecting from the profession because of the long working hours. The survey found that 60 per cent of women leaving the profession did so for family-related reasons, and out of these 67 per cent were deterred from returning to work because of the difficulties of balancing their work and personal lives and because of the profession's attitude to women returning to work. Women's decision to drop out at a crucial point in their careers had resulted in the profession being dominated by men in the upper echelons.

Women professionals are very aware of the negative career consequences of reducing working time, and they are reluctant to take advantage of flexible working hours even when they are offered. A survey¹⁵ of more than 1,000 law firms undertaken in 2000 by the National Association for Law Placement in the United States revealed that 94.5 per cent of large firms offered part-time arrangements to women lawyers but only 3.2 per cent used the option (1.9 per cent of partners and 4.4 per cent of associates). Another survey¹⁶ in the United States revealed that 75 per cent of partnership-track associates believed that reduced working time affected their career development.

Evidence that attitudes in this traditionally male-dominated profession are beginning to shift was highlighted by a firm in the United States with one of the highest percentages of women partners among large law firms (approximately 17 per cent of partners and 40 per cent of associates).¹⁷ The firm took a two-pronged approach to women's dilemma by introducing family-friendly policies to attract women lawyers and by promoting every eligible and qualified woman to partner. In the last five years, over 25 per cent of the new partners have been women lawyers. The firm adopted a reduced work time policy under which men and women lawyers are able to work reduced schedules for family, health or other reasons without jeopardizing promotion prospects (four women lawyers have been promoted to partner while working on a part time basis to accommodate their child care responsibilities). Other initiatives include an emergency child care facility, a private room for nursing mothers, and equipment to enable lawyers to work from home and remote locations.

Women are aware of the negative career consequences of working flexible hours to fulfill family responsibilities.

A US law firm is promoting the success of women by implementing family-friendly policies which benefit both men and women.

WOMEN IN MANAGERIAL JOBS

Management positions represent only a small proportion of the total workforce, although this job category has grown over the last few decades due to the growth in the service sector. The expansion of this sector has often given more employment opportunities to women and, although they remain under-represented, their increased participation in the sector has exceeded increases in their labour force participation as a whole.

Recent global statistics show that women continue to increase their share of managerial positions but the rate of progress is slow, uneven, and sometimes discouraging for women faced with barriers created by attitudinal prejudices in the workplace. In the countries for which data were available, there was little or no change and, in some, the percentage rates were even in decline. In those professions normally reserved for men, women managers are few and far between. Even in female-dominated sectors where there are more women managers, a disproportionate number of men rise to the more senior positions. The rule of thumb is still: the higher up an organization's hierarchy, the fewer the women.

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Recent data

- ◆ The data show that, in general, countries in North America, South America, and Eastern Europe have a higher share of women in managerial jobs than countries in East Asia, South Asia, and the Middle East.
- ◆ In 2000-02, women's overall share of managerial jobs was between 20 and 40 per cent in 48 out of the 63 countries for which data were available.¹⁸ Similar to the section on women in professional jobs, 1998 and 2002 were set as the standard years for the graphs. For countries where the data for these years were not obtainable, the nearest available years were used. The data show that women were markedly under-represented in managerial jobs compared to their overall share of employment (figures 3.1 and 3.3).
- ◆ In the 48 countries using the ISCO-88 classification (figures 3.3 and 3.4), women's share of managerial jobs increased by between 1 and 5 per cent in 26 countries during the period between 1996-99 and 2000-02. Costa Rica (53.4 per cent) and Lithuania (43.5 per cent) had the highest share of women working as "legislators, senior officials and managers", and South Korea (4.9 per cent) and Egypt (10.1 per cent) the lowest. The percentage rate increased steeply in Costa Rica (23.5 per cent), Bolivia (10.4 per cent), and Botswana (8.9 per cent) in the same period. Relatively large declines were recorded in Ireland (-5.6 per cent), Latvia (-5 per cent), and Canada (-3.7 per cent). Women's share in managerial jobs in Cyprus, Macau, Denmark, and South Korea was less than a half of their share of total employment.
- ◆ In the 15 countries using the ICSC-1968 classification (figures 3.1 and

In general, countries in North America, South America, and Eastern Europe have a higher share of women in managerial jobs than countries in East Asia, South Asia, and the Middle East.

3.2), women’s share of managerial jobs also increased by between 1.0 and 5.0 per cent in 7 countries between 1996-99 and 2000-02. The United States had the highest share of women “administrative and managerial workers” (45.9 per cent), whilst Japan (8.9 per cent), Pakistan (8.7 per cent), Bangladesh (8.5 per cent), and Saudi Arabia (0.9 per cent) had the lowest. In Sri Lanka, Japan, Saudi Arabia, and Bangladesh, the share of women in managerial jobs was less than half of their share of total employment.

Figure 3.1 Women’s share as administrative and managerial workers and their share in total employment, 2000-2002

Source: ILO 2003 *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, Table 2C
Countries with ISCO-1968 classifications. Major group 2

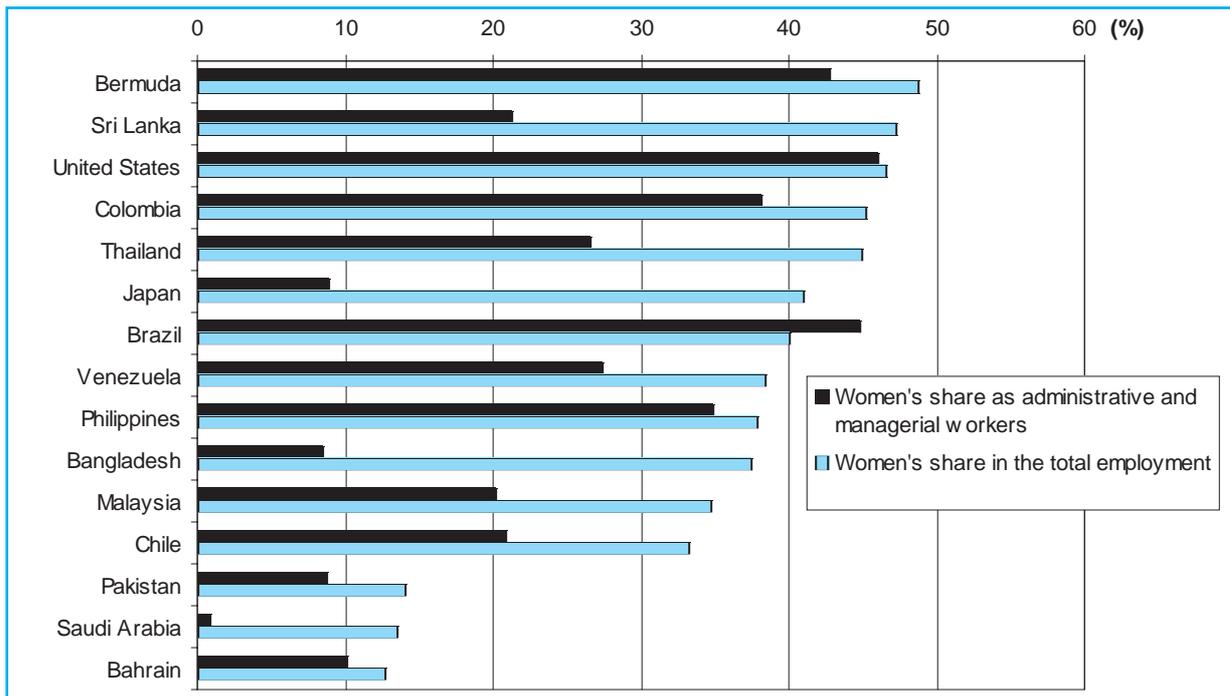


Figure 3.2 Women’s share as administrative and managerial workers 1996-99 and 2000-02

Source: ILO 2003 *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, Table 2C
Countries with ISCO-1968 classifications. Major group 1

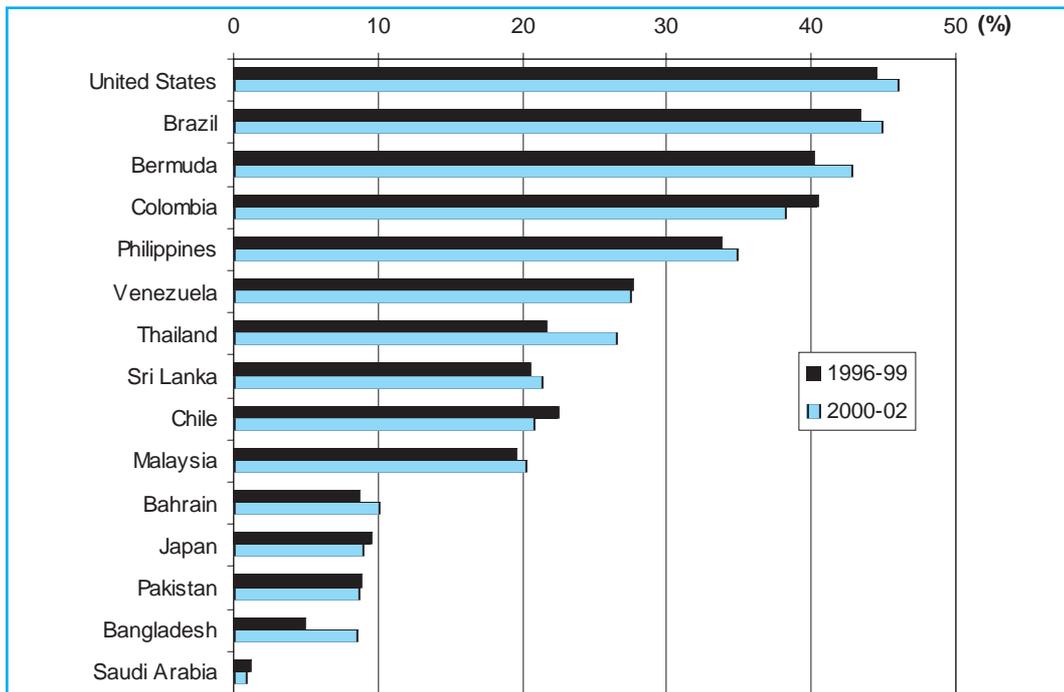


Figure 3.3 Women's share as legislators, senior officials and managers and their share in total employment, 2000-2002

Source: ILO (2003) *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, Table 2C
 Countries with ISCO-88 classifications. Major group 1

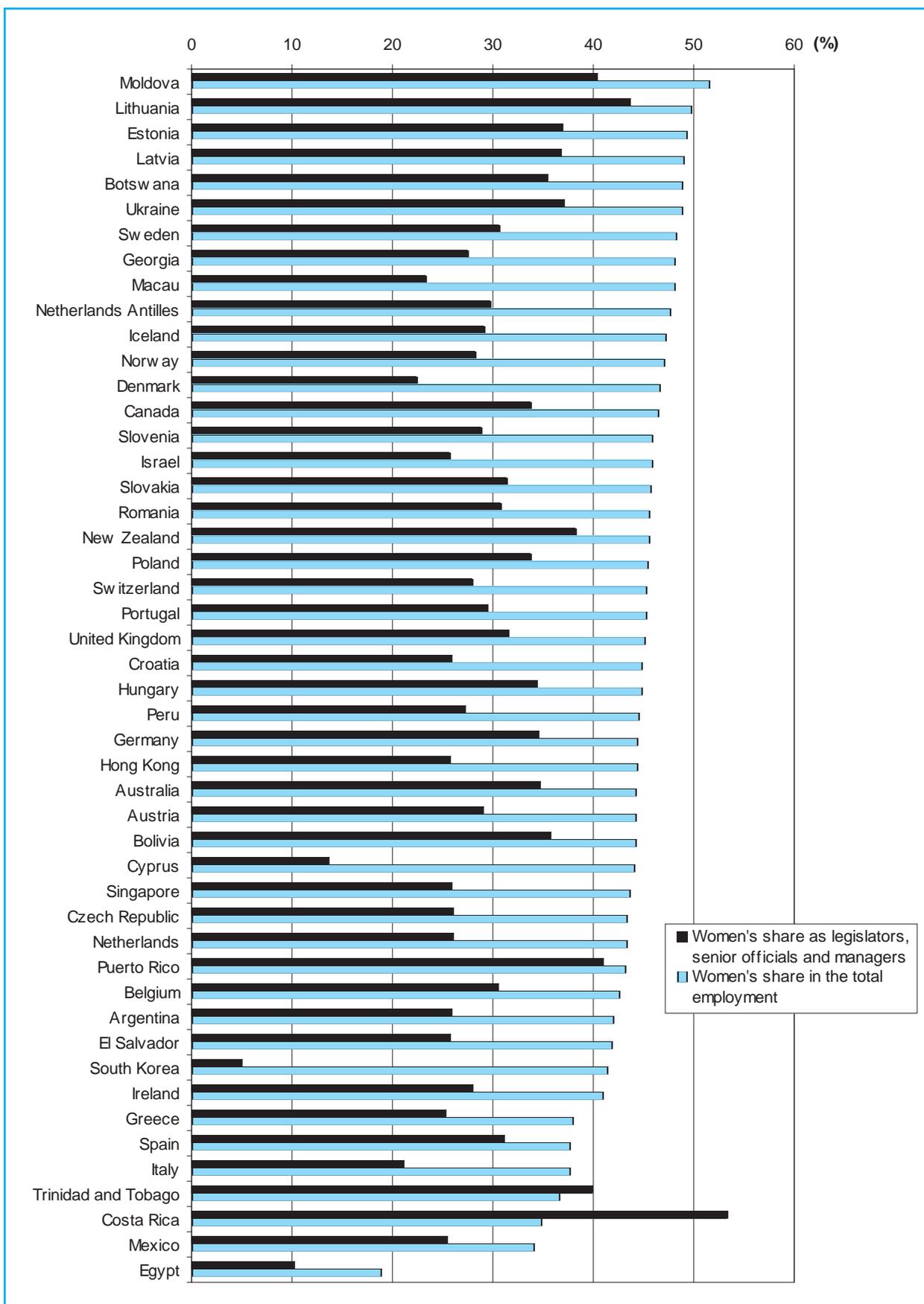
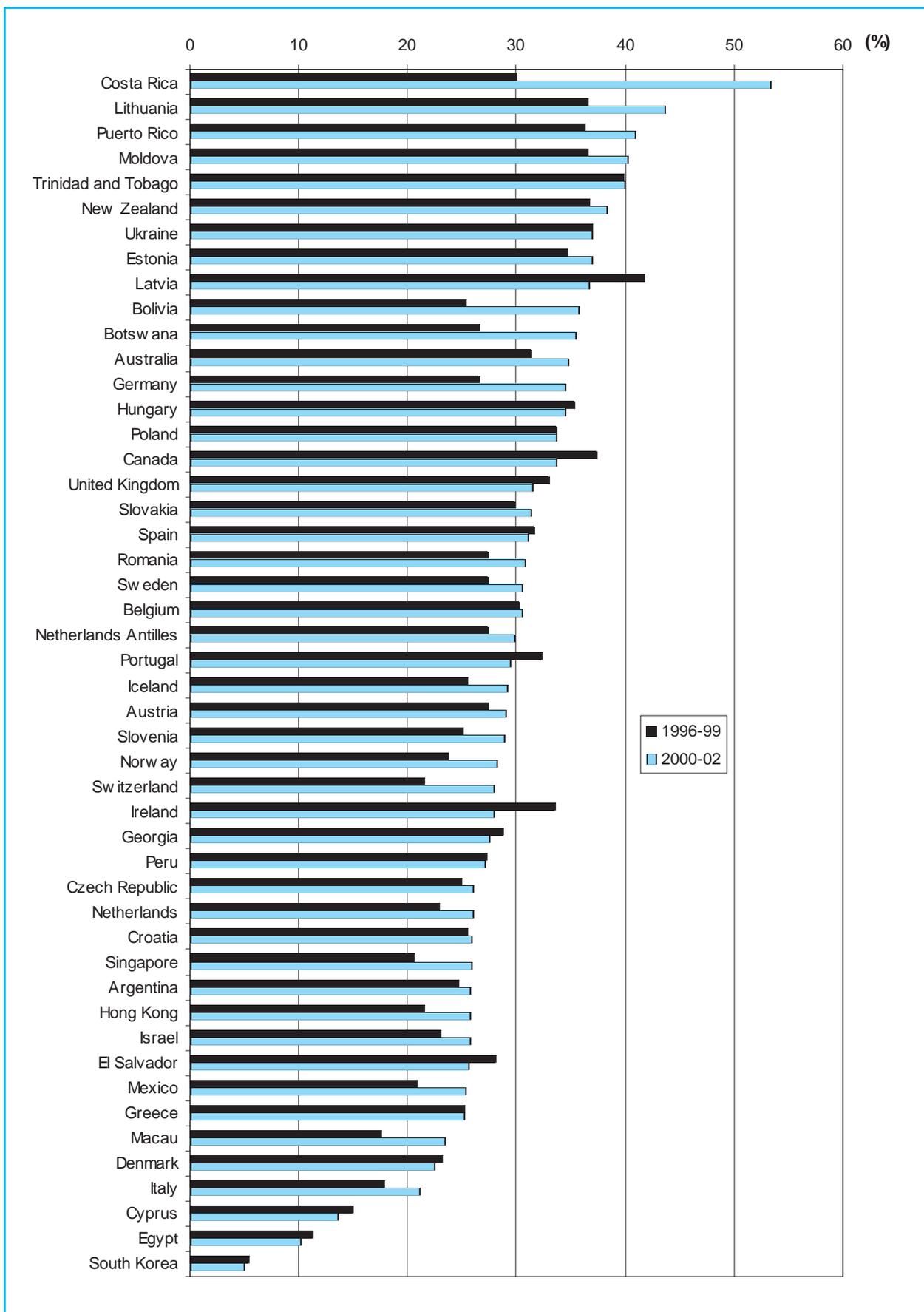


