

Women in Business and Management



International
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100
1919·2019

The business case for change



Women in Business and Management

The business case for change



ACT/EMP

The Bureau for Employers' Activities

May, 2019

Bureau for Employers' Activities (ACT/EMP)

International Labour Office

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First published 2019

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Women in business and management: the business case for change / International Labour Office. - Geneva:ILO, 2019.

English edition

ISBN: 978-92-2-133167-4 (print)

978-92-2-133168-1 (web pdf)

Also available in French: ISBN 978-92-2-133169-8 (print), 978-92-2-133170-4 (web pdf); and Spanish: ISBN 978-92-2-133171-1 (print), 978-92-2-133172-8 (web pdf)

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Printed in Italy

Preface

For the past five years, the International Labour Organization (ILO) has built a case for higher representation of women in decision-making positions. Our first global report on *Women in Business and Management: Gaining Momentum* was published in 2015 and we have continuously worked with employer and business membership organizations (EBMOs) globally to present the business case for gender diversity, provide information and data on the evolving situation of women in management and boardrooms and showcase good practice examples from enterprises and EBMOs on their measures and strategies to shift the status quo.

We know that improving gender diversity in the workplace does not only benefit women. Mounting evidence shows that it is a boon to societies, economies and enterprises themselves. Encouragingly, we are seeing considerable efforts by enterprises and EBMOs to reap the benefits of having women at the top across countries in all regions. Still, progress has been patchy, and, in some cases, the pace of change has not been compatible with the positive evidence. The success of these efforts is crucial in enabling enterprises to secure talented women and men who will seize new growth opportunities and offer business solutions as we navigate the forces that are transforming the nature of work.

In 2019, we present our second global report on *Women in Business and Management: The business case for change*. Our new report, conducted together with EBMOs and nearly 13,000 surveyed enterprises across the globe, offers new insights into how gender diversity at the top improves organizational performance. These include how the many dimensions of an organization's policies, a gender-balanced workforce and a gender-inclusive culture, among other factors, move the needle for more women to hold decision-making power. In short, this report explores the business case for gender diversity in the workplace and women's representation at the management and board levels, and it evaluates the success of various inclusion initiatives.

The business case for gender diversity has been quantified and measured in numerous studies. Our own research reinforces and expands this evidence at the global scale – all enterprises stand to benefit from higher profitability and productivity; increased ability to attract and retain talent; greater creativity, innovation and openness; enhanced reputation; and the ability to better gauge consumer interest and demand. The benefits are not insignificant: nearly three out of four surveyed enterprises that cited improved bottom line indicated a profit increase of between 5 and 20 per cent.

With this in mind and given the changing nature of work as well as current and future skills shortages, it is imperative for enterprises to make a strategic choice to develop their organizations into a workplace where talented women and men want to be and create enabling conditions that lead to success.

Positively, the female talent pool is widening globally with women surpassing men in tertiary education, and more women than ever before are entering into science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) disciplines. But close to half of the enterprises we studied considered retention of skilled women as a challenge for their businesses. Furthermore, our research shows that the more senior the position within a company, the fewer women there are to be found, known as the “leaky pipeline”. Separately, another major issue our research highlights is what's known as “glass walls”, or occupational segregation within management functions. Here, women in middle and senior management tend to be concentrated

in certain industries: according to our research, human resources, finance and administration, and marketing and sales. By contrast, men are more dominant in operations, research and development, and profit and loss functions that are considered to be more strategic for enterprises and can often be a springboard to higher level positions

When it comes to the boardrooms, studies suggest that enterprises need to reach a critical mass of 30 per cent women in order to reap the benefits of gender diversity. Our research shows that one third of enterprises surveyed are governed by a board that is constructed by this critical mass. This means the majority of boardrooms would still gain from adapting approaches that generate inclusive leadership.

So how can enterprises better leverage gender diversity to generate improved business outcomes, create high performing teams and take effective action to close the gap between aspiration and reality? Broadly, enterprises need to proactively ensure equal opportunities for all staff – so that career paths do not diverge at early stages and there is a healthy pipeline of women right up to the top.

Importantly, practising gender diversity is more than ensuring that human resources policies are adequately aligned. It is also about creating an inclusive, respectful culture that is not dominated by one gender and that delivers the diversity of thinking that women and men bring to the table. While workplace cultures are often influenced by wider societal norms, enterprises and EBMOs can play a critical role in dispelling these biases and challenging traditions. Ultimately, businesses have the ability to directly influence and shape a gender-inclusive workplace that works for all, at all levels, and simultaneously reap the associated benefits.

As we work towards the attainment of the Sustainable Development Goals, especially Goal 5 on advancing gender equality and women's empowerment, we encourage all businesses and their representative organizations, Governments and other stakeholders to take a proactive and considered approach to achieving this goal. It is our hope that the findings of our report assist enterprises and EBMOs globally in making gender diversity central to their strategic business agenda.

Deborah France-Massin



Director

Bureau for Employers' Activities
International Labour Office

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Acknowledgements

The report was prepared by the Bureau for Employers' Activities (ACT/EMP) of the International Labour Organization (ILO) with contributions from colleagues in Geneva and field offices. Jae-Hee Chang, Senior Programme and Operation Officer of ILO-ACT/EMP, managed the research process from design to implementation and co-authored the report. Jose Luis Viveros Añorve, Employers' Activities Officer and Economist of ILO-ACT/EMP, led the data analysis and is a co-author of the report. Linda Wirth, an expert gender consultant, provided instrumental technical input throughout the report's development and is also a co-author of the report.

The report was produced through a global team effort from ILO-ACT/EMP. Special thanks to ILO-ACT/EMP specialists in various parts of the world for their useful comments and guidance, including Julie Kazagui (Dakar), Maria Victoria Giulietti (Lima), Gary Rynhart (Pretoria), Jeanne Schmitt (Turin) and Roberto Villamil (Lima). Geneva-based colleagues, including Samuel Asfaha, Laura Greene and Henrik Moller, also helped shape out the report.

The ILO Department of Statistics provided critical assistance and advice for accessing and navigating the most up-to-date labour market statistics. Deep appreciation goes to Rosina Gammarano, Roger Gomis, Steven Kapsos and Ritash Sarna for their excellent collaboration and support.

We would also like to thank the Gender, Equality and Diversity Branch of the ILO for their valuable input. Appreciation is extended to Umberto Cattaneo and Emanuela Pozzan.

The report could not have been developed without the support of national employer and business membership organizations in Africa, Asia and the Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean and Middle East and North Africa. These organizations critically enabled the information collection process and reached out to their enterprise members so we could gather the evidence base for the report. In addition, special thanks goes to the International Organisation of Employers (IOE) for their support and review of the report. María Paz Anzorreguy and Akustina Morni from the IOE are duly acknowledged.

We also wish to acknowledge the contributions of numerous individuals and organizations in developing this report. The University of California, Los Angeles, Anderson School of Management Applied Management Research team, consisting of Katie Donovan, Anna Goldberg, Jessica Lin, David Poli, Jennifer Yoohanna as well as the faculty advisor, Paul Park, played critical roles in enabling us to present the report with strong business engagement. Additionally, Marco Faytong-Haro, Alexandre Henry and Linda Vega Orozco provided support in analysing and producing data at various stages. Finally, Hannah Murphy, Mary Ann Perkins and Dick Wolfe offered content direction and business editing to this report.

Executive summary

Globally, since 1991, the share of women's participation in the labour force has grown, albeit with differences from region to region and within regions. In the Middle East and North Africa the growth has been slow and fitful, with participation rates remaining well below those of other regions. In Latin America and the Caribbean the share of women in the labour force is increasing at a good pace, however, in Asia and the Pacific there have been declines.

This research finds that the share of women in managerial positions across the globe is growing considerably. From 2002, a steady upward trend of women filling the ranks at greater speed than men is seen, particularly in Asia and the Pacific, Latin America and the Caribbean, and Europe and Central Asia. However, the increase has been markedly smaller in some regions, such as Africa and the Middle East. These gains have yet to lead to a major shift in the gender composition of senior leadership and decision-making positions within companies. According to our global survey of almost 13,000 enterprises in 70 countries, nearly half of enterprises reported that women hold fewer than 30 per cent of entry-level management positions. Given these figures, it comes as no surprise that in 60 per cent of companies, fewer than 30 per cent of senior managers and top executives are women. Gender balance, both in the general workforce or among senior managers, is defined as 40-60 per cent of either gender.

The finding of our report that is of paramount importance is that gender diversity is a smart business strategy: the lack of gender diversity may act as a barrier to enhanced business performance. Most companies of all sizes around the world report that gender diversity helps improve business outcomes. Of the enterprises surveyed reporting improved business outcomes, over 60 per cent report higher profitability and productivity. Gender equality is also good economics. Increasing women's labour force participation has been shown to boost the gross domestic product at the national level.

Through probabilistic modeling of the data gathered, our research quantified the extent to which business outcomes may be improved by an inclusive enterprise culture and policies. Our findings indicate that enterprises with equal employment opportunity policies and gender-inclusive cultures are over 60 per cent more likely to have improved profits and productivity, and they are almost 60 per cent more likely to experience enhanced reputation, greater ease in attracting and retaining talent, and greater creativity and innovation.

Of the companies surveyed that track the impact of gender diversity in management, 74 per cent report profit increases of 5 to 20 per cent. Our assessment shows that enterprises with a gender-inclusive culture are 9 per cent more likely to have improved business performance. These are significant numbers, considering the measures companies take to achieve 2-3 per cent increases in margins. Enterprises that report these results see gender diversity as part of a larger dynamic of innovative and sustainable business practices, which also contribute to improved outcomes. These are companies focused on the future and how best to thrive in a changing global business environment.

The business benefits of gender balance accrue when a gender-inclusive culture begins to flourish. A gender-inclusive culture requires a critical mass of women in management, senior leadership and on boards of directors, of at least 30 per cent. The benefits can be dramatic when there is gender balance on the board of directors. A board with few, or no, women is more likely to have a male-dominated culture and greatly reduced chances of achieving gender equilibrium. When enterprises have gender-balanced boards, the positive effects on enhanced business outcomes are the largest.

Unfortunately, most businesses do not have this level of gender diversity. Why?

There are a couple prime contributors to this shortfall. One is the “leaky pipeline”, in which the representation of women decreases as the level of management increases, resulting in continued male dominance of the chief executive level and boards. Over 78 per cent of enterprises surveyed reported having a male CEO. With increasing enterprise size, the percentage of female CEOs drops from 26 per cent in small enterprises, to 20 per cent in mid-sized enterprises, to only 16 per cent in large enterprises.

Like the leaky pipeline, “glass walls” are an obstacle to gender diversity. Many managers are segregated by gender, and women are more often managers in support functions, such as human resources, finance and administration, while men dominate functions that are considered to be more strategic, such as research and development, operations and profit and loss that typically lead to the chief executive level and board membership. The result is that less than a third of surveyed enterprises have attained the critical mass of 30 per cent women board members, and 13 per cent still have all-male boardrooms.

As stated, the lack of gender balance can be a bar to enhanced business performance. Regression analysis finds that enterprises with gender-balanced boards are almost 20 per cent more likely to have enhanced business outcomes. Having a woman as the board chairperson also positively impacts business outcomes.

There are tried and tested ways to close the leaks in the pipeline and remove the glass walls. It starts with a gender-balanced workforce (40-60 per cent of each sex). There is a positive association between having a female CEO and greater gender diversity in middle, senior and top management positions, indicating that the presence of a female CEO creates incentives for gender diversity. Male-dominated or male-only boards are less likely to achieve equilibrium between men and women in middle management, while enterprises with women as board chairs are more likely to have gender balance in middle management.

Gender-inclusive policies and their enforcement are important for achieving gender balance at all levels. Almost 75 per cent of the enterprises surveyed have equal opportunity or diversity and inclusion policies, but more specific actions are needed so that women gain the experiences that prepare them to be promoted to strategic areas of business. The gender pay gap must be closed. While some countries have narrowed the gap, it remains significant overall. According to the ILO 2018 weighted global estimates, the gender pay gap globally is 22 per cent when using median monthly wages.

The research shows that enterprise cultures that predominately require “anytime, anywhere” availability create an unfair impact on women, who generally carry greater household and family responsibilities. Policies that can lead to greater inclusivity and work-life balance for both men and women, such as flexible working hours and paternity leave, are important and worth exploring. Some enterprises are already introducing systems and technology that focus on capturing employee performance or productivity in tandem with flexible work arrangements. This model could be as, or even more, effective and sustainable than the “anytime, anywhere” approach.

The business case for gender diversity, particularly for increasing the proportion of women in the management and board pipelines, is compelling. To be successful in the global economy of today and tomorrow, smart companies will make gender diversity a key component of their business strategy.

Abbreviations

ASX	Australian Securities Exchange
CEO	chief executive officer
GDP	gross domestic product
EU	European Union
FTSE	Financial Times Stock Exchange
ILO	International Labour Organization
JSE	Johannesburg Stock Exchange
MSCI	Morgan Stanley Capital International
NZX	New Zealand Stock Exchange
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PwC	PricewaterhouseCoopers
STEM	science, technology, engineering and mathematics
SSE	Sustainable Stock Exchanges
S&P	Standard and Poor Index
TSX	Toronto Stock Exchange
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization



Introduction

Today's business environment is going through a period of rapid change. New and emerging technologies, expanded markets, more global consumer bases and heightened competition for the best talent mean that many enterprises have to review their business strategies and priorities.

While complex socio-economic trends add to challenges enterprises encounter, having staff equipped with the right skills and talent – regardless of their gender or background – enables enterprises to better navigate any upheaval. Now, more than ever, businesses need to embrace gender diversity as part of their talent management strategy.

In examining nearly 13,000 enterprises in 70 countries across five regions, we find that gender diversity is necessary for competitive business performance and can boost the bottom line, but it also creates broader incentives for gender equality within enterprises. More specifically, our research shows that when top executive positions and boards are diverse, this helps more women into middle and senior management positions, reduces occupational gender segregation and creates a more inclusive workplace environment overall.

Our report adds to the growing body of evidence that shows many enterprises are actively pursuing initiatives to boost the number of women in their talent pool for management and board membership. But it also shows that these efforts alone are insufficient.

Globally, research and statistics confirm that progress towards gender diversity in a range of leadership tiers is sluggish and differs by region. Enterprises still need to translate their policies into more concrete action.

To place our enterprise survey findings in the wider socio-economic context, in this introductory chapter we first present the landscape of the labour market worldwide followed by our survey methodology and a summary of enterprise characteristics.

Labour force participation rates

The gender gap in labour force participation rates has narrowed over the past 30 years.¹ However, in almost every country in the world, men are still more likely to participate in the labour market than women. According to the ILO, the average global labour force participation rate of women in 2018 stood at 48.5 per cent while that of men was 75 per cent. This equates to a 26.5 percentage point gender gap in labour force participation (ILO, 2018a).

¹ The labour force participation rate is a measure of the proportion of a country's working-age population that engages actively in the labour market, either by working or looking for work.

Several overarching trends stand out when examining the average female labour force participation rate for the period 1991 to 2018 (see figure 1) as well as the change in their participation rate using 1991 as the base year (see Annex II, figure A1). Firstly, North America leads with the highest average rate. Looking back over time, the region showed a steady upward trend in the 1990s, a flat trend during most of the 2000s and a downward trend between 2008 and 2014 in the wake of the financial crisis, followed by a modest recovery since 2015. Still, the growth of the North American female labour force participation rate has not rebounded to pre-crisis levels.

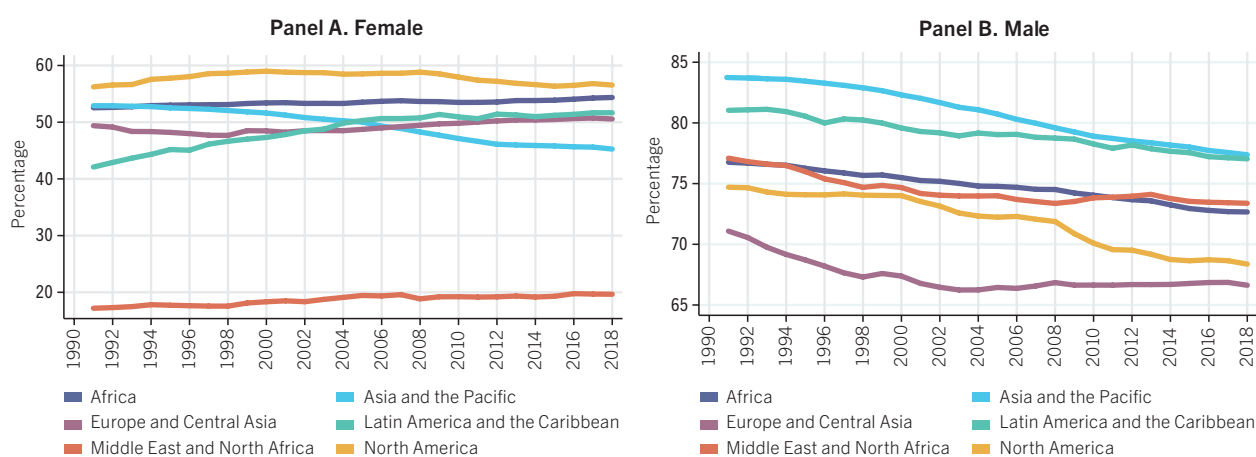
By contrast, the Middle East and North Africa has the lowest female labour force participation rate among all regions despite its moderate upward trend in recent years, increasing from 17.2 per cent in 1991 to 19.7 per cent in 2018.

Meanwhile, the average female labour force participation rate for Latin America and the Caribbean has grown at the fastest pace, even surpassing that of Europe and Central Asia in the early 2000s. Indeed, it posted an increase of 9.6 percentage points between 1991 and 2018 (from 42.1 to 51.7 per cent).

The average female labour force participation rate in Asia and the Pacific has significantly and steadily declined over the past nearly three decades, dropping by 7.6 percentage points (from 52.9 in 1991 to 45.3 per cent in 2018). In Africa the average rate changed marginally during the 1990s, revealing little progress on women’s participation in the labour market.² Nonetheless, a modest upward trend is observable from 2010.

By contrast, men’s labour force participation rate has declined over the past three decades across all regions. In the Middle East and North Africa, men’s labour force participation moderately recovered in the 2008–13 period and subsequently declined.

Figure 1. Labour force participation rate by region, 1991–2018, (A) female and (B) male



Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.
Source: ILOSTAT.

² Marginal improvement in the labour force participation of women in Africa can be explained by the effects of demographic changes.

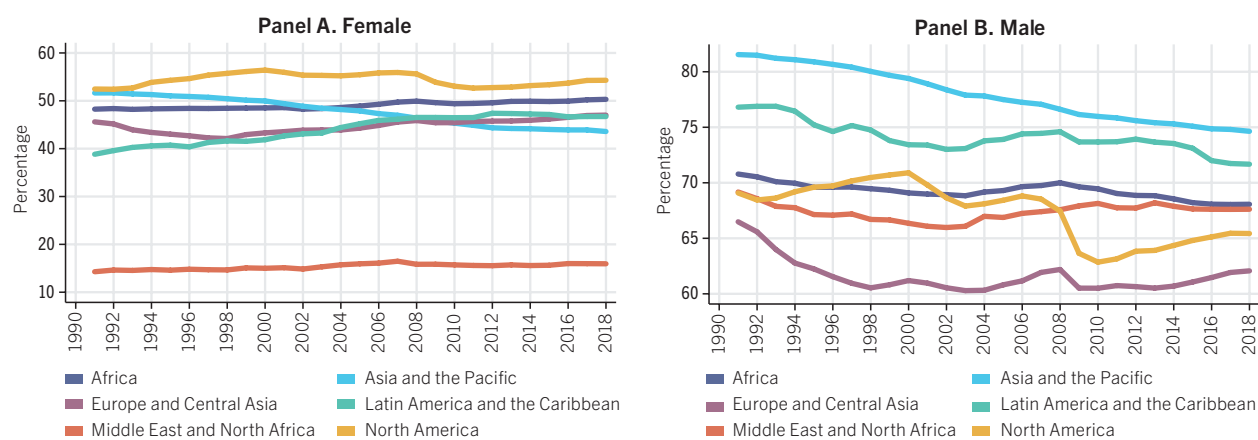
Employment growth rates

To account for population growth, we examine the employment-to-population ratio.³ This indicator informs the capacity of an economy to create employment.

Looking at the different trends across regions, an upward trend is seen for Latin America and the Caribbean for women employed as a share of the working-age population, increasing from 38.8 per cent in 1991 to 46.7 per cent in 2018 (see figure 2). This confirms that the increase in the female labour force participation rate over the same period has been driven by employment gains. By contrast, the employment-to-population ratio has a downward trend in Asia and the Pacific, suggesting that a share of the female population is not directly involved in market-oriented activities because they are either unemployed or out of the labour force due to increased enrolment in secondary education (Dasgupta and Verick, 2016).

When observing by country income group, two contrasting trends are found. We see an upward trend in female employment as a share of the working-age population for high-income countries, whereas it has moderately declined in low-income, lower-middle-income, and upper-middle-income countries. At the same time, male employment has declined across countries since 1991 (see Annex II, figure A3). These trends suggest that low-income, lower-middle-income, and upper-middle-income countries require an enabling business environment that leads to the creation of greater female employment.

Figure 2. Employment-to-population ratio by region, 1991–2018, (A) female and (B) male



Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.

Source: ILOSTAT.

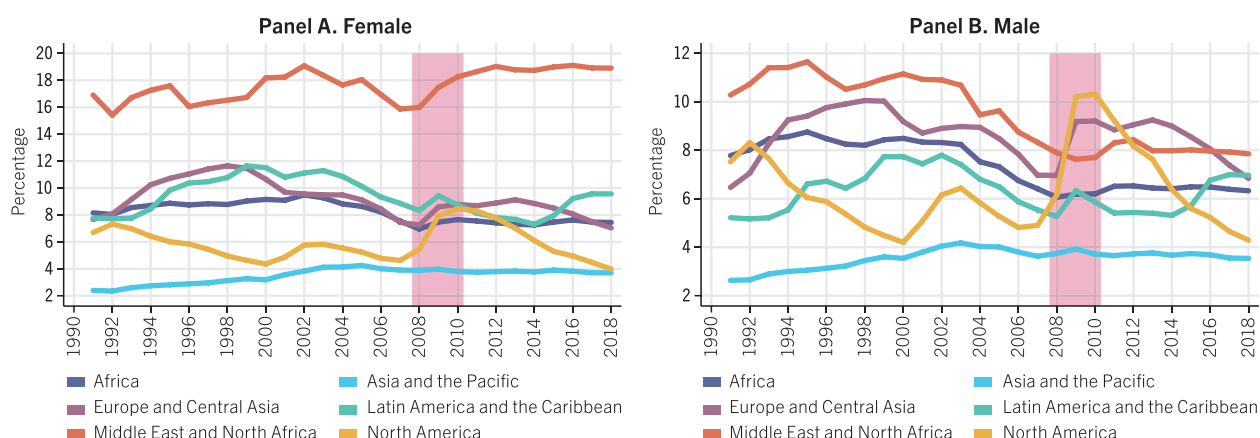
³ The employment-to-population ratio is defined as the proportion of a country's working-age population that is employed. A high ratio means that a large proportion of a country's population is employed.

Unemployment rates

In line with rising female employment is the gradual reduction of the female unemployment rate across regions between 1991 and 2018 (see figure 3). During the 1990s the female unemployment rate had a modest downtrend across some regions, but the most dramatic decline took place in North America. Over the past three decades, however, Asia and the Pacific, while having the lowest unemployment rate for both women and men across all regions, exhibited a steady uptrend (see Annex II, figure A5 for changes in unemployment rate by region using 1991 as the base year).

The job losses caused by the 2008–09 global financial crisis for women and men across all regions were severe. Nonetheless, the post-crisis recovery is considerable for North America, where historical lows for unemployment have been reached today. Additionally, Europe and Central Asia has experienced a decline in the unemployment rate after the crisis. In contrast, female unemployment rates now remain higher than pre-crisis levels in Latin America and the Caribbean, Africa, lower-middle-income countries and upper-middle-income countries (see Annex II, figure A6 for changes in unemployment rate by country income group).

Figure 3. Unemployment rate by region, 1991–2018, (A) female and (B) male



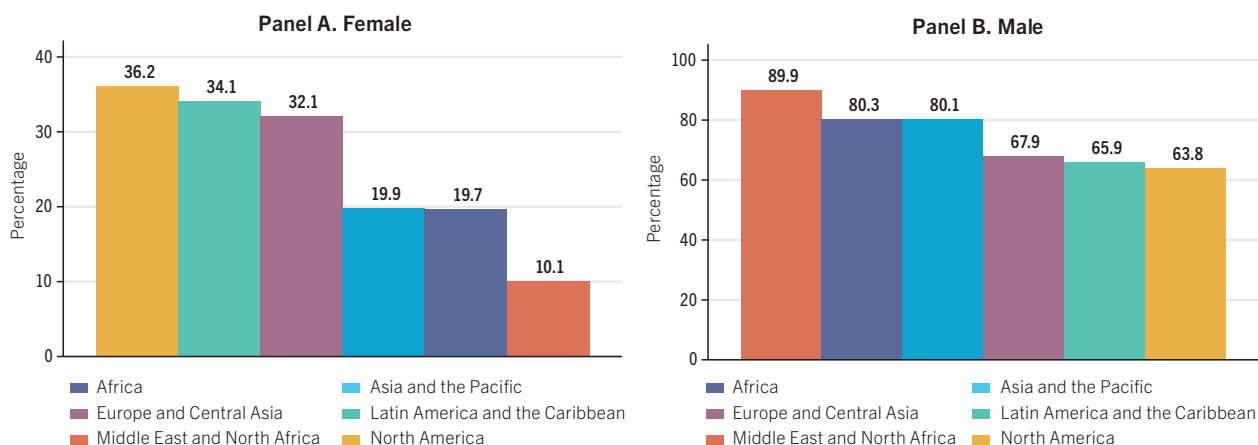
Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018. The pink area represents the 2008–09 global financial crisis. See Annex II, figure A4 for the average world unemployment rate between 1991 and 2018.

Source: ILOSTAT.

Women's share in management

Between 1991 and 2018, North America boasted the highest share of women in management positions (36.2 per cent on average for nearly three decades), followed closely by Latin America and the Caribbean (34.1 per cent on average), as illustrated in figure 4. The highest average rates of men in management positions for the period were observed in the Middle East and North Africa (89.9 per cent), followed by Africa (80.3 per cent) and Asia and the Pacific (80.1 per cent).

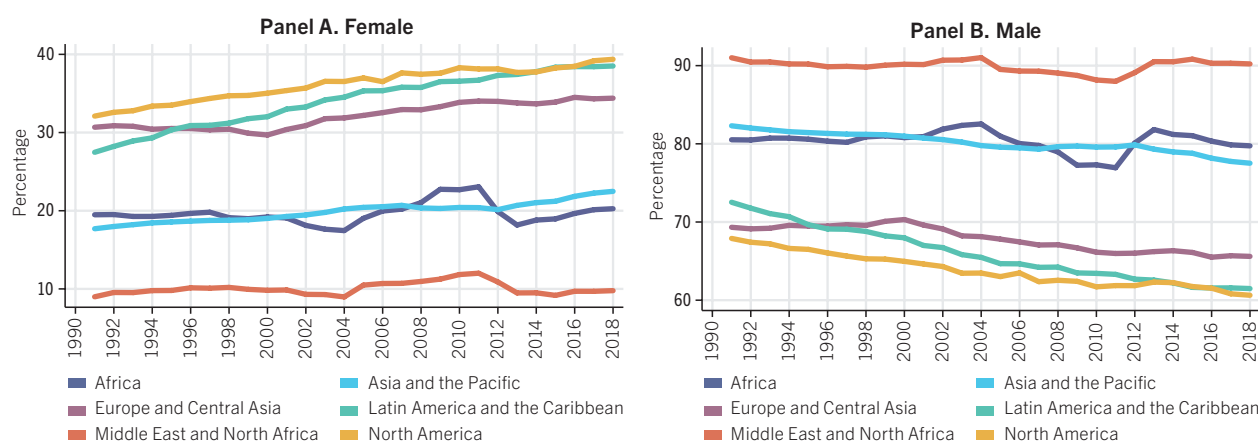
Figure 4. Share of employment in management positions by region, average 1991–2018, (A) female and (B) male



Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018. Employment in managerial positions is calculated based on data on employment by sex and occupation. It is the number of women in management as a percentage of employment in management, based on the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO). Two different measures are presented: one referring to total management (category 1 of ISCO-08 or ISCO-88) and another referring to senior and middle management only, thus excluding junior management (category 1 in both ISCO-08 and ISCO-88 minus category 14 in ISCO-08 and category 13 in ISCO-88). Source: ILOSTAT.

Despite a modest downtrend in the 1990s, the representation of women in management rebounded in Europe and Central Asia in the early 2000s. In Asia and the Pacific, we see a moderate uptrend where the share of women in management positions increased from 17.7 per cent in 1991 to 22.5 per cent in 2018 (see figure 5). While progress on the share of women in management is seen across many regions, the situation has been more erratic in Africa and the Middle East and North Africa – with periods of contraction and growth. When comparing the regional averages for the past three decades, we see for example a 26.1 percentage point gap between North America and the Middle East and North Africa.

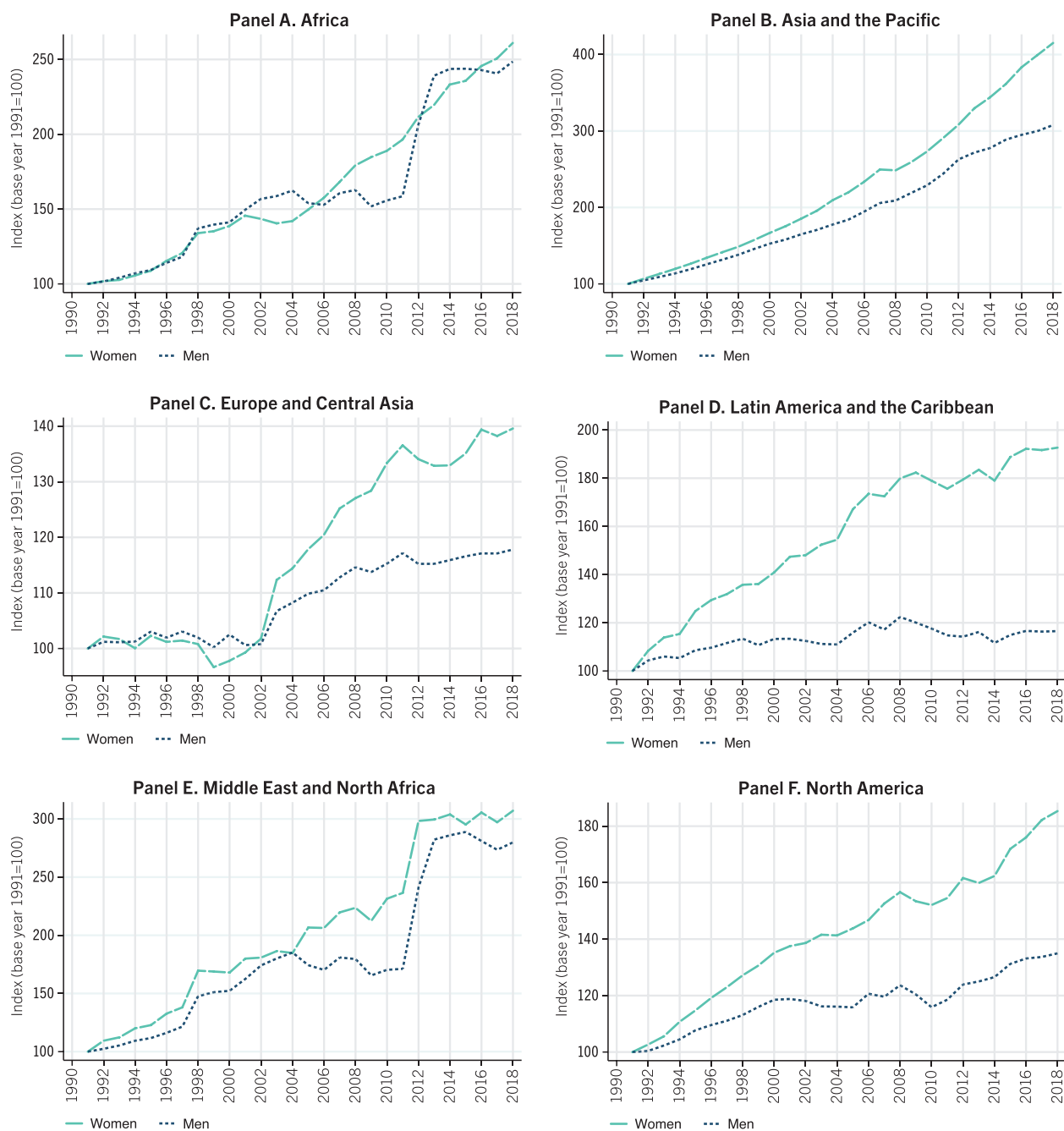
Figure 5. Share of employment in management positions by region, 1991–2018, (A) female and (B) male



Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018. Source: ILOSTAT.

Using 1991 as the base year, figure 6 depicts the considerable growth of women in managerial positions across all regions by using an index of change. A steady and steep upward trend of women filling the ranks at greater speed than men is seen in particular in Asia and the Pacific, Latin America and the Caribbean and Europe and Central Asia from 2002.

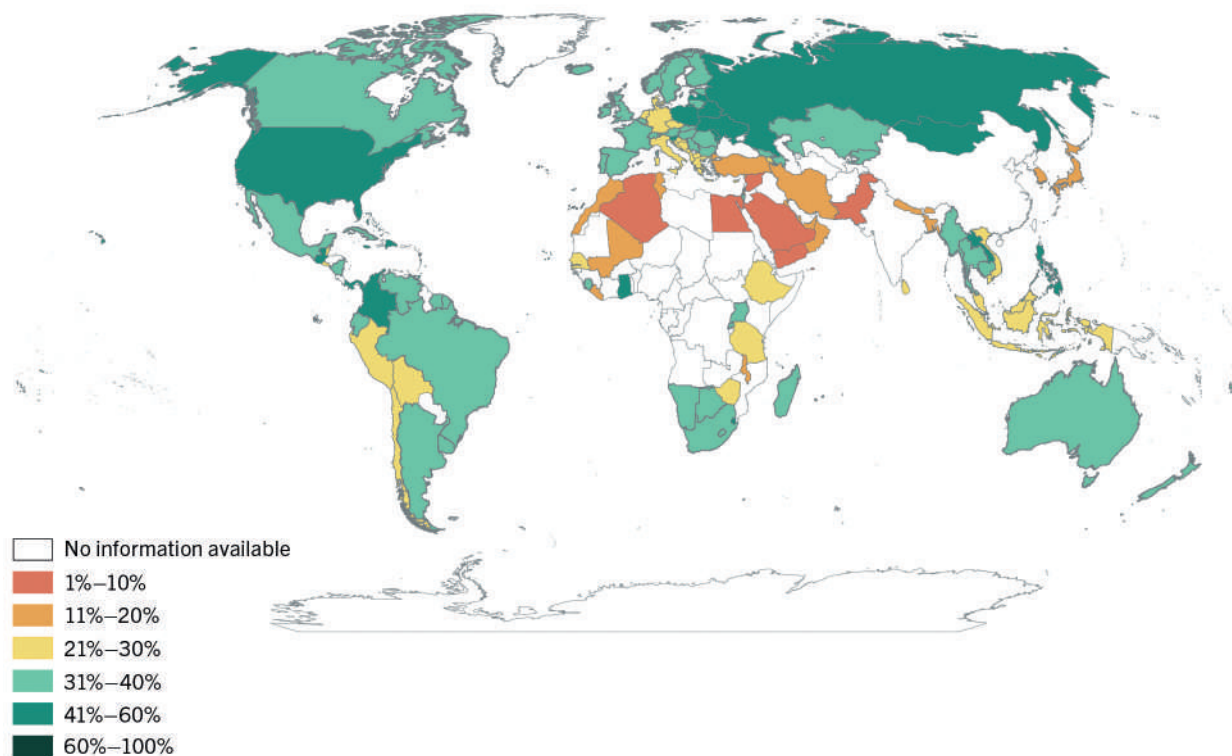
Figure 6. Index of women and men in management positions by region, 1991–2018 (base year 1991=100), (A) Africa, (B) Asia and the Pacific, (C) Europe and Central Asia, (D) Latin America and the Caribbean, (E) Middle East and North Africa, (F) North America



Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.
Source: ILOSTAT.

Looking into country income groups, the highest average rates of women in total management from 1991 to 2018 are found in high-income countries (31 per cent) and upper-middle-income countries (26.7 per cent) whereas the share of men in management is most prominent in lower-middle-income countries (79.8 per cent) and low-income countries (78.5 per cent) (see Annex II, figure A7).

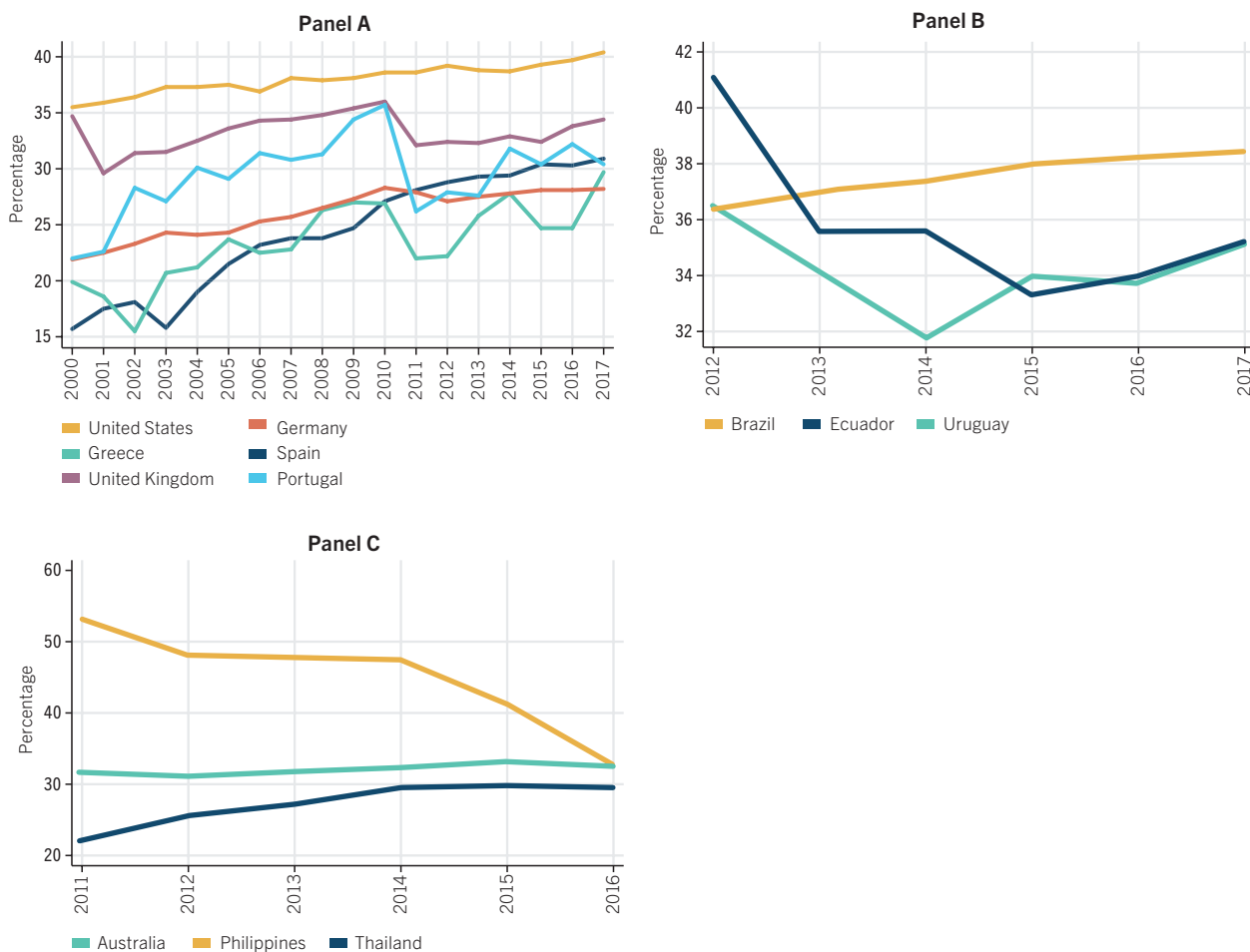
Illustration 1. Share of women in management positions, latest years



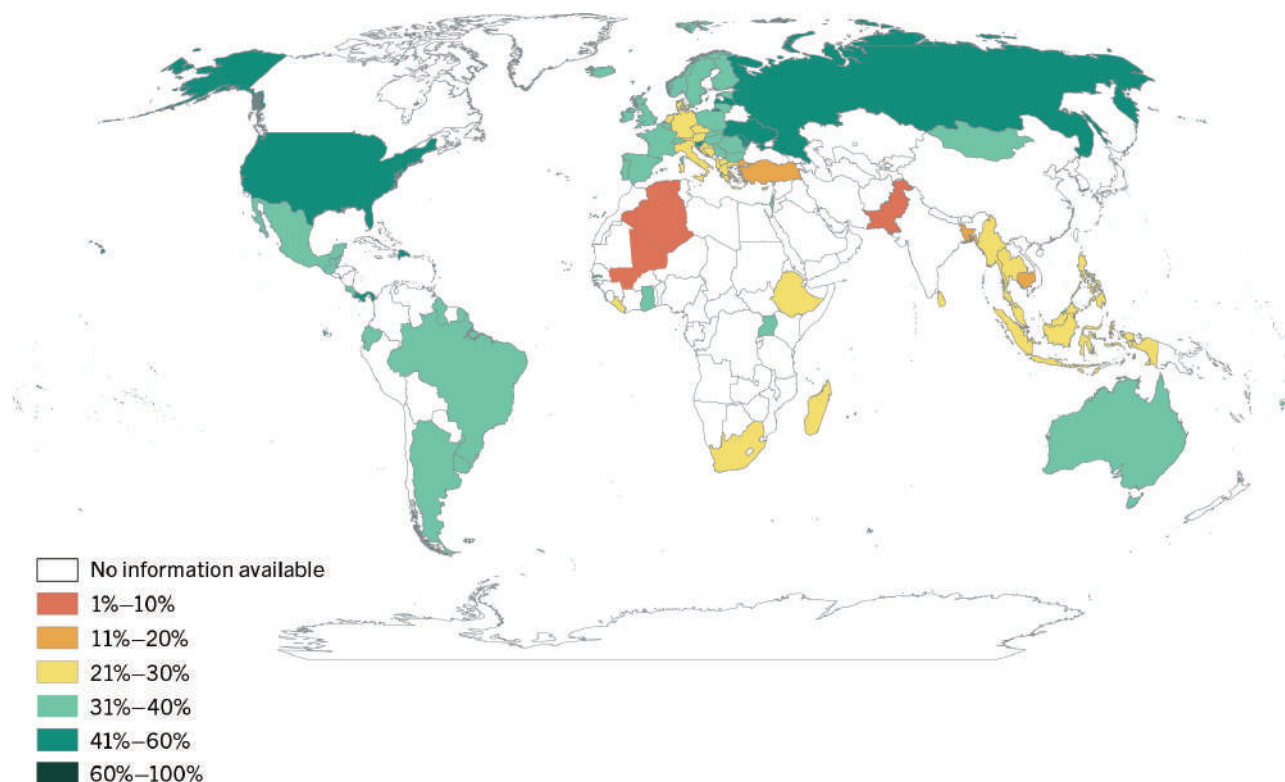
Source: ILOSTAT.

To analyse the situation of women in middle and senior management, we examine selected countries where data are available for a consecutive period (see figure 7). In the United States and Germany, for instance, women middle and senior managers have grown over the past two decades. The United States stands out among selected advanced economies where women's share in middle and senior management is the highest. In Spain, women have also steadily filled the ranks since 2003. However, the situation is uneven in Portugal and Greece with periods of growth and contraction. In South America, between 2012 and 2017, women have made more substantial progress at middle and senior management levels in Brazil compared to Uruguay and Ecuador. Contrasting trends can be seen in Asia and the Pacific. Little progress has taken place in Australia in recent years, whereas in the Philippines, there has been a considerable decline of women as middle and senior managers since 2011. Meanwhile, women in Thailand have achieved greater representation among middle and senior managers, reaching nearly 30 per cent in 2016.

Figure 7. Share of women in middle and senior management, (A) United States and selected countries in Europe, 2000–2017 (B) selected countries in Latin America, 2012–2017 and (C) selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, 2011–2016



Source: ILOSTAT.

Illustration 2. Share of women in middle and senior management, latest years

Source: ILOSTAT.

ILO enterprise survey on women in business and management: Demographics and methodology

We conducted a global enterprise survey to better understand current labour market dynamics and assess how enterprises consider gender diversity. The survey looked into gender diversity at the management and board level, the challenges women face in the workplace when trying to grow their careers and opportunities for enterprises to redefine their bottom line with gender diversity in mind.⁴

In total, we collected 12,940 responses from enterprises across 70 countries in five regions: Africa, Asia and the Pacific, Europe and Central Asia, Latin America and the Caribbean, Middle East and North Africa. The enterprise data were collected through an online survey disseminated in 15 languages: Arabic, Bahasa Indonesia, Bulgarian, Chinese, Croatian, English, French, Malay, Portuguese, Romanian, Serbian, Spanish, Tagalog, Thai and Vietnamese.

Three overarching themes shape the survey questionnaire:

1. The business case for a gender-diverse workforce, including the improved ability to attract and retain talent; greater creativity, innovation and openness; increased profitability and productivity; enhanced enterprise reputation; and increased ability to gauge consumer interest and demand;

⁴ The report refers to the survey as “ILO enterprise survey, 2018”.

2. Women's representation in junior, middle, senior and top management and enterprise boards as well as their representation in different functional areas within the enterprise; and
3. Enterprise policies and culture and perceptions of decision-makers on gender diversity.

The ILO enterprise survey was carried out from November 2017 until January 2018. Of the total responses, the majority came from Latin America and the Caribbean accounting for 37.2 per cent of the global sample, followed by Asia and the Pacific (20.2 per cent), Europe and Central Asia (19.4 per cent), the Middle East and North Africa (16.9 per cent) and Africa (10.9 per cent). While our report is not based on a representative sample for the countries covered, it provides a global overview of how enterprises today leverage gender diversity and, importantly, covers the situation in small and medium-sized enterprises as well as local enterprises, which are not sufficiently researched.

In terms of the characteristics of surveyed enterprises, the highest share of responses by sector came from "other service activities" (15 per cent), manufacturing (12.4 per cent), shop-keeping, sales or trade activities (10.3 per cent) and information and communication (8.3 per cent).⁵ Enterprises in the survey were classified into four types according to the number of workers employed: micro (employing less than two workers), small (employing 2–100 workers), medium (employing 101–250 workers) and large (employing more than 250 workers). Within the global sample of enterprises, 50.8 per cent were small, 16.6 per cent were medium-sized and 32.5 per cent were large.⁶ The sample included a strong presence of national and local enterprises (73 per cent) as well as multinational enterprises (27 per cent).

The survey respondents from the enterprises were largely in decision-making positions to ensure the credibility of the responses to the questionnaire. Of total respondents surveyed, 53.4 per cent were responsible for departments or business units, and 46.4 per cent managed a team of people. In terms of gender, almost 60 per cent of survey respondents across the world were men and 40 per cent were women.

Report structure

This report is organized into four main chapters as follows:

1. Chapter 1 on the business and economic case for gender diversity presents evidence that female employment contributes to gross domestic product (GDP) growth and that enterprise initiatives to support female employment improve business outcomes including financial performance and profits;
2. Chapter 2 on gender diversity in business and management analyses the share of women in management positions, including the chief executive level, as well as women running their own business, while exploring the phenomena of the leaky pipeline and "glass walls";

⁵ Economic sectors in the enterprise survey were defined in accordance with the International Standard Industrial Classification of All Economic Activities (ISIC), Rev. 4. The enterprise survey, however, did not include the following sectors: G. repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles; T. activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of households for own use; U. Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies. The eight economic sectors included in the analysis of this report account for 71.3 per cent of the total surveyed enterprises worldwide; economic sectors accounting for less than 5 per cent each were excluded from all figures of the report.

⁶ Micro enterprises accounted for less than 0.05 per cent of the global sample and, therefore, are not included in the analysis presented in this report.

3. Chapter 3 on gender diversity in the boardroom and corporate governance examines how women are making their way onto boards; and
4. Chapter 4 on transforming the wider business environment looks at what can be practically done to support greater gender diversity, including for example creating a gender-inclusive workplace culture and narrowing the gender pay gap.

Each chapter uses the responses from the ILO enterprise survey to glean how enterprises consider gender diversity within their organizations. The analysis includes interpretations of statistically significant probabilistic regressions performed for some of key variables. The survey findings are complemented by relevant labour market data and secondary research. While the main chapters provide global and regional-level information, additional country-level and sectoral information as well as the details of regressions performed using the enterprise survey data are available in the Annex. The report concludes with final remarks outlining key messages derived from the report.



Scope of enterprise survey on women in business and management

Illustration 3. Scope of enterprise survey

70
Countries

12,940
Enterprises

Latin America and the Caribbean
32.7%

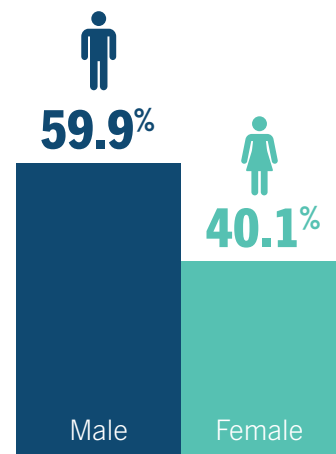
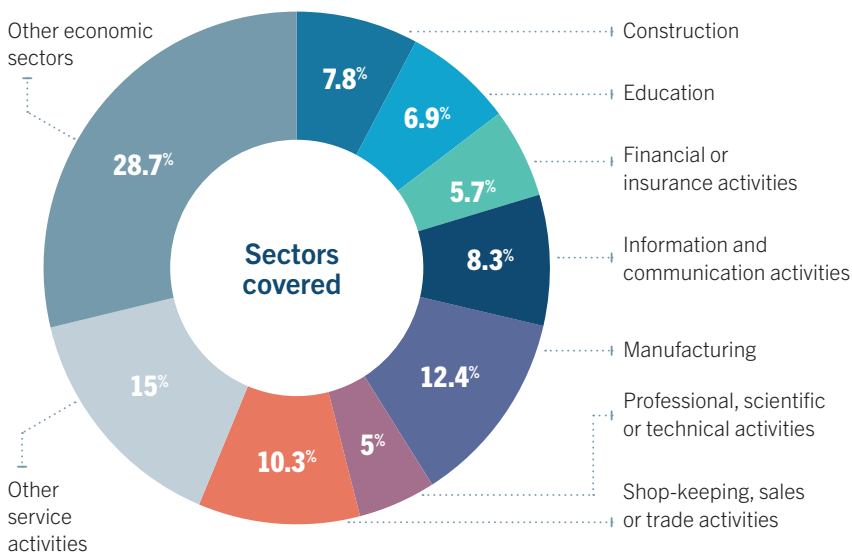
73%
National or local

27%
Multinational

50.8%
Small enterprises

32.5%
Large enterprises

16.6%
Medium enterprises



Europe and Central Asia

19.4%

Middle East and North Africa

16.9%

Asia and the Pacific

20.2%

Africa

10.9%



Latin America and the Caribbean

Honduras	13.6%
Brazil	10.7%
Mexico	10.0%
Colombia	9.7%
Argentina	8.1%
Chile	7.1%
Ecuador	6.4%
Venezuela, Bolivarian Republic of	5.9%
Panama	5.9%
Uruguay	5.3%
Other countries	17.2%



Europe and Central Asia

Romania	31.5%
Croatia	20.5%
Serbia	20.3%
Bulgaria	16.7%
Slovenia	11.0%



Middle East and North Africa

Egypt	45.5%
United Arab Emirates	23.1%
Saudi Arabia	21.3%
Jordan	5.6%
Lebanon	3.2%
Kuwait	1.4%



Asia and the Pacific

India	19.1%
Indonesia	15.9%
China	15.3%
Philippines	14.9%
Thailand	14.1%
Viet Nam	11.5%
Singapore	3.9%
Malaysia	3.0%
Other countries	2.3%



Africa

South Africa	56.5%
Nigeria	15.3%
Kenya	13.8%
Ghana	4.3%
Other countries	10.0%

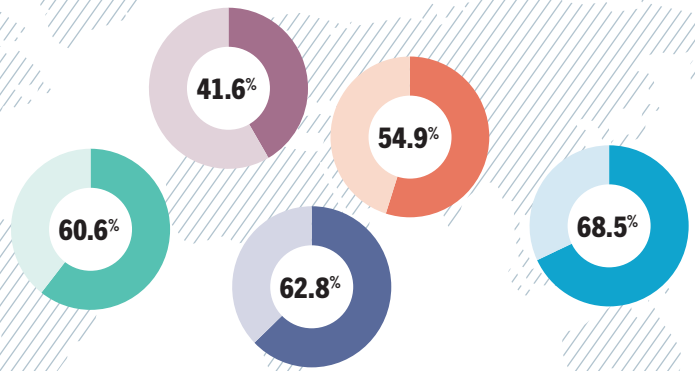
01

The business and economic case for a gender-diverse workforce



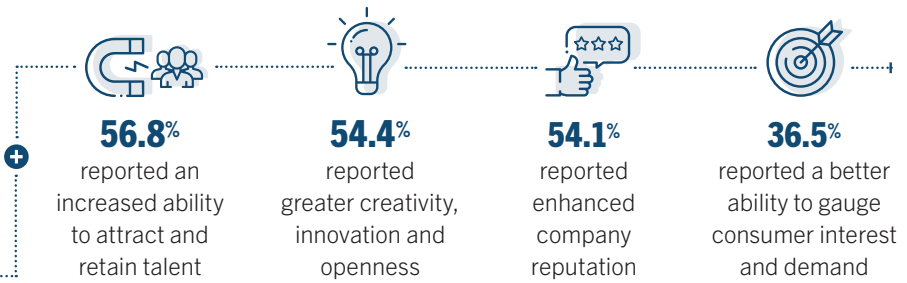
Globally,
57.4%

of company respondents agree that gender diversity initiatives improve business outcomes.

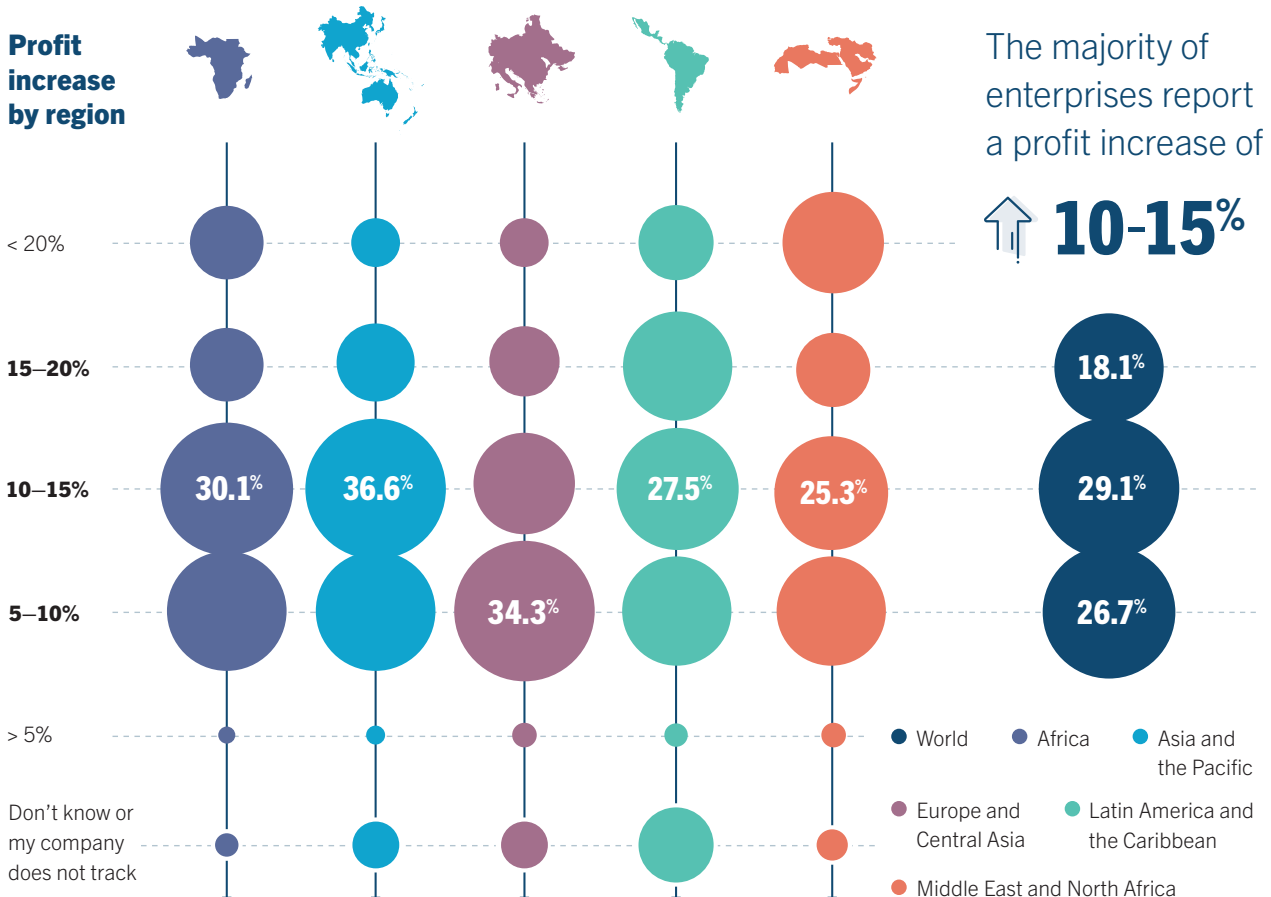


▲ Percentage of respondents who agree by region

60.2%
reported increased profits and productivity



Profit increase by region



There is mounting evidence around the globe that promoting gender diversity among employees, management and boards can be a business boost and a boost to economies.

For example, research and enterprise surveys indicate having more women in decision-making positions can improve profitability. There is also growing recognition of the added value of having diverse workforces that mirror consumer profiles. Meanwhile, data show that many women are surpassing men in higher education and across diverse disciplines, meaning there is a growing talent pool of experienced and educated women to meet critical skills needs.

This chapter examines the business and economic case for gender diversity by looking at how initiatives promoting women in management directly contribute to national economic growth and an enterprise's bottom line.

1.1 The effect of female employment on GDP

Women are catching up with men in terms of labour market opportunities, and public policies continue to be shaped to facilitate their effective participation. A growing number of studies have demonstrated the positive link between women's participation in the labour market and GDP growth. For example:

- The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2015) estimates that a 50 per cent reduction in the gender gap in labour force participation across the OECD economies would lead to an additional gain in GDP of about 6 per cent, with a further 6 per cent gain if complete convergence occurred.
- PricewaterhouseCoopers (PwC) (2018) estimates that if OECD countries increased their female labour market participation rate to the same level as Sweden (80 per cent), this would boost GDP by over US\$6 trillion.
- The World Economic Forum (2017) predicts that if the global gender gap in labour market participation is closed by 25 per cent by 2025, an additional US\$5.3 trillion would be added to GDP globally.

To understand how sensitive GDP growth is to changes in female employment, we built a panel dataset of 186 countries for the period 1991–2017 to assess the output partial elasticity of female employment (see Annex I, section A1.1).¹ The results confirm the positive correlation between GDP and female employment with statistical significance. In other words, female employment growth is positively associated with GDP growth.²

¹ For the purpose of the report, we regressed the GDP growth rate on the female employment growth rate using over 5,000 observations. Details of the model specification are available in Annex I. Partial output elasticity is the percentage change of output (i.e. GDP) divided by the percentage change of an input (i.e. female employment).

² Similarly, increased GDP also leads to increased employment. However, for the purpose of our analysis, we use the supply-side approach, where the output (GDP) is a function of labour and capital. In line with economic theory, capital is assumed to be a constant in the short term, implying that GDP is a function of labour. Labour, in turn, can be broken down into male and female employment. Here, we assume male employment to be constant. Therefore, in our model output (GDP) is a function of female employment as we are interested in assessing to what extent changes in female employment have an impact on GDP.

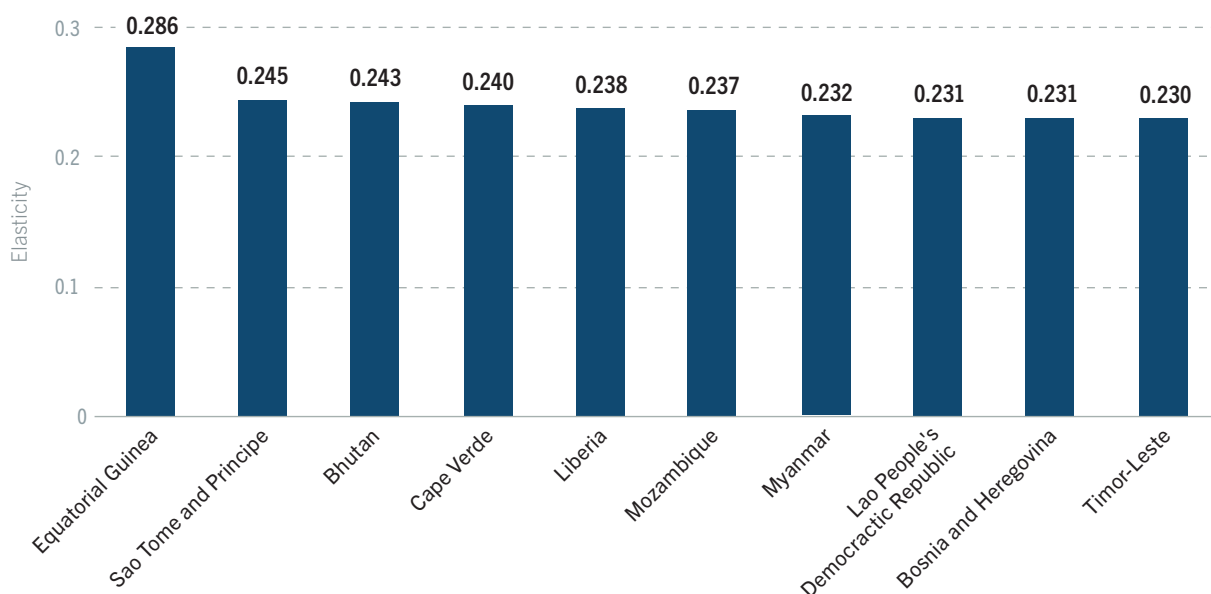
We also find that every 1 per cent of female employment growth is associated with, on average, annual GDP growth of 0.16 per cent.³ Figures 1.1 and 1.2 present the ten countries with the highest partial elasticity and the average elasticity by region. At the regional level, Africa has the highest partial elasticity, which means that GDP is, on average, more sensitive to changes in female employment for Africa than anywhere else in the world. In Africa, every 1 per cent increase in female employment is associated with, on average, GDP growth of 0.21 per cent.

Female employment growth is positively associated with GDP growth.



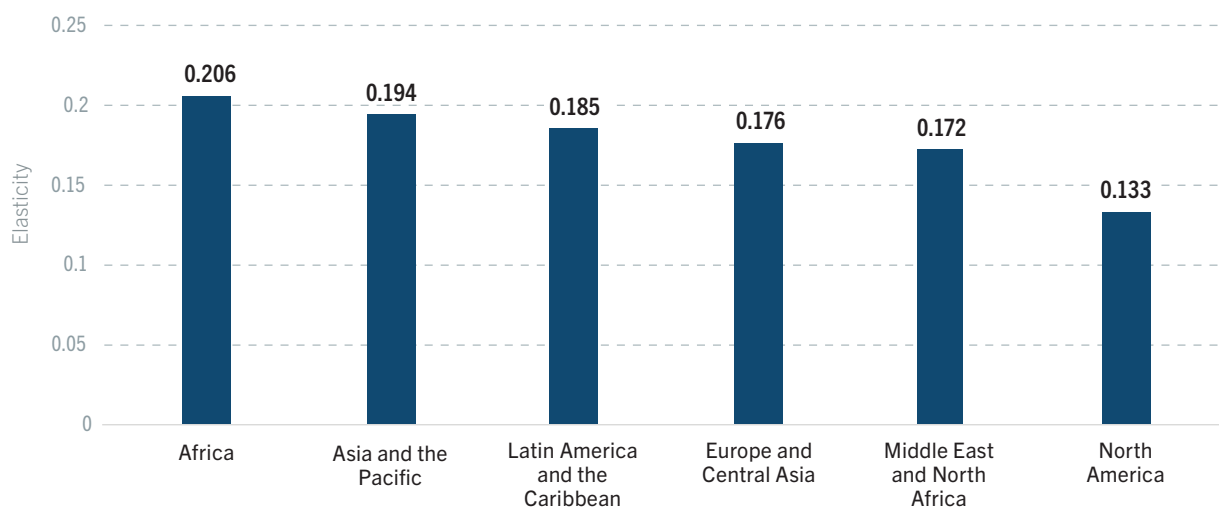
³ See Annex II, figure A9, for GDP and female employment growth rate by region for 1991 to 2017.

Figure 1.1 Output partial elasticity with respect to female employment for ten countries with the highest partial elasticity, 1991–2017



Source: Calculations by the authors based on data from World Bank (2019a) and ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.

Figure 1.2 Output partial elasticity with respect to female employment by region, 1991–2017



Source: Calculations by the authors based on data from World Bank (2019a) and ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.

Evidence clearly points towards the positive economic impact and opportunities for countries and societies of increasing the presence of women in the labour market, particularly where the gender gap in participation is high. Policies for development and growth that lack targeted measures aimed at enhancing women’s employment prospects will fail to realize the full potential of a productive economy.

1.2 Gender diversity initiatives enhance business outcomes

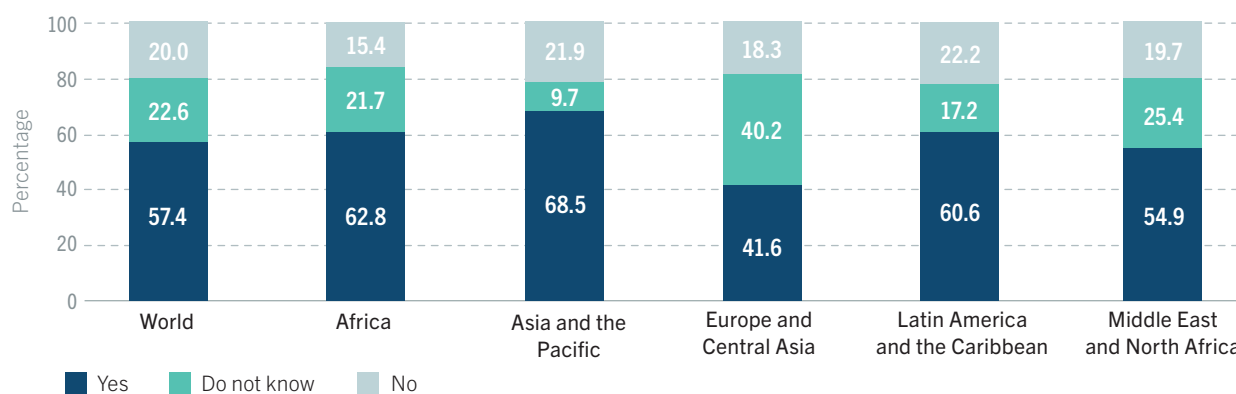
Demographics, technology, innovation and business disruption, together with globalization and international trade are continuously transforming our global labour markets. A recurring challenge faced by enterprises amid this ongoing change is the growing skills need. A business's performance depends on its ability to attract and retain skilled and talented employees.

Given that women surpass men in educational level in many countries, they represent a formidable talent pool and an underutilized resource in an era of skills shortages. Investing more in recruiting and advancing women can be justified through a cost-benefit analysis. When it comes to establishing systems to recruit and advance the best person for the job without the influence of gender bias, the benefits outweigh the costs. Similarly, providing flexible work arrangements to men and women can increase employee productivity significantly (see chapter 4). Enterprises will undoubtedly bear some costs in extending maternity and paternity leave or helping with child care; however, the longer term and strategic benefits to the bottom line connected with these measures should be factored into the analysis.

Based on our survey, over 57 per cent of respondents globally agree that gender diversity initiatives improve business outcomes (see figure 1.3). We use several indicators to illustrate business outcomes including increased profitability and productivity; increased ability to attract and retain talent; enhanced company reputation; greater creativity, innovation and openness; and better ability to gauge consumer interest and demand.

Among the respondents, some groups were more likely to report that gender diversity had helped to enhance business outcomes. For example, medium-sized enterprises (64.1 per cent) were more likely than small enterprises (54.3 per cent) and large enterprises (58.8 per cent). Compared to enterprises in other regions, enterprises in Asia and the Pacific (68.5 per cent) were more likely to report that gender diversity had helped to enhance business outcomes, and by sector, enterprises in the information and communications (66.4 per cent) and administrative or support services (65.1 per cent) were more likely to report that gender diversity helped to enhance business outcomes (see Annex II, figure A10).

Figure 1.3 Share of enterprises reporting whether initiatives on gender diversity and equality helped enhance business outcomes, results by world and region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Of the enterprises that report improved business outcomes, over 60 per cent report higher profitability and productivity, 56.8 per cent report increased ability to attract and retain talent, 54.4 per cent point report greater creativity, innovation and openness, 54.1 per cent say their company’s reputation has been enhanced, and 36.5 per cent report being better able to gauge consumer interest and demand (see figure 1.4).

Figure 1.4 Share of enterprises reporting improved business outcomes resulting from initiatives on gender diversity and equality, results by world and region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

A probabilistic model is applied to the survey findings to assess to what extent business outcomes are enhanced by several key factors (the econometric specification is presented in the Annex I, section 1.2

with results in tables A2 and A3). Our regressions show the following results:

- Enterprises with a gender-inclusive business culture are 8.9 per cent more likely to have enhanced business outcomes;⁴
- Enterprises with a female chief executive officer (CEO) are 3.5 per cent more likely to have better business outcomes; and
- Enterprises with an equal employment opportunity policy are over 26 per cent more likely to have better business results.

Going deeper into specific business outcomes related to productivity and profitability, our results also suggest the following:

- Enterprises with an inclusive business environment are 3.2 per cent more likely to have higher productivity and profitability;
- Enterprises with a female CEO are 2.8 per cent more likely to have increased productivity and profits; and
- Enterprises with an equal employment opportunity policy or diversity and inclusion policy are 3.8 per cent more likely to report an enhanced performance in these two dimensions.

We also find that when enterprises have an inclusive business culture and inclusive policies, the predicted probability of achieving:

- increased profitability and productivity is 62.6 per cent;
- enhanced ability to attract and retain talent is 59.7 per cent;
- greater creativity, innovation and openness is 59.1 per cent;
- enhanced company reputation is 57.8 per cent; and
- better ability to gauge consumer interest and demand is 37.9 per cent.

Our findings are echoed in other surveys and research, some of which examine other business outcomes. For example:

- The human resources management company, Development Dimensions International reported in 2018 that companies with higher levels of gender diversity are twice as likely to

When enterprises have an inclusive business culture and inclusive policies, the predicted probability of achieving:

increased profitability and productivity is

 **62.6%**

enhanced ability to attract and retain talent is

 **59.7%**

greater creativity, innovation and openness is

 **59.1%**

enhanced company reputation is

 **57.8%**

better ability to gauge consumer interest and demand is

 **37.9%**

⁴ An inclusive business culture is one where the working environment values the individual and group differences within its workforce. It enables an enterprise to embrace the diversity of backgrounds and perspectives of the employees, which in turn increases their talent, innovation, creativity and contributions. See chapter 4 for more details.

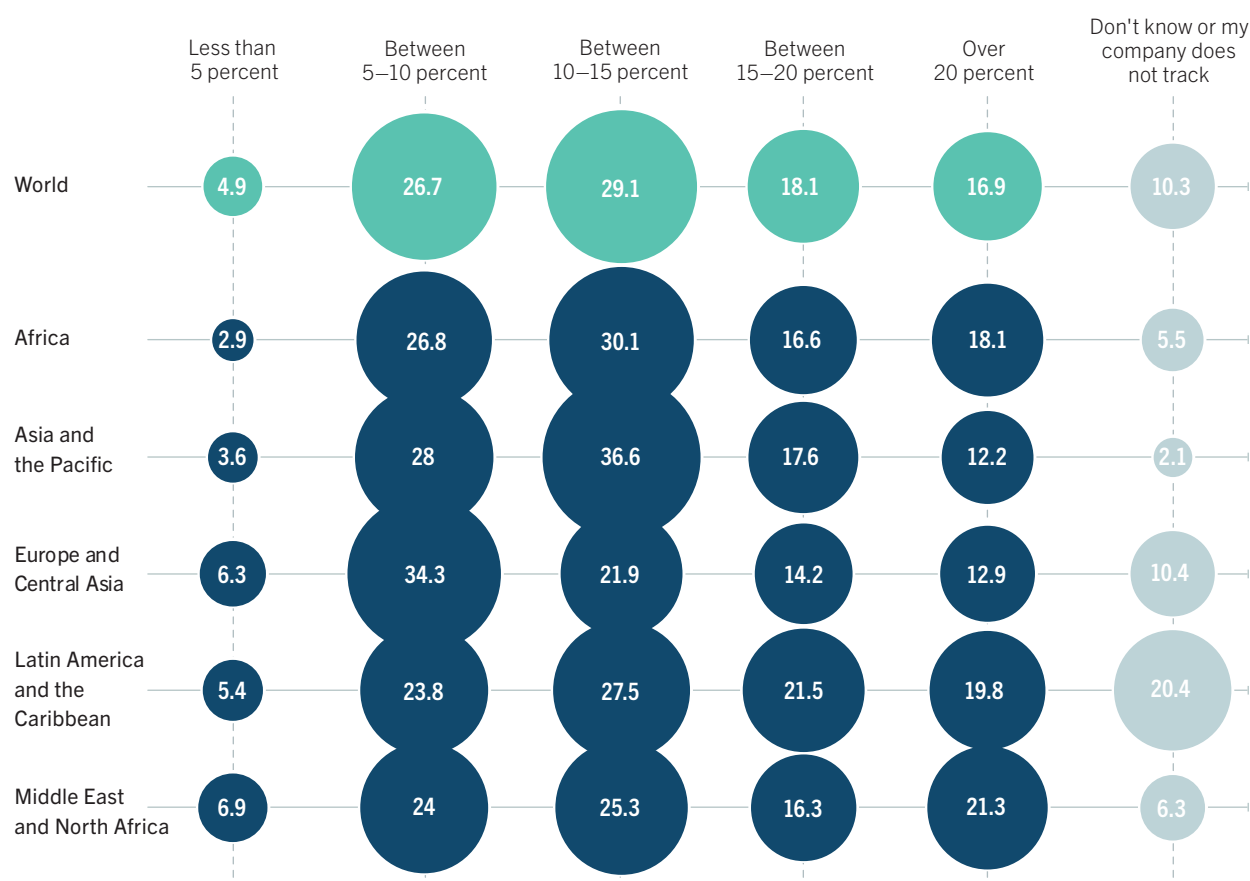
have their leaders work together to create new solutions and opportunities, 1.7 times more likely to have strong leadership, 1.5 times more likely to work across an organization’s silos and exhibit a growth culture, and 1.4 times more likely to have sustained profitable growth (Development Dimensions International, Inc., the Conference Board Inc. and EYGM Limited, 2018).

- A 2018 study by Nordea, the largest financial group in Northern Europe, finds that among the 100 blue chip Nordic companies, the ones with the most gender-diverse management have 40 per cent lower volatility in return on capital employed.⁵ Companies with more gender-diverse boards of directors also report significantly lower volatility in returns which is key for value creation (Nordea Corporate and Investment Banking, 2018).

1.3 Gender diversity’s link to enterprise profits

Our survey finds that of those enterprises that track the quantitative impact of gender diversity initiatives around promoting women in management, nearly 74 per cent report a profit increase of between 5 and 20 per cent. Figure 1.5 shows the results by region. Globally, the majority of enterprises (29.1 per cent) reported profit increases between 10 and 15 per cent.

Figure 1.5 Share of enterprises reporting increased profit resulting from initiatives on gender diversity and equality, results by world and region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

⁵ Blue chip companies are nationally recognized, well-established and financially sound. The blue-chip index covers the largest companies worldwide by market capitalization and/or trade.

These findings confirm those of other similar surveys and research. For example:

- McKinsey & Company's 2018 research of 1,000 companies in 12 countries on the impact of diversity in business shows that companies in the top quartile for gender diversity on their executive teams are 21 per cent more likely than other firms to report above-average profitability. McKinsey notes that while correlation does not prove causation, it at least indicates that companies with gender-diverse leadership are more successful (Hunt et al. 2018).
- The Petersen Institute's 2016 study of nearly 22,000 firms across 91 countries finds that bringing more women into management boosted profitability. It observes that the difference between having no women in corporate leadership (the CEO, the board and other chief executive level positions) and a 30 per cent female share is associated with a one percentage point increase in net margin—which translates to a 15 per cent increase in profitability for a typical firm (Noland, Moran and Kotschwar, 2016).
- Credit Suisse Research Institute (2016) surveyed 3,400 companies across all industries and notes that companies where gender diversity is an important strategy enjoy excess returns running at a Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) of 3.5 per cent per annum. Credit Suisse also finds that companies where women made up at least 15 per cent of senior managers had profitability that was more than 50 per cent higher than those where female representation was less than 10 per cent.

However, it should be noted that while an increasing number of studies and surveys are finding a positive correlation between higher numbers of women in management with better firm performance, there is also academic research indicating a lack of empirical evidence and causal relationship when it comes to quantifying profits. Some studies point out that dynamic companies will embrace gender diversity as integral to a set of innovative and sustainable business strategies, thereby making it difficult to attribute increased profit to gender diversity alone.

Our survey mainly reflects self-reporting by respondents and their knowledge of their enterprise, not necessarily empirically controlled data sets regarding profit margins. Nevertheless, our results show enterprises agree that gender diversity is good for business.

On balance, given the reported numerous benefits of a more gender diverse workforce and gender balance in management, it would be strategic for enterprises to look into the matter as a bottom-line issue as well as an integral human resource management issue. This would ensure that at the very least, enterprises are able to maximize access to available talent and skills and thrive in a competitive business environment.

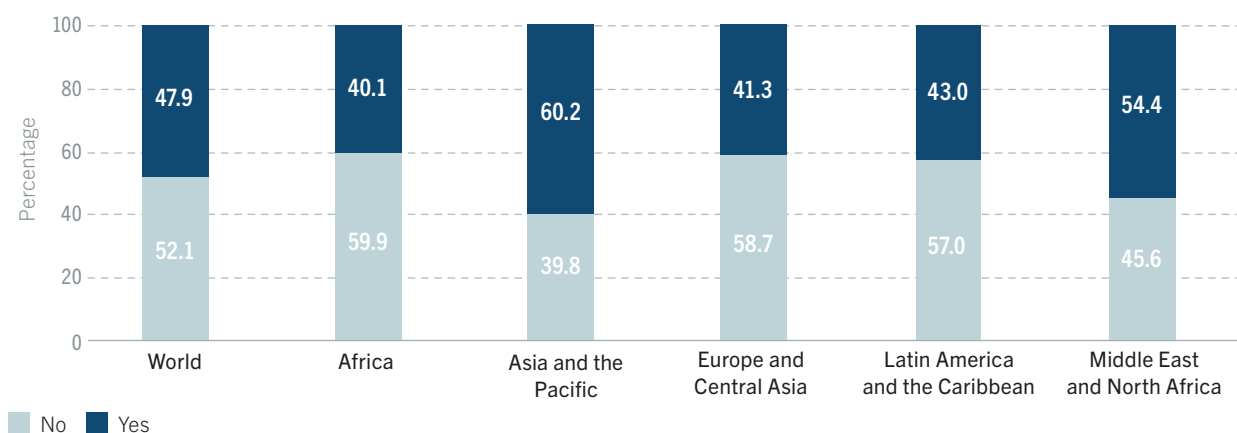
1.4 Attracting and retaining skills

Workforce capabilities and employee retention are key to enterprise success. Retention of productive employees is known to be a major human resource challenge, particularly as it becomes increasingly difficult and costly to find and attract skilled people.