Figure 3.4 Women's share as legislators, senior officials, and managers, 1996-99 and 2000-02

Source: ILO (2003) *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, Table 2C

Countries with ISCO-88 classifications. Major group 1



Further data by country and age group

The United States

According to a study¹⁹ by the United States General Accounting Office published in 2002, women in the country now represented close to 47 per cent of the workforce, but held only 12 per cent of all managerial jobs.²⁰ Women managers tended to be concentrated in certain sectors and jobs. More than 60 per cent of women managers were working in professional medical services, hospitals, and education in 2000. Women managers were also more likely to be found in personnel and human relations, while men managers were more likely to be found in purchasing, marketing, advertising, and public relations. Women were particularly under-represented in higher positions.

Canada

In Canada, 35 per cent of managers were women in 2001, an increase of 6 per cent since 1987. However, women's share of senior management jobs was lower at 23 per cent in 2001.²¹

Thailand

In Thailand in 2000, women's share in the private sector as officers (45 per cent), supervisors (42.2 per cent), and department managers (41.5 per cent) was nearly double their share as directors (28.7 per cent).²²

Latin America and the Caribbean

In Latin America and the Caribbean, the share of women in managerial positions ranged from 25 per cent to 35 per cent, with a high of 48 per cent in the Netherlands Antilles and a low of 10 per cent in Suriname.²³

Japan

In Japan, women managers were markedly under-represented, particularly in higher managerial positions, although the statistics show a slight improvement in the last decade. According to a 2002 survey²⁴ by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare of approximately 6,700 companies, women managers were working as sub-section chiefs (11.9 per cent), section chiefs (5.5 per cent), and department heads (3.2 per cent). In 1989, the figures were 5 per cent, 2.1 per cent, and 1.2 per cent respectively.²⁵ The survey also revealed that 30.5 per cent of the companies canvassed reported that male employees were promoted more rapidly than female colleagues with the same university degrees, and 32.9 per cent reported that the difference between male and female positions and promotions became evident six to ten years after they had joined the company (between the ages of 28 and 32).

Share of women managers by age group

The same survey analysed the share of managers among the female employees by age group. It showed that only 5.6 per cent aged between 30 to 39 were sub-section chiefs, 4.1 per cent aged 40 to 49 were section chiefs, and 1.4 per cent aged 50 to 59 were department heads. Conversely, the share of male employees in the same jobs and age groups was 20.6 per cent, 24.5 per cent, and 17.2 per cent respectively. These figures show that after several years of work, a woman is more likely to be found in a lower position than a man with the same qualifications who joined the labour market at the same time. The reasons for this discriminatory practice have been identified in a number of surveys and attest to the fact that the damaging myths associated with women in business continue to pervade the workplace.

Data from a variety of countries reveals that women continue to be seriously underrepresented in managerial positions, especially at the higher levels.

After several years of work, a woman is more likely to be found in a lower position than a man with the same qualifications who joined the labour market at the same time.

Valuing female employees

The continuing low global share of women in management jobs shows that some employers still have difficulty accepting that policies promoting women in the workplace make good business practice. The main reason for this is because women's family responsibilities – maternity, child rearing and general household tasks – and paid work have as a rule been considered mutually exclusive. The standard and most cost-effective employee for companies has traditionally been male because men's family or personal lives do not impinge on their work. Clearly, men generally find it easier than women to combine family and work because they rely heavily on women to shoulder family and domestic responsibilities. New policies and strategies for coping with family responsibilities need to be inculcated into all levels of workplace, not only so that a more equitable use of men and women's time becomes the norm but so that employers' perceptions of men and women's abilities and willingness to devote time and effort to work are more attuned.

The philosophy of valuing both male and female employees is gradually permeating the workplace.

However, there is evidence to show that some employers have started to recognize that family-friendly policies benefit not only male and female employees by encouraging a better balance between work and family or personal lives, but also benefit employers by improving overall business productivity. Furthermore, the personal characteristics of integrity, diligence and sincerity, traditionally attributed to women, are increasingly viewed as qualities that can enhance a company's image in a world riddled with corporate misconduct.

The philosophy of valuing both male and female employees is gradually permeating the workplace. Some organizations have introduced voluntary codes of conduct with built-in monitoring and verification systems aimed at creating a new "privatized" context in which workers' rights are acknowledged. The codes, based on rights and labour standards set out in ILO and other UN conventions and declarations, have the advantage of extending and strengthening the application of labour standards including equal opportunity conventions across national boundaries, governmental jurisdictions, and international corporations. In addition, corporate acceptance of ILO standards through voluntary codes may help strengthen the authority of the ILO and the potential for international labour rights enforcement mechanisms. However, there are doubts about the value of voluntary codes of conduct and how to link global monitoring and verification systems (based on rights and standards articulated in ILO and UN conventions and declarations) to the private sector.

Diversity management recognizes that employees are not all the same and that their very differences and potential represent a variety of benefits and productivity improvements.

Diversity management

Organizations are also introducing diversity management programmes that go beyond equal employment opportunity legislation and affirmative action. Diversity management recognizes that employees are not all the same and that their very differences and potential represent a variety of benefits and productivity improvements.

It aims to attract and retain employees and give them a sense of inclusion by maintaining a positive work environment with the introduction of fair practices in recruitment, selection, training, appraisals, etc. Equal opportunity is also an essential element to successful diversity management. All employees are provided with a package of benefits from which they choose those that best suit their situation. Benefits can include family-friendly options such as flexible working hours, tele-

working, and job sharing. Diversity management provides all employees, regardless of race, creed and sex, with the opportunity to maximize their full potential, contribute to the achievement of an organization's mission, and ensure all team members treat each other with dignity and respect.

The business community has taken the lead in promoting diversity management principles. The Australian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (ACCI) holds the National Work and Family Awards every year. Its recent report²⁶ states, "Increasingly organizations say there is a strong business case for a better work and family balance. Organizations were assessing the direct and indirect costs of work and family conflicts and realizing the benefits to be gained from introducing family-friendly practices that met the mutual needs of employees and employees to work together". The management of the awarded companies reported that family-friendly practices, such as parental leave and flexible hours, had resulted in an increase in employees' well-being and a reduction in work-related stress. Employees felt valued by their employers, and their morale and loyalty had also increased. Higher staff satisfaction had led to increased productivity and improved performance. The employee turnover rate was lower, and job applications from quality candidates had increased. Family-friendly practices had not only helped to boost the number of women in management positions but had also benefited men who wanted to have a more significant role in family life.

A similar award in the United States²⁷ in 2003 "honored innovative approaches with proven results taken by companies to address the recruitment, development, and advancement of all managerial women, including women of color". The aim of this award was to provide the business community with replicable models to help corporations and professional enterprises create initiatives that were good for women and good for their businesses. The awarded companies included a law firm, an accounting and financial services firm, and a health care services firm. The award was based on consideration of a wide range of strategic approaches related to women's advancement, including programmes targeting a specific area to broad initiatives addressing corporate culture change.

The impact of these approaches was measured by increases in women's partnerships in the law firm from 5.8 per cent in 1994 to 10 per cent in 2002. In 2002, women comprised 14.1 per cent of all promotions to partner globally and 19 per cent of all promotions to partner in the United States. At the accounting and financial services firm, women comprised 13 per cent of all executive management positions, up from 0 per cent in the 1990s. The executive turnover rate for women had decreased and had been equal to or below that of men in the firm. Three of the health care services firm's top ten corporate officers were women in 2002. When the company had initially adopted policies to advance women in 1997, there had been no women among the then five corporate officers.

The banking sector is also beginning to acknowledge that the "gender edge" that women managers can bring to organizations can increase sales and investor appeal. For instance, an interesting trend in Wall Street aims to improve efforts to recruit, train, promote and retain women in executive positions and narrow the gap between men and women executives' pay and power.²⁸ So far, two banks have set up global leadership and diversity departments headed by women executives, which coordinate women's networking groups bringing together women top executives and clients at conferences and other events. Experience to date has shown that the extra business generated by these events is measurable, and that women clients like to see women in important positions.

The Australian Chamber of Commerce and Industry (ACCI) holds the National Work and Family Awards every year.

An interesting trend in Wall Street aims to improve efforts to recruit, train, promote and retain women in executive positions and narrow the gap between men and women executives' pay and power.

WOMEN AT THE TOP

Women have more difficulty obtaining executive jobs at corporate level than they do lower down the hierarchy.

There has been little progress in the last three years in the number of women moving into executive positions.

Data on women as executive heads of organizations are not only limited but also obscured by the terminology used by organizations to define executive jobs and the scope of the terms, which vary according to the context and level of leadership. In addition, comparisons of top jobs are distorted by whether or not surveys target the largest organizations or include all kinds of organizations. Data spanning the range of top jobs show that women continue to have more difficulty obtaining executive jobs at corporate level than they do lower down the hierarchy. There has also been little progress in the last three years in the number of women moving into executive positions.

Recent data

Australia

According to a survey²⁹ of top 200 companies in 2002 by the Equal Opportunity for Women in the Workplace Agency (EOWA) in Australia³⁰, women held 8.2 per cent of board positions in the companies, with just two women CEOs (1 per cent). Out of the companies surveyed, 52.6 per cent had no women executive managers; 29.6 per cent had one; and 17.8 per cent had two or more. Women executive managers were found in the software and ICT sectors, banking, telecommunications, insurance and retailing. They have not made any noticeable inroads into real estate, transportation, food and beverage, hotels and restaurants, leisure and energy.

The United States

In the United States, women's share in senior top management has made marginal increases. According to a survey³¹ by Catalyst in 2003, women's participation on the boards of the Fortune 500 companies³² was 13.6, up from 12.4 per cent in 2001, 11.7 per cent in 2000 and 11.2 per cent in 1999. Fifty-four companies had no women board directors, compared to 66 companies in 2001. Another 208 companies had just one woman director. Fifty-four companies had 25 per cent or more women directors, up from 30 companies in 2001 and 11 in 1995.

Canada

Another Catalyst survey³³ in 2002 revealed that women held 14 per cent of corporate officer positions in FP500 companies³⁴ in Canada in 2002, having increased from 12 per cent in 1999. Women's share of the highest corporate officers' jobs showed a relatively significant increase, jumping from 3.4 per cent in 1999 to 6.7 per cent in 2002.

European countries

In European countries, the data revealed a similar pattern. The Cranfield School of Management in the United Kingdom has carried out research on female top managers in the FTSE100 companies³⁵ every year since 1999. According to the 2003 study³⁶, the share of female directors had increased by 20 per cent (up from 84 in 2002 to 101). Eighteen (90 per cent) of the top 20 companies had women directors. The number of female executive directors had gone up from 15 to 17 since 2002. There were still 32 companies out of the top 100 with not one women director. A tendency was noted for long-serving chairmen to run boards without women directors, suggesting that long-term tenure led to "complacency" in the recruitment

of new board members.³⁷ The report also noted that women were more likely to be appointed to boards if the nomination committees included women.

Statistics³⁸ published in Germany by the Federal Ministry of Family, Seniors, Women and Youth in 2003 demonstrated that women's overall participation on the boards of 84 of the biggest companies was 8 per cent. In ten of the companies, women accounted for 20 per cent or more (the highest was 28 per cent) of the board members. Six out of the ten companies were in the service sector, such as retailing.

In France, women occupied only 124 of the top 2,325 positions (*president directeur-general; directeur-general; administrateur; member de directoire; conseil de surveillance*) in the top 200 companies in 2000,³⁹ a share of 5.3 per cent. There were no women among *president directeur-generals* of the CAC-40 companies⁴⁰. However, women's share as heads of companies with 50 or more employees had increased 5.5 per cent in the decade from 1990 (9.8 per cent) to 2000 (15.3 per cent).

UNECE countries

According to data⁴¹ on 15 UNECE countries, women's participation on the board of the central banks in 2001 was between 52.7 per cent (Georgia) and 0 per cent (Armenia, Cyprus, Estonia, Iceland, Ireland, and Netherlands). Overall women are better represented in senior positions in the public sector. Data on 11 UNECE countries in 2000 or 2001 showed that the average share of women in senior civil servant jobs (administrators of government and international organisations, ambassadors, consul-generals, etc.) was around 18 per cent, ranging from 45 per cent in Estonia to 4.7 per cent in Spain.