Of surveyed enterprises, 48 per cent saw retention of skilled women as a challenge for their business, with large enterprises struggling more than small and medium-sized enterprises (see figure 1.6).⁶

We assessed how the likelihood of enterprises facing challenges in retaining skilled women when they have an inclusive business culture.⁷ The assessment revealed a statistically insignificant correlation between enterprises with an inclusive business environment and enterprises with fewer challenges in retaining skilled women. Further research is needed to fully understand this relationship.

Figure 1.6 Share of enterprises according to whether retention of skilled women is a challenge for their organization, results by world and region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Nevertheless, numerous reports around current and future skills challenges imply that enterprises have room to improve their recruitment and retention of women, especially if they have already invested in them. For instance:

- Manpower Group (2018) reports that employers around the world are struggling to fill job vacancies, with a record high since 2006 of 45 per cent of employers saying that they can’t find the skills they need. Manpower also notes that there is a considerable gap between the roles employers offer and the roles women are seeking. In 2013, Manpower finds that “only six per cent of shortage-affected employers are redesigning work procedures such as sharing work assignments”. Meanwhile, “only five percent are offering more flexible work arrangements and just one employer in 50 provides virtual work options to candidates” (Manpower, 2013).

⁶ The survey did not further examine the reason for the retention challenge of skilled women. However, some reasons could include the motherhood break, recruitment of these women by other enterprises as well as opening up their own enterprises.

⁷ A probabilistic model is applied for this analysis. See Annex II, table A4, for details.

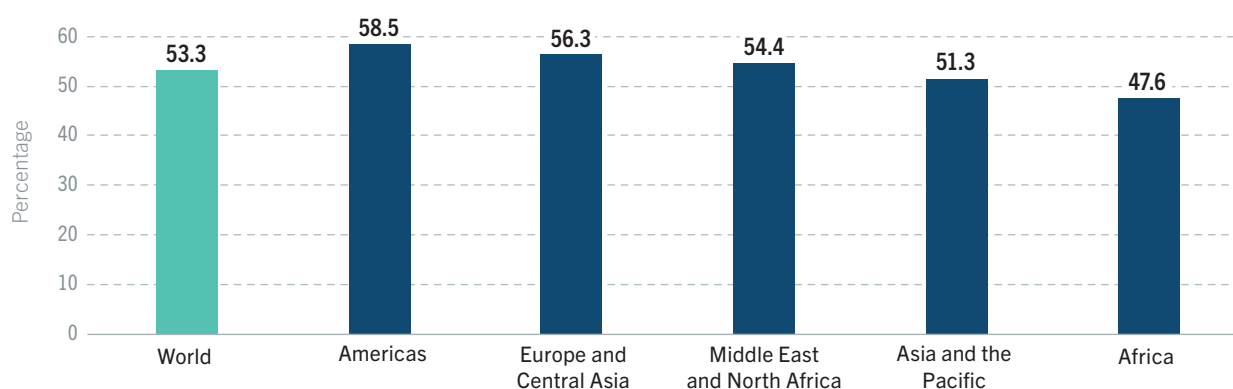
- The World Economic Forum report on *The Future of Jobs* (2016) depicts that companies are focusing primarily on progressing women through the pipeline to avoid losing already developed or developing talent. However, few industries are making targeted efforts to hire women into junior and entry level roles. Across all industries, companies reported that they found women harder to recruit.

The findings from our survey and other research suggest that retention of skilled women is challenging for many companies. As such, businesses need to identify factors affecting the retention of female staff, create an inclusive business culture that encourages them to stay, and also draw up initiatives to attract new female talent.

1.5 Female talent pool still widening

At the same time as there is an overall shortage of skills and retention challenges, the female talent pool continues to widen. Figure 1.7 shows how women are surpassing men in terms of tertiary education generally. On average, more women than men are graduating from tertiary education for all regions apart from Africa.

Figure 1.7 Share of women among total tertiary graduates, average annual rates, latest years, results by world and region



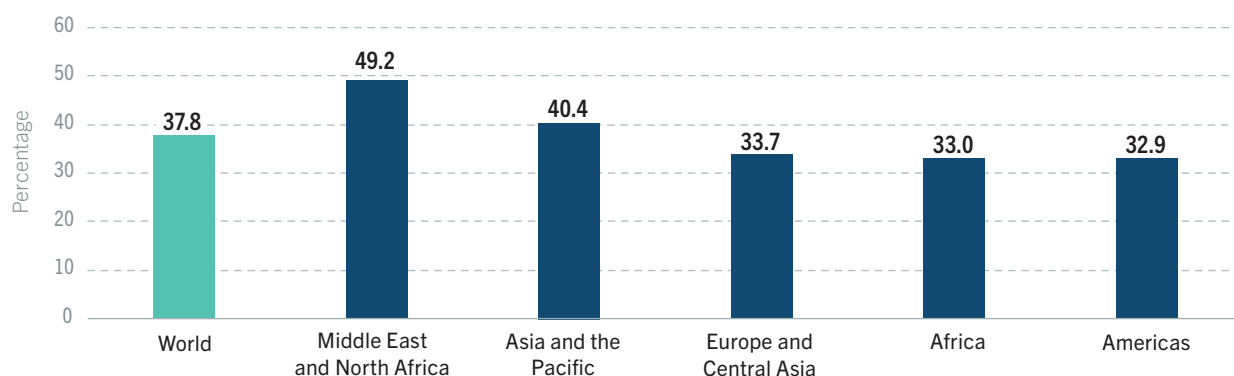
Note: The global and regional shares of female tertiary graduates were calculated by estimating weighted averages using latest available data, which cover 132 countries worldwide including 23 countries in Africa, 23 countries in the Americas, 23 countries in Asia and the Pacific, 46 countries in Europe and Central Asia and 17 countries in Middle East and North Africa (see Annex II, figure A11).

Source: UNESCO-UIS, 2019.

Women are also expanding their skills in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) disciplines, which are in high demand by employers. Men continue to dominate these fields of study, but in a number of countries female graduates are now on a par with male graduates. In most regions, women are a third or more of such graduates (see figure 1.8). Indeed, certain countries around the world have seen considerable growth of women in STEM fields. In particular, the data for available years some countries in Africa, including Benin, the Gambia and Burundi show a 30 percentage point increase in women graduating from STEM disciplines.

Overall the fact that women have surpassed men as the majority of tertiary graduates and are increasingly taking up STEM fields means that enterprises can benefit from a bigger pool of talent.

Figure 1.8 Share of women among total tertiary STEM graduates, average annual rates, latest years, results by world and region



Note: The global and regional shares of female tertiary STEM graduates were calculated by estimating the weighted averages using latest available data, which cover 100 countries worldwide including 15 countries in Africa, 15 countries in the Americas, 16 countries in Asia and the Pacific, 43 countries in Europe and Central Asia and 11 countries in Middle East and North Africa (see Annex II, figure A12).

Source: UNESCO-UIS, 2019.



Findings

- Empirical data show that gender diversity reaps dividends for enterprises and for economies.
- When gender-inclusive business culture and inclusive policies are in place, the probability for enterprises to improve their business outcomes significantly increases.
- Women surpassing men in tertiary education and catching up as STEM graduates are resulting in significant expansion of the talent pool.

Challenges

- To benefit from gender diversity, enterprises need to revisit how work is organized so there is more flexibility enabling work-life balance.
- Skills shortage and gaps continue to be major challenge for enterprises as the world of work transforms. In the ever-escalating war for talent, enterprises need to have the right policies and practices in place to recruit and retain talented women and men.
- Economies need to better harness women’s workforce contribution for sustainable growth.



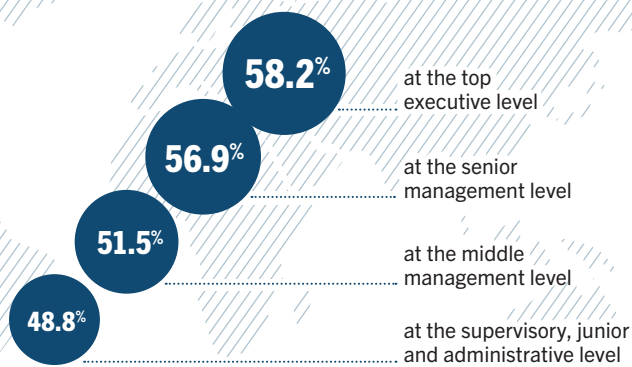
02

Gender diversity in business and management

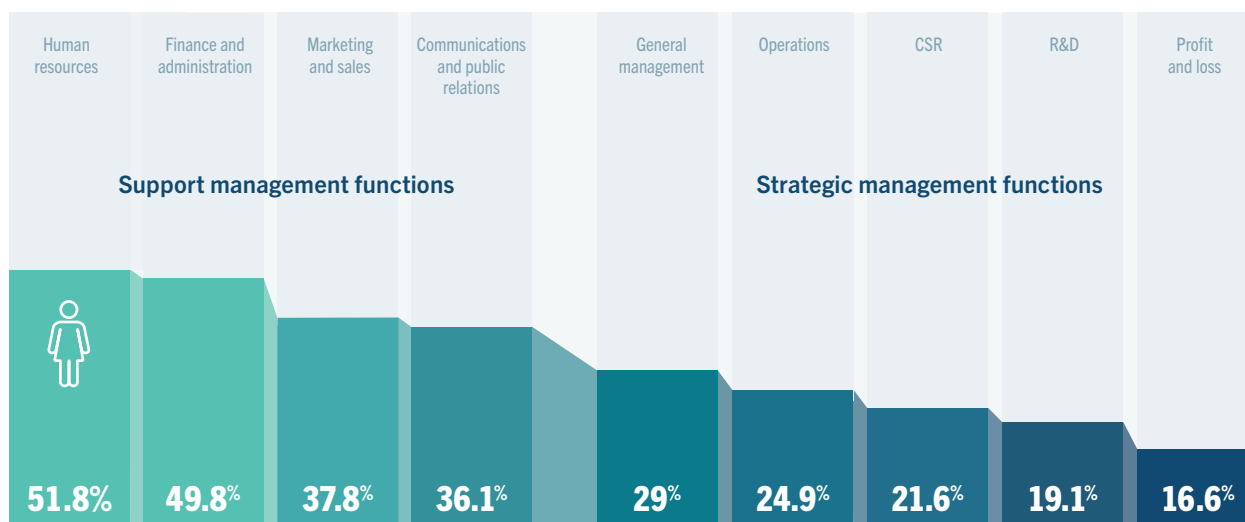


Globally, a pyramid structure still exists. Enterprises surveyed reporting **less than 30 per cent women** increases at the higher levels of management.

Percentage of enterprises reporting less than 30 per cent women

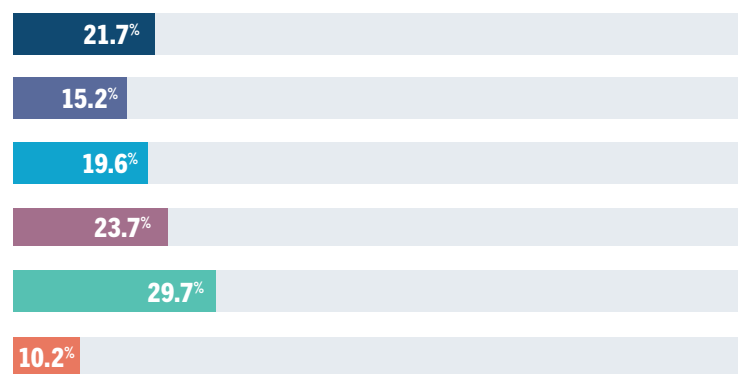


Occupational segregation



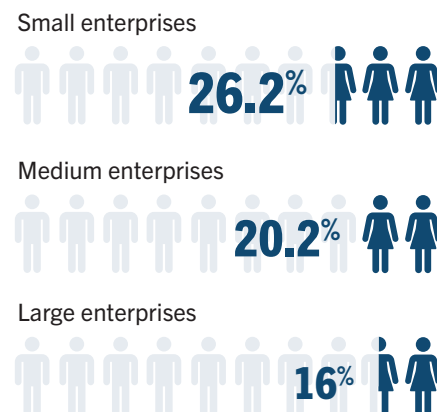
Share of women in functional senior and middle management areas

 **21.7%** of enterprises reported that their CEO was a woman



● Africa ● Asia and the Pacific ● Europe and Central Asia ● Latin America and the Caribbean ● Middle East and North Africa

 **Female CEOs are less likely to be found as the enterprise size grows**



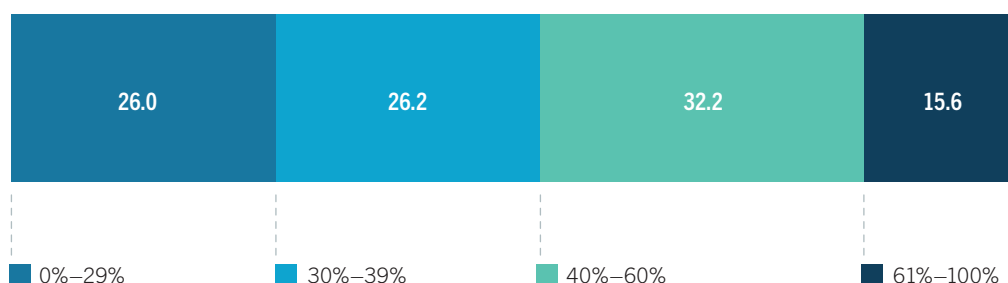
Building a gender-diverse pipeline of future business managers and reaping gender dividends requires concerted efforts over time on the part of enterprises and their representative organizations.

Close attention to recruitment processes can help challenge a status quo where the higher the position, the fewer women there are to be found. This chapter looks at the findings of our enterprise survey on women’s share of management, the type of management jobs they generally hold and variations according to the size of the enterprise and across countries and regions. ILO statistical data on women in management, as well as other related research findings, are presented to supplement the survey findings.

2.1 Women in management

The varying levels of female employment within enterprises responding to our survey is shown in figure 2.1. We see that 32 per cent of enterprises have numerical gender balance, with 40 to 60 per cent of their workforce being women. A further 26 per cent of enterprises have 30 to 39 per cent of employees who are women. But there are still instances where men are over-represented among enterprise employees; in approximately 26 per cent of enterprises women hold less than 30 per cent of the jobs. By contrast, about 15 per cent of survey respondents have a workforce where women account for at least 61 per cent of the jobs.

Figure 2.1 Share of enterprises by proportion of female employees in their workforce



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Despite the widespread presence of women in the workforce of surveyed enterprises, this is not always the case when it comes to management positions (see figure 2.2, Panel A). For supervisory, junior or administrative positions, the largest share of enterprises (23 per cent) said women account for 11 to 29 per cent of these positions, with the second largest share of enterprises (22 per cent) indicating that women made up only 1 to 10 per cent. Overall, nearly half of enterprises surveyed confirmed that women account for less than 30 per cent of their entry-level management positions.

With respect to middle management, the largest share of enterprises (27 per cent) said they have 11 to 29 per cent women, while the second largest share of enterprises (24 per cent) reported having 30 to 39 per cent women.

The under-representation of women in management positions becomes more distinct at the highest echelons. At the senior management level, the largest share of enterprises (33 per cent) said that 1 to 10 per cent of senior managers are women, while nearly 20 per cent indicated that women hold 11 to 29 per cent of these positions. In total, almost 57 per cent of enterprises indicated that women made up less than 30 per cent of their senior managers.

Over 58 per cent of enterprises report that women hold fewer than 30 per cent of top executive positions.

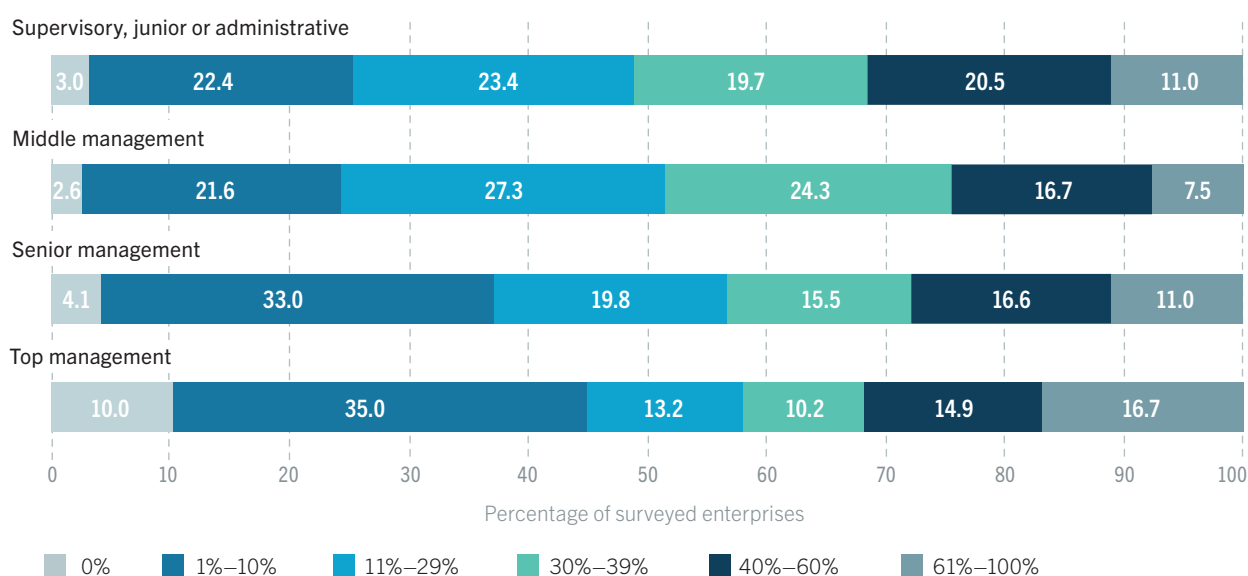
For top executives, the largest share of enterprises (35 per cent) indicate women hold 1 to 10 of these roles. Critically, the share of enterprises reporting no women in top executive positions (10 per cent) is the highest when compared to all other management levels. Overall, over 58 per cent of enterprises report that women hold fewer than 30 per cent of top executive positions.

We find that enterprises in all regions have fewer women at progressively higher levels of management, highlighting the reality of vertical occupational segregation. For senior management positions, the highest rate of gender balance (40–60 per cent of either sex) was found in Europe and Central Asia (19 per cent of enterprises). In Asia and the Pacific, however, the largest share of enterprises (66 per cent) have fewer than 30 per cent women in senior management positions.

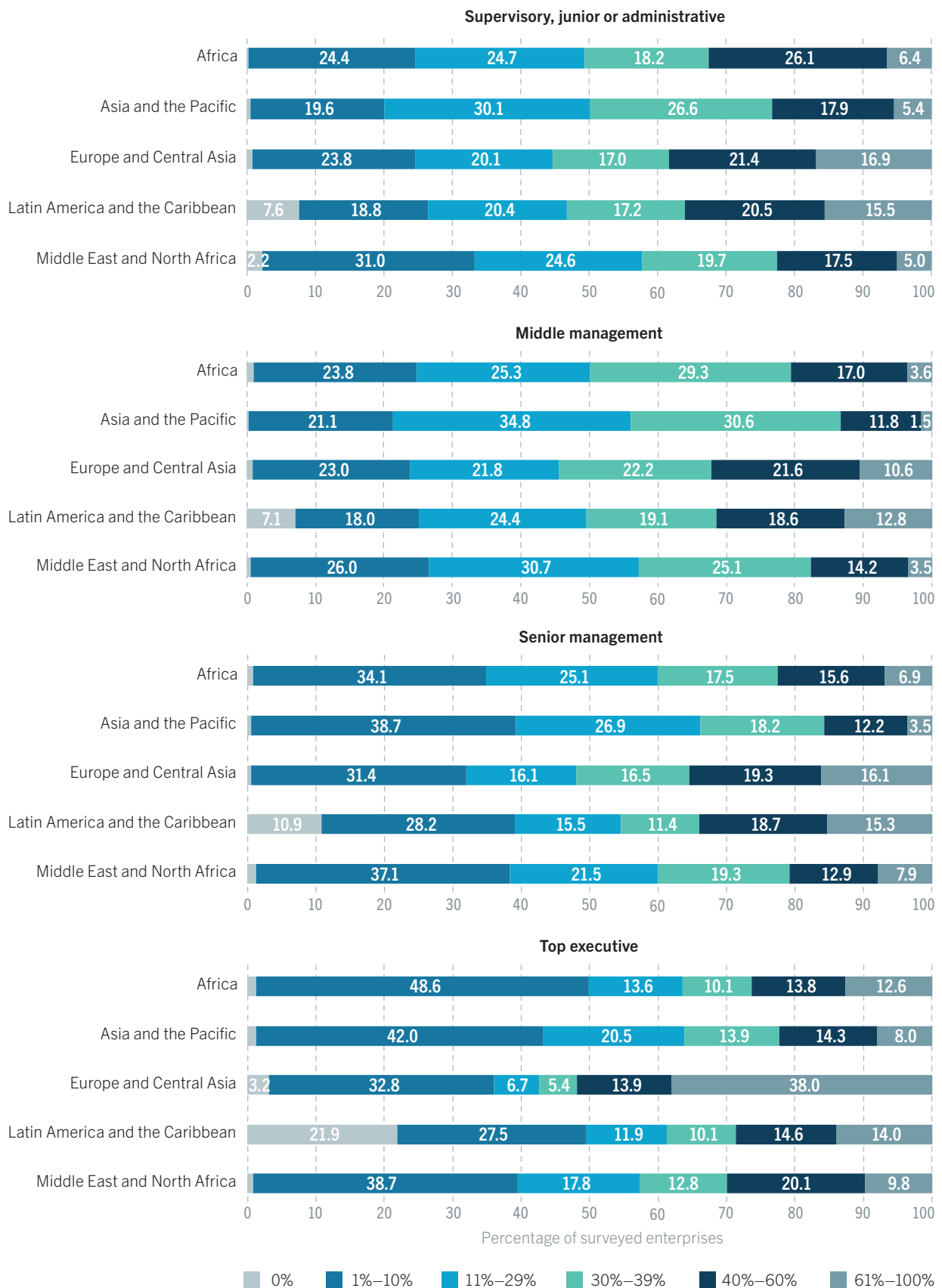
Asia and the Pacific together with Africa have the largest share of enterprises with less than 30 per cent women at the top executive level. Additionally, Latin America has the largest share of enterprises with no women top executives (22 per cent). By contrast, 38 per cent of surveyed enterprises from Europe and Central Asia responded that female top executives account for at least 61 per cent of the workforce.

Figure 2.2 Share of enterprises by proportion of female managers at four levels of management, (A) results by management level and (B) results by region

Panel A. Results by management level



Panel B. Results by region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

The survey results also show that the larger the enterprise size, the fewer women occupy senior management and top executive positions (see Annex II, figure A13). Over 60 per cent of large enterprises, over 59 per cent of medium-sized enterprises and 52 per cent of small enterprises report having less than 30 per cent women at the senior management level.

Over 64 per cent of large enterprises, nearly 61 per cent of medium-sized enterprises and over 52 per cent of small enterprises report having less than 30 per cent women at the top executive level.

Box 2.1 A glimpse into women managers from the pool of survey respondents

When examining the profile of the individuals who responded to the survey, 40 per cent were women who are either responsible for a department or business unit or managing a team of people in their enterprises. By looking into our own sample pool, we could derive interesting situational dynamics.

For instance, the likelihood of a woman being in management appears to be influenced by several factors (see Annex II, table A5, for the regression analysis).

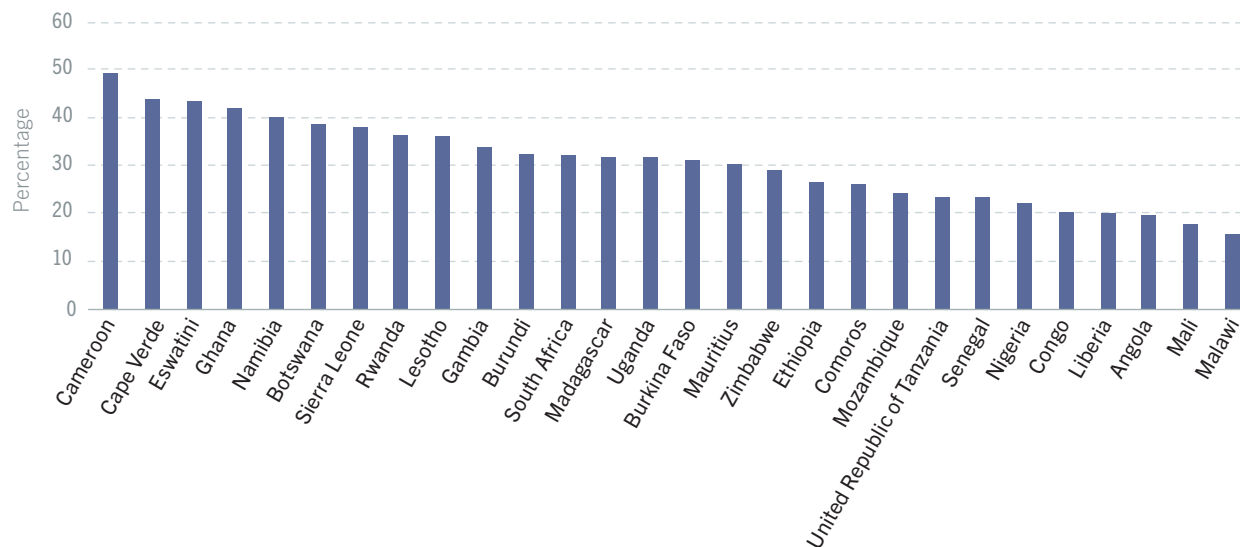
- Firm type: On average women are 3.66 per cent more likely to be in management positions if they are employed by national, rather than multinational, enterprises.
- Proportion of female workforce: On average, the greater the proportion of female employees, the higher the probability that women will be in management, suggesting that the pipeline matters. For example, women are 10 per cent more likely to be in management positions when their workforce is gender balanced.

Exploring the data by geography, ILO data on women as managers in the public and private sectors show that in a good proportion of countries, women's share of management jobs has reached a critical mass of 30 per cent which is generally considered the tipping point where the representation of women begins to influence an institution and its decision making (see figure 2.3).

More than half the countries in Africa, Asia and the Pacific as well as in Europe and Central Asia have exceeded the 30 per cent threshold. In the Americas, women have gained 30 per cent or more positions as managers in all but four countries while the Middle East and North Africa remains the only region in which countries have not reached this point.

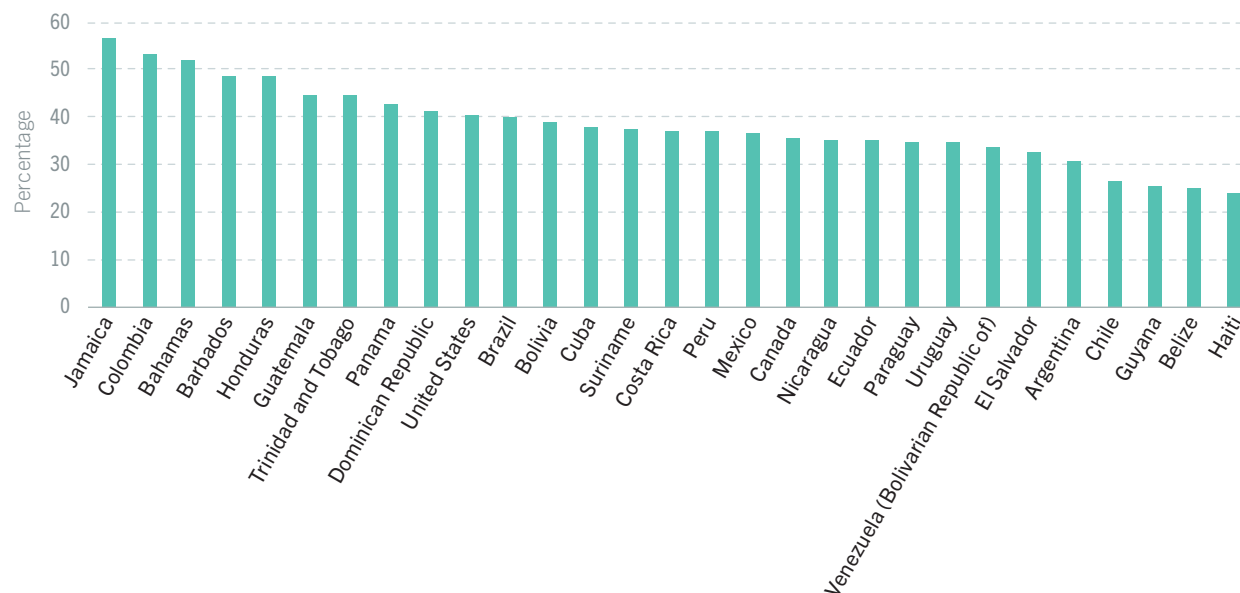
Figure 2.3 Share of women in management, latest years, selected countries by region, (A) Africa, (B) Americas, (C) Asia and the Pacific, (D) Europe and Central Asia and (E) Middle East and North Africa

Panel A. Africa



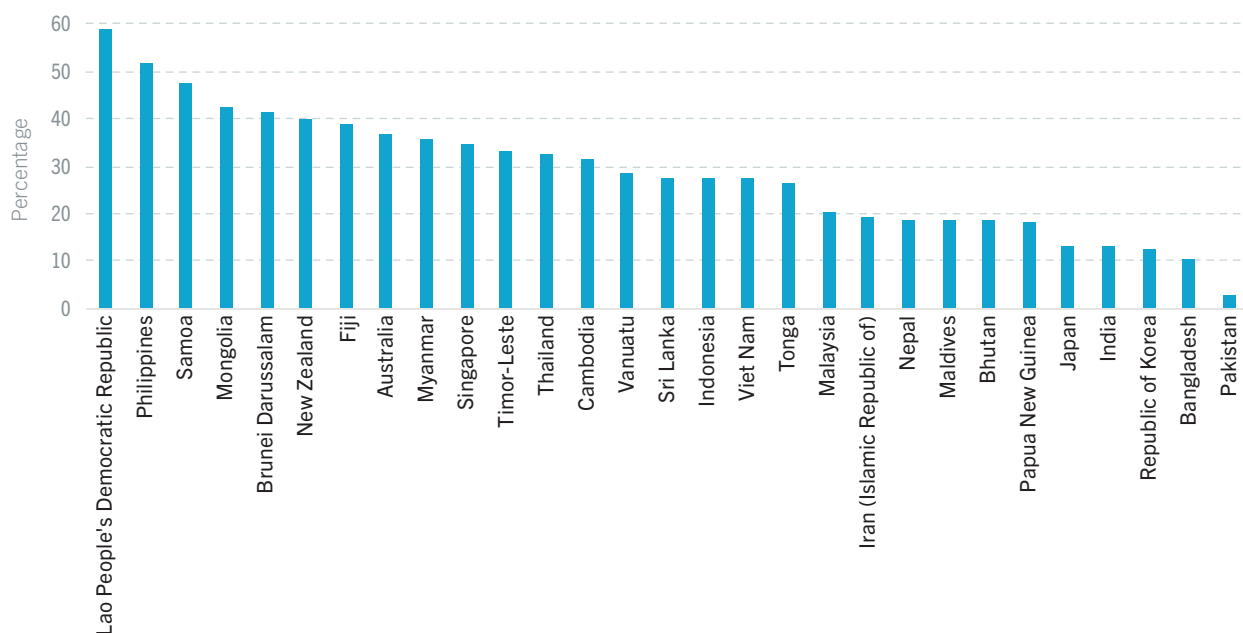
Note: Data are from 2017, except for the Comoros (2004), Burkina Faso (2006), Lesotho (2008), Botswana and Liberia (2010), the Democratic Republic of the Congo and the Gambia (2012), Ethiopia and Malawi (2013), Angola, Cameroon, Sierra Leone, the United Republic of Tanzania and Zimbabwe (2014), Ghana, Senegal, Madagascar and Mozambique (2015), Eswatini, Mali, Namibia and Nigeria (2016).

Panel B. Americas



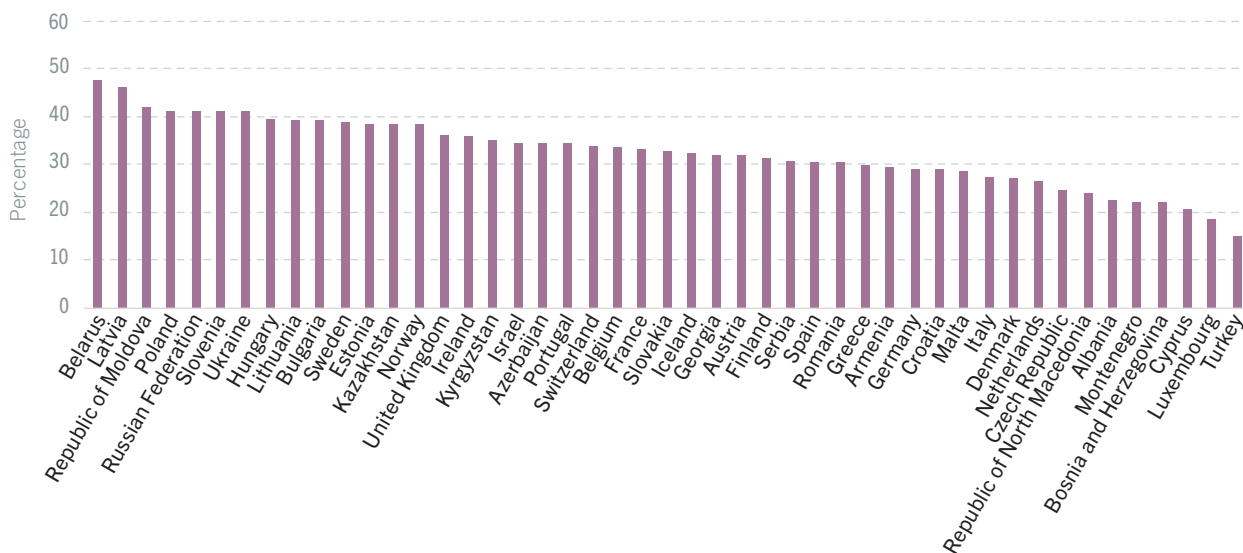
Note: Data are from 2017, except for Guyana (2002), Haiti (2003), Canada (2014), Colombia (2009), Cuba (2010), the Bahamas (2011), Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) (2012), Nicaragua (2014), Suriname (2015), Barbados, Guatemala and Trinidad and Tobago (2016).

Panel C. Asia and the Pacific



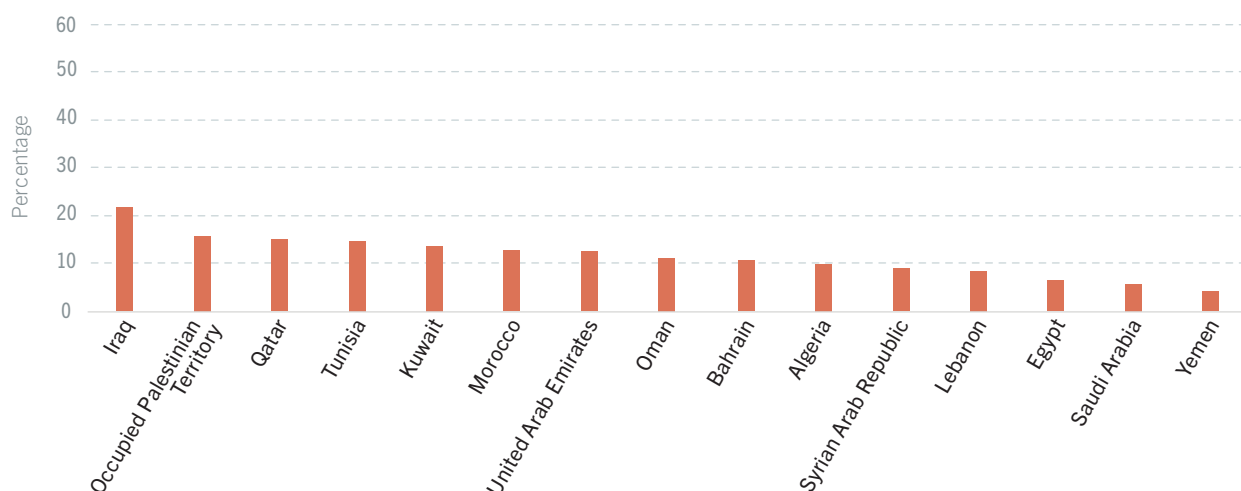
Note: Data are from 2017, except for Tonga (2003), Nepal and New Zealand (2008), Vanuatu (2009), Papua New Guinea (2010), India (2012), Timor-Leste (2013), Maldives and Samoa (2014), Bhutan and Cambodia (2015), Australia, Malaysia, Thailand and Pakistan (2016).

Panel D. Europe and Central Asia



Note: Data are from 2017, except for Kazakhstan (2013), Bosnia and Herzegovina (2015), Armenia and Kyrgyzstan (2016).

E. Middle East and North Africa



Note: Data are from 2017, except for Bahrain (2004), Lebanon (2007), Morocco (2008), the Syrian Arab Republic (2010), Iraq and Tunisia (2012), Algeria and Yemen (2014), Saudi Arabia (2015), and Kuwait and Oman (2016).

Source: ILOSTAT.

Change in women’s share of management varies considerably by country and according to country size. In some economic powerhouses like Germany and Japan, there is relatively lower representation of women in management when comparing the country to its respective region. On the other hand, island states in the Caribbean and the Pacific tend to have a higher proportion of women in management. Societal and enterprise culture, national policy and enterprise demand for women’s skills and talent are contributing factors. Even when national policy is set to promote women’s stronger economic participation, a time lag can exist before the situation changes. These factors, as well as the particular economic and political cycles facing a country, can affect the pace of change when it comes to enterprises and economies reaping benefits from gender diverse management teams.

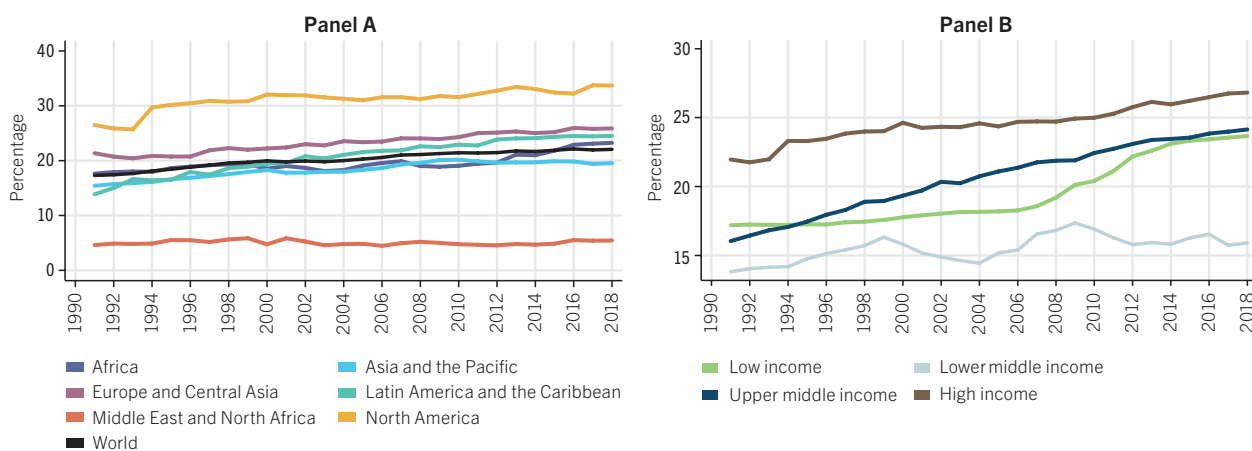
2.2 Women as business owners

Our enterprise survey did not target women business owners; however, exploring this can provide useful information about how women are engaging in the labour market as well as about the environment of the labour market itself.

ILO data shows that globally the share of women among all employers has increased from 17.3 per cent in 1991 to over 22 per cent in 2018. A steady growth in women-owned businesses has taken place in Latin America and the Caribbean (13.9 per cent in 1991 and 24.5 per cent in 2018), North America (26.5 per cent in 1991 and 33.7 per cent in 2018) and Asia and the Pacific (15.4 per cent in 1991 and 20.2 per cent in 2018) (see figure 2.4, panel A). Whereas analysis by country income group reveals that the proportion of women employers has rapidly increased in upper-middle-income countries, followed by low- and high-income countries (see figure 2.4, panel B).¹ Our analysis further shows that the pace of growth as employers for the past three decades has been faster for women than men when taking 1991 as the base year for all regions (see Annex II, figure A15).

¹ See Annex II, figure A14, to examine the growth of women as employers for all regions and country income group when taking 1991 as the base year.

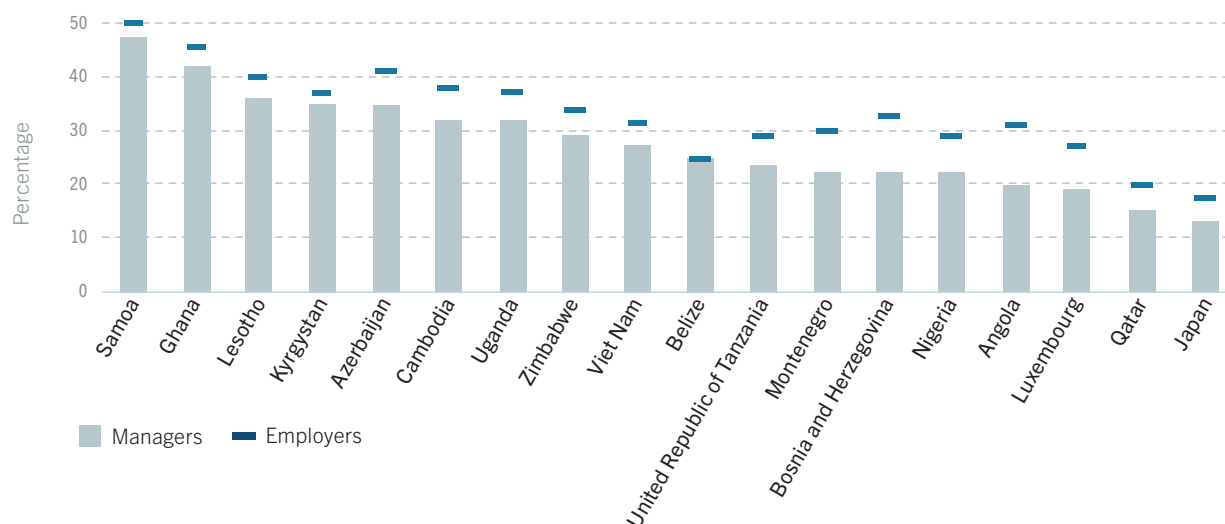
Figure 2.4 Share of women as employers, 1991–2018, (A) results by world and region and (B) results by country income group



Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.
Source: ILOSTAT.

In some countries, the proportion of female employers is higher than those who are managers in enterprises (see figure 2.5). Nevertheless, for a handful of countries the low share of women in management mirrors their low share as employers. For example, in India, Pakistan and Turkey, the proportion of women in both categories remains below 15 per cent.

Figure 2.5 Comparison between the share women managers and women employers, selected countries with higher shares of women as employers, latest years



Source: ILOSTAT.



Box 2.2 Case study on women in business in Central America

Four case studies for Costa Rica, El Salvador, Mexico (Chihuahua), and Panama were conducted to examine various features of businesses run by women in relation to profitability as compared to those run by men. The studies discuss the potential of women to be more successful as entrepreneurs and employers if certain conditions are met and also identify the challenges faced by women due to inherent gender bias in their societies, mirrored in the world of business.

The data presented in the case studies reflect the global trend of women increasingly running more businesses, not only micro and small enterprises, but also as employers of medium and large enterprises. Women are on average 22.3 per cent of business owners in Costa Rica, 29 per cent of employers in El Salvador, 22.4 per cent of employers in Panama and 15.3 per cent of business owners in Chihuahua.

We find that women are often driven to start up their own business due to economic necessity that could be caused by impoverished circumstances, the lack of career prospects in their company, or the lack of paid employment in the labour market. To what extent women are successful business owners and employers can be influenced by enterprise size, the economic sectors in which they operate, education and professional experience.

Enterprise size. Growing their business can be more of a challenge for women than men. Our El Salvador study finds that the largest profit gaps between men and women employers are observed in medium-sized enterprises, with women making just 16.2 per cent of what men make. Furthermore, among all female employers, those who run large enterprises generate the lowest profits.

Gender differences across sectors. Women and men business owners are often concentrated in certain economic sectors in most economies and this varies across countries. In El Salvador, our study finds that men make more profits than women in all sectors with the exception of construction and electricity, gas and water supply. In the electricity, gas and water supply sector, women employers not only do better, they do significantly better. The mining sector on the other hand has no women employers while it remains a relatively lucrative sector for men.

Education helps advance women in business. We find that there are various gender differences in relation to education and profitability. While in El Salvador the level of education of men and women is similar, in Costa Rica, Panama and Chihuahua women have more years of education than men. Nevertheless, in all four cases, the average levels of profit from their businesses were less than men's. For example, in Panama the average monthly profits are higher for men own-account workers and employers by more than 78 per cent and 40 per cent, respectively, than for women. However, in Costa Rica, our study finds that women appear to benefit more than men from education with each additional year of education being associated with an average increase of a near 6 per cent in their hourly profits. The importance of the enabling business environment, one that is free from discrimination and violence, comes out in our study for Chihuahua where we see that women are less likely to be entrepreneurs despite their higher levels of education.

Professional experience counts too. The Costa Rican study demonstrates that the more experience women acquire running a business the more successful they become. The study finds that while enterprises from start-ups to those with 4 to 9 years of operation managed by men are more profitable than those run by women, mature enterprises managed by women with more years of education than men appear to be as profitable or even more than mature enterprises run by men.

Conclusion. The case studies stress the importance of examining various factors that influence the decision-making for women to run a business and the need to have comprehensive policies to shift the reality where businesses are set-up based on profitable opportunities rather than a basic survival strategy. The studies also posit that improving economic opportunities for business women not only benefits them and their families, but also their national economies and labour markets.

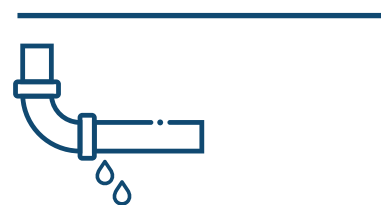
Source: ILO, 2019.

2.3 Chief executive level

Concerning women and the very top management positions, our survey sheds light on the existence of so-called “glass ceilings”, “glass walls” and “leaky pipelines”.

As illustrated in figure 2.2, the majority of enterprises in our survey employ women at lower and middle levels of management, but the proportion of enterprises drops off at higher levels, particularly at the top executive level. Thus women are lost from the “pipeline” that leads to more senior and executive management positions.

Looking at the most senior executive positions, the survey finds that globally over 78 per cent of enterprises report having a male CEO. Meanwhile, the share of enterprises with a female CEO shrinks as enterprises grow in size. For example, over 26 per cent of small enterprises have female CEOs, compared with 20 per cent of medium-sized enterprises and 16 per cent of large-sized enterprises (see figure 2.6, Panels A and B). Further analysis by economic sector is available in Annex II, figure A16.

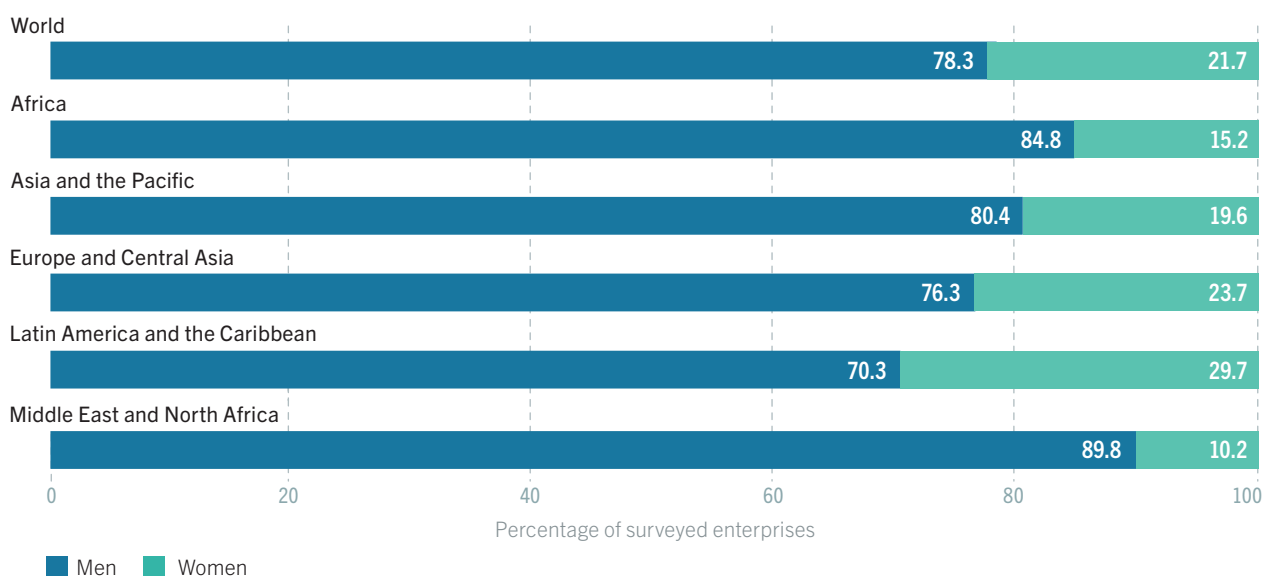


Women are lost from the “pipeline” that leads to more senior and executive management positions.

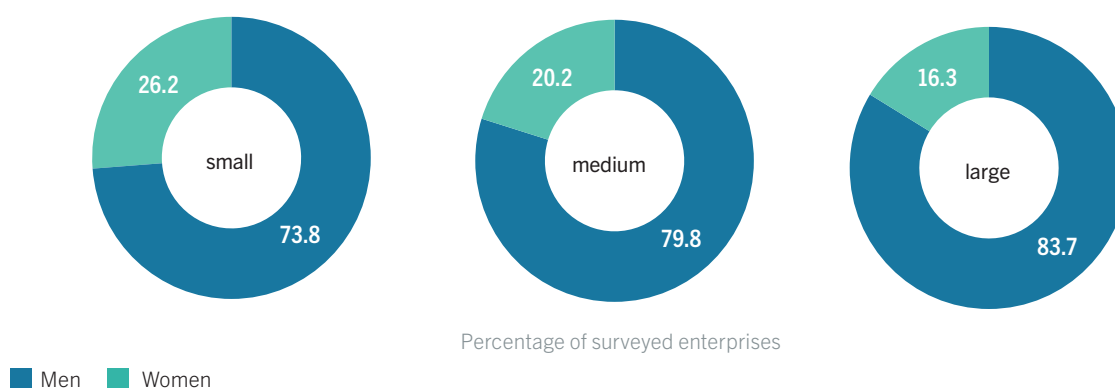
At the regional level, the highest share of enterprises with a female CEO came from Latin America and the Caribbean totalling almost 30 per cent. Europe and Central Asia had the second largest share of enterprises with a female CEO (23.7 per cent), followed by Asia and the Pacific (20.2 per cent), Africa (17.2 per cent) and Middle East and North Africa (10.2 per cent).

Figure 2.6 The gender of the CEO in enterprises (A) results by world and region and (B) results by enterprise size

Panel A. Results by region



Panel B. Results by enterprise size



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Our survey further shows that several factors enhance likelihood of an enterprise having a female CEO (see Annex II, table A6):

- When enterprises have an equal employment opportunity or diversity and inclusion policy in place, they are 3 per cent more likely to have a female CEO;
- When enterprises have experienced improved business outcomes as a result of gender diversity initiatives, they are 4 per cent more likely to have a female CEO; and
- When enterprises have more women in the workforce, they are significantly more likely to have a female CEO. Specifically, when women account for 30 to 39 per cent of the workforce, the likelihood of having a female CEO is 6 per cent higher. When the workforce is gender balanced, the enterprise is 15 per cent more likely to have a female CEO. When the workforce is dominated by women (making up 61 to 100 per cent of roles), the enterprise is 22 per cent more likely to have a female CEO.

Findings from our survey, together with other research, reveal similar results on the proportion of women in top executive positions. For example:

- The World Bank Enterprise Surveys² find that the share of enterprises with a woman as CEO or the top manager globally is 18 per cent, led by East Asia and the Pacific at 32.6 per cent. This is followed by Latin America and the Caribbean with 20.7 per cent, Europe and Central Asia at 18.9 per cent, Sub Saharan Africa with 15.6 per cent, South Asia at 11 per cent and Middle East and North Africa with 5.4 per cent (Annex II, figure A17 provides this information for countries by region) (World Bank, 2019b).
- Echoing our survey, the World Bank Enterprise Surveys indicate that more often than not, the larger the enterprise, the less likely it is that there will be a female CEO. Out of 79 countries for which data is available from 2013 to 2017, 61 countries had a lower share of women as top managers or CEOs for large enterprises compared to small enterprises (World Bank data for women as the top managers and CEOs by enterprise size and region is shown in Annex II, table A7).

² The World Bank Enterprise Surveys cover economic data on 135,000 firms in 139 countries.

- When examining available research for publicly listed companies and their appointment of women as CEOs, Morgan Stanley Capital International (MSCI) World Index reports a slight improvement in recent years. In 2016, MSCI 3.9 per cent of the CEOs of listed companies were women and this increased to 4.2 per cent in 2017 (Eastman, 2017).³

We examined publicly listed companies headed by a woman CEO by country. Given the lack of a single source, we compiled various data points showcasing the situation (see Annex II, table A8). Here, the percentage of female CEOs range from maximum 11 per cent for Spain to 0.4 per cent for Japan.

The difference between the share of women CEOs in publicly traded companies, which tend to be the largest companies in a given country, and the share in the sample our survey is likely a result of the relatively smaller enterprise size we targeted. Nevertheless, the figures reported for publicly listed companies further support the trend we found of larger enterprises having fewer female CEOs.

2.4 Talent pipeline leaking

Enterprises are making progress when it comes to having more women in their workforce. However, our survey results show that there is significant room for improvement when it comes to the representation of women in higher levels of the hierarchy. While enterprises are increasingly placing more women into middle and senior management positions, top executive and CEO positions are relatively male dominated, a result of the so-called “leaky pipeline”.

Gender representation in all corners of the human resource structure of an enterprise has an impact on where women are likely to be situated across the organization. For example, when the overall workforce is gender balanced, with 40 to 60 per cent of either sex, women are likely to be better represented in middle, senior and top management positions (see Annex II, table A9 for regression results). More specifically, our assessment shows that when the workforce is gender-balanced:

- Enterprises are 12.6 per cent more likely to have gender balance at middle management level;
- Enterprises are 7.5 per cent more likely to have gender balance at senior management level; and
- Enterprises are 10.6 per cent more likely to have gender balance in executive management positions.

Nevertheless, even for the enterprises that report gender balance across the workforce (as nearly a third of those surveyed did), the proportion of women declines as the level of management increases, as seen in table 2.1.

When the overall workforce is gender balanced, with 40 to 60 per cent of either sex, women are likely to be better represented in middle, senior and top management positions.

³ The *MSCI World Index* captures large and mid-cap representation across 23 developed markets and 24 emerging markets countries. With 2,778 constituents, the Index covers approximately 85 per cent of the global investable equity opportunity set.

Table 2.1 Share of women and men in different managerial positions when the enterprise workforce is gender-balanced (percentage)

	Junior management	Middle management	Senior management	Top executive
Women	13.0	10.5	8.2	5.1
Men	87.0	89.5	91.8	94.9

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

The World Bank Enterprise Surveys show a similar gap between the proportion of women employed by enterprises and their representation at the top management level (see table 2.2). Globally, nearly twice as many enterprises employ women as full-time workers in comparison to appointing them as top managers.

Table 2.2 Share of women as permanent full-time workers and in top management of enterprises, by world and region, latest available years (percentage)

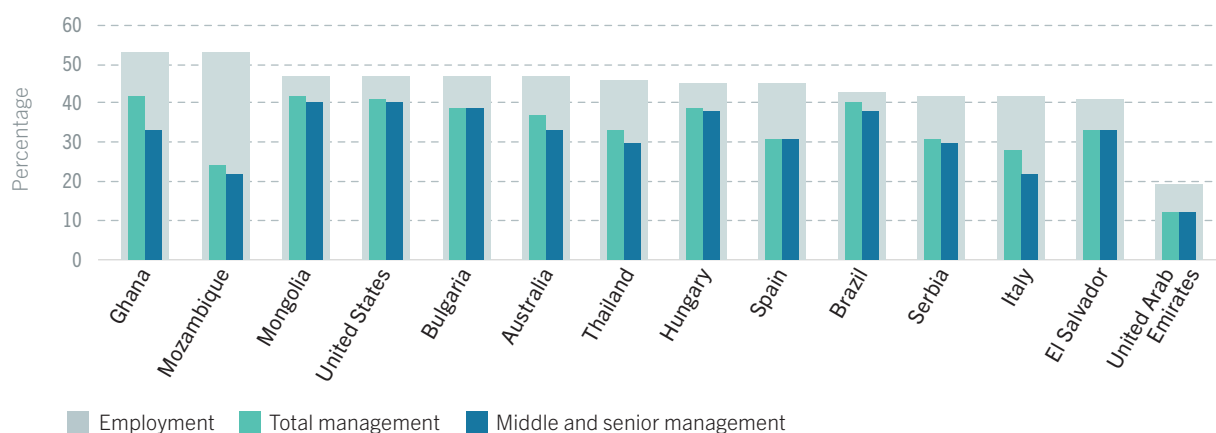
Regions	Women in permanent full-time workers	Women as top managers
World	30.5	18.0
East Asia and Pacific	37.6	32.6
Europe and Central Asia	37.8	18.9
Latin America and the Caribbean	33.3	20.7
Middle East and North Africa	17.6	5.4
South Asia	18.3	11
Sub-Saharan Africa	26.4	15.6

Source: World Bank, 2019b.

Regional ILO data show that, in many countries, the share of women in middle and senior management resembles the share in total management (see Annex II, figure A18).

Figure 2.7 shows that countries such as Brazil have a difference of less than 5 percentage points between women's share in employment, overall management and middle and senior management; in other words, there is a healthy pipeline of women managers who may later become top executives. But some countries still need to build up their pipeline in more junior management positions. For example, Mozambique reported a difference of approximately 30 percentage points between women's share in employment and their share in management overall and in middle and senior management.

Figure 2.7 Share of women in employment, in total management and in middle and senior management for selected countries, latest years



Note: Data are from 2017, except for Australia and Thailand (2016) and Ghana and Mozambique (2015).

Source: ILOSTAT.

In addition to a gender-balanced workforce, having a female CEO is positively associated with greater gender diversity at middle, senior and top management levels, indicating that the presence of a female CEO creates an incentive for gender equality (see Annex II, table A9, panel A, for regression results). For instance, when the CEO of an enterprise is a woman as opposed to a man:

- The enterprise is 3.2 per cent more likely to have gender balance at the middle management level;
- The enterprise is 6.6 per cent more likely to have gender balance at the senior management level; and
- The enterprise is 3.9 per cent more likely to have gender balance in executive management positions.

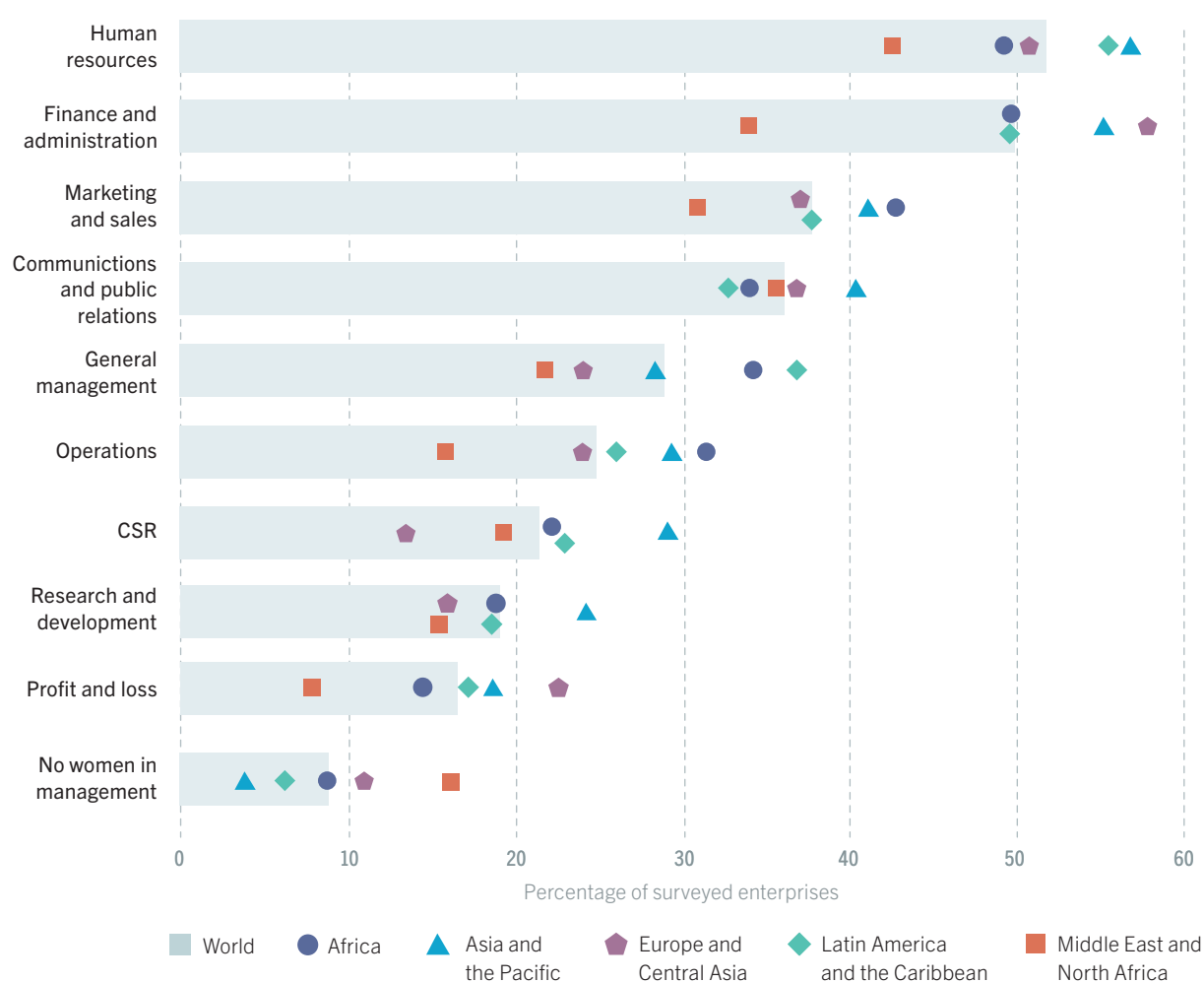
Interestingly, we find enterprises that have experienced a profit increase of over 10 per cent as a result of initiatives and policies on gender diversity are 3.3 per cent more likely to have balanced representation of women and men in middle management positions (see Annex II, table A9 panel B). In other words, enterprises that profit from gender diversity have a healthier pipeline of women in middle management who can progress to senior positions.

2.5 “Glass walls” hindering the pathway to the top

Our enterprise survey finds that women and men are concentrated in different management functions. Women are over-represented as managers in support management functions, such as human resources, and finance and administration. Meanwhile, men are over-represented in operations, research and development, and profit and loss management functions that are considered to be more strategic for enterprises and can often be a springboard to CEO or board-level positions. This confirms that so-called “glass walls” result in gender segregation in management functions, limiting the talent pool enterprises are able to tap into for candidates to fill top executive and CEO positions.

The top three functional areas where women are concentrated among global enterprises as middle and senior managers are human resources (51.8 per cent), finance and administration (49.8 per cent) and marketing and sales (37.8 per cent) as seen in figure 2.8. Assessing by region, a similar trend is observed with female managers concentrated in human resources and finance and administration. There are still regional differences, however. For example, enterprises in Latin America and the Caribbean reported employing the largest share of women as general managers (37.1 per cent), Asia and the Pacific reported the largest share of women managers in research and development (24.3 per cent), and Europe and Central Asia reported the largest share of women managers in profit and loss functions (22.7 per cent).

Figure 2.8 Share of enterprises with women in functional middle and senior management areas by world and region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

This gendered division of management functions raises issues around possible gender stereotyping during recruitment and promotion processes. It also suggests that women and men are pursuing different studies, and that the gendered division of work starts earlier than at the management level.

For example, according to Catalyst, the global organization that conducts research and provides solutions on women in leadership, women account for less than one third of jobs in scientific research and development in the United States. Additionally, women are less likely to enter and more likely to exit

technology-intensive business roles (Catalyst, 2018). In Canada, only 5 per cent of technology companies have a female founder or a female CEO and 53 per cent of women who start out in the technology sector depart for different industries (compared to 31 per cent of men) (#Move the Dial, 2017).

For enterprises, the solution to having a highly engaged and productive workforce lies in consciously and rigorously ensuring equal opportunities and equal treatment criteria for recruitment and promotion so that career paths do not diverge at early stages. While our survey indicates that over 73 per cent of enterprises globally have an equal opportunity or diversity and inclusion policy (see chapter 4), existing research suggests, at least statistically, that the policies are not delivering on results. For example, McKinsey and Company's 2017 report finds that, globally women are 18 per cent less likely to be promoted than their male peers, as women fall behind early and lose ground with every step of the pipeline (Krivkovich et al., 2017).

In sum, employees, managers, board members and shareholders are well positioned to address deeply embedded gender bias and challenge mind-sets in order to translate equal opportunity or diversity and inclusion policies into attractive career tracks for women and men that lead to business success.

2.6 Fixing the leaky pipeline

The middle and senior management cohort and their performance is vital to the success of an organization. Various factors affect the likelihood for women to be in middle and senior management roles that are considered to be more strategic in nature and that lead to top decision-making positions, plugging the leaky pipeline.⁴

Our survey finds that having a female CEO is associated with a higher probability for women to be in strategic middle and senior management functions (see Annex II, table A10). More specifically, when the CEO is a woman (in comparison with a man), enterprises are:

- 6.9 and 7.2 per cent more likely to have women in middle and senior management in profit and loss functions, respectively;
- 2.8 and 6.8 per cent more likely to have female middle and senior managers in operations, respectively; and
- 6.8 and 12.6 per cent more likely to fill middle and senior general management positions with women.

The positive impact is also observed when the board is chaired by a woman (in comparison with a man). Here enterprises are:

- 4.8 and 6.5 per cent more likely to have women middle and senior managers in profit and loss functions, respectively;
- 3.4 per cent more likely to have female middle managers in operations; and
- 4.9 per cent more likely to have women senior general managers.

⁴ For a full list of factors that have a statistically significant and positive correlation of women being in strategic positions (i.e. profit and loss functions, operations, general management), see Annex II, table A10. These factors include the enterprise being multinational and large, having enhanced their business outcomes as a result of gender diversity initiatives, having a gender-inclusive business environment and having a gender-balanced workforce.

In contrast, when the board of directors is all-male, enterprises are less likely to have women as middle or senior managers in strategic functions of the organization. In comparison to enterprises that have a woman on the board, all-male board enterprises are:

- 6.2 and 6.3 per cent less likely to have female middle and senior managers in profit and loss functions, respectively;
- 8 and 5.9 per cent less likely to have women middle and senior managers in operations, respectively; and
- 9.5 and 12.7 per cent less likely to have female middle and senior general managers, respectively.

The challenge is to find ways to enable enterprises to take advantage of the pull factor that seems to be present when more women are at the chief executive level and on boards on a wider scale. Around the world, enterprises have made considerable progress in getting more women onto boards (see chapter 3), and emerging research shows that additional business efforts made at the chief executive level with strategies to increase female CEO appointments would improve business outcomes more widely.



Findings

- More women as middle and senior managers and as business owners are growing the talent pool not only with their qualifications but also with decades of experience.
- Enterprises with policies such as equal opportunity and gender diversity are likely to have more women in management than those without.
- Enterprises with a gender-balanced workforce (40–60 per cent of either sex) are likely to have more women in management and as CEOs.
- The ILO enterprise survey shows that firms with a female CEO and a woman chairperson of the board are more likely to have women in middle and senior management performing functions related profit and loss functions, operations and as general managers.

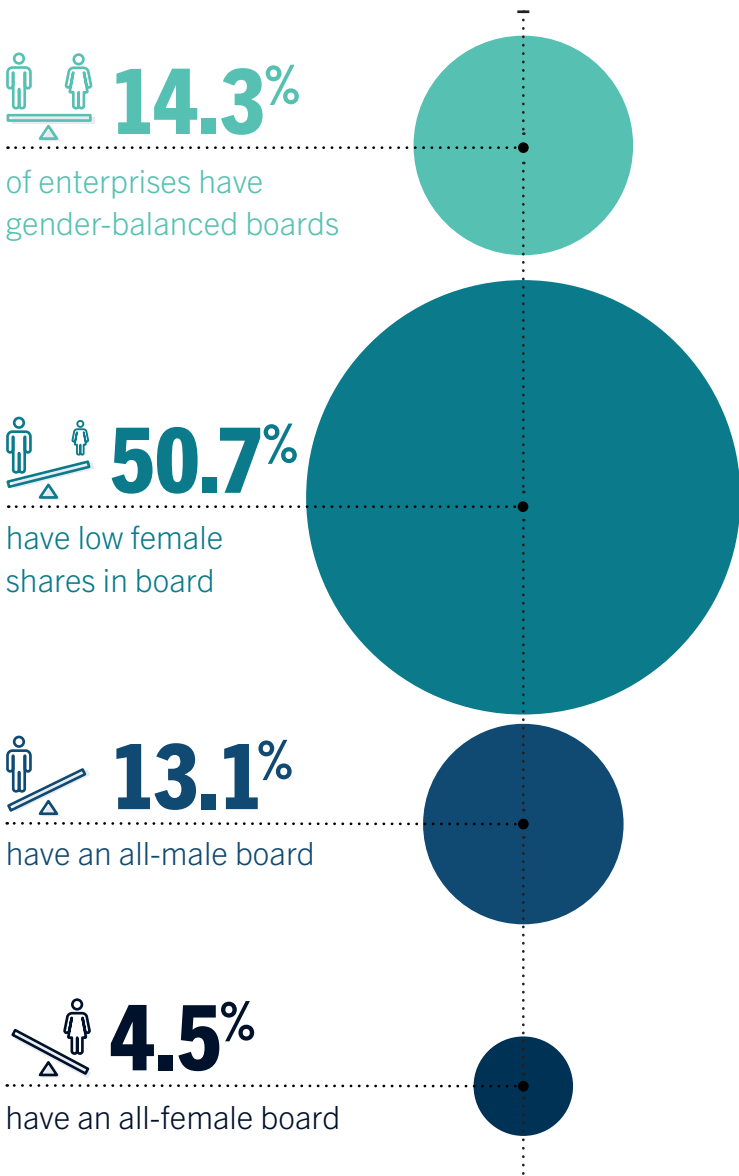
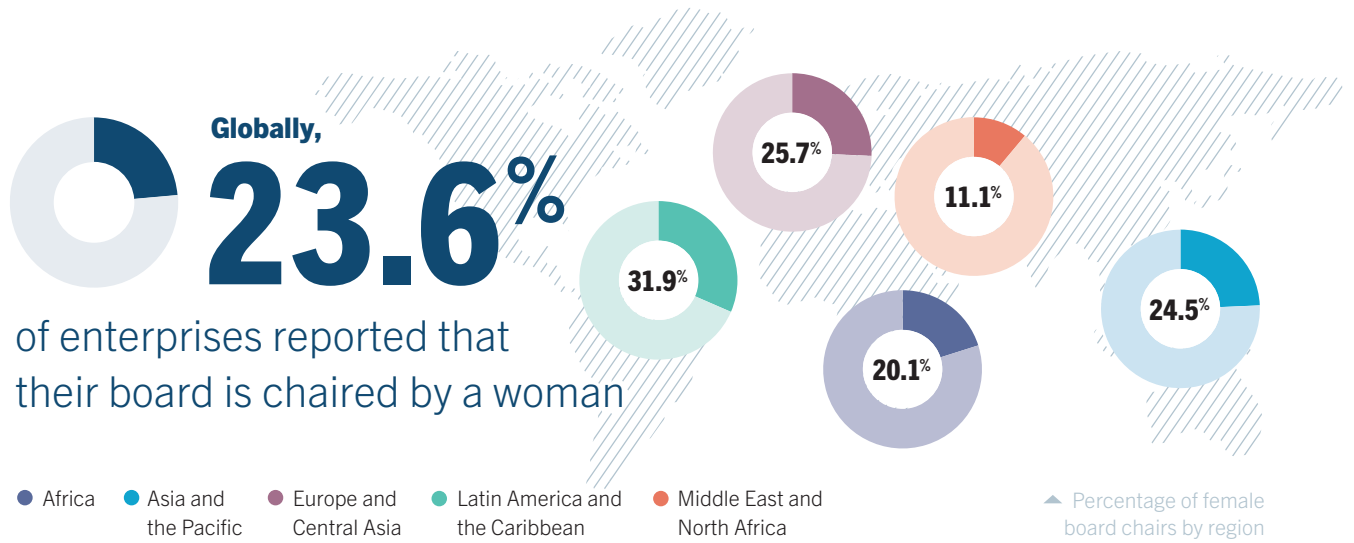
Challenges

- Still too few women as top managers and CEOs are limiting potential gains to enterprises.
- The leaky pipeline persists with high numbers of women employed and moving into junior and middle management, but not progressing to higher levels in critical mass.
- The gender division of management functions, i.e. women concentrated in support management and men in strategic management, also known as the “glass walls” is hindering women’s rise to top executive levels.

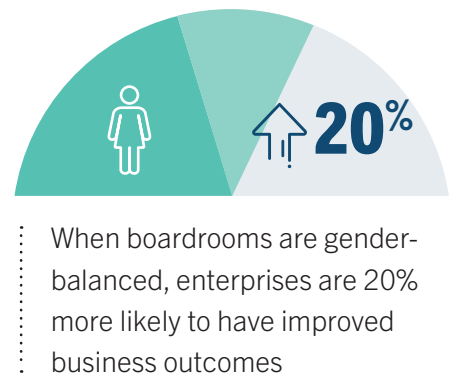
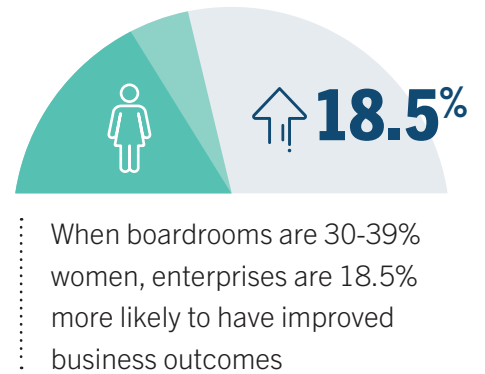
03

Gender diversity in the boardroom and corporate governance





Women on enterprise boards lead to improved business performance:



Boardrooms have become more diverse over the past decade when it comes to gender. The increasing share of women on boards has been driven by growing evidence on the business case for boardroom diversity, as discussed in Chapter 1, including increased profitability, improved governance and diversity of thought. In addition, some shareholders have promoted the agenda, and a number of countries have legislated quotas or targets to move the needle. Meanwhile, companies are increasingly setting up their own voluntary initiatives.

This chapter examines how far companies have progressed with their efforts to improve gender diversity on boards, women as board chairpersons, and how gender diverse boards impact other structures within the organization.

3.1 Women on boards

Studies suggest that enterprises need to reach a critical mass of women in top positions in order to reap the benefits of gender diversity, such as improved governance. Reaching this threshold allows a minority to exert their influence and ensure their voice is heard.

Defining a critical mass varies depending on the number of board members. In the United States, the board is usually around 7 to 9 members, hence three women members meets this criterion. Internationally, an increasing number of countries are using the 30 per cent figure due to targeted initiatives such as the 30% Club.¹

Of the nearly 70 per cent of enterprises we surveyed that have a board of directors, 14.3 per cent have attained a gender-balanced board of 40 to 60 per cent of either sex. An additional 17.4 per cent of enterprises say women account for between 30 and 39 per cent of their board roles. This means nearly one third of enterprises globally (31.7 per cent) have attained a critical mass of having at least 30 per cent of women on their boards (see figure 3.1).²

On the other hand, over 13 per cent reveal having an all-male board (i.e. zero females on the board). A further 29.5 per cent say women make up between 1 and 10 per cent of their board, followed by 21.2 per cent that indicate that women make up between 11 and 29 per cent of their board members. Overall, our computation shows that nearly two thirds (approximately 64 per cent) of enterprises do not have the critical mass of women on their boards needed to enhance their influence and better effect change.³

¹ The 30% Club is a campaign launched in 12 countries which encourages companies to have at least 30 per cent women on boards of directors and senior leadership positions. See <https://30percentclub.org/>

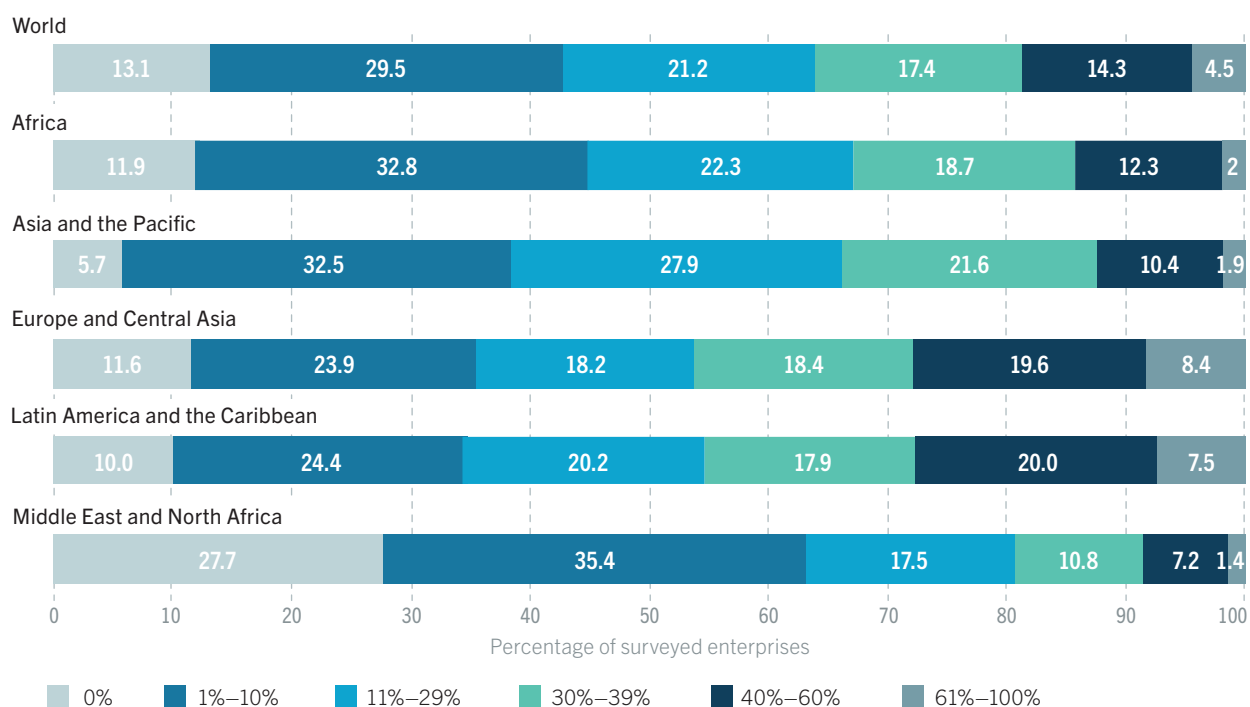
² We do not include enterprises who respond having 61–100 per cent women on their boards in this calculation of a critical mass (i.e. 30 per cent) in order to accurately assess the situation of enterprises with gender diverse boards.