South Africa

In South Africa, women occupied 11.3 per cent of top management jobs and 17.7 per cent of senior management jobs in 2001.⁴² This represented an increase of 1 per cent and 1.7 per cent respectively since 2000. Race is also a factor in the labour market. White males predominate in managerial positions, and African females are most under-represented in this job category (table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Top and senior management in South Africa, 2001

Source: Department of Labour, Republic of South Africa 2003 *Commission for Employment Equity Annual Report 2001-2002*

Race (share in total population)	African (77.9%)	Colored (9.2%)	Indian (2.8%)	White (9.9%)	Total
Top management					
Male	5.4%	2.2%	3.1%	78%	88.7%
Female	1.5%	0.3%	0.3%	9.2%	11.3%
Total	6.9%	2.5%	3.4%	87.2%	100%
Senior management					
Male	6.9%	3%	2.9%	69.5%	82.3%
Female	2.1%	0.9%	0.6%	14.1%	17.7%
Total	9%	3.9%	3.5%	83.6%	100%

Note: Figures are based on a sample of 576 employers.

Switzerland

The results of a study⁴³ undertaken in 2000 in the French-speaking region of Switzerland of 100 companies with more than 50 employees in the service sector revealed that the share of female top managers varied between 0 per cent and 14 per cent. Three companies noted that there were more women middle managers under 40 years old than over 40. The share of mostly women working part-time ranged between 2 per cent and 23 per cent. Although the data reflected a resistance to the promotion of women to more senior positions, many of the companies recognized that the representation of women at all levels of the hierarchy improved the work environment, encouraged wider and more balanced debates, reduced cliques, and enabled better team work and more efficient resolution of problems and conflicts.

WOMEN LEADERS IN POLITICS

In general, women aspiring to careers in politics still encounter obstacles and difficulties.

In general, women aspiring to careers in politics still encounter obstacles and difficulties, which suggests that the democratic principles of parity and equality continue to be burdened by the deeply entrenched rules and practices inherent in political life.

Globally, the number of women representatives in national parliaments increased by just over 2 per cent between 1999 and October 2003.

Recent data

♦ As of October 2003, the global average for women representatives in national parliaments stood at 15.2 per cent, with 15.5 per cent in the single or lower house and 13.9 per cent in the upper house or senate⁴⁴, compared with 13 per cent, 13.4 per cent and 10.9 per cent respectively in 1999. This represents an increase of just over 2 per cent since 1999.

♦ Out of the 174 countries from which data were available (table 3.2), women held 30 per cent or more of the lower house parliamentary seats in 14 countries (8.0 per cent), 20 to 30 per cent in 29 countries (16.7 per cent), 11 to 20 per cent in 61 countries (35.1 per cent), 0.1 to 10 per cent in 62 countries (35.6 per cent), and none in eight countries (4.6 per cent).

♦ Regionally, women held 17.7 per cent of the seats in Europe, 15.5 per cent in Asia, 18.4 per cent in America, 14.9 per cent in Sub-Saharan Africa, 12.1 per cent in the Pacific, and 6.0 per cent in the Arab States.

♦ Scandinavian countries still lead the world with the highest share of women holding lower house parliamentary seats. In Sweden, women held 45 per cent, in Denmark 38 per cent, in Finland 37 per cent, and in Norway 36 per cent. Rwanda achieved near parity in gender balance in lower parliamentary seats after the election of September 2003, when women's share stood at 48.8 per cent.

As of November 2003, there were ten women presidents and prime ministers.

♦ Women cabinet members are found all over the world. As of November 2003, there were a total of ten women presidents and prime ministers (table 3.3). Women ministers still tend to hold non-strategic cabinet posts such as health, education, labour, social affairs, and women's

affairs. More women have been appointed to cabinet posts in the last couple of years in areas that have long been considered male domains, such as foreign affairs, finance, and defence and security. As of November 2003, there were 20 women ministers in foreign affairs, nine in defence and security, and 19 in finance (table 3.4)⁴⁵.

Increasingly, women are filling cabinet posts in what have been considered male domains.

Table 3.2: Women's share of single or lower parliamentary seats (selected countries)

Source: Inter-Parliamentary Union, *Women in National Parliaments* updated on 20 October 2003

Women's share	Countries	Women's share	Countries
40% or more (2 countries)	Rwanda 48.8% Sweden 45.3%	10-20% (61 countries)	Senegal 19.2% Portugal 19.1% Bolivia 18.5% United Kingdom 17.9% Philippines 17.8% United States 14.3% Ireland 13.3% Mongolia 10.5% Zimbabwe 10%
30-40% (12 countries)	Denmark 38% Finland 37.5% Netherlands 36.7% Norway 36.4% Costa Rica 35.1% Argentina 30.7% Mozambique 30%		
20-30% (29 countries)	South Africa 29.8% New Zealand 28.3% Viet Nam 27.3% Bulgaria 26.2% Uganda 24.7% China 21.8% Pakistan 21.6% Canada 20.6%	0.1-10% (62 countries)	Hungary 9.8% Venezuela 9.7% India 8.8% Russia 7.6% Japan 7.3% Jordan 5.5% Turkey 4.4% Bangladesh 2%

Table 3.3: Women presidents and prime ministers as of November 2003

Source: *Worldwide Guide to Women in Leadership*. <http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/index.htm>

Country	Head of the state
Bangladesh	Khaleda Zia, Prime Minister (1991-96, 2001-)
Finland	Tarja Halonen, President (2000-)
Indonesia	Megawati Sukarnoputri, President (2001-)
Ireland	Mary McAleese, President (1997-)
Latvia	Vaira Vike-Freiberga, President (1999-)
New Zealand	Helen Clark, Prime Minister (1999-)
Panama	Mireya Rodriguez, President (1999-)
Philippines	Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo, President (2001-)
Sao Tome e Principe	Maria das Neves Ceita Batista de Sousa, Prime Minister (2002-)
Sri Lanka	Chandrika Kumaratunga, President (1994-)

Table 3.4 Countries with women ministers in foreign affairs, defence/security, and finance as of November 2003

Source: *Worldwide Guide to Women in Leadership*. <http://www.guide2womenleaders.com/index.htm>

Ministers	Countries
Foreign Affairs	Austria, Barbados, Cape Verde, Chile, Colombia, El Salvador, Estonia, Guinea, Japan, Latvia, Luxemburg, Macedonia, Malawi, Niger, Paraguay, Portugal, Spain, South Africa, Suriname, Switzerland
Defence/Security	Australia, Bahamas, Belize, Chile, Croatia, France, Guinea Bissau, Norway, Sweden
Finance	Andorra, Australia, Bahamas, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Canada, Costa Rica, Cuba, East Timor, Guatemala, Lithuania, Moldova, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Netherlands Antilles, Portugal, Turkmenistan

Difficulties faced by women in politics

In March 2000, an Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU) survey⁴⁶ of 187 women politicians from 65 countries examined the difficulties faced by women in politics. Seventy-three per cent of the respondents were mothers. Women politicians from all over the world recounted their personal experiences as party members, parliamentarians and government members.

In a March 2000 survey of women politicians, a majority of respondents indicated that:

One of women's primary concerns was to reconcile political life with family commitments.

Female representation in politics was changing society for the better.

Women's presence in parliament moderated male members' behaviour.

The media both helped and hampered women in politics.

The largest group of respondents came from Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) member countries (39.6 per cent), followed by Sub-Saharan Africa (19.3 per cent), Asia (14.4 per cent), the Americas (12.3 per cent), Nordic countries (7 per cent), the Pacific (4.3 per cent), and Arab States (3.2 per cent). Most of the women had obtained tertiary education qualifications: high school diplomas (7 per cent), postgraduate degrees (15 per cent), and undergraduate degrees (73 per cent). A majority of the respondents (35.6 per cent) had held positions as public or civil servants before entering parliament, suggesting that the optimal career track to politics is through the civil service. The rest had been teachers (17 per cent), lawyers (10 per cent), journalists (11.2 per cent), doctors (11.2 per cent), nurses (7.4 per cent) and social workers (7.4 per cent).

One of the women's primary concerns was to reconcile political life with family commitments. Almost all of the respondents admitted to having difficulties balancing family responsibilities with a useful and effective political life. The report noted that although day care for small children was widely available to women parliamentarians in Nordic countries, this was not always the case in other parts of the world.

Eighty per cent of the respondents considered that the increasing representation of women in politics had renewed public trust in politics, and that the public recognized that women worked hard and wanted to achieve concrete results. The women generally believed that female representation in politics was changing society for the better. The survey presented examples in Australia, Canada, El Salvador, Ethiopia, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Israel, Jordan, New Zealand, Peru, the Russian Federation and South Africa of political action by women showing tangible improvements, especially for women and the most disadvantaged sectors of society. This included such areas as social services, gender equality, the control of violence against women and children, employment, support services, and the environment.

A majority of the respondents claimed that their presence in Parliament had moderated male members' behaviour; for example, men used less sexist language and were more polite.

The women viewed the media as both helping and hampering them in politics. On one hand, the media focused on traditional stereotypes of women such as their appearance and private lives, instead of their political activities. On the other hand, media coverage showing their relatively novel status as politicians made them visible. However, there was a perception that women were frequently shown in the media as only concerned with women's or social issues rather than with more "strategic" issues such as economics, transportation or finance.

Fifty per cent of the respondents considered that their parties were not structurally receptive to women and that they were generally hostile to the inclusion of women. A high proportion of the respondents (77 per cent) thought that prevailing cultural values and gender roles were among the factors responsible for women's limited participation in national politics.

Quotas

Many governments throughout the world have acted to promote gender equality in all sectors of society with varying degrees of success by introducing quota systems or "temporary corrective measures seeking to increase women's representation in decision-making and policy making processes"⁴⁷. The quota system is an affirmative action tool intended to ensure that women constitute a critical minority of at least 30 to 40 per cent on decision-making bodies. Most of the countries that have succeeded in implementing such quota systems are in Europe, particularly the Nordic countries.

In fact, Norway has taken quotas a step further in a bid to increase the number of women on the boards of private and public companies. At least 40 per cent of the board members in state-owned enterprises must have been women by 2003. Private companies have until 2005 to increase their share of women on their boards to 40 per cent. If this level of women's representation has not been achieved voluntarily by then, regulations setting quotas will come into force.⁴⁸

Quotas have been introduced in many countries with the aim of overcoming the sex imbalances in political representation. A number of types of such quotas have been introduced throughout the world:

- ♦ **constitutional quotas for national parliaments**, which are mandated in the constitution of the country (for example in Burkina Faso, Nepal, the Philippines, and Uganda);
- ♦ **election law quotas for national parliaments**, which are provided for in the national legislation or regulations of the country (legislative quotas are widely used in Latin America as well as for example in Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia and Sudan); and
- ♦ **political party quotas for electoral candidates**, which are targets set by political parties to ensure a certain percentage of women candidates. In some countries many political parties have adopted quota provisions (for example in Argentina, Bolivia, Ecuador, Germany, Norway, Italy and Sweden). In other countries, only one or two parties have adopted them.
- ♦ There are also **constitutional or legislative quotas for women candidates at sub-national government level** including local, district or state or provincial levels (for example in Bangladesh, France, India, Pakistan and South Africa).

In 2003, there were 74 countries with constitutional, electoral or political party quotas. Women's average share of representation in these countries was 17.2 per cent.⁴⁹

China

China has a relatively high female participation in politics and government. In 2001, women accounted for over 21 per cent of all deputies in the National

Prevailing cultural values and gender roles were among the factors responsible for women's limited participation in national politics.

The quota system is an affirmative action tool intended to ensure that women constitute a critical minority of at least 30 to 40 per cent on decision-making bodies.

In 2003, there were 74 countries with constitutional, electoral or political party quotas.

People's Congress (NPC). In March 1997, the fifth session of the eighth NPC adopted the Decision on the Selection and Nomination of Deputies to the ninth NPC, which required that there be more female deputies. In Tianjin provincial People's Congress and cities under direct central leadership, there is a target of 25 per cent for all deputies to be women. However, when women attain leadership positions they tend to be deputies to men, serving as deputy governors, deputy mayors, deputy division heads and deputy Party secretaries. In the five decades of Communist rule, there have been only two women in the Politburo, which remains the sole preserve of men. Typically, when women hold any sort of leadership posts they are usually assigned responsibility for non-strategic areas such as family planning, health and education⁵⁰.

Belgium

Of all the European Union member states, only Belgium has a national law (1994) establishing a quota for women in political representation.⁵¹ It specifies that there should be a statutory quota of 25 per cent female candidatures on party lists in every election (this figure was increased to 33.3 per cent from 1999 onwards). If the quota is not filled, then positions on the list reserved for women remain blank. The effectiveness of this measure was shown in the 1994 local elections, when the number of female candidates elected to the local councils increased from around 10 per cent to 20 per cent. Also, women's representation in the lower house of parliament increased from 23 per cent in 1999 to 35 per cent in 2003.

France

France did not show an improvement in gender balance arising from quotas that were introduced for political parties in 2000. Following the 2002 national assembly elections, women held only 12.3 per cent of seats, a mere 1.4 per cent increase over the 1997 elections. The reason for this is attributed to the fact that the largest political parties chose to pay fines rather than fill their lists with women⁵².

Pros and cons of quotas

Critics argue that the quota system is discriminatory, interventionist and essentially undemocratic.

The use of the quota system is controversial. Critics argue that it is discriminatory, interventionist and essentially undemocratic. Many countries (including Italy and the United Kingdom) have rejected quotas at the national level arguing that they are at odds with the principle of gender equality and discriminate against other under-represented groups. It is maintained that quotas are tokenistic, that individual ability and political commitment should be the basis for selection, and that they undermine women's efforts to demonstrate their capacities. It is also argued that they could create a hierarchy whereby members of parliament (MPs) who are elected without the assistance of quotas are somehow superior to those who are helped by them. And, say critics, quotas reinforce women's already disadvantaged place in public life.

However, there is evidence to show that without quotas the number of women party candidates would be much lower.

Another school of thought suggests the quotas should not be seen as being the solution to female under-representation in public life, but should be used in conjunction with other measures including encouraging more women to stand for election, placing more women in visible political positions, and introducing more family-friendly work practices in parliamentary systems.

However, there is evidence to show that without quotas the number of women party candidates would be much lower.

Several parties, including the Social Democrat Party in Denmark, gave up their quota systems in 1996 since it was felt that they were no longer needed after a 40 per cent female representation had been achieved. However, in the next elections to the European Parliament, all four Social Democrat candidates were men. This highlights the difficulties involved in overcoming long-standing and deeply ingrained discriminatory attitudes to women in politics.

Capability testing

An innovative method for increasing the number of female parliamentary candidate applications recently tested by the Conservative Party in the United Kingdom illustrated how capability testing can give women the opportunity to compete on an equal footing with men and eventually negate the need for quotas.

The Party's drive to increase both female and ethnic minority candidates resulted in a decision to design a competence-based process for drawing up its approved list of parliamentary candidates⁵³. A rigorous assessment procedure was put in place to assess applicants' ability to become MPs. This included an analysis of an MP's role to determine a benchmark of the competencies associated with successful performance.

Six core competencies were identified:

- ♦ **Communication skills.** Capacity to communicate clearly and persuasively across different audiences and media contexts, listen and respond creatively, generating opportunities for communication both for self and others.
- ♦ **Intellectual skills.** Ability to understand, learn and prioritise complex information quickly and present ideas in a transparent and persuasive manner both verbally and in writing.
- ♦ **Relating to people.** Ability to relate to people from all backgrounds, demonstrate tolerance, approachability and inspire trust in others.
- ♦ **Leading and motivating.** Capacity to lead and motivate people through recognizing their contribution, involving them and providing support when required. Acceptance of responsibility for outcomes.
- ♦ **Resilience and drive.** Ability to cope effectively and positively under pressure - heavy workloads and long working hours - and to persist in the face of challenges, setbacks and criticism.
- ♦ **Political conviction.** Commitment to party principles and public service. Includes the need for integrity and courage to disseminate and defend beliefs.