³ Details of our survey finding related to the gender composition of enterprise boards by enterprise size and economic sector is available in Annex II, figure 3A.1.

Going into the regional landscape, Europe and Central Asia portrays the highest share of enterprises with critical mass. Combining the shares of enterprises reporting 30 to 39 per cent (18.4 per cent) and 40 to 60 per cent (19.6 per cent), approximately 38 per cent of enterprises in the region are better able to leverage the talent and experience of female presence on their boards. High numbers of enterprises in Latin America and the Caribbean (37.6 per cent), Asia and the Pacific (31.8 per cent) and Africa (30.8 per cent) also report having reached this target.

By contrast, the highest share of enterprises with all-male boards comes from the Middle East and North Africa (28 per cent), followed by Africa (12 per cent), Europe and Central Asia (12 per cent), Latin America and the Caribbean (10 per cent) and Asia and the Pacific (6 per cent). Additionally, at the sectoral level, the highest share of enterprises with all-male boards come from the construction industry (20 per cent), and enterprises in the education sector represent the lowest share of enterprises without women on boards (5 per cent) (see Annex II, figure A19).

Figure 3.1 Share of enterprises reporting the proportion of female board members, results by world and region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Through various sources, we examined the extent of women’s participation on boards of listed companies in selected countries from around the world (see Annex II, table A11). The share of women is generally lower compared to the findings of our survey as these represent the largest listed companies.

The percentage share of women on boards varies considerably between countries. For example, for the 28 European Union countries, while the average share of women on boards of the largest listed companies (i.e. blue chip of more than 50 companies) is 26.2 per cent, Iceland has the highest share of women board members at nearly 46 per cent followed by France with 44 per cent and Norway with 41 per cent.

In contrast, women make up on average less than 10 per cent of women on boards in companies in Estonia, Greece, Montenegro and Romania (European Institute for Gender Equality, 2019).

Other global and regional surveys examine the share held by women of all the board seats of surveyed companies. For example:

- According to MSCI All Country World Index survey as of October 2017, women held 17.3 per cent of all board directorships globally, which was an increase from 15.8 per cent of the year before. The report surveyed around 4,200 large, medium, and small enterprises with a market capitalization in developed and emerging markets (Eastman, 2017).⁴
- Corporate Women Directors International studied the 1,557 largest listed companies measured by market value in 20 countries in Asia and the Pacific. They found that women hold just 12.4 per cent of board seats (Gordon and Inagaki, 2017).

Interestingly, a few national reports show that women's representation on boards is growing with women accounting for an increasing percentage of new appointments. For example:

- The Australian Institute of Company Directors (2019) indicates that women made up 45 per cent of new appointments to boards of companies listed on the Australian Securities Exchange (ASX) 200 from January to December 2018.
- In the United States, Heidrick and Struggles "Board monitor 2018" finds that women accounted for 38 per cent of incoming board directors on Fortune 500 companies, an increase from 28 per cent the previous year.
- In Singapore, women made up a larger proportion of board appointments in the first half of 2018 for the top 100 listed companies with 24 per cent of board appointments being women, compared to 18 per cent in all of 2017 (Diversity Action Committee, 2018).

Similar to our survey, organizations and institutions are tracking the proportion of gender diversity on boards by examining the trend for all-male boards. Overall, studies show that the proportion of all-male company boards is declining albeit there are significant variations by country. For example:

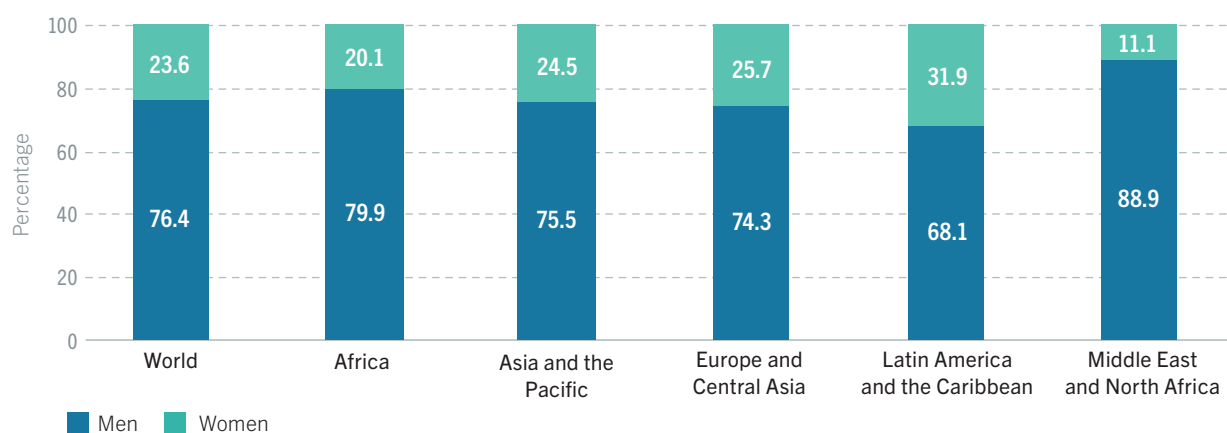
- In Australia, over the period 2015–18 the number of ASX 200 boards with no women dropped from 30 to 4 (Australian Institute of Company Directors, 2019).
- In Malaysia, there has been a dramatic decrease among the top 100 companies, with only seven reporting all-male boards in January 2018 compared to 20 in December 2016. The Malaysian Securities Commission aims to have zero all-male boards by the end of 2018 in line with the Corporate Governance Code adopted in 2017 (Securities Commission Malaysia, 2018).
- The Businesswomen's Association of South Africa (BWASA) reported that women held 19 per cent of board directorships in 2017, up from 13 per cent in 2008. At the same time, the share of listed companies with all-male boards decreased from 21 per cent to 16 per cent in the same period (BWASA, 2017).

⁴ MSCI All Country World Index is a market capitalization weighted index designed to provide a broad measure of equity market performance throughout the world.

3.2 Women as board chairpersons

The board chairperson oversees the highest standard of corporate governance and is responsible for leadership of the board. At the global level, among surveyed enterprises that have a board, we find that over 76 per cent report having a man as the chairperson of the board (see figure 3.2).

Figure 3.2 Gender distribution of board chairpersons, world results and results by region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

When comparing our survey to others that examine the largest-listed companies around the world, the number of women with board chairperson positions drops. For example, according to Deloitte, women accounted for less than 4 per cent of board chairs across nearly 7,000 companies in 44 countries in 2017 (Deloitte, 2017).

When further investigating the presence of women as board chairpersons of large listed companies in selected countries, the percentage share is generally less than 10 per cent (see Annex II, table A12). Across 28 countries in Europe, women held on average less than 8 per cent of board chairs of supervisory and executive boards combined. Of 249 listed companies across the Middle East and North Africa that had women on their boards, 4 per cent had women board chairs (Abouzaid, 2017). However, these low shares are often an improvement from previous years. For example, in South Africa, women made up about 7 per cent of board chairs of the Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE) 277 listed companies in 2017, up from 3 per cent in 2008.

3.3 Gender diversity on boards and its wider impact

Our survey finds that the gender composition of boards affects business outcomes of enterprises. More specifically, we find that as the proportion of female board members increases, the more likely it is for an enterprise to experience enhanced business outcomes (see Annex II, table A13). In particular:

- When boardrooms that consist of 30 to 39 per cent women, enterprises are 18.5 per cent more likely to have improved business outcomes;
- When boardrooms are gender-balanced, enterprises are likely to have the strongest performance: enterprises are almost 20 per cent more likely to have enhanced business outcomes; and
- When boardrooms are chaired by a woman, enterprises are 3.2 per cent more likely to have improved business outcomes.

In addition, our regressions show several factors increase the likelihood of the board being chaired by a woman (see Annex II, table A14). For example:

- An enterprise is 4.7 per cent more likely to have a female board chairperson when gender diversity initiatives have enhanced business outcomes;
- An enterprise is 4.2 per cent more likely to have a female board chairperson when an equal employment opportunity or diversity and inclusion policy is in place; and
- An enterprise is 17 per cent more likely to have a female board chairperson if the CEO is a woman.

Company size also matters. A large enterprise is 3 per cent less likely to have a female board chairperson than small or medium-sized enterprises.

Additional trends with respect to the incentive for gender equality generated by gender-balanced boards as well as a female board chairperson can be observed at the organization's operational level where we find a positive correlation with women in senior management and top executive positions (see Annex II, table A15). More specifically, when the board is gender-balanced:

- Enterprises are 3.1 per cent more likely to have women in senior management positions; and
- Enterprises are 6 per cent more likely to have women in top executive positions.

When the board is chaired by a woman:⁵

- Enterprises are 6.5 per cent more likely to have women in senior management positions; and



As the proportion of female board members increases, the more likely it is for an enterprise to experience enhanced business outcomes.

⁵ See Annex II, table A9. The relationship between a woman board chairperson and the likelihood for women to be in middle management is not statistically significant.

- Enterprises are 3.2 per cent more likely to have women in top executive positions (this holds at the 10 per cent significance level).

In contrast, we also find that enterprises with all-male boards have negative prospects of achieving a healthy balance of women and men in middle management. When there are no women on boards, enterprises are almost 8 per cent less likely to have gender balance in middle management.⁶

Women exerting influence at the board-level has been reported to have a wider business impact. For instance, 2020 Women on Boards, an organization in the United States, finds that the boards with female CEOs, board chairpersons, or nominating committee chairs are significantly more gender diverse than boards led by men. Of the *Fortune 1000* companies with a female CEO or board chairperson, 88 per cent and 86 per cent of companies respectively met or surpassed the organization's goal of having 20 per cent or more women on the board. This compares to 42 per cent of all *Fortune 1000* companies (2020 Women on Boards, 2016).

3.4 “Glass walls” on company boards

Companies have thus far focused their efforts on board diversity by getting more women onto boards, rather than by exploring how women can advance within board roles. Research shows that the phenomenon of “glass walls” – where women tend to be in support management rather than strategic management functions – exists at the board level as well.

Indeed, women are more likely to be non-executive than executive directors or on supervisory boards rather than executive boards in countries with two-tier board systems (for example in Germany and France). For instance:

- In the United Kingdom, for the FTSE 100 women held about 35 per cent of non-executive directorships and less than 10 per cent executive directorships in 2018. For the FTSE 250, women held 29 per cent of non-executive directorships and about 6 per cent of executive directorships (Vinnicombe, Doldor and Sealy, 2018).
- In South Africa, 14 per cent of women on boards are executive directors and 86 per cent are non-executive (BWASA, 2017).

Meanwhile, women are less likely than their male counterparts to be members of, or to chair, the more significant board committees, limiting their influence and eventually their positive contribution to business outcomes.

A survey by the MIT Sloan Management Review of Fortune 500 boards found that around 58 per cent of boards have at least one woman chairing a committee, but not the most influential committees. Only 21 per cent of nominating or corporate governance committees are chaired by women. Even less common are female chairs for audit committees (18 per cent), compensation committees (13 per cent), or executive committees (5 per cent) (Whitler and Henretta, 2018).

⁶ The relationship between all-male boards and the likelihood for women in senior and executive management positions is not statistically significant.

3.5 Initiatives to advance gender diversity on boards

Quotas, disclosures and voluntary initiatives

Quota bills for gender diversity on boards for state-owned or publicly listed companies or both have been presented and debated. Proponents of gender quota systems argue that such a target drives change in boardrooms and improves gender equality throughout an organization. But some argue that quota systems can encourage the hiring of inexperienced women or lead to a perception that women are hired through preferential selection despite their high qualifications.

The application of quotas is complex and country comparisons are difficult: datasets differ by country, as do boardroom structures.

For example, a gender quota adopted in Germany in 2016 of 30 per cent women on boards applies only to supervisory or administrative boards, not executive or management boards. Now, almost two thirds of companies in the country have at least 30 per cent women board members. Nevertheless, women accounted for only 8 per cent of executive board members of the largest 200 revenue-generating companies. With or without quotas, there is a tendency for women to be appointed more often as non-executive members (Holst and Wrohlich, 2018).

Panama introduced a new quota law in 2017, which applies to corporate boards of public entities and certain private entities and dictates that at least 30 per cent minimum of the boards of directors must be women by 2020. Companies must also publish annual reports on their progress on their web site. The law requires companies to ‘comply or explain’, meaning that in case of non-compliance, the company will not face sanctions but must provide explanations as to why the quota was not met (Castillo, 2018).

The state of California in the United States also passed a quota for publicly traded companies headquartered in the state to have at least one woman on their boards of directors by the end of 2019. The threshold will rise to two women by the end of July 2021 for boards of five members, or three women for boards of six or more members. Unlike in Panama, companies that fail to comply face fines of US\$100,000 for a first violation and US\$300,000 for a second or subsequent violation (Mirvis and Schwartz, 2018).

In certain countries, some stock exchange regulators have included gender diversity in corporate governance codes, requiring listed companies to have a policy, report on outcomes and to explain any lack of progress. For example, in Canada, the Ontario Securities Commission created a “comply or explain” rule in 2014 that requires companies to develop a gender diversity policy or explain why they have failed to, which in turn has had an impact on women’s representation on FP500 boards. Similarly, in 2015, JSE in South Africa introduced a rule requiring securities issuers to have a policy for the promotion of gender diversity at the board level and disclose their performance against it (Sustainable Stock Exchanges (SSE), 2017).

The United States Securities and Exchange Commission has proxy disclosure rules requiring publicly listed companies to outline their approach to diversity, including when appointing directors. However, an analysis of such disclosures by companies listed on the Standard and Poor (S&P) 100 index found that companies usually define diversity in terms of skill sets rather than socio-demographic factors. This

has meant both regulators and investors are pushing for more diversity on company boards in terms of gender, race and ethnicity (KPMG and Women Corporate Directors Foundation, 2017).

In other countries efforts towards voluntary self-regulation are the preferred option. For instance, Finland achieved a high share of women on boards of listed companies at 27 per cent in 2017, without quotas or mandatory legislation. The Finland Chamber of Commerce “Women Leaders Program” reports that this has been achieved through enterprise-led initiatives and self-regulation (FINNCHAM, 2017). In Australia, women accounted for approximately 30 per cent of board positions on the ASX top 200 companies in 2018, up from 19 per cent in 2015 through a non-binding target of 30 per cent set by the Australian Institute of Company Directors (2018).



In some instances, initiatives as well as legislation designed to boost the number of women on boards have produced unintended results, such as firms delisting rather than complying or a small group of senior women picking up board position after board position. This phenomenon of women holding multiple directorships on different boards is referred to as “golden skirts” or as the “stretch factor”.

Deloitte calculates the stretch factor by dividing the number of board seats occupied by women in a given country by the total number of women on boards in that particular country. A stretch factor of 1 indicates that all board seats in a given sample are held by different women. A high stretch factor means that the number of board seats occupied by the same woman director is high. In 2017, Deloitte shows that France (1.48), followed by Australia (1.41), United States (1.34) and South Africa (1.32) have the highest stretch factors (Deloitte, 2017).

Measures such as laws and voluntary initiatives to accelerate the inclusion of women on boards for selected countries around the world are available in Annex II, table A16.

National stock exchanges pushing for gender diversity and investors wanting change

Bodies regulating national stock exchanges, such as national securities commissions, are increasingly publishing data on women on the boards of listed companies and including gender diversity in corporate codes of governance. Panama has made efforts to monitor compliance with laws and regulations (Superintendencia del Mercado de Valores República de Panamá, 2018).

The Sustainable Stock Exchanges (SSE)⁷ initiative published a report examining the state of gender equality in the private sector, with an analysis of stock exchange practices in 13 markets. The review found that many exchanges are taking action to address gender equality, providing examples from which other exchanges can learn. Half of the exchanges interviewed had a listing standard related to gender, and two offered investment products that screen constituents using gender-specific metrics (SSE, 2017).

The SSE also notes that growing investor demand for sustainability-themed bonds has led the International Capital Market Association to issue new guidelines – the Social Bond Principles – in 2018. Referencing gender, the Women’s Livelihood Bond, listed on the Singapore Exchange in August 2017, and QBE Insurance Gender Equality Bond, launched in Australia in 2017, are two examples of gender-themed bonds (SSE, 2018).

The issue is becoming more prominent among investors. According to a report from Russell Reynolds Associates, boards and governance committees in certain markets should expect pushback against directors where there are fewer than two women on the board. The report also note that in 2017, State Street Global Advisors, the investment management division of State Street Corporation, voted against the re-election of directors at about 400 companies due to their failure to address the gender diversity deficit on their boards. In 2019, Glass Lewis, a provider of global governance services, will also start recommending investors to vote against the nominating committee chairs of companies with no female directors (Russell Reynolds Associates, 2018).

⁷ The SSE is a United Nations partnership of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development, United Nations Global Compact, United Nations Environment Programme Finance Initiative, and the Principles for Responsible Investment.



Findings

- There are more women on boards and more boards with women.
- More boards are reaching a 30 per cent critical mass of women. One third of respondents to the ILO enterprise survey have a board composition with at least 30 per cent women.
- All-male boards are on the decline, but they still exist and represent 13 per cent of the responses to the ILO enterprise survey.
- The ILO enterprise survey shows that gender balanced boards are 20 per cent more likely to have enhanced business outcomes compared to those with fewer women on their boards. In addition, when there is gender balance on the board, the enterprise is more likely to have women in senior management and in top executive positions.
- Alternatives to quotas gaining popularity include “comply or explain” commitments, and rules of national stock exchange regulators.

Challenges

- “Glass walls” are limiting women’s influence in boardrooms due to the lack of a critical mass, women’s absence from key committees, the low number of women appointed as board chairpersons, and women serving as non-executive board members.
- Quotas and other measures are still being adopted or are under consideration to improve gender diversity in boards. However, there is more work to be done to determine whether the use of quotas through legal regulations are effective in delivering the intended result.

04

Transforming the wider business environment





of respondents agree that women have greater difficulty reaching top-management positions

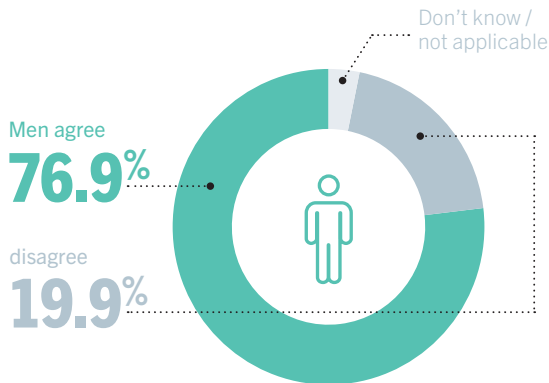
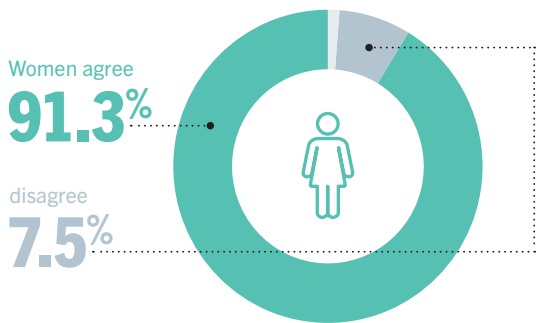
When analyzed by gender:



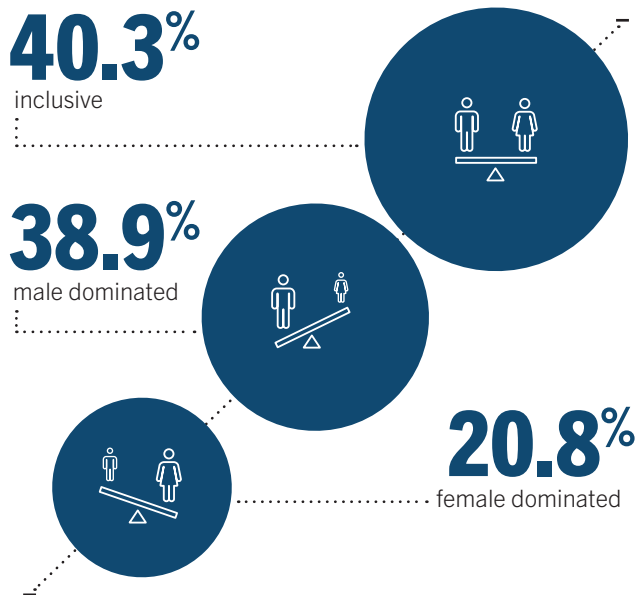
The majority of survey respondents agree that their organizational culture mirrors the society and traditions



When analyzed by gender:



When examining global responses to gender diversity in organizational culture:



Responses for "strongly agree" and "agree" are combined, responses for "strongly disagree" and "disagree" are also combined.

Enterprises globally have come a long way towards closing the gender gap, with efforts ranging from enhanced recruitment practices and company policies, to commitments from senior leadership to accelerate a change in values and behaviours. While wider societal and cultural factors influence how diversity of experience and thought is valued, the social environment of an individual enterprise – the so-called “organizational culture” – must be shaped by the company itself.

This chapter looks at what can be done practically to support gender diversity and an inclusive corporate culture. Understanding gender bias in the workplace and the gender pay gap are key areas along with human resources management measures.

4.1 Shaping a gender-inclusive organizational culture

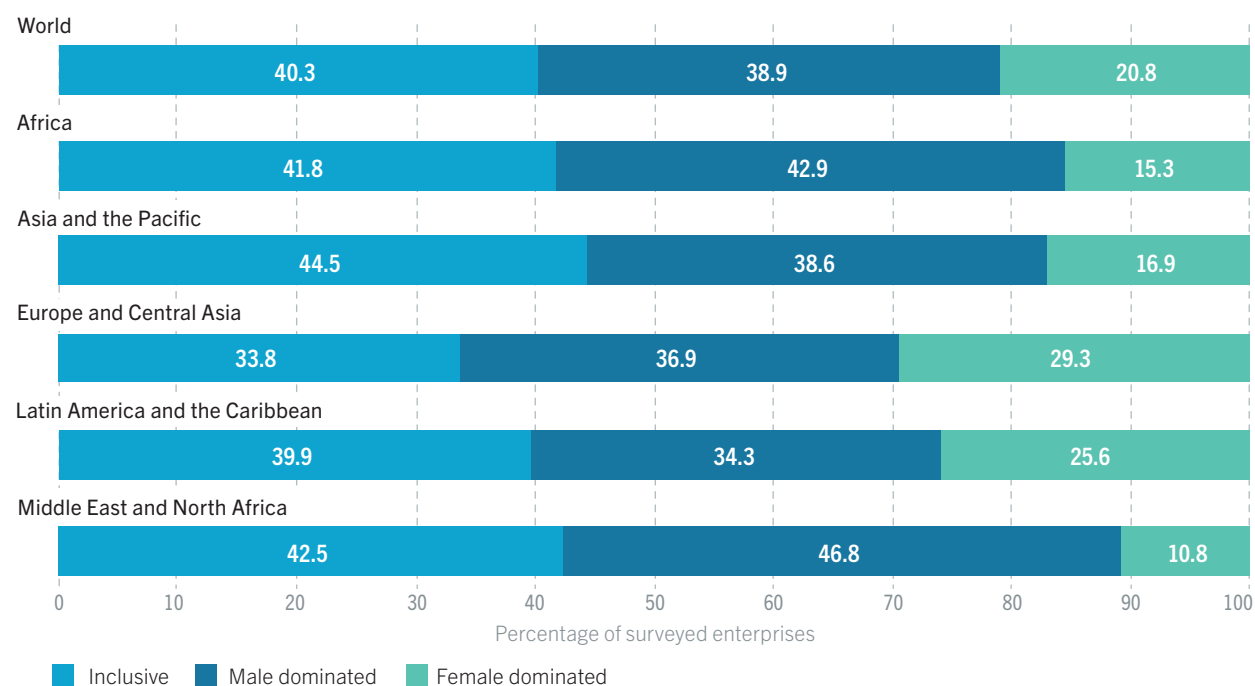
Our survey asked enterprises about workplace culture and beliefs. In particular, they were asked to assess their company culture on gender diversity as “inclusive”, “male dominated” or “female dominated”. While there is no internationally accepted definition of a gender-inclusive culture, we consider a workplace gender-inclusive when both men and women can generate meaningful change through ideas, decision-making and performance. Enterprises that are dominated by one gender are not considered gender-inclusive.



The survey findings on this question inevitably reflect the subjective views of individual respondents. Nevertheless, considering that our survey targeted decision-makers of enterprises who were 60 per cent male and 40 per cent female, we can draw some insight from the findings.

When examining the global responses, on average 40 per cent indicate that their enterprise culture is gender-inclusive while almost 39 per cent say that it is male dominated and 21 per cent say that it is female dominated (see figure 4.1).

Figure 4.1 Assessment of gender diversity in organizational culture, results by world and region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Deeper analysis into enterprise culture when controlling for specific attributes delivers interesting results. For example:

- Over 90 per cent of respondents who indicated their company culture is male dominated also indicated the CEO is a man.
- Over 87 per cent of respondents who indicated their company culture is male dominated also indicated that the chairperson of their board is a man.
- When the enterprise culture is male dominated, there is a significantly higher probability that the enterprise has zero women on the board (22 per cent of enterprises) compared with enterprises with a gender-inclusive culture (8 per cent of enterprises) or enterprises with a female dominated culture (4 per cent of enterprises).
- When the enterprise culture is male dominated, our estimations show that enterprises are almost 20 per cent more likely to have all-male boards and 24 per cent less likely to have a female chairperson (see Annex II, table A17).

- Enterprises with a gender-balanced board of directors are 4 per cent more likely to indicate that their culture is gender-inclusive (see Annex II, table A18).

To supplement the findings, we further analysed whether or not the gender inclusivity of enterprise culture impacts the positions women hold in management (see Annex II, table A19). Our regressions show that when an enterprise culture is gender-inclusive:

- Enterprises are 9 per cent more likely to have women in middle management;
- Enterprises are 11.6 per cent more likely to have women in senior management; and
- Enterprises are 11.5 per cent more likely to have women in top executive positions.

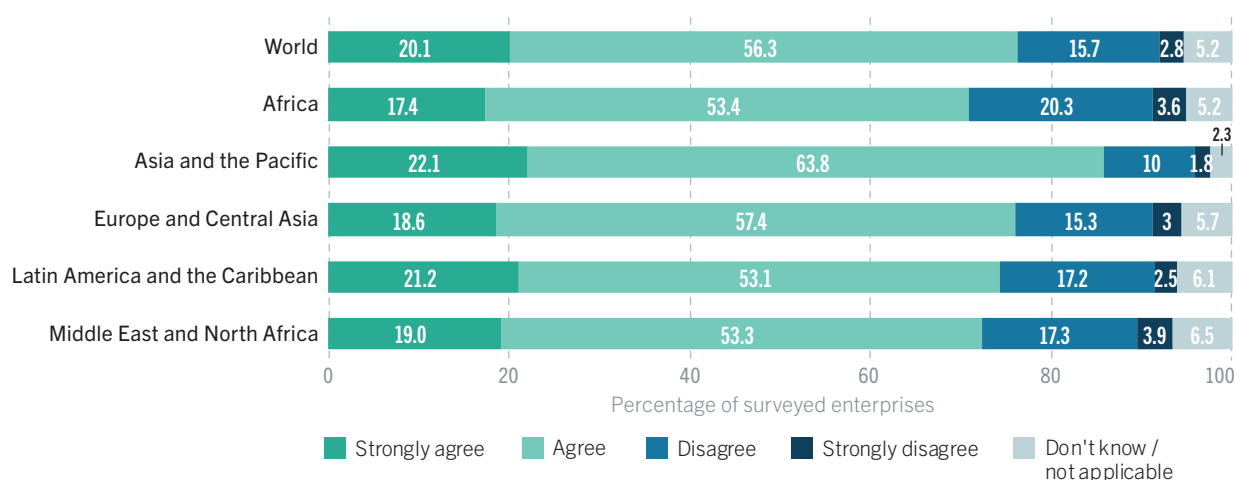
Enterprises with a gender-inclusive culture are approximately 9 per cent more likely to have improved business performance than those without.

In addition, as shown in Chapter 1, enterprises with a gender-inclusive culture are approximately 9 per cent more likely to have improved business performance than those without.

Shaping a gender-inclusive corporate culture and improving business competitiveness involves eliminating gender bias within an enterprise. As a result of early education on gender roles from their families, schools and society, most men and women have engrained biases towards the opposite sex as well as their own sex. These biases can impact decisions made at the enterprise level in terms of evaluating an individual’s suitability in recruitment and promotion, work assignments and training and mobility.

Globally, our survey finds that the large majority (approximately 77 per cent) of respondents agree or strongly agree that their corporate culture mirrors the traditions and social norms of their society, with female respondents agreeing more strongly than male respondents (see figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2 Share of survey respondents who agreed that their organizational culture mirrors the society and traditions, world results and by region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

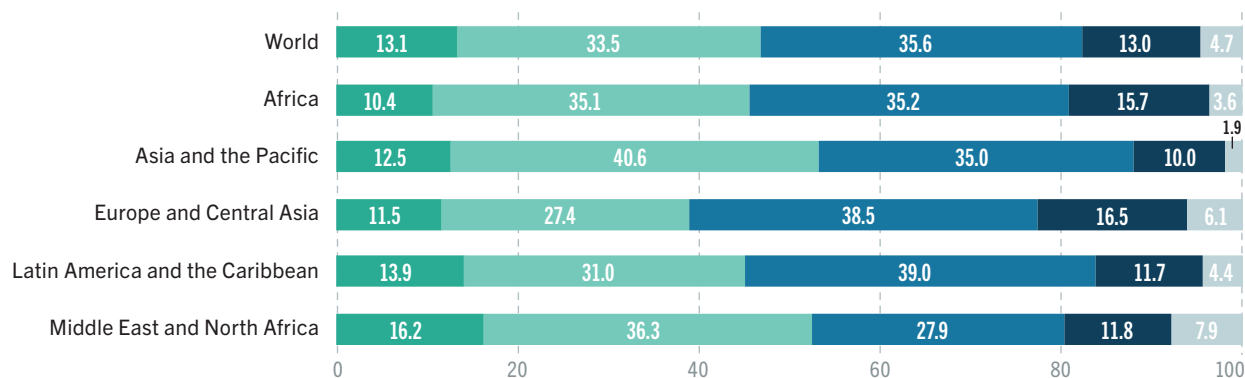
While enterprises are not necessarily the cause of gender bias, they can choose not to reinforce it and limit its detrimental effects through their human resource management systems as well as with advocacy messages from top management.

A symptom of gender bias can be found in one of the survey findings. Almost half of enterprise respondents (46.6 per cent) agree or strongly agree that women with equal skills and qualifications to men face greater difficulties reaching top management positions. At the same time over 80 per cent of respondents agree or strongly agree that women lead just as effectively as men (see figures 4.3 and 4.4).

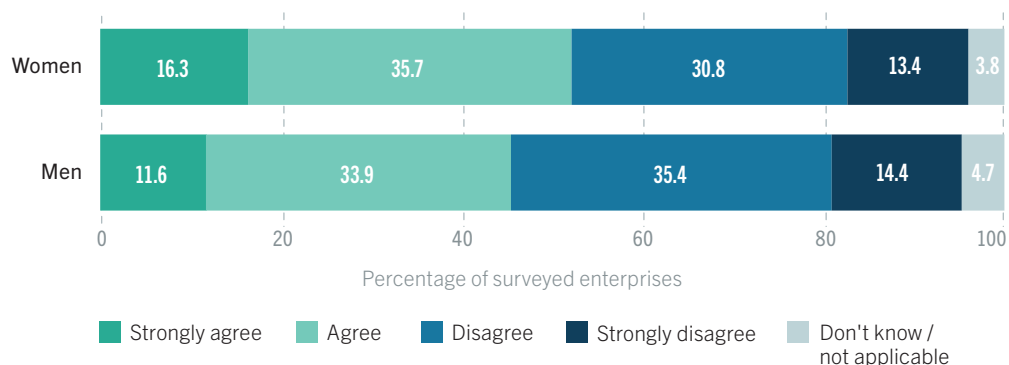
However, when we consider the gender of the respondent, we see that more female respondents tend to agree or strongly agree (52 per cent) that women with equal skills and qualifications encounter greater difficulties reaching top management compared with their male counterparts. By contrast, 45.5 per cent of male respondents think this is the case, showing that there are gendered differences in views. This gap widens when assessing effective leadership. While over 91 per cent of female respondents agree or strongly agree that women lead as effectively as men, approximately 77 per cent of male respondents agree with this statement.

Figure 4.3 Share of survey respondents who agreed that women face greater difficulties reaching top-management positions with equal skills and qualifications, (A) results by world and region and (B) results by gender

Panel A. Results by world and region



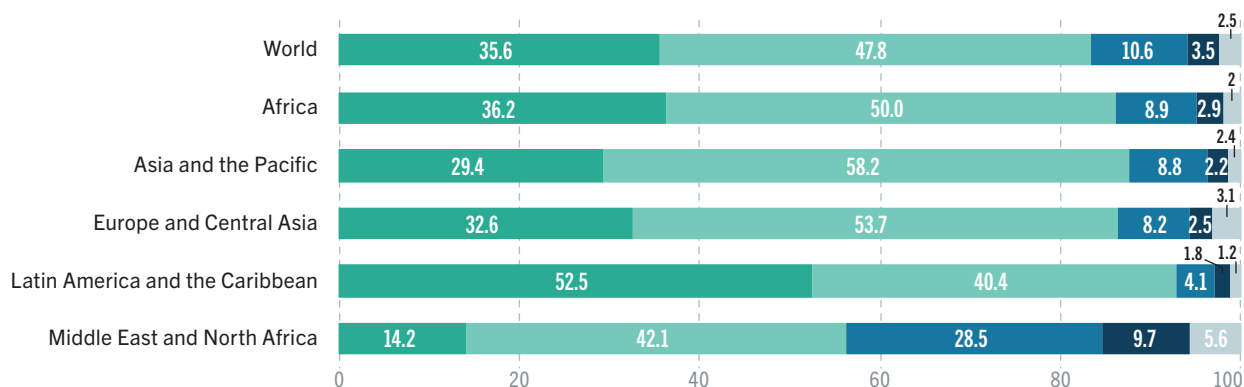
Panel B. Results by gender



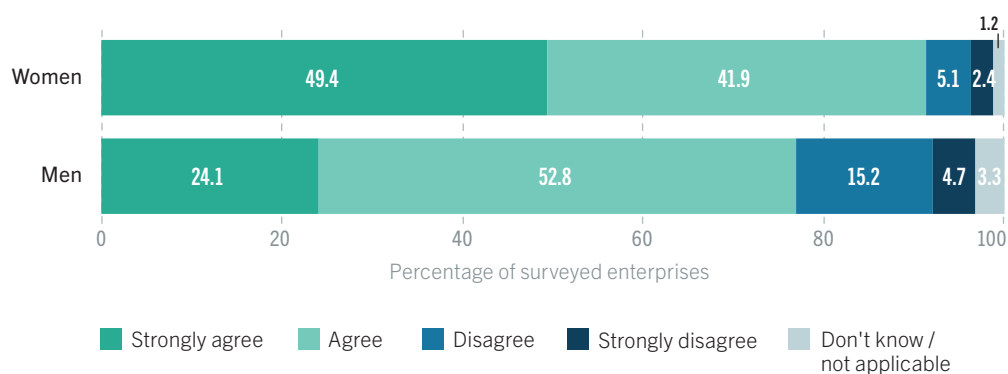
Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Figure 4.4 Share of survey respondents who agreed that women lead just as effectively as men, (A) world results and by region (B) results by gender

Panel A. World results and by region



Panel B. Results by gender

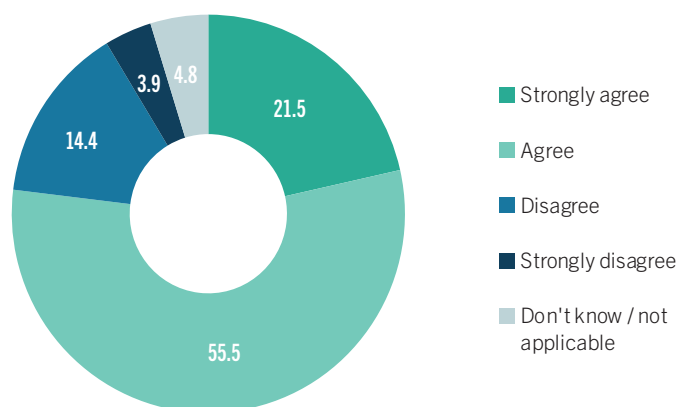


Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

The requirement of constant availability is another aspect of enterprise culture that can challenge an individual’s ability to maintain a work-life balance and carry out family responsibilities. In today’s world of ubiquitous digital connectivity, out-of-hours work is becoming a regular feature in many people’s lives. This can affect women more than men as they often assume the main tasks of family and household care.¹ Nevertheless, our survey finds that the majority of enterprise respondents (77 per cent) agree or strongly agree that a top-level career implies “anytime, anywhere” availability to work and geographical mobility (see figure 4.5).

¹ The ILO estimates that women perform 76.2 per cent of total amount of unpaid care work, 3.2 times more than men (ILO, 2018b).

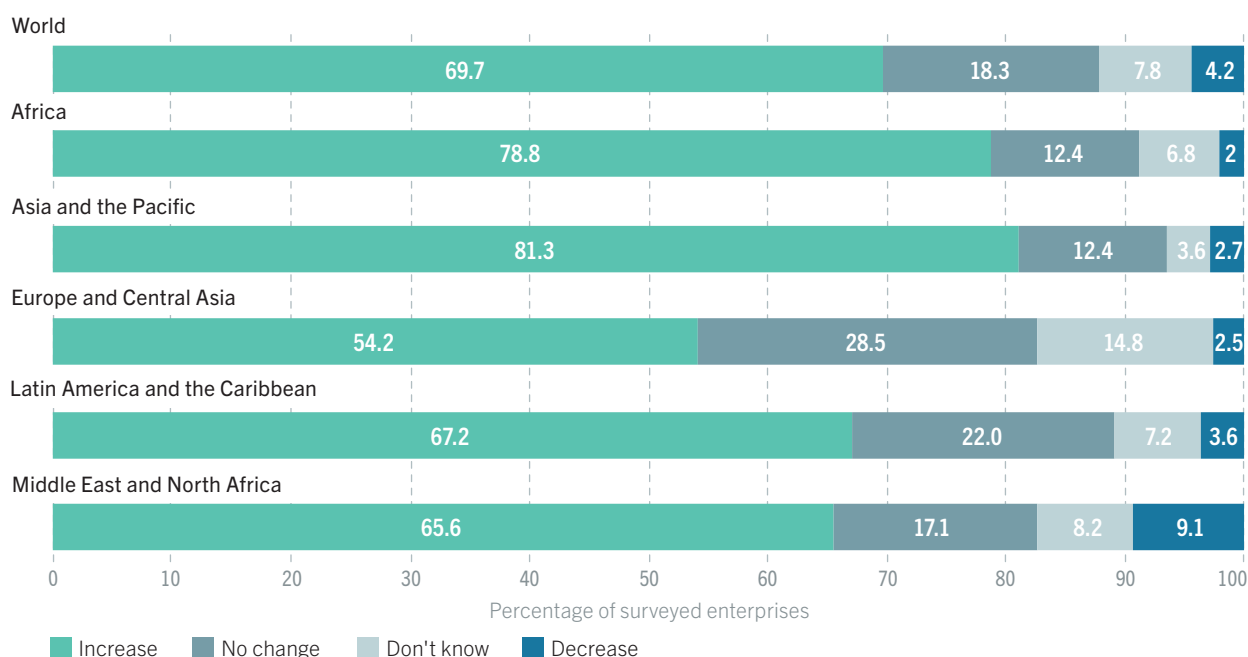
Figure 4.5 Share of survey respondents who agreed that a top-level career implies “anytime, anywhere” availability to work and geographical mobility



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Changing an “always-available” enterprise culture is critical for improving work-life balance and productivity. Additionally, instead of relying on “face time” and physical presence at the workplace, some enterprises are introducing systems and technologies that focus on capturing employee performance or productivity in tandem with flexible work arrangements. This could be as effective and sustainable as the “anytime, anywhere” approach, or perhaps even more effective and sustainable (Diab, 2016; Financial Times, 2018). Of over 61 per cent of enterprises surveyed who offer flexible work and/or remote or telework, nearly 70 per cent report to have experienced increased productivity (see figure 4.6).

Figure 4.6 Share of survey respondents who experienced changes in productivity as a result of flexible work and/or remote or telework arrangements by world and region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

4.2 Reducing the pay gap

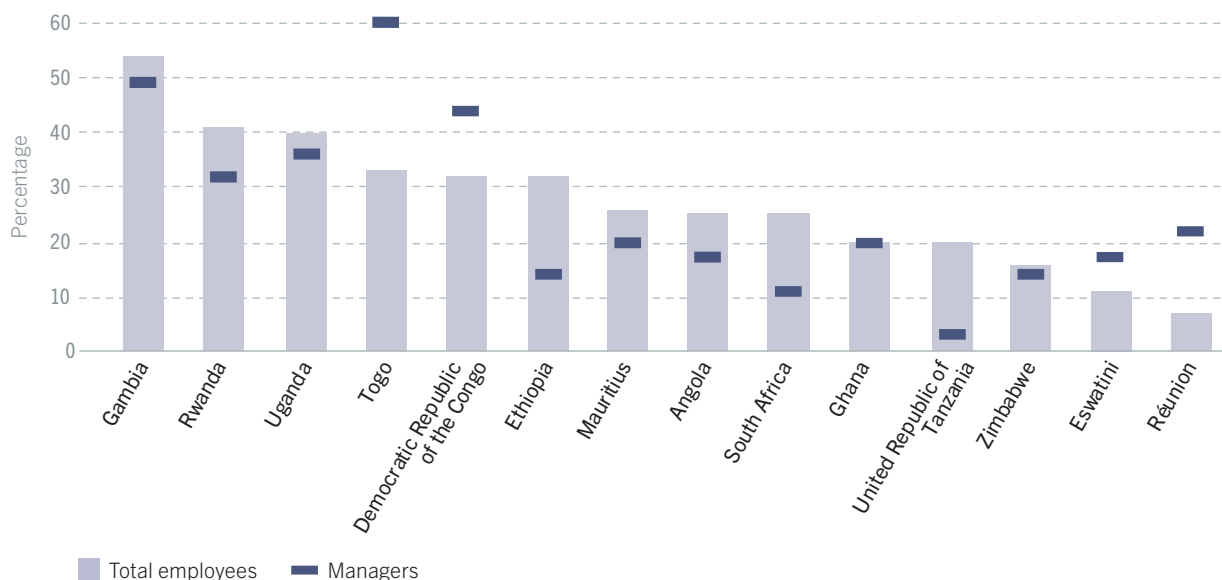
The gender pay gap is a measurable indicator of inequality, and it captures the difference in pay between men and women. While the gender pay gap has declined in some countries over time, it remains significant overall. According to weighted global estimates of the ILO in 2018, the gender pay gap globally is 22 per cent in terms of median monthly wages (ILO, 2018c).

In most countries, there is a gender pay gap at the management level as well as for workers overall.² ILO data show that the gender pay gap within the ranks of management ranges from 0 to 60 per cent globally (see figure 4.7, panels A to E). The pay gap for managers can be larger or smaller than the overall pay gap of total employees. Of the 93 countries for which data are available, the gender pay gap is higher for managers than for total employees in 43 countries. In the same number of countries, however, the opposite is true, and in seven countries, there is no difference between the pay gap for total employees and managers.

However, there are variations between regions. In the Americas and Europe and Central Asia, more countries had a higher gender pay gap for managers than for total employees, while in Asia and the Pacific and Africa, more countries had a lower gender pay gap for managers.

Figure 4.7 Gender pay gap among managers and total employees for countries by region, latest years, (A) Africa, (B) Americas, (C) Asia and the Pacific, (D) Europe and Central Asia and (E) Middle East and North Africa

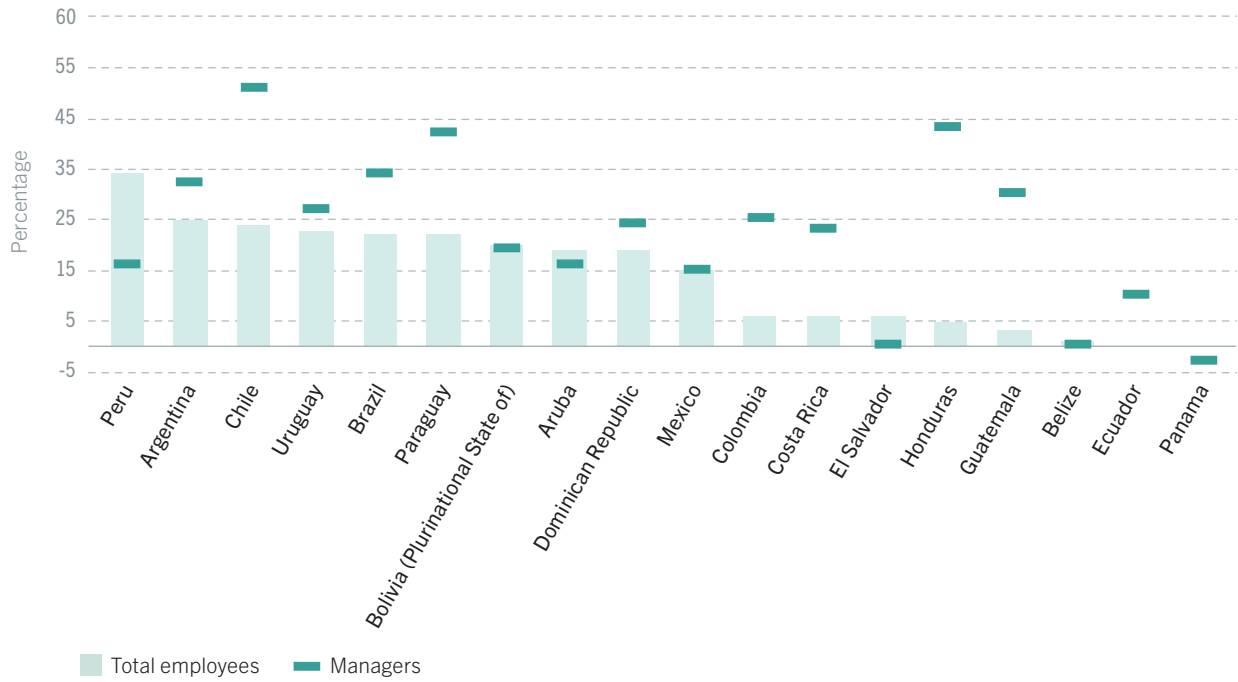
Panel A. Africa



Note: Data are from 2017, except for Angola and Zimbabwe (2011), the Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Gambia and Réunion (2012), Ethiopia, Ghana and South Africa (2013), the United Republic of Tanzania (2014), Togo (2015) and Eswatini (2016).

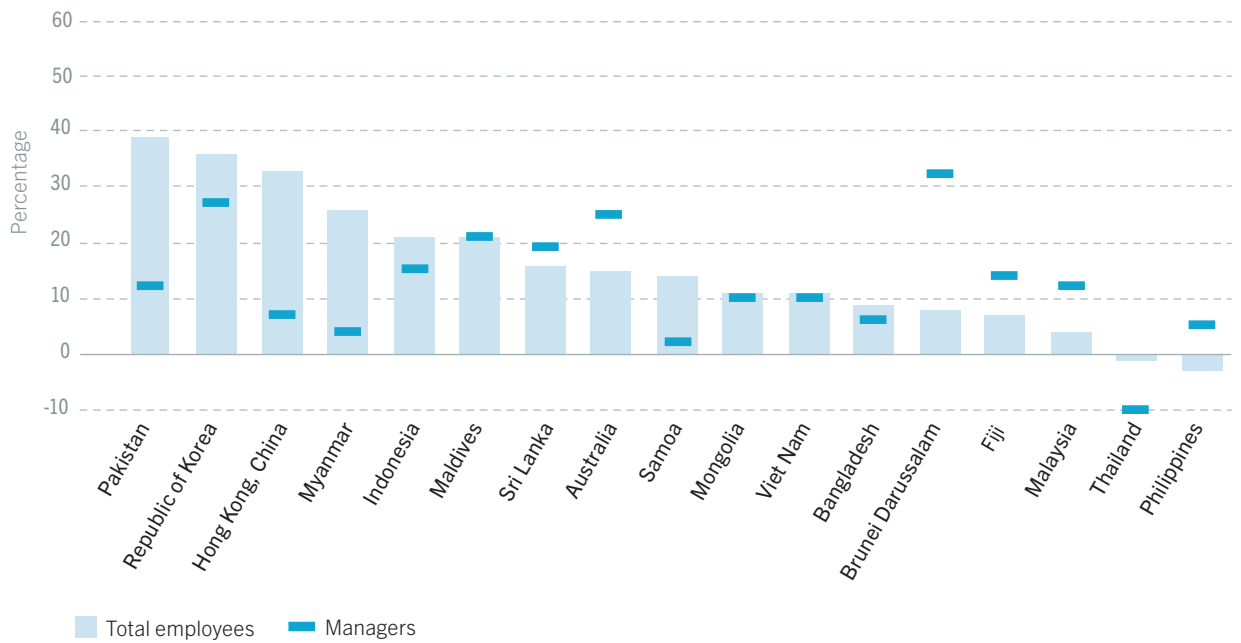
² To compare managerial and total employee gender pay gaps, mean nominal monthly earning by sex and occupation is used where data are available. The earnings of employees relate to the gross remuneration in cash and in kind paid to employees, as a rule at regular intervals, for time worked or work done together with remuneration for time not worked, such as annual vacation, other type of paid leave or holidays.

Panel B. Americas



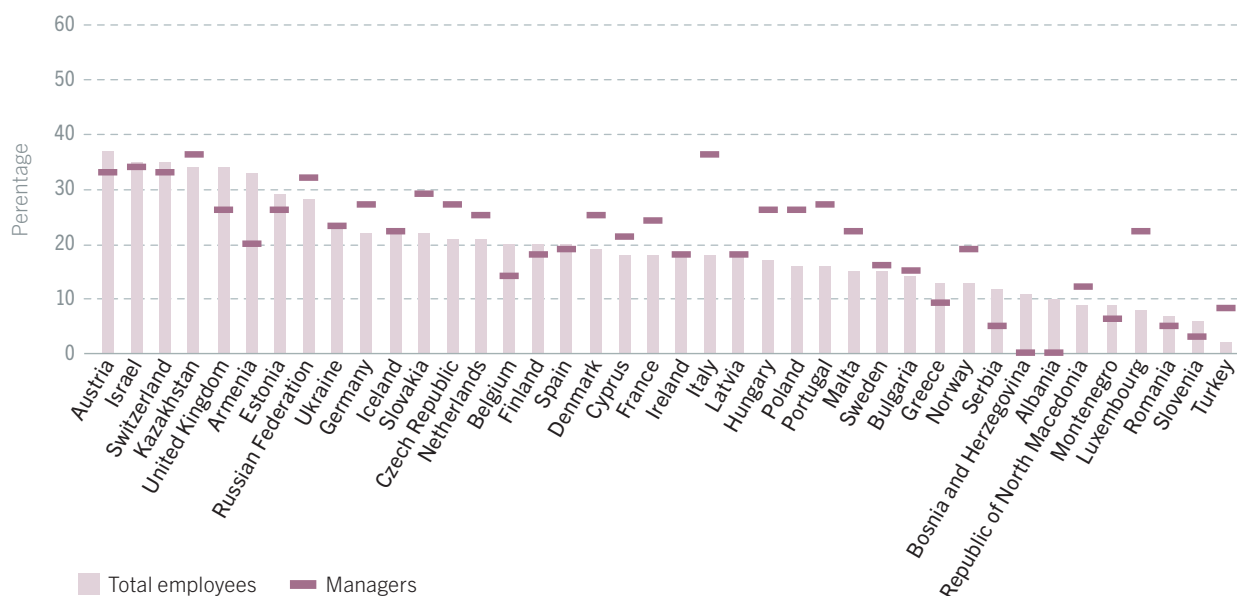
Note: Data are from 2017, except for Colombia (2009), Aruba (2010), Chile (2015), Belize and Guatemala (2016).

Panel C. Asia and the Pacific



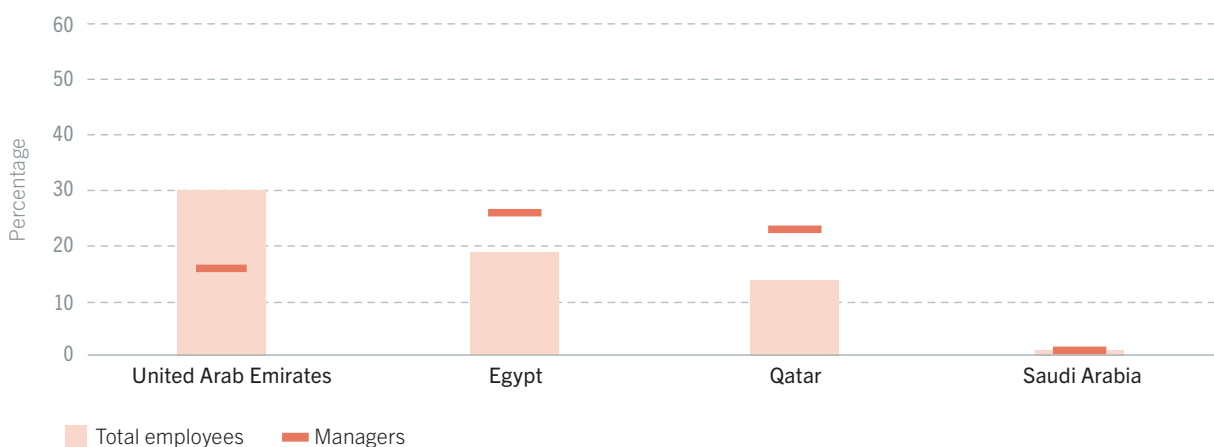
Note: Data are from 2017, except for Samoa (2012), Brunei Darussalam and Sri Lanka, (2014), Australia and Mongolia (2015), Fiji and Hong Kong (China), Malaysia, Maldives and Pakistan (2016).

Panel D. Europe and Central Asia



Note: Data are from 2017 expect for Bosnia and Herzegovina, Bulgaria, Cyprus, Denmark, Estonia, France, Germany, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Luxembourg, Republic of North Macedonia, Malta, Montenegro, the Netherlands, Portugal, Sweden and Turkey (2014), Austria, Kazakhstan and Switzerland (2015), Armenia, Belgium, Hungary, Iceland, Israel, Poland, Slovenia, Ukraine (2016).

Panel E. Middle East and North Africa



Note: Qatar and Saudi Arabia (2014), United Arab Emirates (2009) and Egypt (2016).
 Source: ILOSTAT and Australian Human Rights Commission. Mean nominal monthly salary, gross remuneration in cash and in kind, local currency.

The reasons why the gender pay gap is higher or lower for managers compared to total employees reflect several factors that vary from country to country. These include the overall proportion of women in management positions compared to their participation in the labour market, the structure of the economy in terms of industries and occupations where men and women are concentrated, government policies and their implementation with respect to gender equality and the reduction of the gender pay gap, differences in working time and social and cultural norms on gender issues.

In addition, the gender pay gap at the managerial level partly mirrors one major reason for the overall gender pay gap: occupational segregation in the labour market. Similarly, there is segmentation within management occupations, with women managers clustered more in support management functions (such as human resources and administration) than in strategic management areas, such as product development (as seen in chapter 2).

The ILO 2018 *Global Wage Report* suggests that on average, education and other labour market attributes explain relatively little of the gender pay gap. Instead, the gap in most countries is largely due to discrimination, whether direct or indirect (ILO, 2018c). The World Bank further notes that there is no difference in the educational levels of women in Europe (in fact young men and boys are falling behind), yet women still receive lower wages than men of the same age (Inchauste, Munoz-Boudet and Buitrago, 2018).

To address the gender pay gap, some Governments are taking a regulatory approach, for example by introducing pay gap reporting.

- The Government of Iceland requires enterprises and institutions with 25 or more staff to obtain an equal pay certificate, and enterprises must prove that they have classified jobs according to equal value (Ólafsson, 2017).
- In the United Kingdom, all private and public enterprises with more than 250 employees need to report on gender differences in both median and mean wages and bonuses as of April 2018 (Government of the United Kingdom, 2017).
- In Australia, the Senate Standing Committee on Finance and Public Administration has requested the Government to conduct a review of United Kingdom's gender pay reporting initiative. Meanwhile the Workplace Gender Equality Act includes gender pay reporting requirements for all non-public sector employers with 100 or more staff (McKenzie, 2018).
- In Ontario, Canada, the Pay Transparency Act 2018 requires employers with more than 100 employees to track and annually report compensation gaps based on gender (Baker McKenzie, 2018).

At an international level, the ILO together with the OECD and United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women, launched the Equal Pay International Coalition in 2017 to support Governments and employers' and workers' organizations to take steps to reduce the gender pay gap (see <https://www.equalpayinternationalcoalition.org>).

The economic benefits of reducing the gender pay gap have been researched by various institutions. According to research by PwC, reducing the gender pay gap across OECD nations to match that of Sweden (13 per cent pay gap) could boost gross domestic product by US\$6 trillion. The gains would come from increased female participation in the labour market, entrepreneurship and women moving into higher-paid and higher-skilled jobs (PwC UK, 2018).

But narrowing the gender pay gap requires more than legislative or voluntary measures. While the ILO Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) is one of the most highly ratified conventions by ILO member States, the principle of "equal remuneration for work of equal value" is complex, as often the

comparison of like with like is not done.³ Nevertheless, job evaluation techniques are being developed to support employers in this respect (Government of the United Kingdom, 2018).

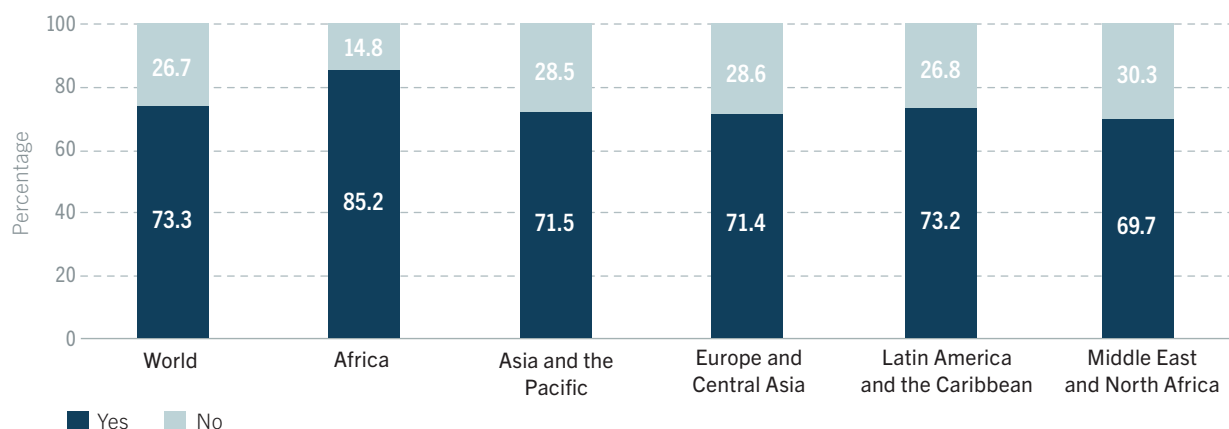
The European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (2002) argues that there is no straightforward solution for addressing the problem. The most important challenges are related to structural inequalities in the labour market as well as the integration of women into the labour market.

Therefore, employers and society will need to address the gender pay gap with a multi-faceted approach and encourage the delinking of gender and specific jobs or occupations, which results in certain work being regarded as mainly suitable for men or for women.

4.3 Implementing effective enterprise policies and measures

Cultivating a gender-inclusive enterprise culture means having relevant policies in place to enact change. Our survey indicates that over 73 per cent of enterprises worldwide have an equal opportunity policy or diversity and inclusion policy in place (see figure 4.8).

Figure 4.8 Share of enterprises with equal employment opportunity or diversity and inclusion policies by world and region



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

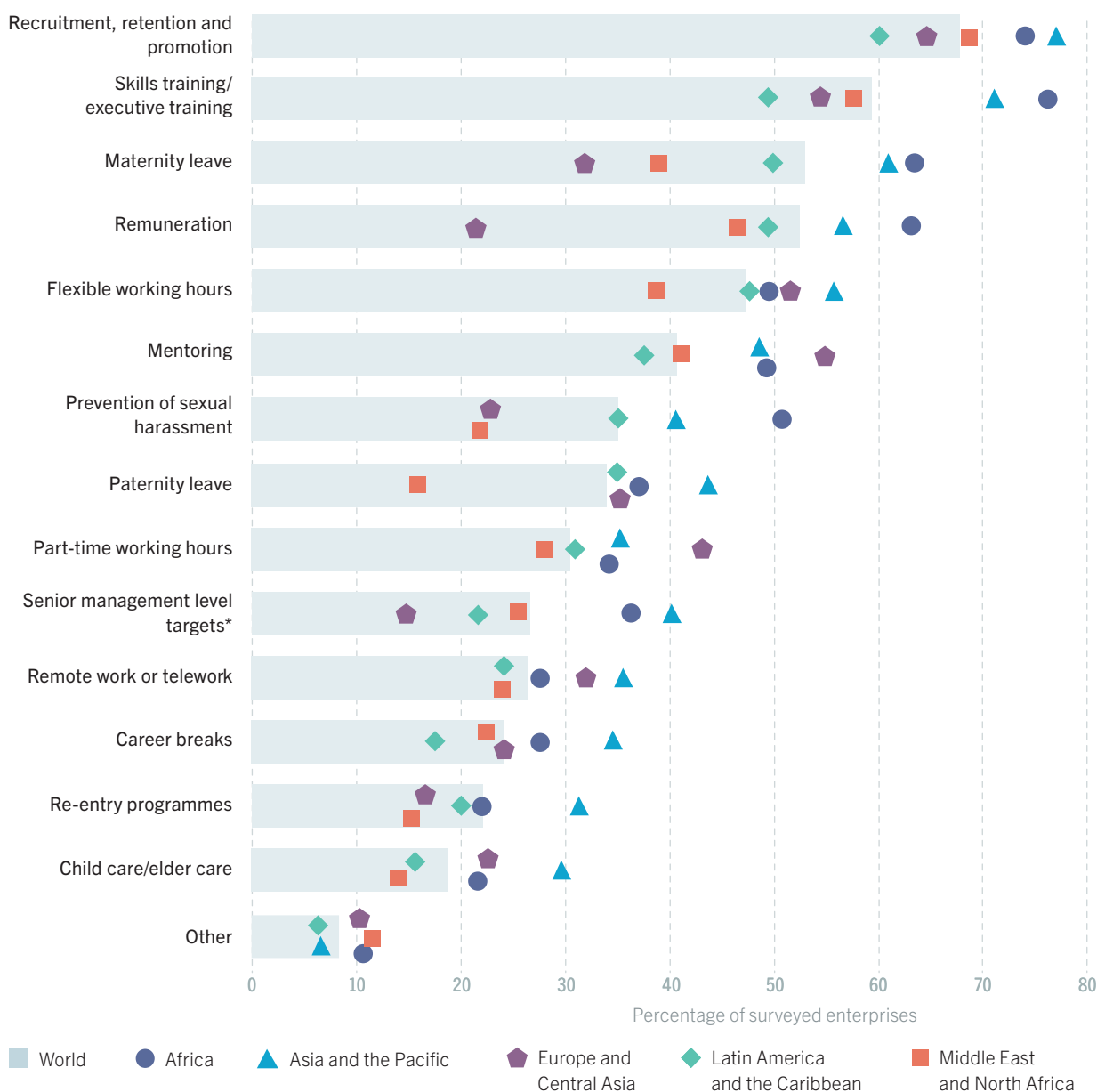
When examining the impact of an equal opportunity or diversity and inclusion policy on women in management positions, we find that these policies help build up the female talent pipeline (see Annex II, table A20), more specifically:

- These enterprises are 3.9 per cent more likely to have women in middle management;
- They are 5.9 per cent more likely to have female senior managers; and
- They are 4.5 per cent more likely to have women in top executive roles.

³ The principle of “equal pay for work of equal value” is still often misunderstood with the narrower notion of “equal pay for equal work” which reduces the scope for comparison to men and women doing the same work rather than work that is of a different nature but of the same value. While comparing the value of jobs in different occupations or different sectors remains a complex undertaking, the gradually expanding use of job evaluation techniques are helping the attainment of this principle.

Looking at human resources management systems and initiatives, the three most prevalent when it comes to promoting more women into management positions are as follows: establishing policies and procedures related to recruitment, retention and promotion; offering opportunities for skills and executive training; and offering maternity leave (see figure 4.9).

Figure 4.9 Share of enterprises by region and world average, with selected initiatives to promote women in management



*Specific strategy that includes targets for gender diversity/inclusion at senior management level

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Respondents also ranked the effectiveness of these human resource initiatives. Those believed to have the greatest impact were policies and procedures on recruitment, retention and promotion, followed by skills and executive training programmes, and flexible working hours. Mentoring programmes, maternity leave and part-time work were also highlighted as effective measures.

It is important for companies to foster diversity and inclusion that goes beyond gender. More women in management, decision-making and in boardrooms may have a positive impact on business outcomes; however, the potential gain or competitive edge may be limited if those women all come from the same or very similar backgrounds, education and life experiences, and have the same way of thinking.

Inherent diversity reflects traits one is born with, such as gender, ethnicity and sexual orientation. But acquired diversity is gained from life experiences. For example, studying in another region or country can harness appreciation of cultural differences and life situations of others. Working in different kinds of companies and organizations also adds to diversity of experience. Enterprises can bear this in mind when implementing diversity initiatives. This variety in experiences of individuals leads to a “diversity of thinking” which is increasingly seen as critical for fostering innovation and creativity and making an enterprise competitive. It counters what is known as “group think” where everyone thinks along similar lines and new ideas and approaches do not readily emerge.

Variety in experiences of individuals leads to a “diversity of thinking” which is increasingly seen as critical for fostering innovation and creativity and making an enterprise competitive.





Findings

- The ILO enterprise survey finds that enterprises with a gender-inclusive culture are more likely to have improved business performance and more women in all management levels than those without.
- The large majority of enterprises surveyed have an equal opportunity or diversity and inclusion policy. These enterprises have more women in all levels of management.
- Gender sensitive policies and procedures on recruitment, retention and promotion are the most effective for increasing the share of women in management jobs.
- Fostering the concept of “diversity of thinking” can lead to increased innovation and creativity.

Challenges

- The ILO enterprise survey shows that male dominated company cultures are predominant.
- Almost half of enterprise survey respondents agree or strongly agree that women with equal skills and qualifications to men face greater difficulties reaching top management positions. More women than men hold this view.
- Globally the gender pay gap is 22 per cent but the managerial gender pay gap is higher than the overall gender pay gap in 43 countries.



Way forward

This report has shared the findings of our enterprise survey on women in business and management supplemented by secondary research, as well as data from the ILO, UNESCO and World Bank repository databases. We have highlighted the salient issues on gender diversity with the benefits and implications for enterprises. Some key messages derived from the report are presented in this final chapter.

A changing world

The economic and business environment is ever changing with new technologies and calls for sustainable development. The composition of global and national labour markets is also changing. Gender stereotypes are being challenged in many societies, with women and men taking on a more diverse range of jobs in all sectors and at all levels. This breakdown of occupational segregation represents a departure from the traditional expectations of employers and society.

We are beginning to see some interesting effects. For example:

- More women are increasingly employed in traditionally male-dominated areas, for example airline pilots, engineers and information technology specialists;
- More women are managers (even though they tend to be concentrated in management support functions such as human resources and administration);
- There is increasing recognition by employers of women's talent and skills as women surpass men in country after country in their level of education;
- Numerous studies are contributing to a growing awareness that the undervaluing of women's work and skills leads to a loss of resources for the economy.

An expanding talent pool of women

Today, women are surpassing men in educational levels in a majority of countries. For several decades already, women have moved into professional, managerial and entrepreneurial roles in significant numbers. In many countries their share of professional jobs has reached parity and beyond, while in management and as business owners, their share is considerable and growing. This shows women represent an ever-expanding talent pool in the labour market that employers can tap into to overcome skills shortages.

Looking to the future of work, research indicates that attributes and skills that women display more often than men, such as social, emotional and higher cognitive skills, are expected to be more and more in demand by enterprises (McKinsey & Company, 2018). According to the World Economic Forum (2016), cognitive skills include flexibility, creativity, logical reasoning, problem sensitivity, mathematical reasoning and visualization. Some studies speak to the innate nature of women being stronger than men in

some of the essential human centred skills – such as relational skills, communication skills, empathy and emotional intelligence (Cran, 2017).

Nevertheless, due to the traditional concentration of women in certain sectors of the labour market, they still lag behind men in engineering and technological occupations which are also predicted to be in high demand in the future of work.

Enhancing the bottom line

Studies on the business case for inclusion have shown that gender balance at all levels of an organization, especially at the top decision-making level, leads to improved business outcomes. More women in the workplace can directly boost profitability, but increasing the representation of women can also contribute to the bottom line indirectly by enhancing the image and reputation of the enterprise in addition to boosting other aspects of business such as employee loyalty and commitment.

The results of our enterprise survey strongly reflect the positive relationship between greater gender diversity and profit margins, as well as a wider range of business outcomes. Prominently, we have learned that enterprises with a gender-inclusive business culture are significantly more likely to reap the benefits of enhanced business outcomes that are derived from inclusion policies.

Global research is growing in this area, particularly related to planning for the future of work. We have also shown how women's increased labour force participation contributes to higher levels of GDP. However, to encourage enterprises in countries in emerging regions to reap gender diversity dividends, more research is needed at the national level to better clarify these correlations and demonstrate the benefits to enterprises in their own economic and social contexts.

The diversity journey for enterprises

Our survey, together with other data sources, has shown that many enterprises still need to recognize and seek out the benefits of a gender balanced workforce at all levels, including decision-making and board membership.

Tools and good practice examples already exist for guidance and inspiration, such as those provided by the ILO and many other institutions (see ILO, 2017a; ILO, 2017b). There are dozens of tried and tested measures that can be implemented effectively, but each enterprise will need its own appropriate, tailored approach. There is no a “one size fits all”.

Employer and business membership organizations play a key role in guiding their member companies to the right tools and advocating the message that gender diversity is good for business development and sustainability. This is all the more urgent, in view of the anticipated disruption, change and complexity of labour markets associated with the future of work.

What needs to happen

Enterprises need to challenge bias when it comes to the roles of women and men in the labour market, workplaces and the home. Our survey highlights some of the prevalent attitudes that can be found in most workplaces and that influence behaviour and expectations.

Fortunately, tools and practices exist already and are effective in overcoming gender bias in recruitment and promotion and nurturing women's leadership alongside their male counterparts.

Another challenge is overcoming the gender pay gap, which is a visible indicator of inequality, and a reality that puts a brake on economic growth and development. To a large extent the gender pay gap is related to the segmentation of the labour market along gender lines and how women's and men's jobs are perceived and valued.

Enterprises also need to support more girls and women to be in technology and engineering studies and corresponding industries, to prevent gender segregation from early ages and combat future skills shortages.

Governments and private institutions can work together to remove traditional barriers for women; in particular, holistic change programmes can make a difference in challenging the "anytime" performance model and the prevailing leadership styles.

Reaping the gender diversity dividend

There are many ways enterprises can begin to leverage the benefits of gender diversity. Introducing a set of strategic gender initiatives and practices in an enterprise can go a long way in effecting positive change. It is likely no single measure will yield significant results, so more comprehensive or holistic approaches are needed.

Reviewing procedures for merit-based recruitment and promotion and controlling for gender bias is one of the most effective ways of ensuring that men and women are placed on an equal footing in their career paths. Our survey has further shown that enterprises would also benefit from creating an explicit strategy for addressing gender diversity and inclusion within their organizational culture.

These initiatives need to be accompanied by measures such as flexible working arrangements that support work-life balance for all employees, both male and female. Millennials are seeking out employers with these kinds of measures.

Finally, managerial responsibility for supporting and promoting these measures is key to their success. A lack of buy-in and accountability from managers at different levels can seriously thwart the gender diversity efforts of other staff in the company. For this reason, the goal of working towards a gender diverse and inclusive business needs to be a strategic one for the entire company and not limited to human resources management alone. It is especially critical that top management is visible and vocal in advocating the gender diversity strategy for it to be effective.

Once started on the road to gender diversity, a virtuous circle can gradually evolve. More gender-balanced workforces can lead to more women CEOs and in turn to more women on boards. When there are more women on boards this can help in the appointment of more women CEOs.

The goal of working towards a gender diverse and inclusive business needs to be a strategic one for the entire company and not limited to human resources management alone.

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Annex I. Estimations

A1.1 Partial elasticity of GDP with respect to female employment

In order to assess how responsive the GDP growth rate is to changes in female employment, we built a panel dataset for 186 countries for the period 1991–2017 using secondary data from the World Bank. The total number of observations is 5,022.

The econometric specification is:

$$GDP_{ijt} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 GDP_{ijt-1} + \beta_2 E_{ijt} + \beta_3 (D_i * E_{ijt}) + \beta_4 (T * GDP_{ijt}) + \beta_5 trend + \beta_6 i.year_i + \beta_7 i.region_i + \varepsilon_i$$

Where,

GDP_{ijt} = first difference of the natural logarithm of the real Gross Domestic Product at constant 2010 US dollars of country i in region j in year t .

GDP_{ijt-1} = first difference of the natural logarithm of the GDP of the previous year $t - 1$.

E_{ijt} = first difference of the natural logarithm of female employment of country i in region j in year t .

$(D_i * E_{ijt})$ = interaction between country dummy variables (D_i) and female employment. This allows estimating country-level elasticities.

$(T * GDP_{ijt})$ = interaction between *time* and GDP to capture any effect of GDP trend at country level.

trend = time variable to capture any trend effects.

i.year_i = factor variable of years.

i.region_i = factor variable of regions.

ε_i = error term.

Table A1. Partial elasticity of GDP with respect to female employment

Variables	GDP				
Female employment	0.156*** (0.0436)	Cameroon	0.196	Georgia	0.214
		Canada	0.145	Germany	0.130
		Central African Republic	0.205	Ghana	0.207
Country	Elasticity	Chad	0.216	Greece	0.150
Afghanistan	0.217	Chile	0.176	Guam	0.193
Albania	0.217	China	0.188	Guatemala	0.189
Algeria	0.167	Colombia	0.166	Guinea	0.211
Angola	0.196	Comoros	0.220	Guinea-Bissau	0.218
Argentina	0.159	Congo	0.197	Guyana	0.219
Armenia	0.230	Democratic Republic of the Congo	0.189	Haiti	0.192
Australia	0.153	Costa Rica	0.193	Honduras	0.197
Austria	0.153	Croatia	0.176	Hong Kong, China	0.171
Azerbaijan	0.207	Cuba	0.186	Hungary	0.170
Bahamas	0.188	Cyprus	0.184	Iceland	0.198
Bahrain	0.193	Czech Republic	0.169	India	0.181
Bangladesh	0.193	Côte d'Ivoire	0.191	Indonesia	0.170
Barbados	0.196	Denmark	0.155	Iran (Islamic Republic of)	0.158
Belarus	0.190	Djibouti	0.216	Iraq	0.195
Belgium	0.151	Dominican Republic	0.199	Ireland	0.183
Belize	0.218	Ecuador	0.179	Israel	0.170
Benin	0.213	Egypt	0.179	Italy	0.129
Bhutan	0.247	El Salvador	0.189	Jamaica	0.182
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	0.202	Equatorial Guinea	0.289	Japan	0.123
Bosnia and Herzegovina	0.234	Eritrea	0.211	Jordan	0.193
Botswana	0.205	Estonia	0.199	Kazakhstan	0.182
Brazil	0.143	Eswatini	0.207	Kenya	0.194
Brunei	0.176	Ethiopia	0.227	Kuwait	0.171
Bulgaria	0.186	Fiji	0.205	Kyrgyzstan	0.207
Burkina Faso	0.224	Finland	0.163	Lao People's Democratic Republic	0.234
Burundi	0.203	France	0.133	Latvia	0.199
Cabo Verde	0.244	Gabon	0.187	Lebanon	0.189
Cambodia	0.230	Gambia	0.224	Lesotho	0.220

Variables	GDP
Female employment	0.156*** (0.0436)

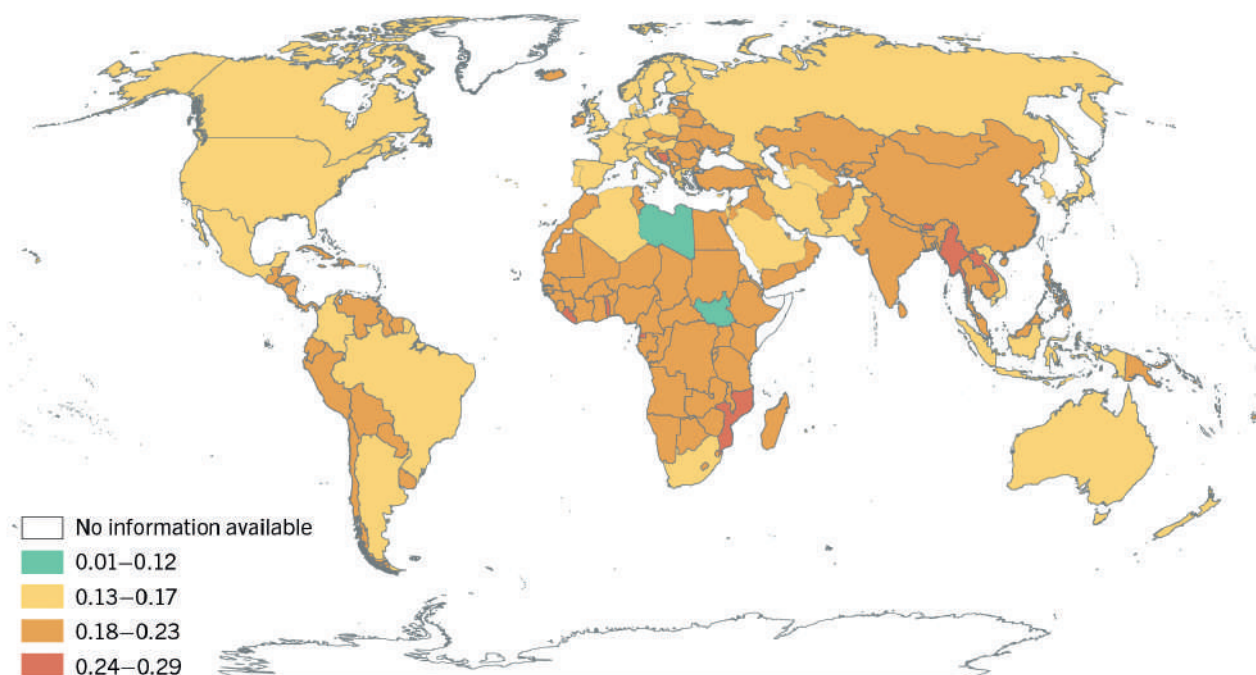
Country	Elasticity
Liberia	0.242
Libya	0.092
Lithuania	0.196
Luxembourg	0.182
Macau, China	0.202
Madagascar	0.201
Malawi	0.217
Malaysia	0.182
Maldives	0.228
Mali	0.211
Malta	0.203
Mauritania	0.214
Mauritius	0.209
Mexico	0.148
Mongolia	0.223
Montenegro	0.202
Morocco	0.185
Mozambique	0.240
Myanmar	0.235
Namibia	0.203
Nepal	0.206
Netherlands	0.147
New Zealand	0.171
Nicaragua	0.205
Niger	0.217
Nigeria	0.182
Norway	0.155
Occupied Palestinian Territory	0.201
Oman	0.177

Pakistan	0.173
Panama	0.204
Papua New Guinea	0.201
Paraguay	0.195
Peru	0.186
Philippines	0.183
Poland	0.172
Portugal	0.156
Puerto Rico	0.164
Qatar	0.207
Republic of Korea	0.166
Republic of Moldova	0.214
Republic of North Macedonia	0.195
Romania	0.179
Russian Federation	0.146
Rwanda	0.223
Saint Lucia	0.206
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	0.221
Samoa	0.228
Sao Tome and Principe	0.250
Saudi Arabia	0.150
Senegal	0.202
Serbia	0.188
Sierra Leone	0.223
Singapore	0.183
Slovakia	0.187
Slovenia	0.181
Solomon Islands	0.221
South Africa	0.162
South Sudan	0.113
Spain	0.141
Sri Lanka	0.201
Sudan	0.197

Suriname	0.200
Sweden	0.158
Switzerland	0.149
Tajikistan	0.211
Thailand	0.173
Timor-Leste	0.234
Togo	0.215
Tonga	0.225
Trinidad and Tobago	0.200
Tunisia	0.189
Turkey	0.167
Turkmenistan	0.213
Uganda	0.221
Ukraine	0.151
United Arab Emirates	0.164
United Kingdom	0.139
United Republic of Tanzania	0.210
United States	0.123
United States Virgin Islands	0.175
Uruguay	0.185
Uzbekistan	0.207
Vanuatu	0.224
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	0.151
Viet Nam	0.205
Yemen	0.182
Zambia	0.209
Constant	-0.525
Observations	4,181
R-squared	0.288
Year FE	Yes
Region FE	Yes

Robust standard errors in parentheses
 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
 Note: FE = fixed effects.