Exercises relating to different aspects of an MP's role were developed including a competency interview, a group exercise, a public-speaking exercise, in-tray exercise and psychometric tests. After evaluating approximately 400 applicants, the findings showed that when a rigorous objective assessment process based on an analysis of the MP's role and involving trained assessors is used to identify competency, "there is absolutely no difference between ratings for male and female candidates". Although these findings are a step in the right direction,

Capability testing can give women the opportunity to compete on an equal footing with men and eventually negate the need for quotas.

In the UK, capability testing for prospective Conservative MPs identified six core competencies.

The capability testing exercise showed that “there is absolutely no difference between ratings for male and female candidates”.

they will not lead to equal representation of women in politics until a greater number of women candidates apply. Avenues for raising women’s interest in politics need to be explored, not least raising awareness of MPs’ role.

EARNINGS GAPS

4

Research has shown that established social or cultural attitudes and gender inequality in education, training and recruitment cause vertical and horizontal occupational sex segregation, and that this is the principal reason for the persistent gaps between men and women's earnings. Institutional barriers and social attitudes towards women's abilities also hamper the movement of professional women upward through occupational categories to increasingly responsible managerial jobs. High levels of vertical occupational segregation, where men and women work in the same job categories but men do the more skilled, responsible or better-paid work, are considered to be a reason for the earning gaps between equally qualified male and female employees. Women remain concentrated in the lower levels of the job hierarchy: in the employment market, the company, and job category.

However, these are not the only reasons women earn lower wages than men. Women are likely to have shorter careers than men of the same age because they do not necessarily work full-time throughout their working lives. Many tend either to leave their jobs or work part-time typically between the ages of 25 and 35 to raise children and return to full-time employment at a later stage. This leads to slower promotion and less pay. In addition, managerial positions require longer working hours, a certain amount of travelling, or even relocation. Many women tend to avoid such jobs because of their family commitments.

Earning the same base rate of pay for doing the same job is only part of the equation. Differences in fringe benefits and bonuses offered to men and women also contribute to earnings gaps. The concept of equal remuneration for equal work does not necessarily include the same "perks" that are given to male managers such as access to company cars, mobile telephones and expense accounts, as well as allowances for specific skills, work-related travel, working in difficult conditions and compensation for working in distant or unpopular locations. Also, payments based on performance, bonuses, commissions, profit sharing, and negotiated retirement benefits are not necessarily a standard part of women's remuneration package although they may well be part of the terms of an overall package agreed by men during recruitment.

Social or cultural attitudes and gender inequality in education, training and recruitment are at the base of the persistent gaps between men and women's earnings.

Women are likely to have shorter careers than men of the same age because they do not necessarily work full-time throughout their working lives.

Recent data

The European Union

In 12 European Union countries for which data were available, the average pay gap between men and women's earnings was narrowing and in 2000 stood at 15.3 per cent (see table 4.1). The United Kingdom had the widest gap (24.3 per cent), followed by Austria (21.1 per cent) and the Netherlands (21.1 per cent).

A survey⁵⁴ by the National Institute of Economic and Social Research (NIESR) in the United Kingdom revealed that in 2000 women working full-time earned 82 per cent of men's full-time earnings. This represents an 18

Table 4.1: Gender pay gap in EU countries

Source: Commission of the European Communities 2002 *Implementation of gender mainstreaming in the Structural Funds programming documents 2000-2006*

Country	Gender pay gap (%)
United Kingdom	24.3
Austria	21.1
Netherlands	21.1
Ireland	19.8
Germany	19.4
Greece	16.2
Italy	14.3
Spain	13.2
France	10.8
Denmark	10.4
Belgium	7.3
Portugal	5.9

Data in some countries show pay differences between men and women with the same university degrees, although the men and women tend to be in different job groups.

per cent increase on the 1973 figure of 64 per cent. The pay gap was narrowest in the public sector, where women earned 86 per cent of men's earnings. In the private sector, women earned 78 per cent of men's pay.

The NIESR survey summarized the causes for the persistent pay gaps as follows.

- ◆ "Human capital" differences: the lower level of education of women among older generations, and difference in the choice of subjects studied.
- ◆ Part-time workers.
- ◆ Less willingness to travel or relocate for work.
- ◆ Horizontal occupational segregation: the occupations in which women are concentrated tend to offer lower pay.
- ◆ Vertical occupational segregation: there are fewer women in managerial positions.

Japan

Another survey⁵⁵ in 2001 by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare in Japan found that women earned 65.3 per cent of men's salaries. This was an improvement from 63.1 per cent in 1997, but Japan still lagged behind many other countries where women tend to earn an average of 70 to 80 per cent of men's earnings. The companies surveyed gave the following explanations for women earning less than men:

- ◆ Women are concentrated in lower category jobs.
- ◆ Women stay with companies for less time than men.
- ◆ Men receive family allowances as a heads of households.

Data in some countries show pay differences between men and women with the same university degrees, although the men and women tend to be in different job groups. For example, the same survey in Japan also revealed that women graduates aged 35 and 50 earned 81 per cent and 60 per cent respectively of the pay earned by men of the same age and with the same qualifications. In the finance and insurance sector, women graduates' earnings were 53 per cent of the pay earned by men with the same qualifications⁵⁶. This may be due to the fact that in Japan women graduates are mainly employed as support staff, while men graduates are employed as line staff on career tracks.

South Korea

A similar situation was found in South Korea in 2000 where women workers with university degrees earned 74 per cent of men's earnings with the same qualifications⁵⁷.

Singapore

In Singapore women's average salary was 75 per cent of that earned by men. The proposition here was that the wage gap is narrower in professional jobs, and that this is due to women's lower level of qualifications and shorter job experience, rather than to direct gender discrimination⁵⁸.

Jordan

An interesting situation appears to be unfolding in Jordan, where women

account for 31 per cent of the ICT workforce. A recent study⁵⁹ found that the wage gap was narrower in this sector compared to the female-dominated textiles sector. Occupational sex segregation was also less prominent in the ICT sector.

Denmark

Data on pay differences among managers showed that earnings gaps were wider the more senior the management position. For instance, in Denmark in 2001, the proportion of women's earnings compared to men's was 77 per cent for "employees of highest level", 70 per cent for "employees of medium level", and 79 per cent for "employees of basic level"⁶⁰.

Thailand

Similarly in Thailand in 2000, women directors' average monthly income was 79.6 per cent of their male counterparts' income. The proportion of women's earnings compared to men's earnings was 86.5 per cent for department managers, 88.5 per cent for supervisors, and 92.2 per cent for officers⁶¹.

Italy

In Italy in 2001, women managers and middle managers were paid respectively 7.7 per cent and 5.2 per cent less than men⁶².

New Zealand

In New Zealand in 2002, the average public sector salary for women was 17 per cent less than that of men. Female managers earned 16 per cent less than male managers⁶³.

Argentina

In Argentina, although women have a higher level of education than men, their average income is 32.7 per cent lower than that of men. For women in higher income brackets the gap is as much as 40 per cent⁶⁴.

The United States

In the United States⁶⁵ women earned on average 76 per cent of men's pay in 2001. They earned 70.5 per cent of men's earnings in managerial and professional jobs, and 66.6 per cent and 73.4 per cent respectively in the "executive, administrative, and managerial" and the "professional" groups. They earned just 64.6 per cent of men's salary in a financial manager's job, which is one of the best-paid jobs in the "executive, administrative and managerial" group. The pay gaps were narrower in personnel, training, and labour relations specialist managerial jobs, where they earned 79.8 per cent of men's earnings. In fact, these were the best-paid jobs for women in this job group. Lawyers were one of the best paid among the "professional" group for both sexes although women earned just 69.4 per cent of the salary of male counterparts.

According to a report⁶⁶ entitled *A New Look Through the Glass Ceiling: Where are the Women?* compiled by the United States General Accounting Office in 2002, the majority of women managers were worse off financially in 2000 than they had been in 1995. The survey examined ten industries (communications, public administration, business and repair services, entertainment and recreation services, educational services, retail trade,

Data on pay differences among managers showed that earnings gaps were wider the more senior the management position.

finance, insurance and real estate, hospitals and medical services, professional medical services, and other professional services) employing 70 per cent of working women, and found that the pay gaps between female and male managers working full-time widened between 1995 and 2000 in seven out of the ten industries. For instance, female managers in the entertainment and recreation services industry earned 83 per cent of male managers' pay in 1995 compared with 62 per cent in 2000. In communications, female managers' pay fell from 86 per cent to 73 per cent, in the finance, insurance and real estate sectors, from 76 per cent to 68 per cent and, in the professional medical services sector from 90 per cent to 88 per cent in the same timeframe.

By comparison, the pay gaps between male and female managers had narrowed slightly in some sectors. In public administration in 1995, women managers earned 80 per cent of male counterparts' earnings, in hospitals and medical services they earned 80 per cent, and in educational services they earned 86 per cent compared to 83 per cent, 85 per cent and 91 per cent respectively in 2000.

Why are there earnings gaps?

Some reasons presented for the earnings gaps were that: women continued to choose occupations and industries where there is more flexibility in order to balance the needs of work and family, which results in occupational segregation. Even when working as managers, the data showed that they were in positions that required less education and were lower paid. They tended to work in areas with fewer career development prospects. They were 50 per cent less likely to have a college degree than their male counterparts, particularly in the finance sector. Also, when they opted for part-time work they lost healthcare, retirement and social security benefits but continued paying for part-time child care.

Childbearing and child rearing which interrupt women's careers and permanently slow down their earning power, can now explain an increasingly large part of the gap.

One school of thought suggests that only a small proportion of the pay gap can be blamed on discriminatory practices in education and recruitment. According to recent studies in various countries, childbearing and child rearing, which interrupt women's careers and permanently slow down their earning power, can now explain an increasingly large part of the gap. This suggests a lack of policies in the workplace - and in society as a whole - to support working mothers. Furthermore, mothers tend to earn less than other women. According to recent research⁶⁷ in several industrialized countries, one child could lead to a "penalty" of 6 to 7 per cent of earnings, and two children a penalty of 13 per cent.

WOMEN IN SELF-EMPLOYMENT

5

What motivates women to go it alone and establish their own businesses? There are two schools of thought on the factors fuelling the growth in the share of self-employed⁶⁸ women. One view is that women have been attracted to it by a desire for more autonomy, flexibility, and escaping the obstacles posed by the glass ceiling in large organizations and corporations. Another view is that they have been pushed into self-employment by the erosion of jobs in the public and private sectors caused by restructuring and downsizing. There is evidence to suggest that both the “push” and “pull” factors are responsible.

Recent data

♦The ILO’s *Yearbook of Labour Statistics* published in 2003 showed marginal growth in self-employment in some countries since 1996-99, and in others a decline. In 2000-2002, women’s share was between 20 and 40 per cent in many of the countries for which data were available (figure 5.1). The overall share of self-employed workers was lower among women than among men in 2001-2002 (table 5.1).

♦Table 5.2 shows that the share of informal employment was higher among women than men in many developing countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia, and Latin America between 1994 and 2000. This indicates the importance of micro enterprises and self-employment as a source of income for women.

♦In Latin America and the Caribbean, women own between a one-fourth and one-third of all micro enterprises and small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs), and their share is increasing. Between 1970 and 1990 the share of women employers and self-employed workers rose from 22 per cent to 48 per cent. However, surveys in Argentina, Brazil and Mexico found that firms owned by women were smaller than those owned by men, and that on average women were younger than men. Women entrepreneurs were less likely to be in manufacturing or production of goods, and more likely to be involved in services or the retail trade. The main constraints faced by women entrepreneurs were their access to capital and technology.⁶⁹

There is evidence that both the desire to “be one’s own boss” and the erosion of jobs in the private and public sectors prompt women to start their own businesses.

Table 5.1: Share of self-employed workers in the total employment, by sexSource: ILO 2002 *Key Indicators of the Labour Market 2001-2002*,

Table 3: Status of employment

Note: "Self-employed workers" include "employers" and "own-account workers".

Country	1996		2000		Increase	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Hungary	15.7	8.2	18.8	9.5	3.1	1.3
Mexico	31.6	22.9	31.2	23.4	-0.4	0.5
Switzerland	12.2	8.1	12.1	8.5	-0.1	0.4
Germany	12	6	12.6	6.2	0.6	0.2
Norway	10.8	4.4	9.5	4.4	-1.3	0
Canada	12	9	11.7	8.9	-0.3	-0.1
Sweden	15.3	5.5	14.2	5.3	-1.1	-0.2
South Korea	33.4	19.9	28.5	19.7	-4.9	-0.2
Italy	28.9	16.5	29.4	16.1	0.5	-0.4
United Kingdom	17.2	7.2	15.1	6.8	-2.1	-0.4
New Zealand	13.1	13.1	23.7	12.6	-1.4	-0.5
United States	9.7	6.7	8.5	6	-1.2	-0.7
Japan	14.1	8.5	11.3	7.8	-2.8	-0.7
Finland	18.3	9.5	17.1	8.6	-1.2	-0.9
Ireland	27	8	24.8	7.1	-2.2	-0.9
France	14	8.2	10.6	7.2	-3.4	-1
Australia	16.9	10.7	13.5	9.6	-3.4	-1.1
Spain	24	16.4	21.3	13.3	-2.7	-3.1