Illustration A1. World map of coefficients of the partial elasticity of GDP with respect to female employment



A1.2 Enhanced business outcomes

To assess the effect of an inclusive business culture, an equal opportunity policy, and women CEOs on business outcomes, the following probabilistic model is implemented:

$$\Pr(y_{ijs}=1 | x_{ijs})=\Phi(x'_{ijs}\beta)$$

Where Φ is the cumulative normal distribution, β is a $k \times 1$ parameter vector, and x'_{ijs} is a $k \times 1$ vector that includes a binary variable on inclusive business culture, equal employment opportunity policy, women CEOs; and the following factor variables: firm type (national or multinational); economic activity; firm size; country; and region.

The regression specification of the probabilistic model presented in this section is also used to assess how likely it is for enterprises to be challenged with retaining skilled women when they have an inclusive business culture. For this model, the dependent variable is a binary variable (challenging to retain skilled women=1; zero otherwise), the rest of the variables remain the same.

Table A2. Predicted probabilities for enhanced business outcomes in relations to various enterprise characteristics

Variables	Average marginal effects		
	Enhanced overall business outcomes	Enhanced productivity and profitability	Enhanced creativity, innovation and openness
Gender-inclusive business culture	8.978*** (0.0103)	3.176** (0.0138)	5.303*** (0.0139)
Woman CEO	3.527*** (0.0122)	2.761* (0.0161)	2.334 (0.0165)
Equal employment opportunity policy	26.08*** (0.0145)*	3.798** (0.0185)	7.406*** (0.0186)
Observations	7,199	5,758	5,763
Economic activity FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm type (national or multinational) FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region FE	Yes	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses
 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
 Note: FE = fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A3. Predicted probabilities of improved business outcomes in relations a gender-inclusive business culture and an equal employment opportunity policy or diversity and inclusion policy

Variables	Greater creativity, innovation and openness	Increased profitability and productivity	Increased ability to attract and retain talent	Enhanced company reputation	Better ability to gauge consumer interest and demand
Enterprises with both:					
Inclusive business culture and inclusive policies	59.11*** (0.0108)	62.62*** (0.0108)	59.66*** (0.0109)	57.81*** (0.0108)	37.93*** (0.0107)
Observations	5,763	5,758	5,758	5,763	5,732
Economic activity FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses
 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
 Note: FE = fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Annex II. Supplementary figures and tables

Figures

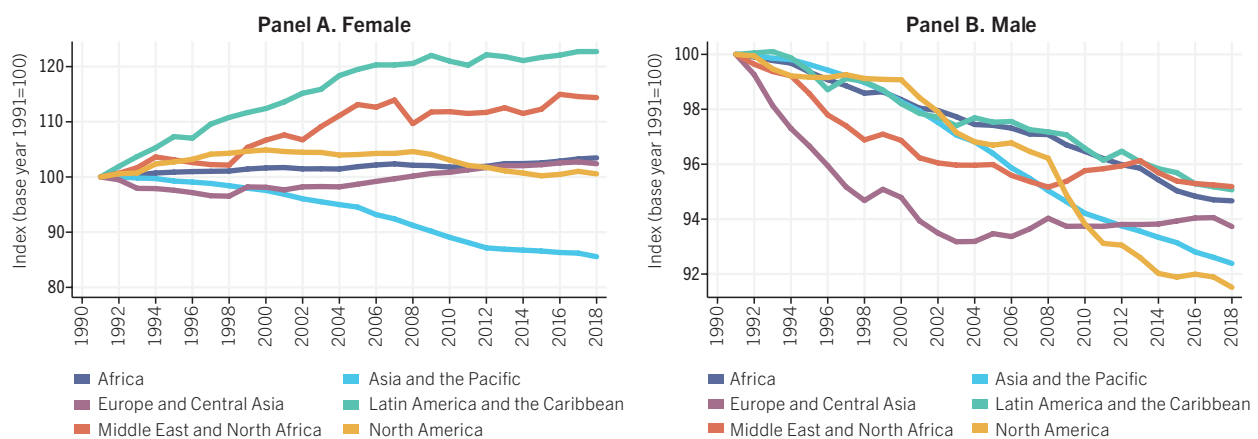
Figure A1. World labour force participation by sex, 1991–2018 (base year 1991=100), (A) rate and (B) index



Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.

Source: ILOSTAT.

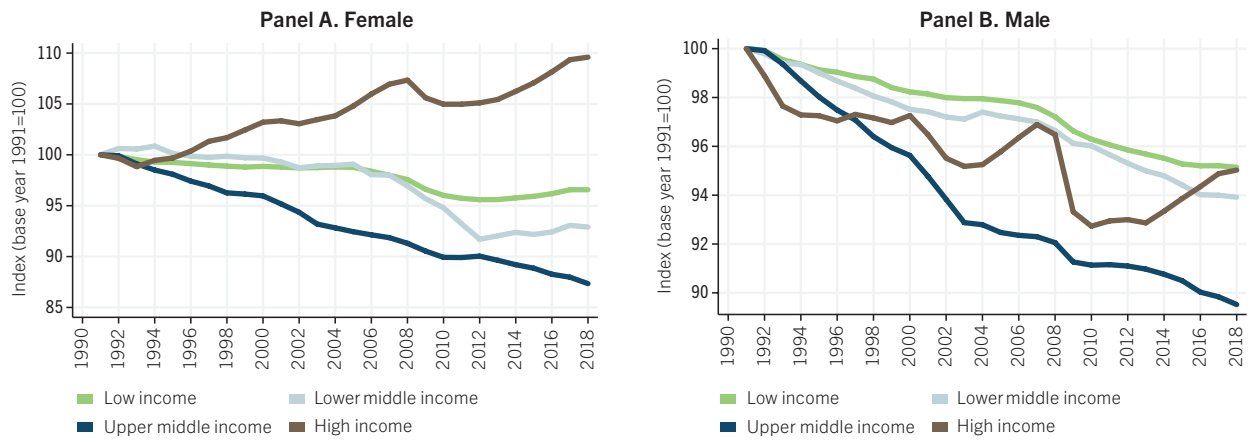
Figure A2. Labour force participation rate index by region, 1991–2018 (base year 1991=100), (A) female and (B) male



Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.

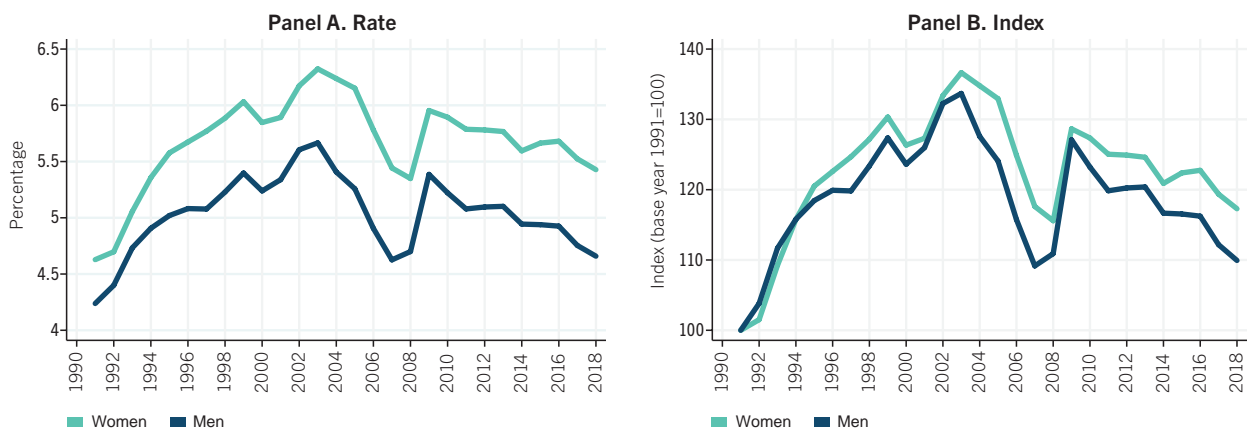
Source: ILOSTAT.

Figure A3. Employment-to-population index by country income group, 1991–2018 (base year 1991=100), (A) female and (B) male



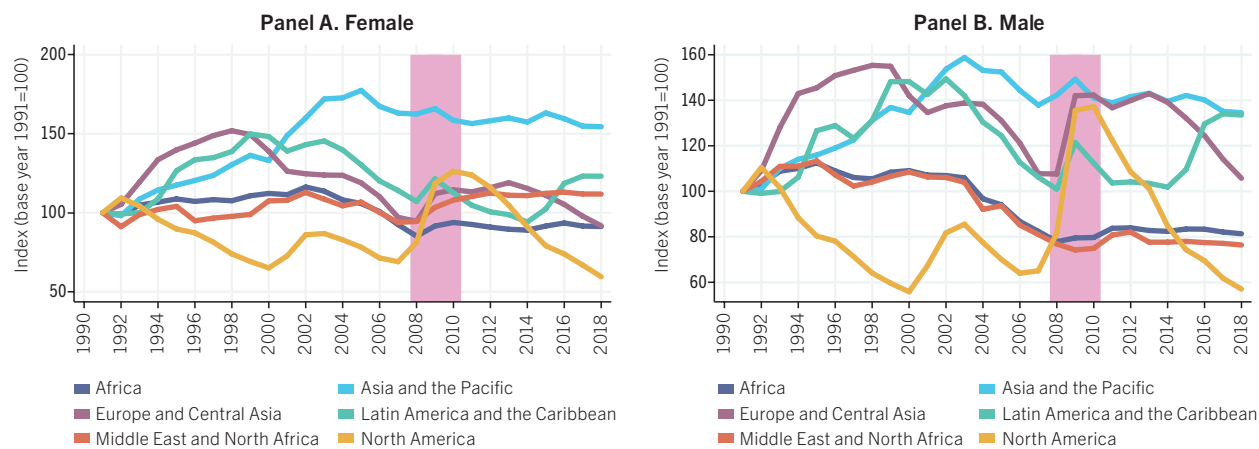
Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.
Source: ILOSTAT.

Figure A4. World unemployment by sex, 1991–2018, (A) rate and (B) index (base year 1991=100)



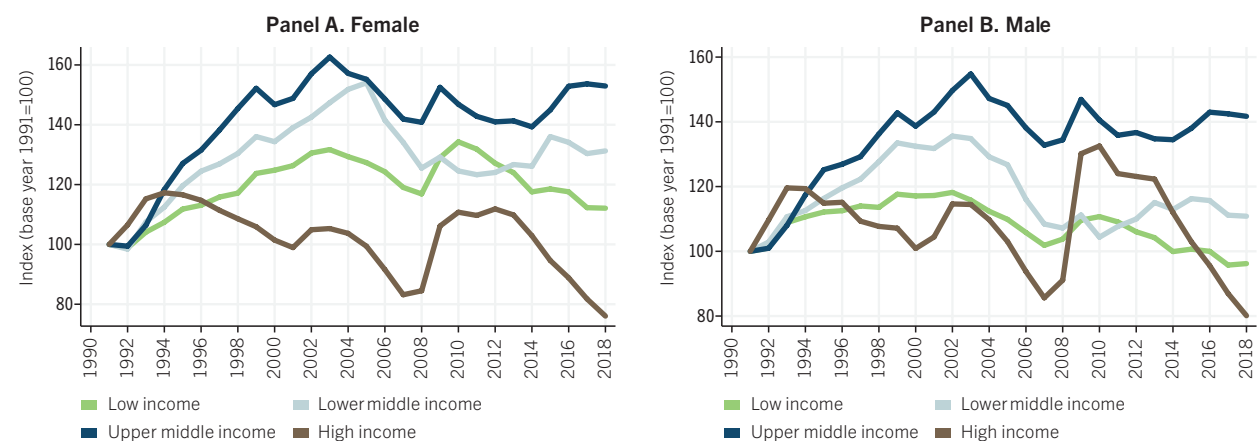
Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.
Source: ILOSTAT.

Figure A5. Unemployment rate index (base year 1991=100) by region by (A) female and (B) male, 1991–2018



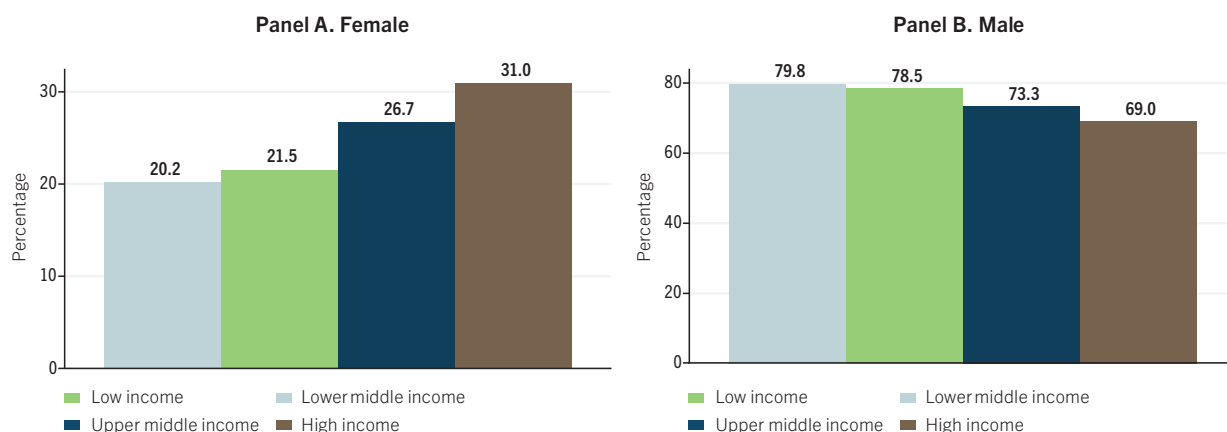
Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018. The pink area represents the 2008–09 global financial crisis.
Source: ILOSTAT.

Figure A6. Unemployment rate index (base year 1991=100) by country income group, 1991–2018, (A) female and (B) male



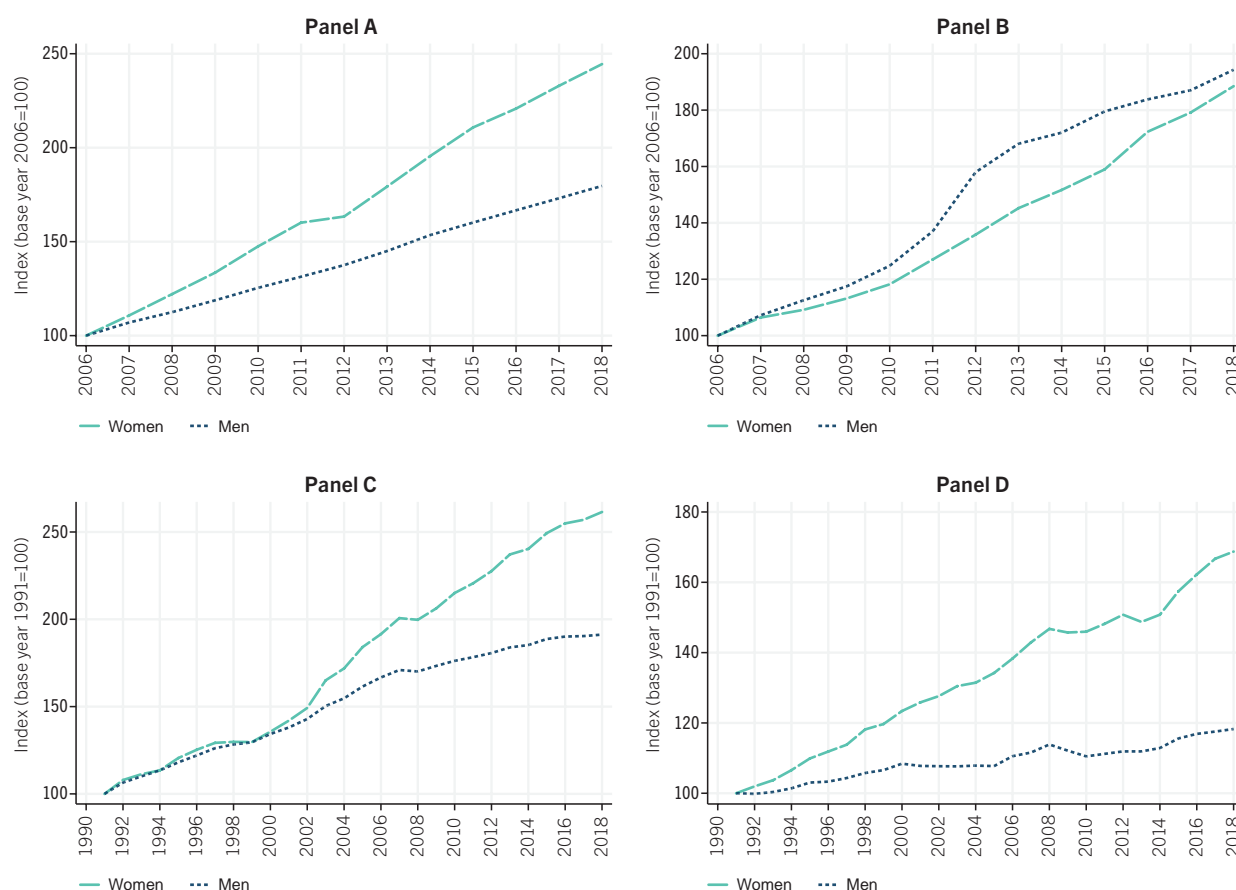
Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.
Source: ILOSTAT.

Figure A7. Share of employment in management positions by country income group, 1991–2018, (A) female and (B) male



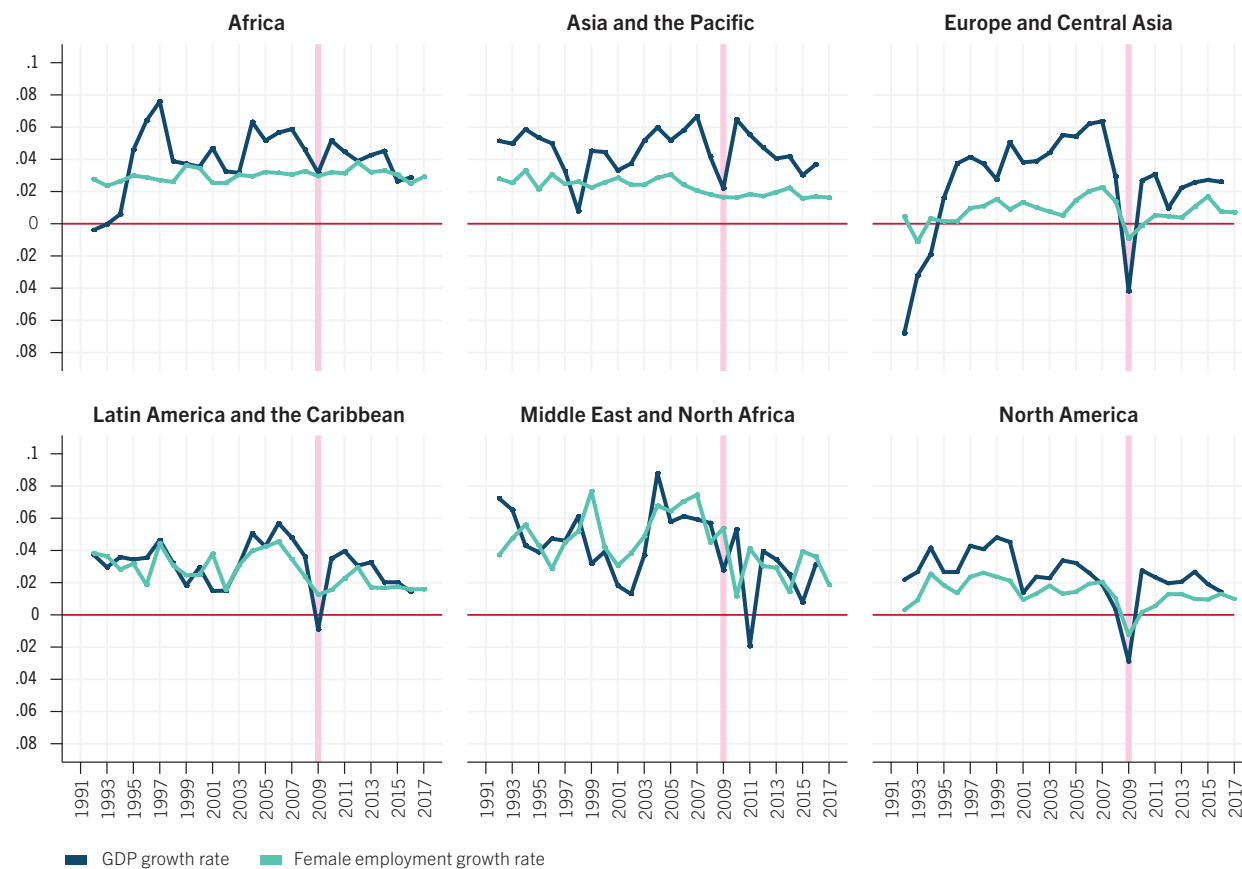
Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018.
Source: ILOSTAT.

Figure A8. Women and men in management position, index by country income group, (A) low-income countries, (B) lower-middle-income countries, (C) upper-middle-income countries, (D) high-income countries



Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018. For low-income and lower-middle-income countries, the base year is 2006 because there is too much uncertainty for the estimates before 2006 due to very low coverage at the country level. Low-income and lower-middle-income countries, 2006–2018 (base year=2006); upper-middle-income and high-income countries, 1991–2018 (base year=1991).
Source: ILOSTAT.

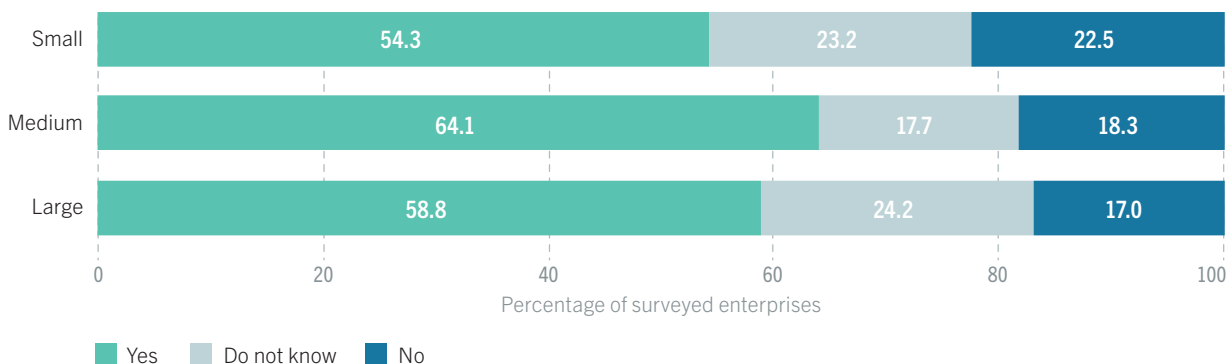
Figure A9. GDP and female employment growth rate by region, 1991–2017



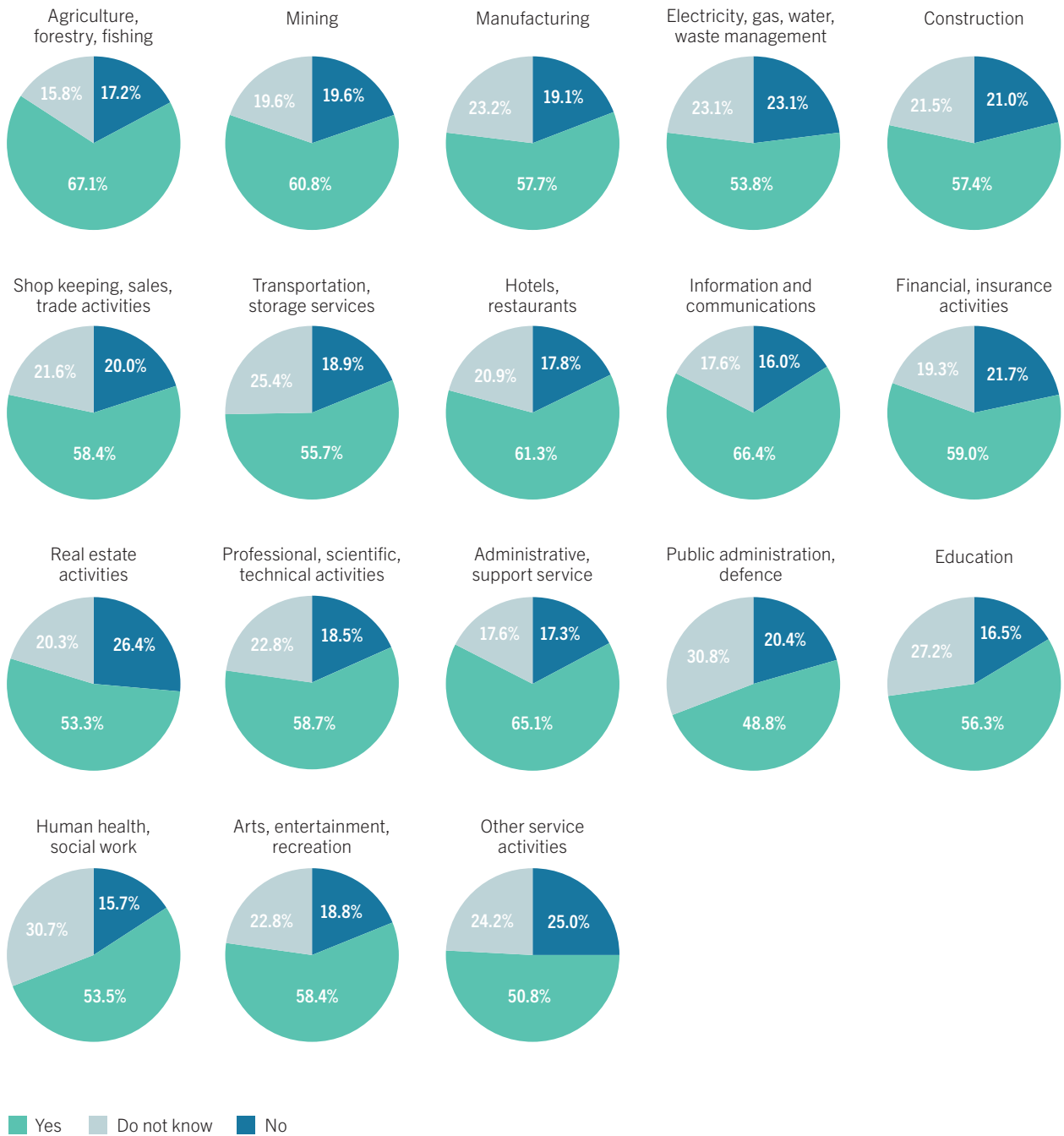
Note: ILO modelled estimates, Nov. 2018. The pink area represents the 2008–09 global financial crisis.
Source: World Bank open data.

Figure A10. Share of enterprises reporting whether initiatives on gender diversity and equality helped enhance business outcomes, (A) enterprise size and (B) economic sector

Panel A. Results by enterprise size



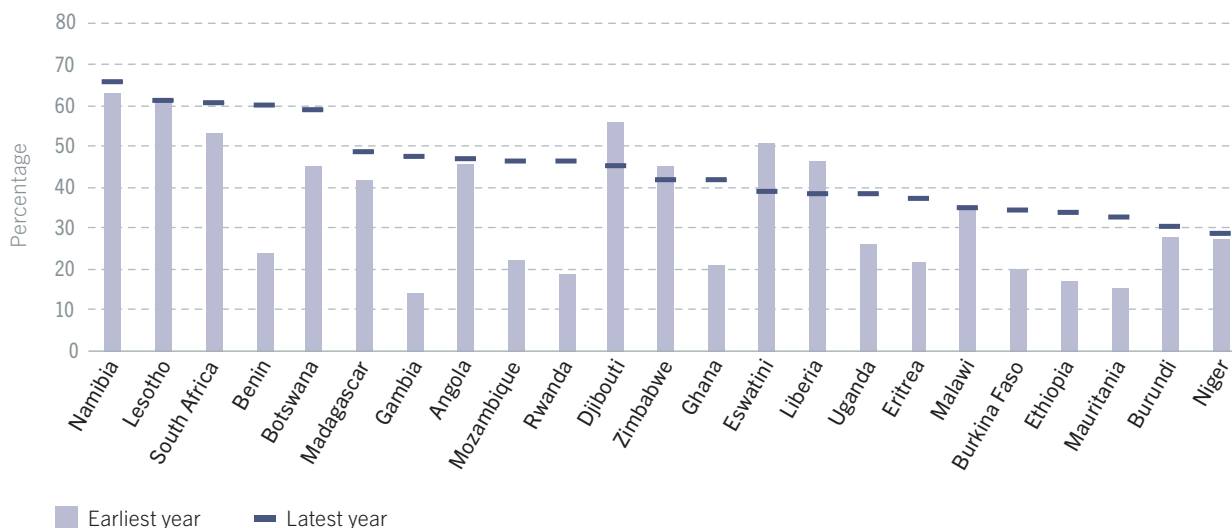
Panel B. Results by economic sector



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

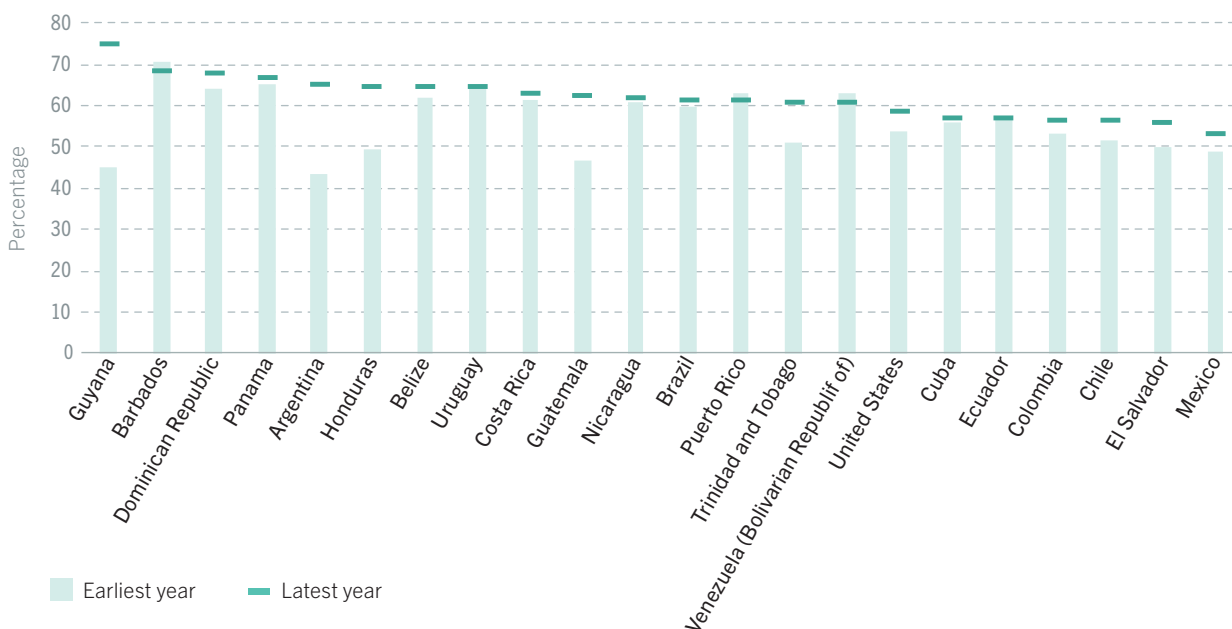
Figure A11. Share of women among total tertiary graduates by region, earliest and latest years, (A) Africa, (B) Americas, (C) Asia and the Pacific, (D) Europe and Central Asia and (E) Middle East and North Africa

Panel A. Africa



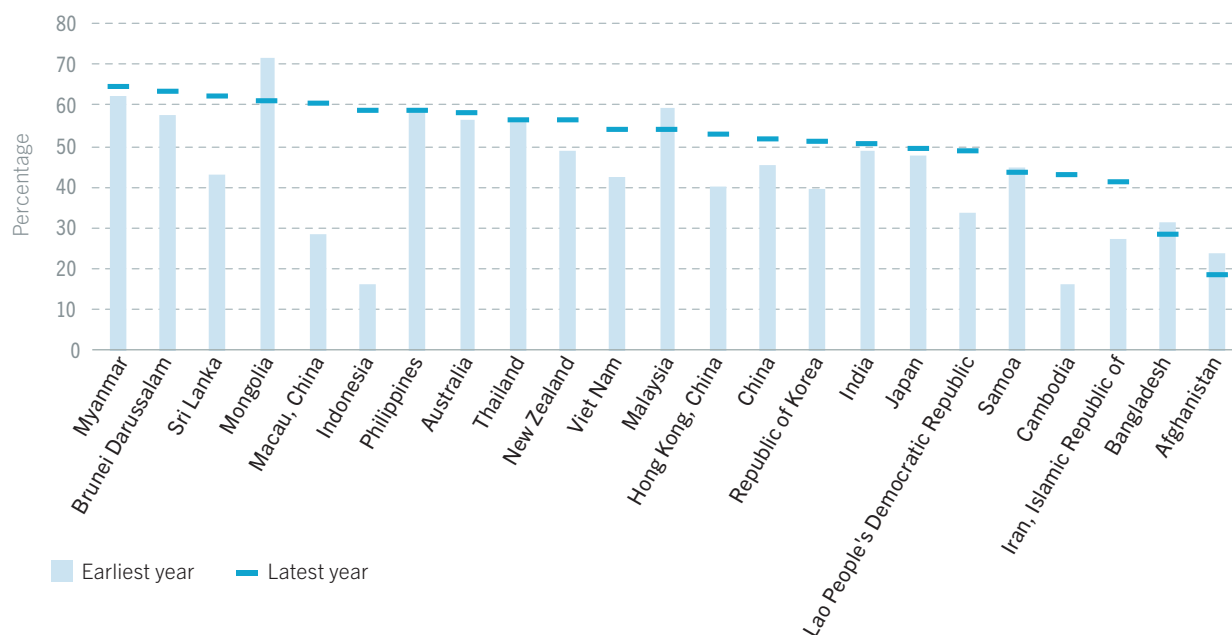
Note: Data are based on official estimates for earliest and latest years. Uganda (1991–2004), Ethiopia (1991–2014), Rwanda (1991–2016), Ghana (1992–2016), Madagascar and South Africa (1993–2015), Mozambique (1993–2016), Namibia (1994–2014), Mauritania (1994–2016), Malawi (1995–2007), Eritrea (1996–2016), Botswana (1997–2017), Djibouti (1999–2005), Angola and Benin (1999–2015), Liberia (2000–12), the Niger (2001–10), the Gambia (2004–12), Burkina Faso (2009–16), Zimbabwe (2010–15) and Lesotho (2012–15).

Panel B. Americas



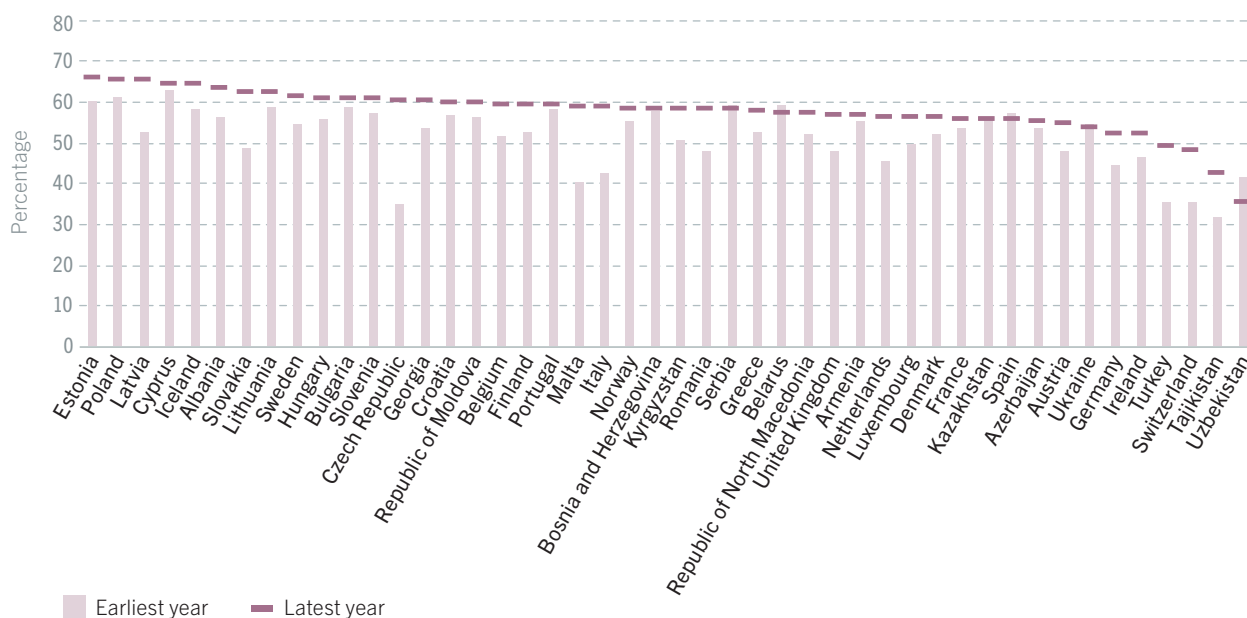
Note: Data are based on official estimates for earliest and latest years: Nicaragua (1991–2002), Trinidad and Tobago (1991–2004), Guyana (1991–2012), Brazil, Honduras and the United States (1991–2015), Cuba (1991–2016), Panama (1994–2015), Chile (1995–2015), Mexico (1996–2015), Argentina (1998–2015), El Salvador (1998–2016), Uruguay (1999–2010), Barbados (1999–2011), Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of) (2000–02), Costa Rica (2001–16), Guatemala (2002–15), Ecuador (2007–15), Puerto Rico (2008–15), Belize (2011–15) and the Dominican Republic (2012–16).