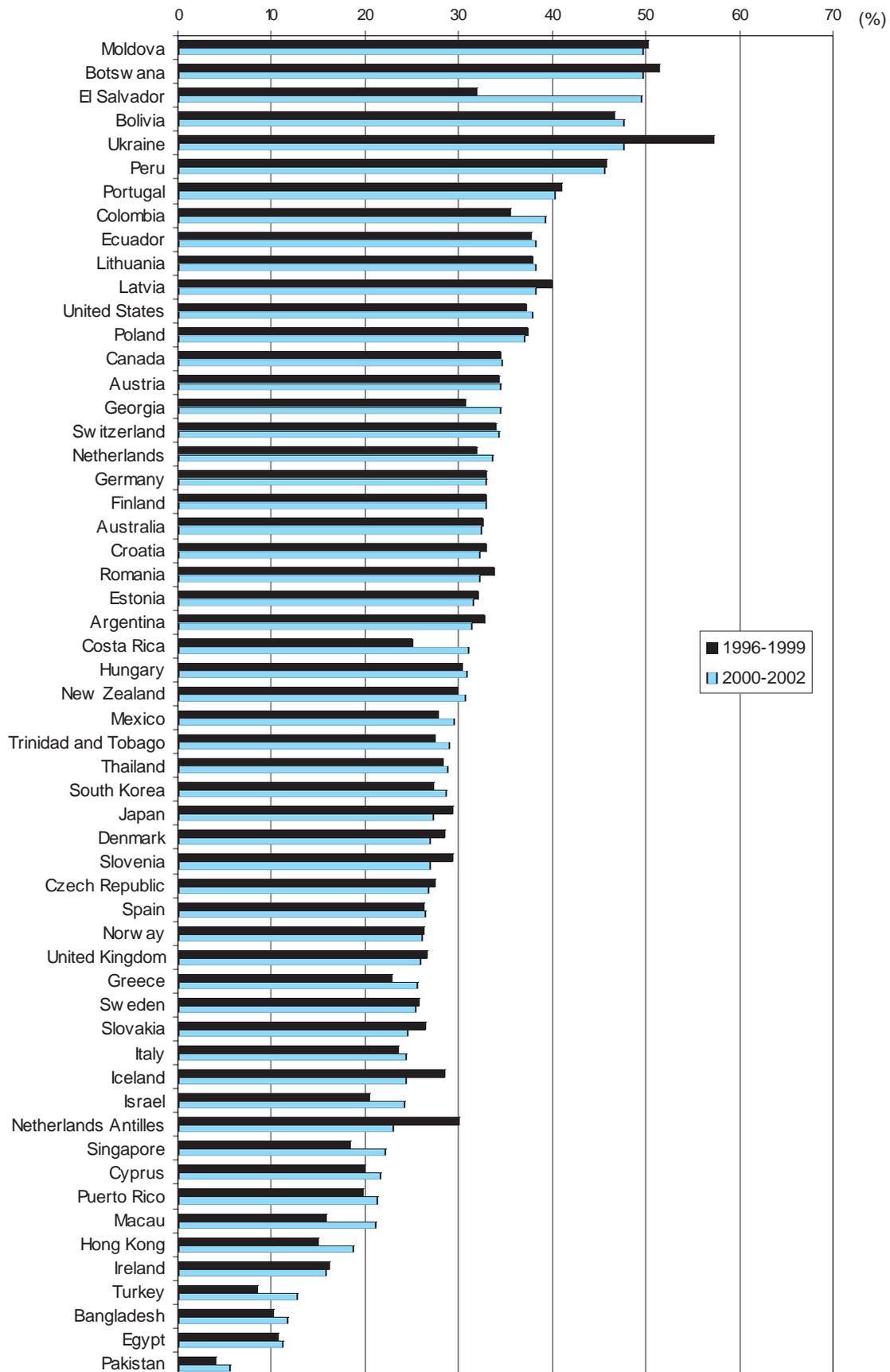
Table 5.2: Informal employment in non-agricultural employment, by sex 1994/2000Source: ILO 2002 *Women and men in the informal economy:**A statistical picture*, pp. 19, Table 2.1

Country	Informal employment as percentage of non-agricultural employment	Men's informal employment as percentage of men's non-agricultural employment	Women's informal employment as percentage of women's non-agricultural employment
Benin	93	87	97
Chad	74	60	95
Guinea	72	66	87
India	83	83	86
Kenya	72	59	83
Indonesia	78	78	77
Bolivia	63	55	74
Philippines	72	71	73
El Salvador	57	46	69
Guatemala	56	46	69
Brazil	60	55	67
Honduras	58	74	65
South Africa	51	44	58
Mexico	55	54	55
Thailand	51	49	54
Dominican Republic	48	47	50
Costa Rica	44	42	48
Venezuela	47	47	47
Egypt	55	57	46
Chile	36	31	44
Colombia	38	34	44
Algeria	48	49	43
Morocco	43	43	41
Tunisia	50	53	39
Syria	42	43	35

Figure 5.1: Women's share as employers, 1996-99 and 2000-02

Source: ILO 2003 *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, Table 2D:

Category 2 = Employers and Category 3 = Own account workers



Why do women start their own businesses?

The United Kingdom

In 2003, a study⁷⁰ in the United Kingdom of female entrepreneurs canvassed 20 small Internet companies owned by women and explored the reasons they had started their businesses. Thirteen had left senior management positions. Seventeen were between the ages of 35 and 50, half were unmarried and only 35 per cent had dependent children, compared with 49 per cent of self-employed women nationally.

A UK study shows that the desire for independence is a major reason that women start their own businesses.

The reasons given for starting up their businesses included the following.

- ◆ More independence in their working lives and a wish to become “agents of change” and “be in control of their own lives”.
- ◆ Balance career with domestic responsibilities (not necessarily driven by economic necessity).
- ◆ Negative work experiences and wanting to gain freedom from the confines of the formal labour market - a long-term option.
- ◆ Left work because of their frustration with the glass ceilings they had encountered.
- ◆ Wanted to avoid any form of dependency on others.
- ◆ More relaxed lifestyle after many years in corporate management.
- ◆ The desire to be independent was a common pull factor for all the interviewees.
- ◆ None cited financial gain or unemployment as a reason for self-employment.

The United States

Evidence lending credence to the argument that women are pulled into entrepreneurship was also found in a 2001 study in the United States of 425 women who had previously worked at least five years for a large company. The findings demonstrated that women managers’ decision to leave companies was not necessarily due to their disappointment in their jobs, but was sometimes part of a planned approach to their career development. Of the women surveyed, 272 had left to start businesses and 153 had left to join small businesses, primarily in advanced technology fields (63 per cent of owners) followed by professional services (27 per cent).

A US study finds that women managers’ decision to leave companies was not necessarily due to their disappointment in their jobs, but was sometimes part of a planned approach to their career development.

Among the reasons for leaving were that they wanted:

- ◆ an opportunity to take more risks (77.5 per cent);
- ◆ more decision-making responsibility, greater financial rewards (67 per cent);
- ◆ greater ability to influence business strategies (65 per cent); and
- ◆ increased flexibility in their personal lives (41 per cent).

The women's level of satisfaction with their new lifestyles was high. The move to self-employment had been positive for most of the women - 75 per cent of the entrepreneurs were "very satisfied" with their current situation when compared to their previous jobs. Thirty-one per cent of the entrepreneurs reported that they worked fewer hours, whilst 32 per cent reported working longer hours. Forty-seven per cent travelled less and 25 per cent travelled more.

Denmark

These findings were mirrored in a survey⁷¹ in 2000 focusing on women entrepreneurs in Denmark. It found that about 75 per cent of respondents, regardless of their sex, cited motives such as "the need for new challenges", the wish to "be one's own boss" and a "better organized working life". About half cited getting away from an "unsatisfactory work situation", a "better combination of family life and work", the "desire to make a living out of a hobby", the "risk of losing a job", and the "prospect of earning more". Almost 60 per cent of women admitted to having been influenced to a degree by the threat of unemployment.

Eastern Europe and CIS countries

Weaknesses in the labour market do not necessarily have an influence on women's decision to become self-employed, although in some countries it was found to play a major role in the decision-making process.

A 2002 United Nations study⁷² of women's entrepreneurship in Eastern Europe and CIS countries comparing statistical data on the participation of women in enterprises in countries with unemployment rates found that growth in unemployment was not accompanied by an increase in the participation of women working on their own account. However, earlier surveys in Poland, Lithuania, and Ukraine had indicated that the threat of losing a job in the public sector and awareness of the limited chances of finding a job were important elements in the decision to set up a business. It was concluded that the "results of these surveys confirm that self-employment is a significant factor in combating women's unemployment". On the other hand, a 1997 Small Enterprise Economic Development Foundation study⁷³ in Hungary on women's entrepreneurial activities and participation in the labour force found that women's workforce participation declined by 30 per following the advent of market-oriented reforms. A key factor was a sharp cutback in the public sector, which had previously employed half of the female working population. However, only 6 per cent of the women who became entrepreneurs had previously been unemployed.

In the US study, 75 per cent of the entrepreneurs were "very satisfied" with their current situation when compared to their previous jobs.

Studies in Eastern Europe and CIS countries have examined the influence of weaknesses in the labour market on women's decision to become self-employed.

WOMEN IN TERTIARY EDUCATION

6

The number of female students enrolled in tertiary or higher education⁷⁴ continues to grow, and parity with male students has been achieved or surpassed in many countries. These higher levels of education should enable female graduates to compete for professional and managerial jobs as never before. But what are the chances that they will find professional and managerial career track jobs that will use their abilities and potential fully when they finally emerge from academia? Despite this increasingly enabling educational environment, differences in the nature and quality of tertiary education and training for females and males continue to pose obstacles for many women during recruitment and later in their careers when vying with men for promotion to professional and managerial positions.

One challenge is that academic choices young women make mean they lack the relevant educational profile to enter and progress in professional and managerial careers to which they aspire. Statistics reveal that both women and men tend to choose subjects of study as a result of gender-role socialization by family, friends and society. They internalize the gender values in a given society or culture and choose education and jobs that are considered suitable for their sex, much as boys are given cars and girls dolls. Women traditionally choose caring professions such as teaching and nursing. If, however, they show an interest in careers in which few women are working, they may bow to pressure from peers, parents and teachers not to pursue these fields.

Women also know that employers are influenced by views that tend to classify jobs as being more “suitable” for women or men, hence women adapt subjects they study and their choice of profession accordingly. In many countries, efforts are being made to promote equal opportunity in education; attract more women students into tertiary education; broaden their educational choices by removing the inherent stereotyping of girls into “female” subjects; and raise both student and teacher awareness of educational choices.⁷⁵

Although women students in tertiary education have begun penetrating non-conventional areas such as engineering, they are still concentrated in subjects with relatively weak connections to professional and managerial jobs. Women students also tend to have weaker aspirations for career advancement than male students and prioritize academic interest over practical career opportunities, for example, by studying literature or the arts rather than opting for professional training.

In some countries, women’s labour force participation might be seen to conflict with the traditional roles of women as carers, and regardless of their level of education women may have to prioritize their family responsibilities over employment. Traditional and cultural factors may also sometimes discourage women from taking certain types of jobs.⁷⁶ This tends to restrict their access to the labour market and consequently influence their academic choices.

In many countries, female students have achieved or surpassed parity with male students in tertiary education.

However, the academic choices young women make mean they lack the relevant educational profile to enter and progress in professional and managerial careers to which they aspire.

Despite the fact that women students in tertiary education have begun penetrating non-conventional areas such as engineering, they are still concentrated in subjects with relatively weak connections to professional and managerial jobs.

Recent data

In 2000-01, women made up half or more of all tertiary education enrolment in 26 of the 35 countries from which data were drawn (see figure 6.3). Although this includes students of all ages, the majority was aged between 18 and 25. Women university students now outnumber men in many countries in Latin America, Europe and the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS). A 2003 UNESCO report⁷⁷ on female education in the Arab States presented the results of a survey⁷⁸ of education covering the school year 1999-2000 in 19 countries. Out of the five million students enrolled in tertiary level courses in these countries, nearly 40 per cent were women. However, their participation was markedly less than that of men in Iraq, Djibouti, Morocco and the Palestinian Autonomous Territories.

Out of the 38 countries listed in figures 6.1 and 6.2, 15 countries⁷⁹ had a higher share of women in professional jobs than in tertiary enrolment. This anomaly may be due to the fact that some female-dominated professional jobs, such as nursing, do not necessarily require tertiary education. It may also account for the fact that women's share in professional jobs is generally much higher than that seen in managerial jobs.

Data from many countries confirm that although women's participation in tertiary education continues to grow, they still opt for more traditional "female" subjects.

The European Union

Data for 2000 show that in the European Union, women students accounted for 56 per cent of graduates who obtained their first degree (bachelor's degree or equivalent). This level contrasts with the postgraduate level, where 54 per cent of students who obtained their master's degree were men.⁸⁰ Female graduates' preferred fields of study were social sciences, business and law (33 per cent), health and welfare (20 per cent), humanities and arts (15 per cent) and education (13 per cent). Male graduates' preferred fields of study were social sciences, business and law (30 per cent), engineering, manufacturing and construction (26 per cent), sciences and computing (16 per cent) and health and welfare (9 per cent).⁸¹ In the United Kingdom, women accounted for 55 per cent of undergraduate students. They also achieved better grades than their male counterparts. In 2000, 54 per cent of female students obtained the top two grades compared to 47 per cent of male students⁸².

Thailand

In Thailand in 2000, women made up 52.9 per cent of public university students⁸³. Women were in the majority in studying the humanities, religion and theology (77.3 per cent), medical science and health studies (71.1 per cent), education and teacher training (60.1 per cent), social sciences (59.7 per cent), and natural science (51.1 per cent). Their share was small in engineering (16.3 per cent) and law (28.4 per cent), although it had risen since 1997 by 8.3 per cent and 0.6 per cent respectively.

Japan

There has also been a steady annual increase in the percentage of women university students in Japan. In 2002, women made up 38 per cent of students studying for bachelor's, master's, and doctoral degrees (excluding two-year junior college students)⁸⁴ compared with 29.3 per cent of students in 1992. Although a two-year junior college education was the pre-

ferred choice of women university students for many years, they are increasingly choosing universities over junior colleges. Between 1992 and 2002, women's university attendance rose by 400,000 and women's junior college attendance declined by 250,000. This represents a drop of 23.7 per cent over the ten year period. In 2002, 98.3 per cent of male tertiary education students were at university. Women undergraduates were studying the humanities (30.2 per cent) and social science (29.3 per cent), while male students were studying social science (46.1 per cent) and engineering (27 per cent). Women made up the majority of undergraduates studying home economics (95.1 per cent), health other than medicine and dentistry (71 per cent), the arts (69.2 per cent), humanities (67.1 per cent), and education (59 per cent). The share of women studying agriculture, health (medicine and dentistry), social science, and science was much lower at between 25 to 40 per cent.⁸⁵ Although their share in engineering had doubled since 1985,⁸⁶ it was still only 10 per cent.

UNECE countries

According to data⁸⁷ on 28 countries of UNECE, women students accounted for 52.7 per cent of tertiary education enrolment in 2001. A breakdown by subject (and country) shows that the majority of women had again opted for more traditional "female" subjects such as education (70 to 80 per cent), humanities and health (60 to 70 per cent), social sciences (50 to 60 per cent), science (40 to 50 per cent), and engineering (20 to 30 per cent).

Figure 6.1: Women's share of managerial jobs, professional jobs, and tertiary enrolment, 2000-02
Selected countries using ISCO-1968 classification

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2003 *Enrolment in tertiary education, ISCED 5&6, by country*; ILO 2003 *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, Table 2C

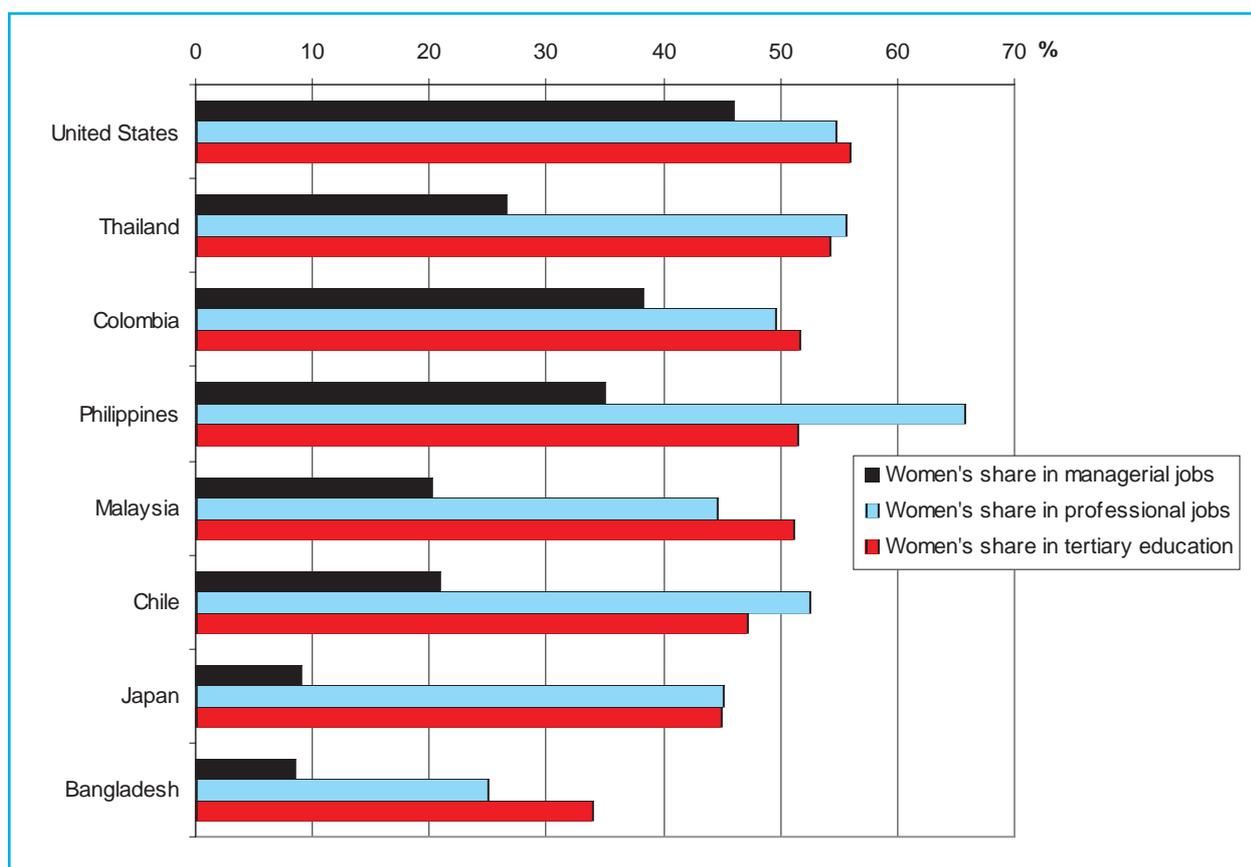


Figure 6.2: Women's share of managerial jobs, professional jobs, and tertiary enrolment, 2000-02
Selected countries using ISCO-88 classification

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2003 *Enrolment in tertiary education, ISCED 5&6, by country*;
 ILO 2003 *Yearbook of Labour Statistics, Table 2C*

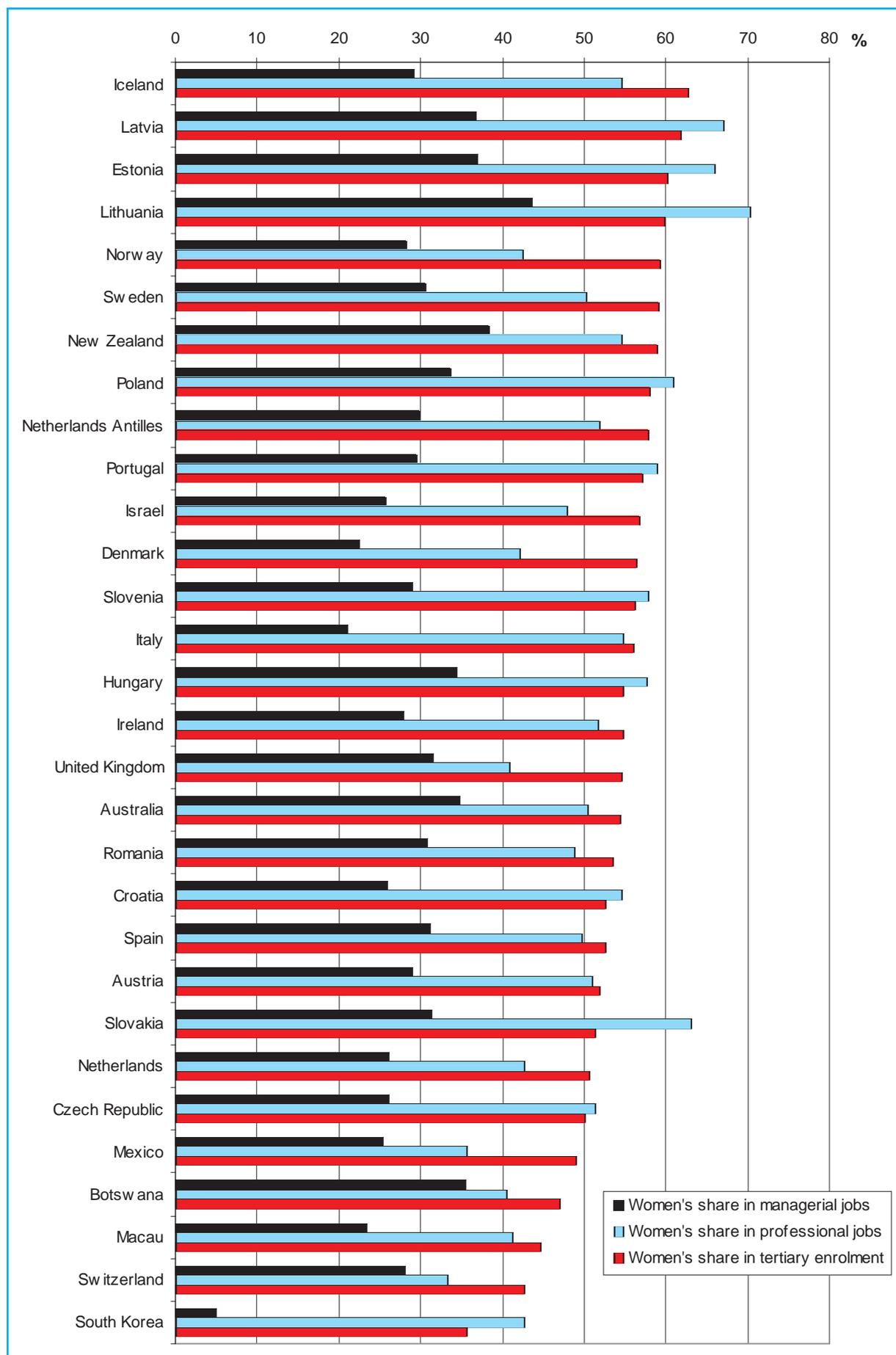
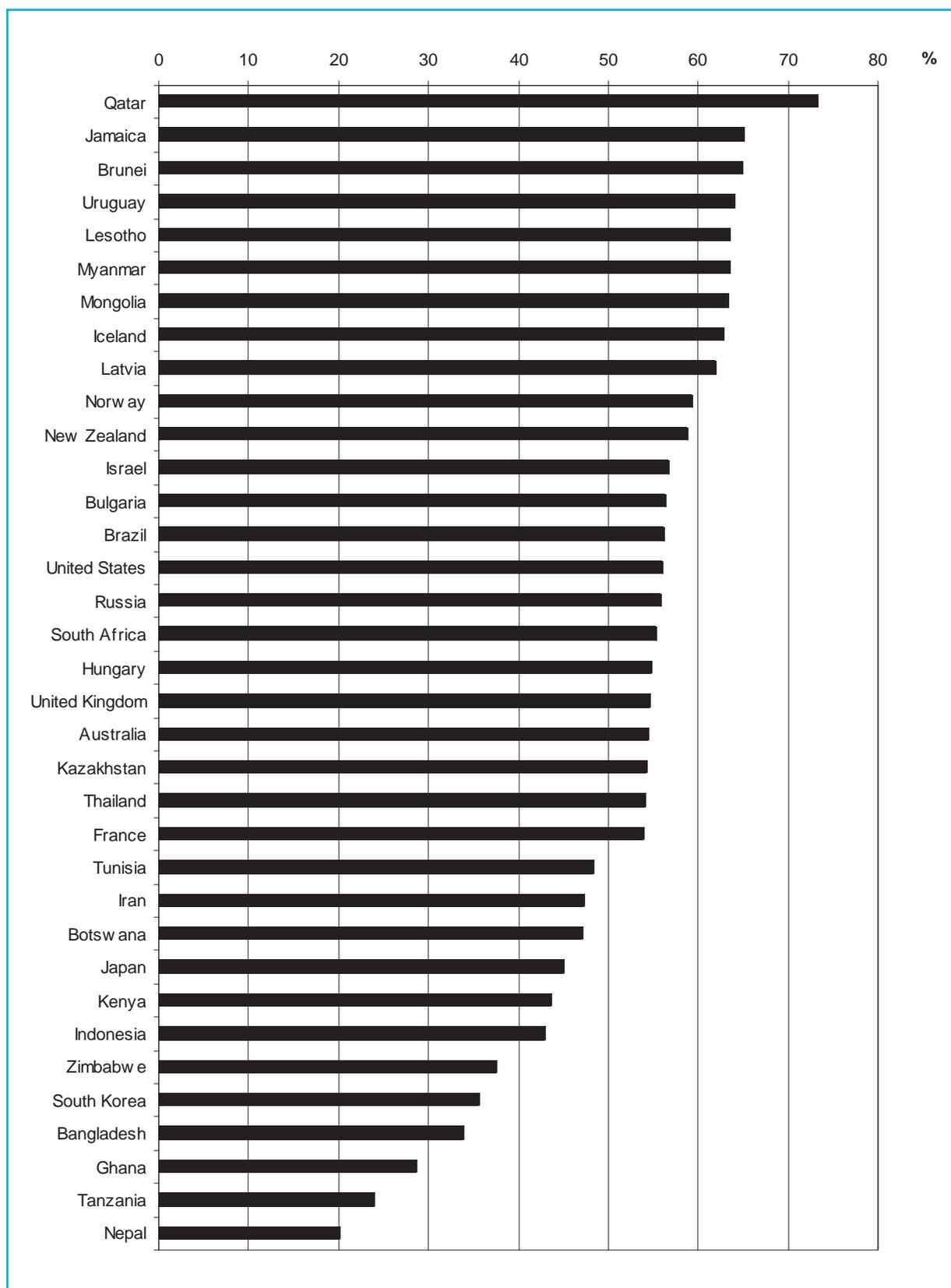


Figure 6.3: Women's share of tertiary level enrolment (2000/01)

Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2003 *Enrolment in tertiary education, ISCED 5&6, by country*
ILO 2003 *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*, Table 2C



The ICT sector

ICT is a sector where there is a potential for women to make inroads.

The ICT sector is an area where there is a potential for women to make inroads, but the data for the number of women studying computer science are uneven and difficult to interpret.

Recent data

Brazil

Statistics⁸⁸ for Brazil revealed that educational attainment levels and participation in the workforce placed middle-upper class women as promising leaders in the ICT workforce. The share of female tertiary students was 52 per cent in 1999, with 34 per cent studying natural sciences (which include computer science, engineering, math, architecture, town planning, transportation and communications). Specific percentages for computer science were not available.

El Salvador

In El Salvador the figures were lower, with female students representing 51 per cent of tertiary education enrolments and 28.7 per cent of female students studying natural sciences⁸⁹.

Mexico

In Mexico the shares were 48 per cent and 28.4 per cent respectively⁹⁰.

Canada and Australia

In Canada and Australia, where one might expect higher enrolment levels, the share of female students enrolled in computer science courses was lower. In Canada, 21 per cent of full-time undergraduate students enrolled in computer science in 2003 were female compared with 79 per cent male students.⁹¹ At most universities in Australia, women made up about 20 per cent of new enrolments although some were as low as 12 per cent. The exception to these low rates was among Asian students, who made up 40 per cent of all females studying ICT, which is an interesting finding given that Asians make up only 4.8 per cent of the population. Factors influencing Asian girls' decision to study ICT were thought to be parental encouragement, attendance at all-girl schools, and a critical mass of other girls, usually Asian, to counteract the dominance of boy students in ICT subjects⁹².

Business as an area of study

Concern is growing in academic circles about the consistent decline in women's choice of business as a study area.

Concern is growing in academic circles about the consistent decline in women's choice of business as a study area. The *Financial Times* list of top 45 business schools⁹³ revealed that the average female enrolment in the top ten business schools in Europe for 2003 was 27 per cent compared with 56.5 per cent for 2001⁹⁴. In the United States, the share was 25.2 per cent and 51.9 per cent respectively.

According to a 2002 study⁹⁵ of teenagers' perception of business, only 9 per cent of girl students compared with 15 per cent of boys anticipated taking up careers in business. The girls were more interested in "helping others" and "making the

world a better place” whilst boys expressed more interest in making money. The girls did not believe they had the financial and numerical literacy to enter business. They perceived business as cutthroat, aggressive, and competitive. They also thought that it suppressed individualism and creativity. Other possible reasons for girl students’ lack of motivation to enter business may be that in general schools focus less on careers and more on quality education and encouraging students to develop their strengths. Also career counselling does not necessarily focus on business, and business as such tends not to have a very good image among teachers.

Another survey⁹⁶ of male and female graduates identified key reasons for women avoiding business school including the following.

- ♦ Small number of female mentors and role models in the business world and business-school faculties (56 per cent of women and 39 per cent men).
- ♦ Incompatibility of careers in business with the need to balance work and personal lives (47 per cent women and 44 per cent men).
- ♦ Women’s lack of confidence in their math abilities (45 per cent women and 19 per cent men).
- ♦ Lack of encouragement from employers to obtain an MBA - Master of Business Administration (42 per cent women and 25 per cent men).
- ♦ Less likely to be motivated by the financial rewards (41 per cent women and 27 per cent men).

A survey identified key reasons for women avoiding business school.

In response to this trend, universities and schools of business management have devised public relations strategies to address not only the declining female enrolment levels but also the disparity between male and female enrolment. In the United States for example, the Graduate School of Business at the University of Chicago⁹⁷, where women account for only around 30 per cent of full-time enrolment, held receptions for potential women students around the country, and recently published a book⁹⁸ to move emphasis off finance and profile graduates in marketing and e-business. The Goizueta Business School at Emory University featured a woman on the cover of its catalogues, but the enrolment rate for women continued to be low. The Cox School of Business at the Southern Methodist University achieved a 36 per cent share of full-time women in 2002, but only 28 per cent of the incoming MBA class for 2003 was female. Stanford University’s female enrolment levels rose to 41 per cent in 2002 from 29 per cent in 1999 but were expected to decline in 2003 to 38 per cent.

Business schools are devising strategies to address declining female enrolment levels but also the disparity between male and female enrolment.

One strategy has been to waive work experience requirements. Both Harvard University and Stanford University recently began encouraging male and female students to enrol in business courses immediately after leaving college with the hope that this would attract a “good percentage of strong women in the pool of applicants”. Some universities are also creating courses with a female perspective. In 2003, both the University of Michigan and Harvard University offered courses taught by groups of high-achieving women entrepreneurs. Additional ways of tackling the problem include offering scholarships to women and promoting business education in undergraduate colleges and high schools.

A Canadian business school attributes its above-average share of women MBA students (41 per cent) to its flexible maternity programme.

Another strategy has been to offer flexible programmes to attract female students. In Canada, Schulich School of Business at York University in Toronto offers maternity leave during courses. On return to university, class schedules can be tailored to the students' work and family needs. The school attributes its above-average share of women MBA students (41 per cent) to this flexible programme.

PERCEPTIONS OF WOMEN AS MANAGERS

7

WANTING IT ALL

Many women and men “want it all”: a successful career and a happy family life. However, finding a balance between paid work and family life is difficult, especially for women. Women still perform a large share of household tasks in addition to childrearing. Therefore, they often have to choose between paid work and family, or they have to prioritize one over another at some stage during their lives. Men seem to be able to “have it all” more easily, but traditionally their participation in household tasks is far less than that of their female partners.

Finding a balance between paid work and family life is difficult, especially for women.

Recent data

- ◆ A study⁹⁹ published in 2003 that surveyed around 1,200 female and male executives in various regions of the world (table 7.1) found that 32 per cent more women than men delayed marriage or having a family in order to establish their careers.
- ◆ A high percentage of male executives (75 per cent) were found to have partners without full-time jobs. Twelve per cent of the women had decided not to have children compared with only 1 per cent of men.

Table 7.1: Family life of women and men executives

Source: Families and Work Institute, Catalyst, and the Center for Work and Family in Boston College (2003)
Leaders in Global Economy: A Study of Executive Women and Men

	Women	Men
Delayed marriage	18%	9%
Currently married	79%	94%
Partner with a full-time job	74%	25%
Delayed having children	35%	12%
Decided not to have children	12%	1%
Having children	65%	90%

Note: 1,192 executives surveyed: women 52%, men 48%. They lived in North America (62%), Asia-Pacific excluding Australia and New Zealand (11%), Latin America (7%), and other regions (4%).

- ◆ When both partners had a job, the man’s career tended to take priority because he was more likely to be able to continue to work without a break and maintain the same level of hours of work and mobility. Men were, therefore, promoted faster and earned more than their female

partners. Women were more likely to be away from the job or to adjust working time in response to family responsibilities at some stage in their careers, and therefore tended to be behind men in career advancement. Equal career development and participation in household tasks were further complicated by relocation and the frequent travelling requirements of either partner's job.

♦The trade-off women have to make between their career and family is reflected in the survey results, which show that 19 per cent of men and 9 per cent of women wanted to be on senior management committees. More women (34 per cent) than men (21 per cent) replied that they had reduced their career aspirations for their personal and family lives.

♦According to a 2001 survey¹⁰⁰ in Canada of 1,200 executives, 350 women executives (47 per cent) had considered leaving their jobs to find a better balance between paid work and family. The survey showed that when considering taking up a new job, 63 per cent of female executives with children either admitted that the more important consideration was the impact the job would have on their personal and family lives (45 per cent) or they weighed this factor equally with the career opportunity itself (18 per cent). By comparison, 45 per cent of the women without children held the same view (34 per cent and 11 per cent respectively). This suggests that employers setting up work-life balance policies should also take into consideration the needs of women without children. The survey showed that both men and women executives who place similar importance on work and personal and family lives felt more successful and less stressed.

Finding a balance between work and family is clearly a problem for women worldwide although it can be exacerbated in more family-oriented cultures.

Finding a balance between work and family is clearly a problem for women worldwide although it can be exacerbated in more family-oriented cultures where women are expected to take care of their homes, husbands, children, etc. and men are expected to provide the money for the whole structure. There are still very differentiated roles for both, according to many.

An informal survey¹⁰¹ of women executives in Latin America showed that when women started having children, many of them began negotiating time off and flexible work schedules instead of wage increases and promotions. They even left the workforce altogether. On the other hand, it was argued that the focus on family in Latin American countries ensured the availability of childcare facilities, which helped women who wanted to stay in the workforce find ways of adapting their working schedules. It was also noted that women's decisions on prioritizing work and home were made on the way up the corporate ladder, so that by the time they reached senior management level they had already found ways of balancing work and home.

According to *Working Mother*, "as long as work/life issues are regarded as only women's issues, there's a limit on how much progress women can make".

Women are not alone in wanting it all. An article in *Working Mother*¹⁰² drew attention to the fact that young men in the United States had begun putting family ahead of work and believed that "parenting is fifty-fifty, not just a woman's job". It suggested that when more men took advantage of family-friendly practices such as parental leave and shortened working hours, work would become more flexible and result-oriented, which would benefit both men and women. Also, women would cease to be discriminated against for taking parental leave or for working part-time. The article concluded "as long as work/life issues are regarded as only women's issues, there's a limit on how much progress women can make".

Decisions to sacrifice home life for work are not the prerogative of women – men have to make them as well. The obstacles faced by male managers who want to participate more actively in family life include the long working hours and travelling, as well as the persistent perception that family should not impinge on work. Also, even though paternity leave may be available to men, they may be reluctant to take it because of work responsibilities and because of some employers' perceptions that they are less committed to work, which may lead to their being overlooked for promotion or, in the event of restructuring or downsizing, to losing their job.

Nevertheless, men do have much greater flexibility in deciding if and when they involve themselves more in family and parenting. Women, on the other hand, are tied to their biological clocks.

Decisions to sacrifice home life for work are not the prerogative of women – men have to make them as well.

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Recent data

A recent survey¹⁰³ of executive women in the United States demonstrated how for many women, the demands inherent in building careers resulted in their waiting too late in life to have children. Therefore motherhood does not just bring about a high economic penalty. It forces some women who want careers to forgo having children, and those who want children to sacrifice promising careers. Out of the women who had given up their careers to devote time to families, 66 per cent wanted to return to full-time work. Employers were addressing the problem in a fragmented way: 12 per cent offered paid parenting leave and 31 per cent job sharing, 6 to 9 per cent offered staggered working hours, and 48 per cent offered working from home.

The respondents listed a number of policy options for achieving a more acceptable balance between their careers and family lives.

- ◆ Three months' paid leave for child care until the child attained adulthood.
- ◆ The elimination of retirement plan penalties for career interruption.
- ◆ Up to three years unpaid leave of absence from work with a guarantee of a job on return to work.
- ◆ Reduced working hours that did not penalize promotion prospects.
- ◆ An "active retirement" option whereby women who no longer worked could stay "in the loop" as consultants, and the company would continue to pay their dues and certification fees so that they could maintain professional standing.

The study pointed to the fact that companies supporting family-friendly policies would be more likely to retain professional women than companies that did not. However, before they could be effective, the general belief that women who took advantage of such policies were not serious candidates for promotion would need to be eliminated from corporate culture.

According to a US study, the demands inherent in building careers resulted in many women waiting too late in life to have children.

BARRIERS

Some employers' lack of action to promote and retain women managers is reflected in women managers' view of the barriers to their career development.

Recent data

A 2003 Catalyst study¹⁰⁴ of women corporate leadership in the United States compared the experiences and perceptions of women at the vice president level or above in Fortune 1000 companies with those held in 1996. It was found that many businesses had not yet adopted policies to promote women to leadership jobs and that the barriers had not changed.

The women cited the following.

- ♦Lack of management or line experience.
- ♦Lack of mentoring and role models for women at the highest levels.
- ♦Exclusion from informal networks and channels of communication where important information on organizational politics and decision making is shared.
- ♦Stereotyping and preconceptions of women's roles and abilities, commitment and leadership style.
- ♦Lack of flexibility in work schedules.
- ♦Lack of career and succession planning.
- ♦Counterproductive behaviour of male co-workers including taking credit for women's contributions.
- ♦Sexual harassment.
- ♦Attributing women's successes to tokenism.

Also perceptions about women's ability to take on international responsibilities and their willingness to accept them were considered key obstacles to their being selected for international executive jobs. Survey respondents believed that women were not as "internationally mobile" as men, yet 80 per cent of women expatriates had never turned down relocation compared to 71 per cent of men¹⁰⁵.

Another survey¹⁰⁶ in 2002 focusing on the reasons women executives left their jobs revealed that 39 per cent of respondents ranked corporate culture as the primary reason for leaving. They had not been satisfied with the management style and had felt they were not valued. This was followed by their desire for a more balanced life with flexible working hours (31 per cent), a lack of career planning policies (13 per cent), and their need for a new challenge (11 per cent).

The extent to which women want senior leadership jobs must also play a role in the way women are perceived by their employers. Interviews¹⁰⁷ with eight women in top jobs in business, academia and government in the United States by

A Catalyst study found that, since 1996, many businesses had not yet adopted policies to promote women to leadership jobs and that barriers existing had not changed.

The extent to which women want senior leadership jobs must also play a role in the way women are perceived by their employers.

Fortune in 2003 found a certain amount of ambivalence towards their jobs. Some admitted that they had neither actively planned their career development nor sought promotion, and when they had been offered promotion they had hesitated before accepting or had turned it down when they thought it would conflict with their quality of life. Whilst they obviously appreciated the power inherent in the jobs, power as such was not the reason for accepting top executive positions but rather the perception that they could do something more worthwhile.

Family responsibilities had played a major role in whether or not the women had accepted the jobs. Some of them had delayed accepting them until their children were older; others had been able to accept them because their husbands had stayed at home. One third of the *Fortune* 50 most powerful women¹⁰⁸ had husbands who stayed at home in 2002. Some of these influential women had even resigned in order to prioritize the family.

A *Fortune* interview reveals that family responsibilities played a major role in whether or not women had accepted senior leadership jobs.

The impact of corporate culture

Corporate culture is a fundamental reason for women's absence from management and leadership positions.

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Recent data

Mauritius

This fact is succinctly highlighted in a 2003 report on a survey¹⁰⁹ in Mauritius of 1,753 organizations representing both the private and the public sectors¹¹⁰, which showed that whilst employers appreciated some of the problems, very little was being done to address them. Only 16.6 per cent of all managers were female. An analysis of the findings showed that CEOs said the following.

- ♦ Sexual harassment was a major workplace problem (51 per cent).
- ♦ Women's exclusion from high-profile training programmes represented a major problem (38.8 per cent), but over 39 per cent felt this was a non-issue.
- ♦ Difficulty with child care arrangements was a major workplace issue (19.7 per cent).
- ♦ Positive action was very important and responsibility for pushing for changes should be shared by management (69 per cent).
- ♦ It was very important or at least important that the business sector should be directly involved in positive, voluntary action in support of women's progress into management (87.5 per cent).
- ♦ Provision of equal employment opportunity legislation would not be adequate in meeting this objective, and the administration of such laws was important (70.6 per cent).
- ♦ They had never actively promoted the need to recruit and retain capable and high-potential women at management level (69.7 per cent).

In a survey in Japan, 51% of responding companies agree that women tend to be in jobs that do not lead to management positions.

- ◆ An organizational policy on equal opportunity in recruitment, training and promotion (71 per cent) had been implemented.
- ◆ They were not ready to consider the implementation of a sexual harassment policy (26 per cent).
- ◆ They might consider a sexual harassment policy in the future (32 per cent).

Almost half of the CEOs said they were not ready to consider parental leave policies. Most organizations were also found to be unwilling to consider such issues as child care facilities, flexible working hours, part-time work, and career breaks, all of which are known to enable women (and increasingly, men) with young children to have a better balance between work and family responsibilities. Most respondents rated “masculine” attributes higher than “feminine” traits as elements of managerial effectiveness. Aggressiveness, authoritativeness, and a high degree of assertiveness were considered more important than the more “female” characteristics of supportiveness, caring, intuitiveness, and a collaborative and participatory style of management.

Japan

The 2002 survey in Japan¹¹¹ of 6,700 companies mentioned in Section 3 revealed that the reasons for not promoting women as rapidly as male colleagues with the same qualifications were based on perceptions of women’s commitment to work.

- ◆ Women tend to be in jobs that do not lead to management positions: 54.1 per cent of the responding companies agreed.
- ◆ Women tend to leave the company before acquiring the experience and skills required for promotion: 33.9 per cent.
- ◆ The company happens to have few women who are capable of managerial jobs: 28.4 per cent.
- ◆ Women are not usually prepared to go on business trips or to be transferred, which are prerequisites to managerial jobs: 21 per cent.
- ◆ Women do not necessarily want promotion: they prefer jobs with less responsibility to balance work with their lives outside the office: 19.7 per cent.
- ◆ Workers with family responsibilities are not suitable for managerial jobs: 4.5 per cent.

The first of the reasons given above for not promoting women describes the “sticky floor” that women tend to encounter during their careers. Traditionally, Japanese companies have used a two-track system for recruiting graduates. In general, men are assigned to managerial tracks and women to clerical tracks, so that when recruited men have more responsible jobs and more possibility for promotion. Female graduates are employed almost exclusively to assist male colleagues with comparable qualifications. Once the women are employed as support staff, the possibilities for upward mobility are very limited. Additionally, when women are in the same position as men in the same section, the men tend to be allocated more important customers or projects.

Another obstacle to women's promotion to managerial positions is that they are more often found in "less strategic" departments than men, such as human resources and finance, and not in departments where there is a direct career track, such as in product development or planning. This obstructs women from obtaining business skills and experience in the middle- and long-term, and puts them at a disadvantage when competing with men for managerial positions. This practice is widespread and until there is a genuine will to change corporate culture and implement equal opportunity policies, increases in women's share of management positions will continue to stall.

The second reason cited in the above survey referring to women leaving their jobs prematurely reflects women's disappointment in career development opportunities in their workplaces. The reasons given above for employers not promoting women are predicated on the conviction that family responsibilities and managerial jobs are incompatible.

Switzerland

The fact that female managers' capabilities are perceived differently compared to male counterparts' capabilities was mirrored in a 2001 study¹¹² of women managers undertaken in Switzerland. Many of the respondents thought they had to work harder than male colleagues to produce the best output, while men were promoted as long as they maintained an average performance.

China

In China, women's labour force participation is strong at 46.6 per cent of the total workforce. Quota requirements assure women's participation in managerial and professional jobs in state-owned enterprises and in governmental offices. They make up 34 per cent of the total number of administrators and managers in government offices at different levels, state-owned entities and enterprises, and professional research institutes. However, a survey of attitudes towards women as managers revealed that barriers relating to women's traditional family responsibilities are difficult to dismantle. A majority of the female respondents held neutral attitudes toward women as managers (62.5 per cent) whilst 29.2 per cent held positive attitudes. Approximately 58.7 per cent of male respondents held unfavourable attitudes towards women as managers, whilst 41.3 per cent held neutral views¹¹³. None of the males surveyed responded that they supported women as managers. This suggests that without the cushion of secure jobs in state-owned enterprises, women may find it increasingly difficult to compete with male counterparts in the more competitive environment of a market economy.

The United Kingdom

Contrasting with this rather bleak outlook, there is some evidence of a positive shift in employers' and employees' attitudes towards women as managers.

A recent study in the public sector of 2,000 National Health Service (NHS) employees in the United Kingdom investigating leadership from employees' viewpoints revealed that the best leaders take on a "servant/partner" role as opposed to a "heroic" role. Respondents said that women were more effective than men in displaying the "servant/part-

Surveys in Japan and Switzerland reveal that female managers' capabilities are perceived differently compared to those of male counterparts.

In China, a survey of attitudes towards women as managers revealed that barriers relating to women's traditional family responsibilities are difficult to dismantle.

ner” style of leadership. Surprisingly, male middle managers rated women as much more effective than men on 13 out of 14 leadership traits. Female middle managers rated women higher than men on nine areas. However, not one male senior manager rated women higher on any of the traits and female senior managers rated women higher on just one trait¹⁴.

Over the years, there have been serious efforts at national and international levels to address the issue of gender equality in the world of work. However, much more still has to be done. Sex-based discrimination violates fundamental principles and rights at work, human rights and social justice. It weakens economic growth and the optimal functioning of enterprise and labour markets. This has been recognized by the international community, which is calling for gender equality to be integrated into development and poverty reduction initiatives. The ILO has an incontestable contribution to make in the attainment of these objectives.

ILO's programme of work for 2004-2005 addresses a number of high-priority gender issues under four strategic objectives covering rights at work, employment, social protection and social dialogue. Gender analysis and strategies to address gender-based inequalities are essential in achieving these objectives.

The ILO is committed to strengthening the capacities of its tripartite constituents - governments and employers' and workers' organizations - to take effective policy and institutional measures to mainstream gender in order to promote gender equality at national, sub-regional and regional levels. This action does not directly address the phenomenon of the glass ceiling (vertical occupational segregation) and glass walls (horizontal occupational segregation) encountered by women. It does tackle the fundamental problems hampering their access to jobs with managerial potential by promoting activities at the workplace to eliminate sex discrimination in recruitment, selection, training, appraisals, remuneration and promotion.

For the first time, gender equality has been adopted as one of several key shared policy objectives of the ILO, which strengthens its integrated approach to equality issues in the world of work. The policy objective on gender equality is designed to build a solid knowledge base on gender issues through systematic collection and analysis of data disaggregated by sex. The objective states: "ILO constituents take positive action to increase gender equality in the world of work".

Two indicators have been identified to measure and monitor the progress of ILO tripartite constituents – governments and employers' and workers' organizations - in:

- ♦ making positive changes to their policies, legislation, programmes or institutions aimed at bringing about significant improvements in equality between women and men in the world of work; and
- ♦ promoting the representation of women at decision-making levels to attain a balance in the participation of men and women including in ILO governance institutions, meetings and training activities.

Gender-based discrimination violates fundamental principles and rights at work, human rights and social justice.

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For the first time, gender equality has been adopted as one of several key shared policy objectives of the ILO.

ILO action to promote gender equality includes:

- ◆ Campaigning for the ratification of the fundamental Conventions dealing with equality at work by providing technical support to constituents in identifying national priority gender issues, awareness raising and capacity building, advisory services and technical cooperation projects, networking, and training and workshops on gender equality for governments, employers' and workers' organizations and NGOs¹⁵; and
- ◆ measuring constituents' progress in promoting the representation of women at decision-making levels by developing statistical indicators and tools to establish baseline data and by analyzing trends in participation rates.

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR STANDARDS

International labour standard setting is a role unique to the ILO. Each ILO Convention is a legal instrument. Once a government has ratified a Convention and it has come into force, the Member State is obliged to bring its national law and practice into conformity with the provisions of the Convention, and to report periodically to the ILO on its application in both the law and in practice.

Key ILO Conventions

The Conventions that aim to promote gender equality in the world of work form the basis of all other ILO activities promoting gender equality in employment.

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Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No.100) “calls for equal pay for men and women for work of equal value”¹⁶. The difficulty lies in deciding and comparing the “value” of work. This review has shown how women and men are usually concentrated in different occupations, both vertically and horizontally, across sectors and in the same workplace. Therefore, there is not always a comparable number of both sexes in the same occupation and it is not always possible to compare a female-dominated occupation with a male-dominated occupation.

Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No.111) “calls for a national policy to eliminate discrimination in access to employment, training and working conditions, on ground of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin and to promote equality of opportunity and treatment.” And “member States having ratified this Convention undertake to repeal any statutory provisions and modify any administrative instructions or practices which are inconsistent with this policy, and to enact legislation and promote educational programmes which

favour its acceptance and implementation in co-operation with employers' and workers' organizations. This policy shall be pursued and observed in respect of employment under the direct control of a national authority, and of vocational guidance and training, and placement services under the direction of such an authority"¹¹⁷.

Other ILO Conventions concerned with women workers are:

Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention, 1981 (No. 156) which "applies to men and women workers with responsibilities for members of their immediate family where those responsibilities restrict their possibilities of preparing for, entering, participating in or advancing in economic activities" and

Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183)¹¹⁸.

The ILO promotes the ratification of these Conventions by selecting countries for targeted promotional and advocacy work; undertaking policy-oriented studies on work and family issues; providing technical support and advice to constituents in the design and implementation of national plans of action and in the drawing up of national legislation; and by campaigning with its partners to improve working conditions and extend maternity protection in the informal economy.

RAISING AWARENESS/CAPACITY BUILDING ON GENDER EQUALITY FOR CONSTITUENTS

ILO action to promote positive changes in constituents' policies, legislation, programmes or institutions aims to bring about significant improvement in gender equality. This includes building the capacity of governments, employers' organizations, and workers' organizations to prepare seminars and workshops to raise awareness and conduct training on gender issues, so that constituents can plan and implement specific activities to promote gender equality and incorporate a gender perspective in all other activities (gender mainstreaming).

INCREASING EMPLOYABILITY OF WOMEN WORKERS/ENTREPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Sufficient education and vocational skills are necessary conditions for women's attainment of professional and managerial jobs. ILO has been carrying out vocational training programmes that incorporate gender concerns. Some target women only whilst others target groups of men and women. The projects aim to broaden the skill base of women workers to enable them to eventually obtain professional and managerial jobs, and to help them to break down the barriers causing vertical and horizontal occupational segregation by sex.

By improving women entrepreneurs' business skills and access to resources, the ILO is also helping to expand their income opportunities.

Parallel to this work, ILO is undertaking women's entrepreneurship development activities which include entrepreneurship skills training, training of trainers for staff of partner organizations, and policy and advocacy work. By improving women entrepreneurs' business skills and access to resources, the ILO is also helping to expand their income opportunities.

Remuneration and balancing work and family responsibilities are important issues for all women in the world of work, and gender equality concerns now influence many social protection programmes. A key component of the ILO's programme on wages and incomes is the promotion of equal pay for work of equal value to encourage policies that redress the gaps in men's and women's earnings.

Work on maternity protection, reconciling work and family, and working hours has highlighted the specific requirements of women and men in the workforce and the need to adopt appropriate measures with respect to work arrangements and schedules. Technical cooperation projects are underway to extend social insurance to cover maternity benefits to both insured working women and the wives of insured working men.

STRENGTHENING CAPACITY IN THE ILO

Gender audits

ILO Gender Audits have proved to be an innovative and effective approach to organizational learning on gender mainstreaming.

Senior and line management support for gender mainstreaming has had a notable impact on its practical application, as evidenced by the gender audits.

ILO Gender Audits, first introduced and implemented in 2001, have proved to be an innovative and effective approach to organizational learning on gender mainstreaming. Gender audits of selected headquarters work units and field offices have provided valuable information and have shown steady progress on gender mainstreaming in knowledge development and operational activities across the Organization.

The ILO has also achieved recognition as a leader within the UN system on mainstreaming gender in programme and budget processes, and has received requests from other agencies to conduct gender audit facilitation training.

The existence and input of a strong network of gender specialists, focal points and audit facilitators in field offices, at headquarters and at the ILO International Training Centre in Turin, Italy, enriches the substantive work of gender mainstreaming by contributing to more coherent design and to improved coordination in the implementation of a broad range of activities. Furthermore, senior and line management support for gender mainstreaming has had a notable impact on its practical application, as evidenced by the gender audits.

CONCLUSIONS

9

Over the past three years, women have made marginal gains in their share of professional and managerial positions.

Over the past three years, women have made marginal gains in their share of professional and managerial positions.

Occupational sex segregation

The slow pace of progress still appears to be mainly attributable to vertical and horizontal occupational segregation propagated by firmly-entrenched myths and attitudes about women's ability to perform on a par with male counterparts, and to their presumed lack of commitment to paid work.

Sex stereotyping

Another factor hindering women's progression in the workplace hierarchy concerns the traditional sex stereotyping of women as passive and timid, which is at odds with stereotypes of leadership where the indispensable qualities for success are seen as predominantly "male" attitudes (aggression, competitiveness, decisiveness and forcefulness). These stereotypes are formed through observation of successful role models, who have historically been men. However, there is evidence that whatever are often perceived as "female" attributes (integrity, diligence, cooperativeness and sincerity) are increasingly viewed as qualities that can enhance an organization's image.

Sex stereotyping of women as passive and timid is at odds with stereotypes of leadership.

Corporate culture

From women's perspective, corporate culture restricting their career development, particularly the lack of family-friendly policies at the workplace, often obliges them to prioritize their family life over paid work. This has important ramifications for their careers, particularly for those who opt to work part-time as they may be overlooked for promotion even when they return to full-time work. What is perceived as "defection" of women executives at a time when they are most useful to their employers seems an unnecessary waste of valuable human resources.

Corporate culture restricting women's career development often obliges them to prioritize their family life over paid work.

However, previously inflexible organizational structures appear to be giving way to a less discriminatory view of women in the workplace. Organizations' increasing appreciation of the comparative advantage of having a better balance of women and men in management is reflected in the steps they are taking to retain valuable and qualified staff.

Diversity management

Employers are increasingly committing to diversity management programmes that include a range of family-friendly plans to enable both male and female

If the precept of diversity management is inculcated into all levels of the workplace bureaucracy, women may finally attain parity with men at work.

The use of quotas to ensure female representation in politics is contentious.

The gaps in earnings between women and men remain virtually unchanged and are widening in some sectors.

employees to achieve a better equilibrium between their work and personal lives. If the precept of diversity management is inculcated into all levels of the workplace bureaucracy, women may finally attain parity with men at work in the diversity of the workforce. Women will be genuinely appreciated as important members of the workplace with attributes that complement those of their male counterparts. However, the success of diversity management programmes requires the unwavering support and commitment of management at all levels of an organization; as yet there is limited evidence of its efficacy as a management tool in eliminating workplace discrimination.

Quotas

The use of quotas to ensure female representation in politics is contentious. They tend to keep women locked into a gender social order, whereas the crucial issue is to have balanced representation so that politics can benefit equally from both men and women's special attributes. However in the short term it is clear that in some parliamentary systems, quotas are the most efficient way of guaranteeing women's increased representation in the political arena. But quotas are not the only answer and should be part of a package designed to attract women candidates.

Earnings gaps

Not surprisingly, the gaps in earnings between women and men remain virtually unchanged and, as we have seen in the example of the United States, are widening in some sectors. Women managers consistently earn less than male counterparts. The pay gaps are due to a variety of reasons including women's need for work flexibility to meet family responsibilities, occupational sex segregation, lower educational levels, and retreating from the workforce which slows down their earning power.

However, the reason women at senior management levels earn less than male counterparts is not clear. It may partly be explained by age and seniority differences between women and men senior managers: women senior managers tend to be younger than men senior managers and thus hold less important positions, which impacts on their remuneration level. Nevertheless, more specific data need to be collected on the extent and causes of this partiality.

As the 2001 edition of *Breaking Through the Glass Ceiling: Women in Management* explains, different nations, surveys and studies use different classifications of managers and professional workers, which makes international comparisons difficult. For example, “managers” usually means workers who head work units that vary in size and position in the hierarchy (companies, departments, sections, etc.), supervise subordinates, and are responsible for the units’ performance. However, workers who do not have these functions are also often called managers, such as financial managers and customer relations managers. They “manage” (handle) financial or customer relations matters, but they do not head or supervise the work units. These types of workers might also be defined as “managers” in some surveys.

In the ILO’s *Yearbook of Labour Statistics* published in 2003, nations use either ISCO-88 or ISCO-1968 classification. It is, therefore, not technically correct to compare data of countries using these two different classifications. The definitions of some terms used in this paper are listed below.

Professional workers

International Standard Classification of Occupations

ISCO-88 Major Group 2: Professionals

Physical, mathematical and engineering science professionals (physicists, chemists and related professionals; mathematicians, statisticians and related professionals; computing professionals; architects, engineers and related professionals); life science and health professionals (life science professionals; health professionals (except nursing); nursing and midwifery professionals); teaching professionals (college, university and higher education teaching professionals; secondary education teaching professionals; primary and pre-primary education teaching professionals; special education teaching professionals; other teaching professionals); other professionals (business professionals; legal professionals; archivists, librarians and related information professionals; social science and related professionals; writers and creative or performing artists; religious professionals).

ISCO-1968 Major Group 0/1: Professional, technical and related workers

Physical scientists and related technicians; architects, engineers and related technicians; aircraft and ship’s officers; life scientists and related technicians; medical, dental, veterinary and related workers; statisticians, mathematicians, systems analysts and related technicians; economists; accountants; jurists; teachers; workers in religion; authors, journalists and related writers; sculptors, painters, photographers and related creative artists; composers and performing artists; athletes, sportspersons and related workers; professional, technical and related workers not elsewhere classified.

Managers

ISCO-88 Major Group 1: Legislators, senior officials and managers

Legislators and senior officials (legislators, senior government officials, traditional chiefs and heads of villages, senior officials of special-interest or organizations); corporate managers (directors and chief executives, production and operations department managers, other department managers) including persons who manage enterprises requiring a total of three or more managers; general managers including persons who manage enterprises on their own behalf, or on behalf of the proprietor, with some non-managerial help and assistance of no more than one other manager.

ISCO-1968 Major Group 2: Administrative and managerial workers

Legislative officials and government administrators; managers.

Self-employment

This includes **Group 2 “Employers”** and **Group 3 “Own-account workers”** of **International Classification by Status in Employment (ISCE-93)**.

Group 2 “Employers”: workers who, working on their own account or with one or a few partners, hold the type of job defined as a “self-employment job” and in this capacity, on a continuous basis have engaged one or more persons to work for them in their business as employees.

Group 3 “Own account workers”: workers who, working on their own account with one or more partners, hold the type of job defined as a “self-employment job” and have not engaged on a continuous basis any “employees”.

“Self-employment jobs”: jobs where the remuneration is directly dependent upon the profits derived from the goods and services produced.

Source: ILO (2003) *Yearbook of Labour Statistics*

Tertiary education

This includes **Level 5 and Level 6 of International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997**.

ISCED Level 5 is the first stage of tertiary education (not leading directly to an advanced research qualification) that requires successful completion of ISCED level 3 for entrance. It is divided into long programmes (usually four years or more) that are “more theoretical and can lead to advanced research programme or a profession with high skills requirements” and award Bachelor’s degree, and short programmes (less than three years) that are “more practically oriented”.

ISCED Level 6 is the second stage of tertiary education (leading to an advanced research qualification).

Secondary education

This includes **Level 2 and Level 3 of International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) 1997**.

ISCED Level 2 is the lower secondary or second stage of basic education that aims “to lay the foundation for lifelong learning and human development”. The end of this level is after some nine years of schooling since the beginning of primary education and “often coincides with the end of compulsory education”.

ISCED Level 3 is upper secondary education that “begins at the end of full-time compulsory education” and “the entrance age is typically 15 or 16 years.”

Source: UNESCO (1997) *International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)*

Notes

1. Introduction

1. Occupational sex segregation: When one sex predominates to such an extent in a specific job category (representing at least 80 per cent) that it can be considered “male” or “female”.

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