Panel C. Asia and the Pacific



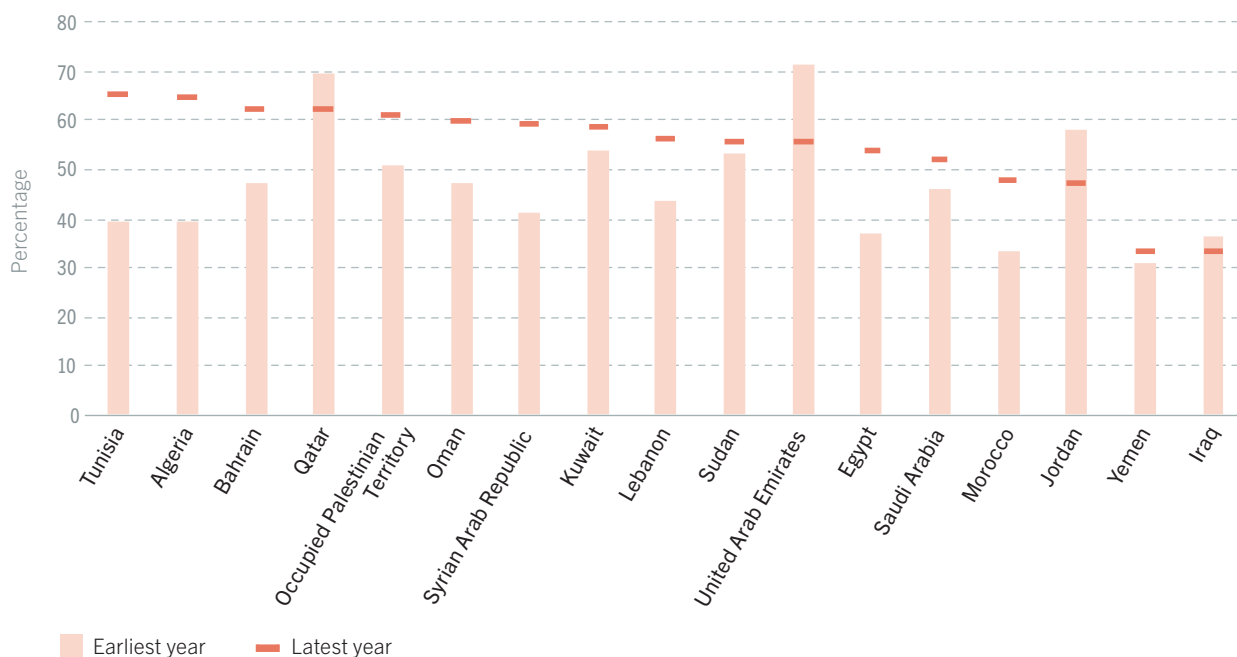
Note: Data are based on official estimates for earliest and latest years: Australia (1991–2015), Iran (Islamic Republic of), Macau (China), New Zealand and Republic of Korea (1991–2016), Philippines (1992–2017), Hong Kong (China) (1993–2006), Japan (1993–2015), Indonesia and Sri Lanka (1993–2016), Thailand (1994–2015), the Lao People’s Democratic Republic (1994–2016), Myanmar (1996–2012), Brunei Darussalam and Mongolia (1996–2016), Samoa (1998–2000), Cambodia (2002–16), Bangladesh (2002–16), China (2004–16), Viet Nam (2005–16), Afghanistan (2006–14), India (2013–16) and Malaysia (2014–16).

Panel D. Europe and Central Asia



Note: Data for earliest and latest years are based on official estimates (1991–2016), except for Greece, the Netherlands and Turkey (1991–2014), Belgium, the Czech Republic, Italy, Norway, Portugal, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland and United Kingdom (1991–2015), Ireland (1992–2015), Germany (1993–2015), Estonia, Republic of North Macedonia and Slovakia (1993–2015), Croatia and Romania (1993–2016), France (1994–2015), Latvia (1995–2016), Tajikistan (1996–2017), Armenia, Iceland and Lithuania (1997–2016), Belarus, Georgia and Kyrgyzstan (1999–2016), Republic of Moldova (2002–16), Uzbekistan (2006–17), Bosnia and Herzegovina and Serbia (2007–16), Azerbaijan and Luxembourg (2008–16), Ukraine (2012–16) and Kazakhstan (2013–17).

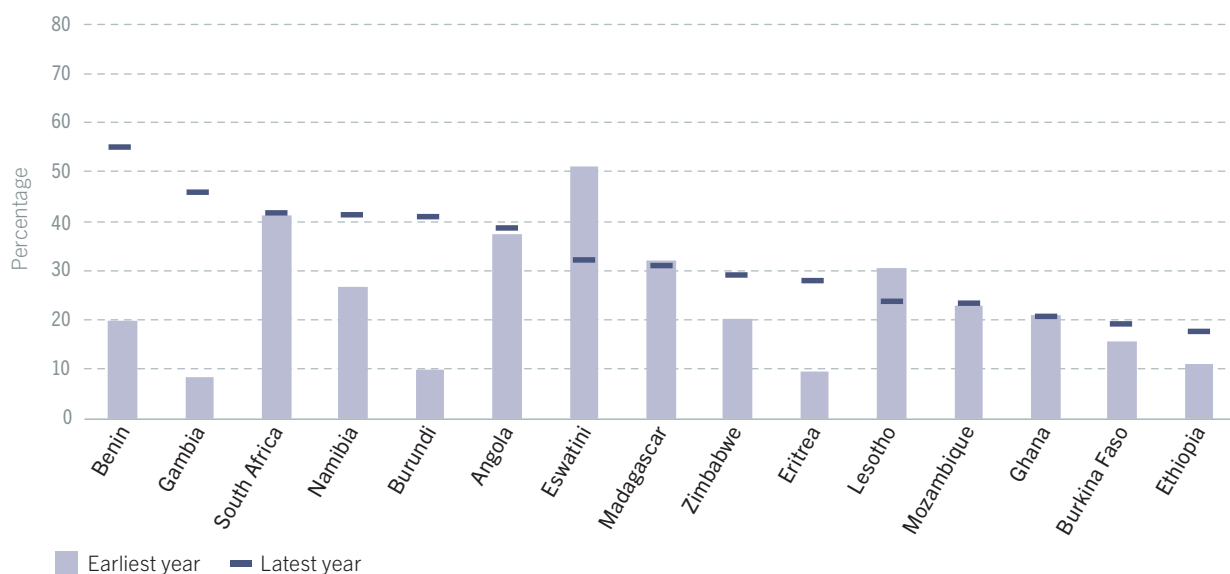
Panel E. Middle East and North Africa



Note: Data for earliest and latest years are based on official estimates (1991–2016), except for Jordan (1991–2012), Bahrain, Morocco and United Arab Emirates (1992–2016), Kuwait (1993–2013), Oman (1993–2016), Lebanon (1996–2011), West Bank and Gaza Strip (1996–2016), Iraq (2000–04), Yemen (2006–07) and the Sudan (2012–14).
Source: UNESCO-UIS, 2019.

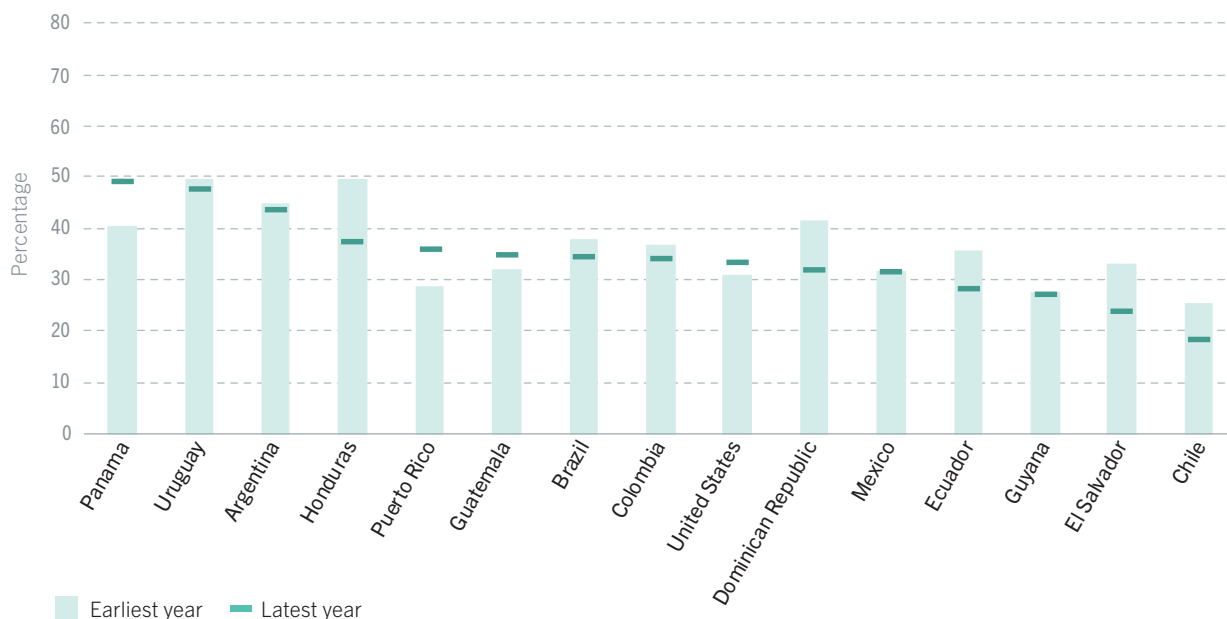
Figure A12. Share of women among total tertiary STEM graduates by region, earliest and latest years, (A) Africa, (B) Americas, (C) Asia and the Pacific, (D) Europe and Central Asia and (E) Middle East and North Africa

Panel A. Africa



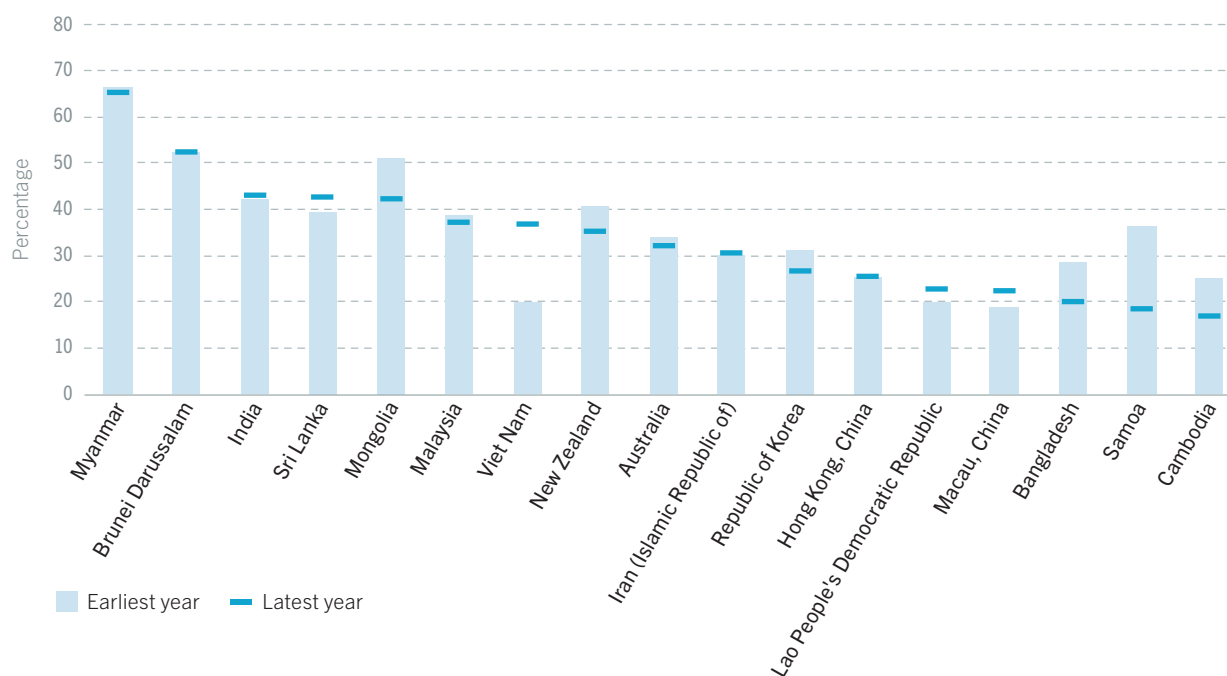
Note: Data for earliest and latest years are based on official estimates. Eswatini (1999–2006), Ethiopia (1999–2010), Angola (1999–2015), Eritrea (1999–2016), Namibia (2001–05), Burundi (2004–10), the Gambia (2004–12), Mozambique (2004–16), Madagascar (2005–15), Zimbabwe (2010–15), Burkina Faso (2011–12), Benin (2011–15), Lesotho (2012–15), South Africa (2014–15) and Ghana (2015–16).

Panel B. Americas



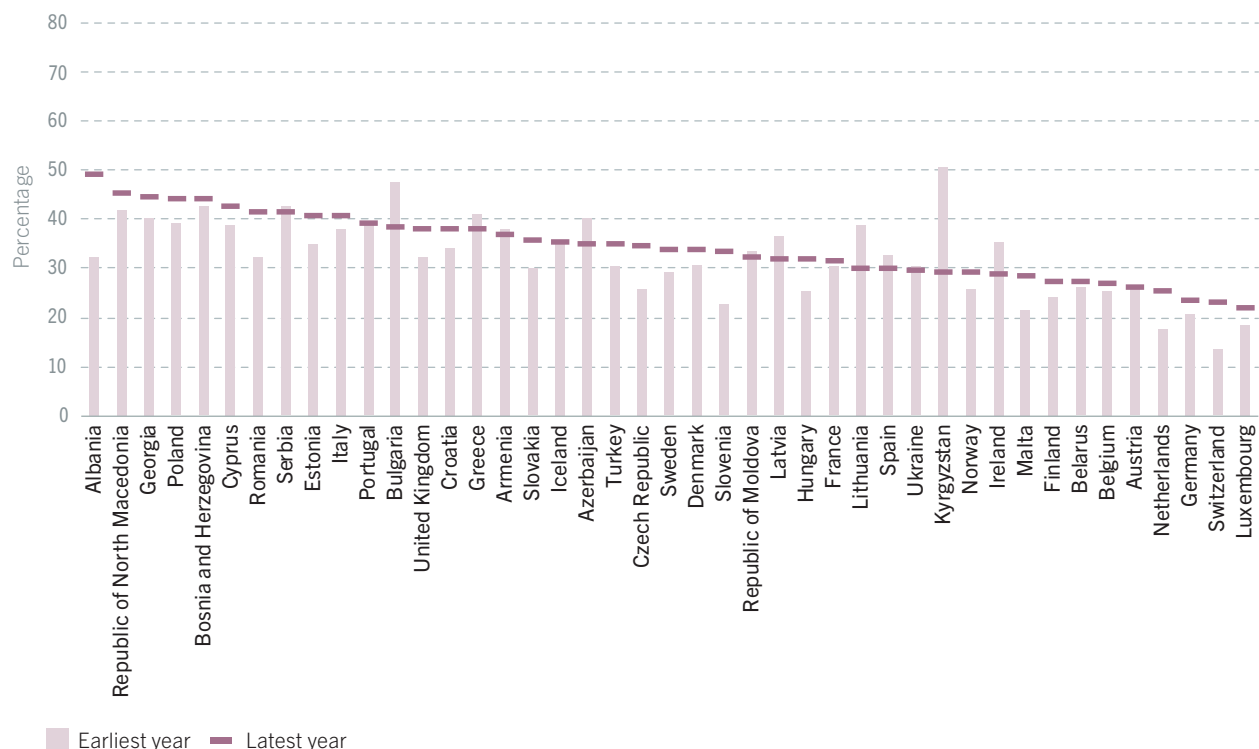
Note: Data for earliest and latest years are based on official estimates, various years: the United States (1999–2015), Mexico (2000–15), Brazil (2001–15), Panama and Guatemala (2002–15), Colombia and El Salvador (2002–16), Honduras (2003–15), Chile (2004–15), Guyana (2005–12), Argentina (2006–10), Ecuador and Uruguay (2007–15), Puerto Rico (2008–15) and the Dominican Republic (2015–16).

Panel C. Asia and the Pacific



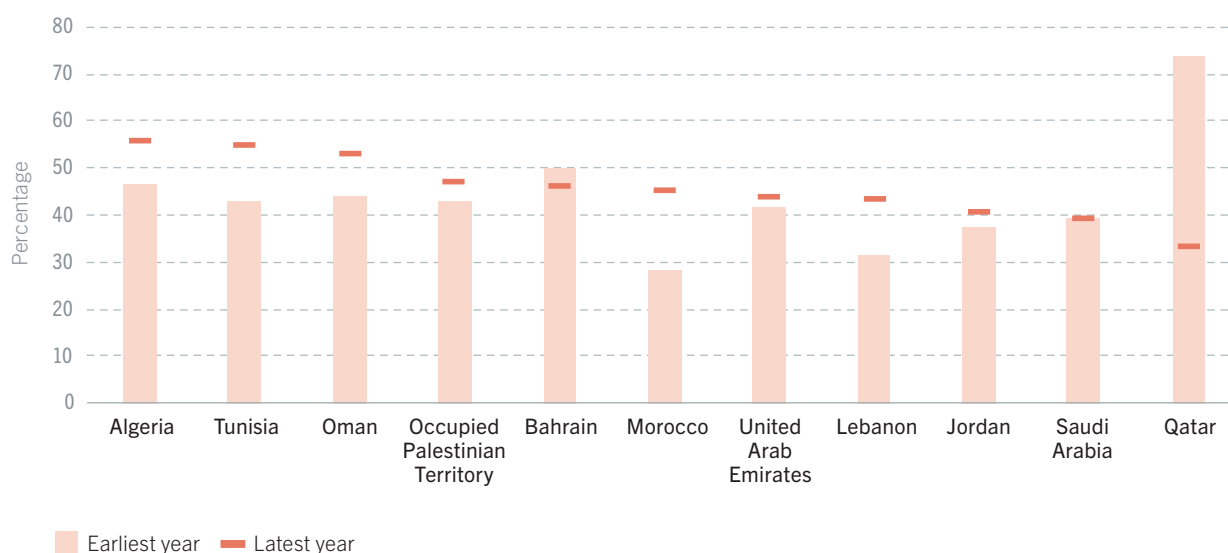
Note: Data for earliest and latest years are based on official estimates, various years: Republic of Korea and New Zealand (1998–2016), Samoa (1999–2001), Mongolia (1999–2011), Australia (1999–2015), Brunei Darussalam and Lao People’s Democratic Republic (1999–2016), Cambodia (2000–15), Bangladesh (2002–16), Hong Kong (China) (2003–06), Iran (Islamic Republic of) (2004–16), Macau (China) and Viet Nam (2005–16), Myanmar (2011–12), India (2013–16), Malaysia and Sri Lanka (2015–16).

Panel D. Europe and Central Asia



Note: Data for earliest and latest years are based on official estimates (1999–2016), except for Ireland and Italy (1998–2015), Finland (1998–2016), Germany (1999–2002), Iceland (1999–2012), Netherlands and Turkey (1999–2014), the Czech Republic, Estonia, Republic of North Macedonia, Norway, Slovakia, Slovenia, Sweden and Switzerland (1999–2015), Belgium, France, Portugal and United Kingdom (2000–15), Albania and Malta (2000–16), Serbia (2007–16), Luxembourg (2008–15), Azerbaijan (2008–16), Armenia and Poland (2010–16), Ukraine (2012–16), Republic of Moldova (2014–15), Austria (2014–16), Belarus, and Bosnia and Herzegovina (2015–16).

Panel E. Middle East and North Africa

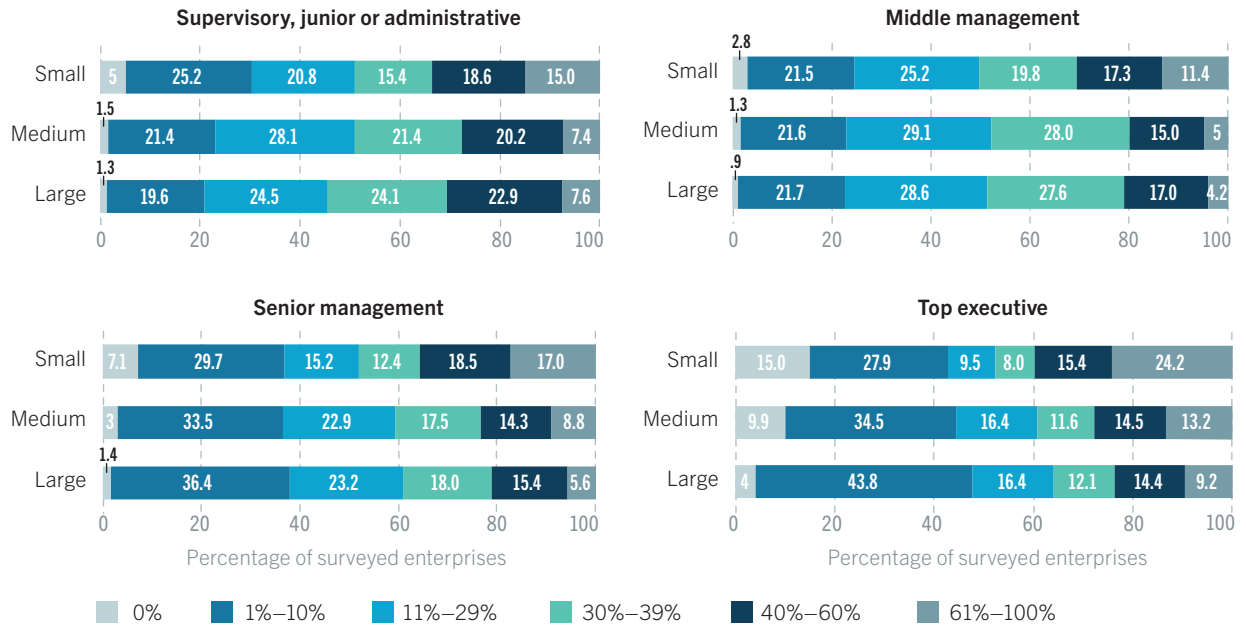


Note: Data for earliest and latest years are based on official estimates, various years: Occupied Palestinian Territory (1999–2016), Lebanon (2000–11), Qatar (2000–16), Morocco (2001–16), Bahrain (2003–16), Jordan (2004–07), Saudi Arabia (2004–16), Algeria and Oman (2007–16), United Arab Emirates (2011–16) and Tunisia (2012–16).

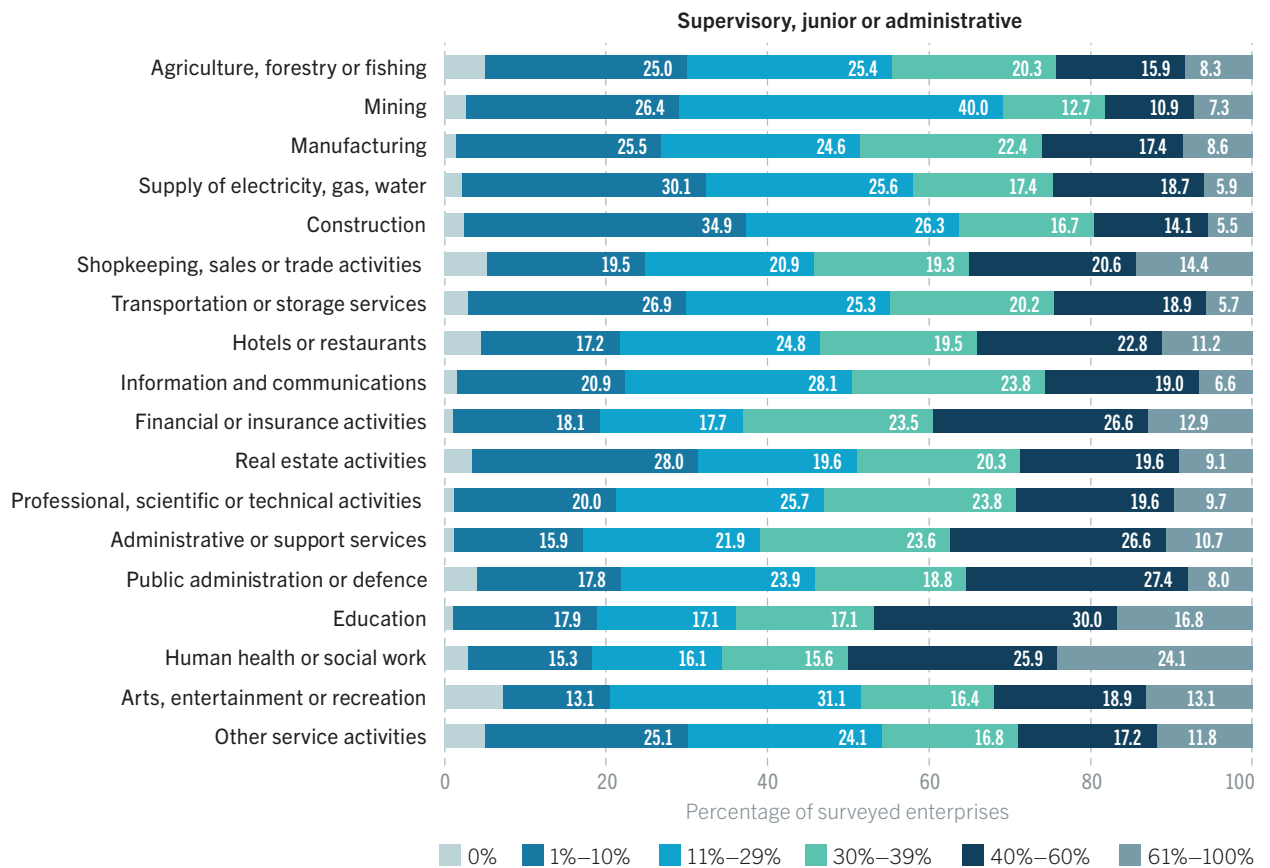
Source: UNESCO-UIS, 2019.

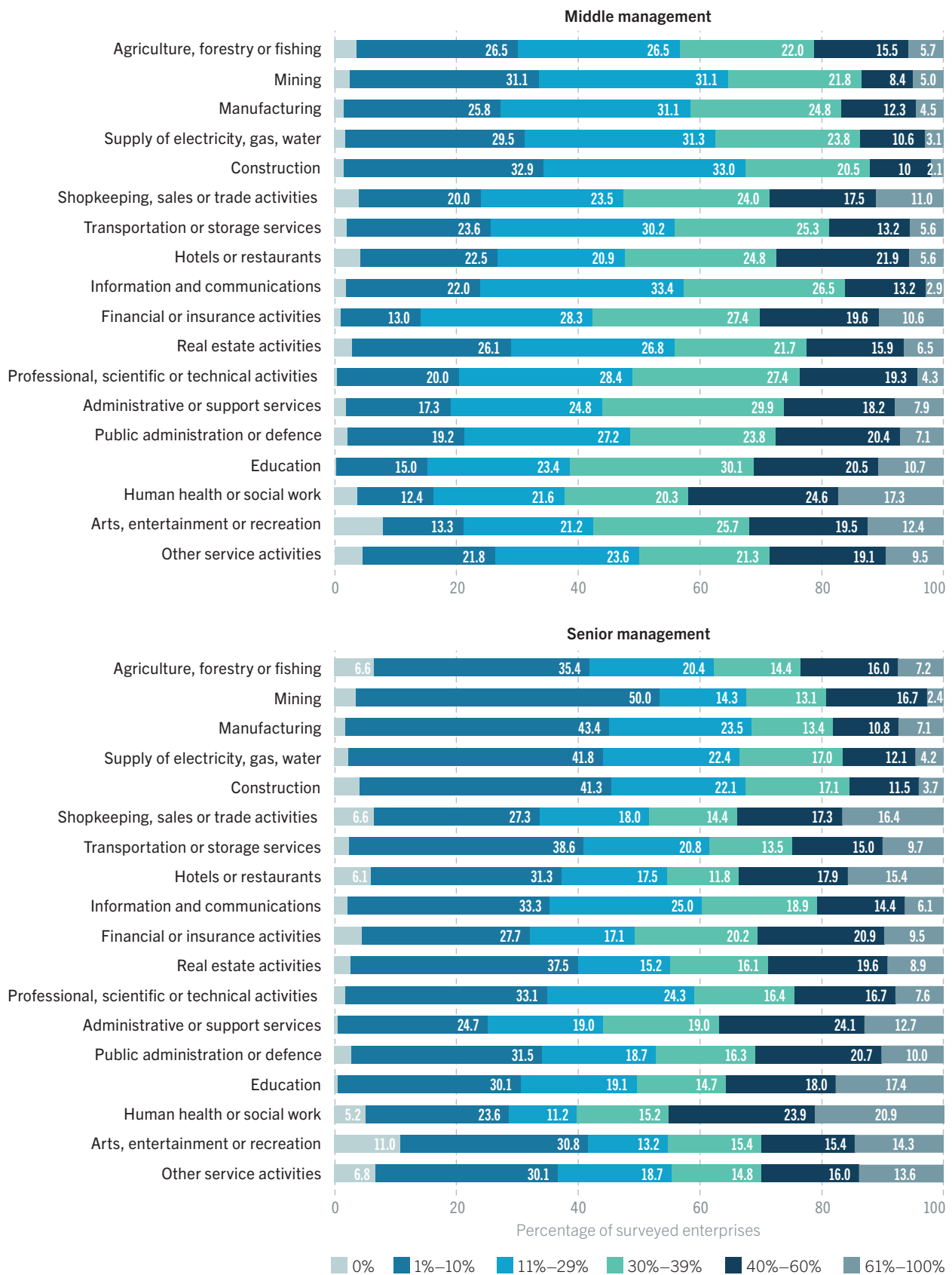
Figure A13. Share of enterprises by proportion of female managers at four levels of management, (A) by enterprise size and (B) by economic sector

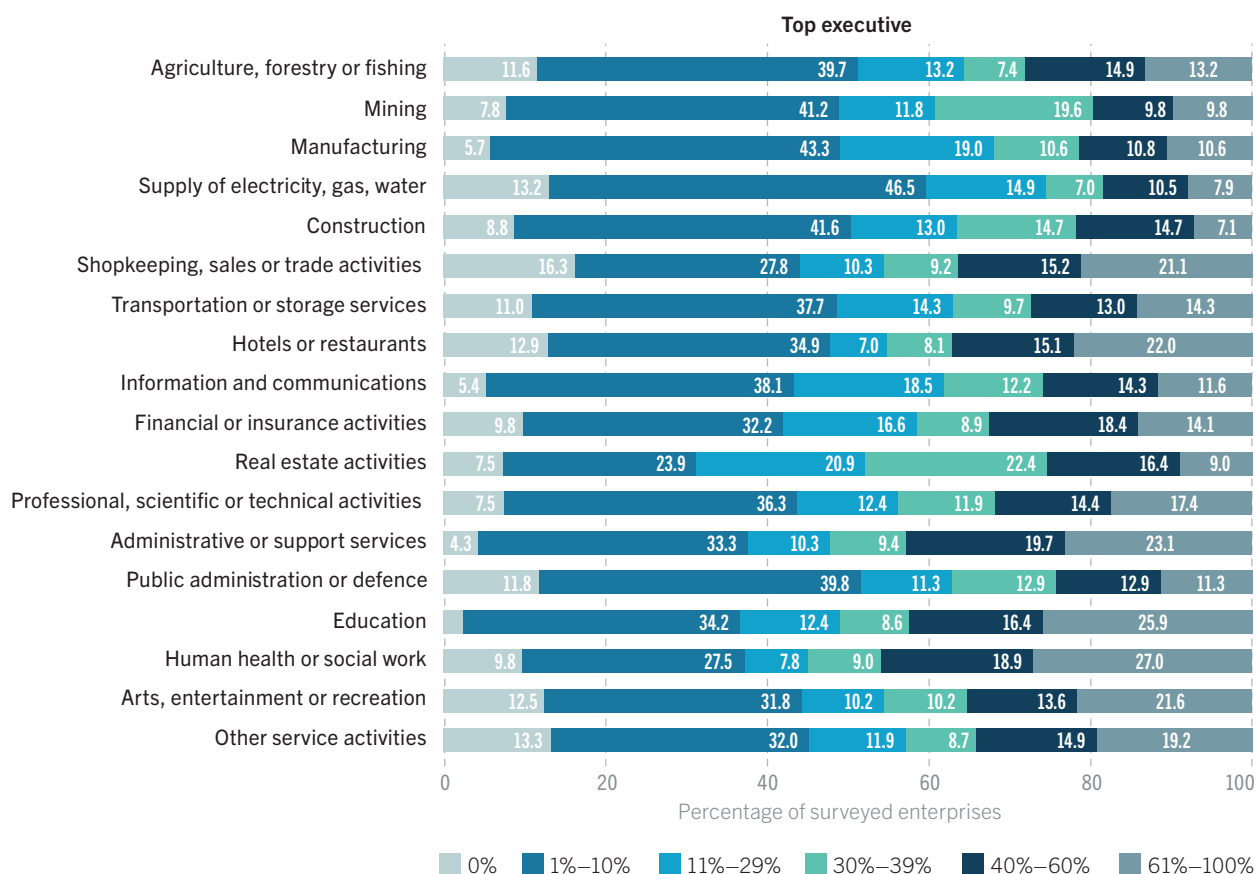
Panel A. Results by enterprise size



Panel B. Results by economic sector







Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Figure A14. Women as employer index (base year 1991=100), 1991–2018, (A) region and world and (B) country income group

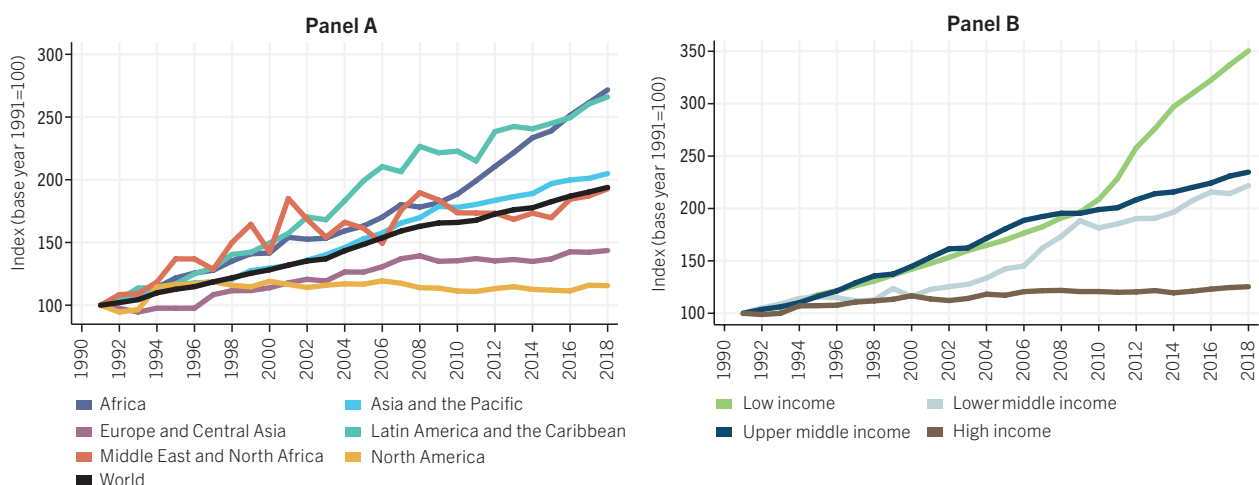


Figure A15. Index of women and men as employers (base year 1991=100), 1991–2018, (A) region and (B) world

Panel A. Index by region



Panel B. World index

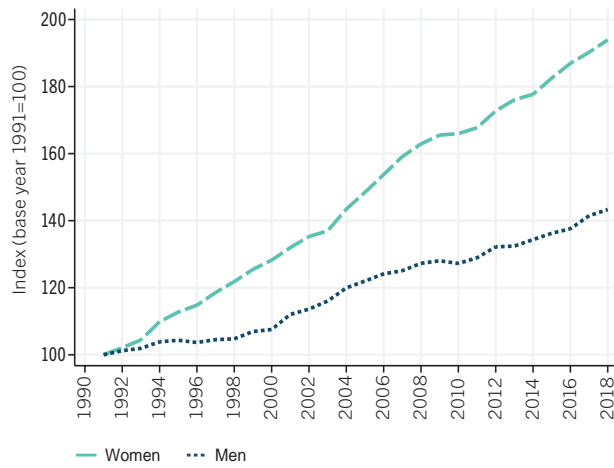
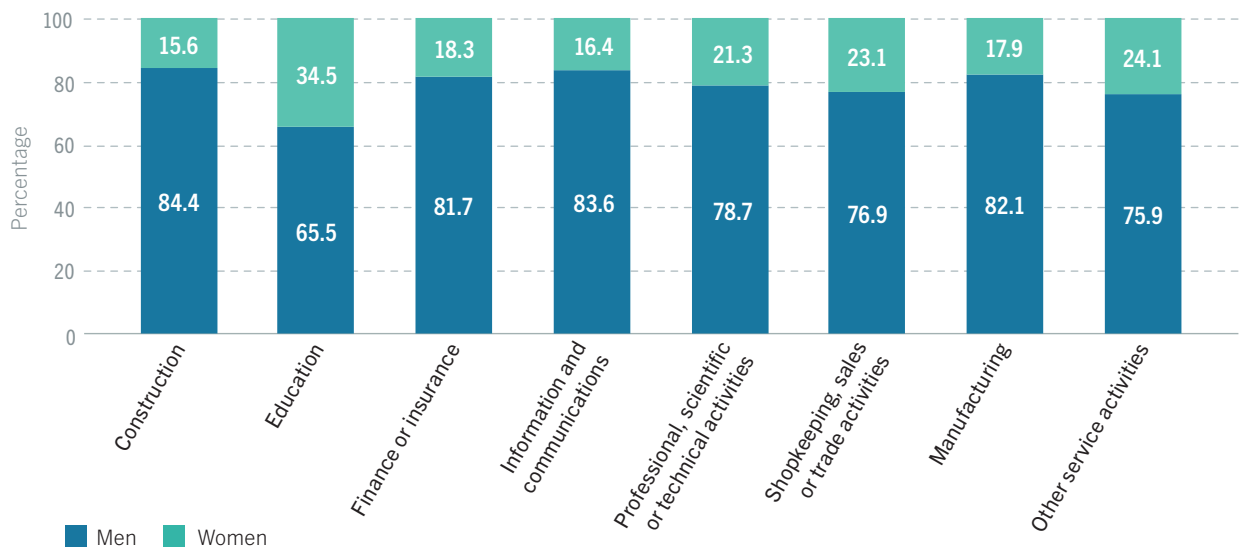


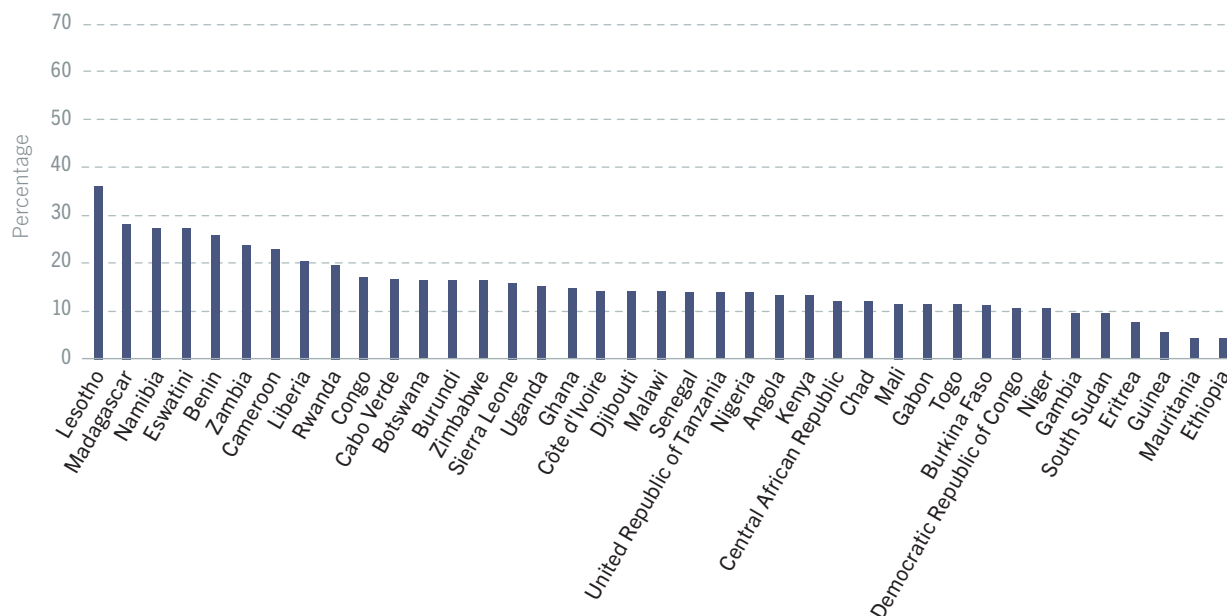
Figure A16. Gender of the CEO in enterprises by economic sector



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

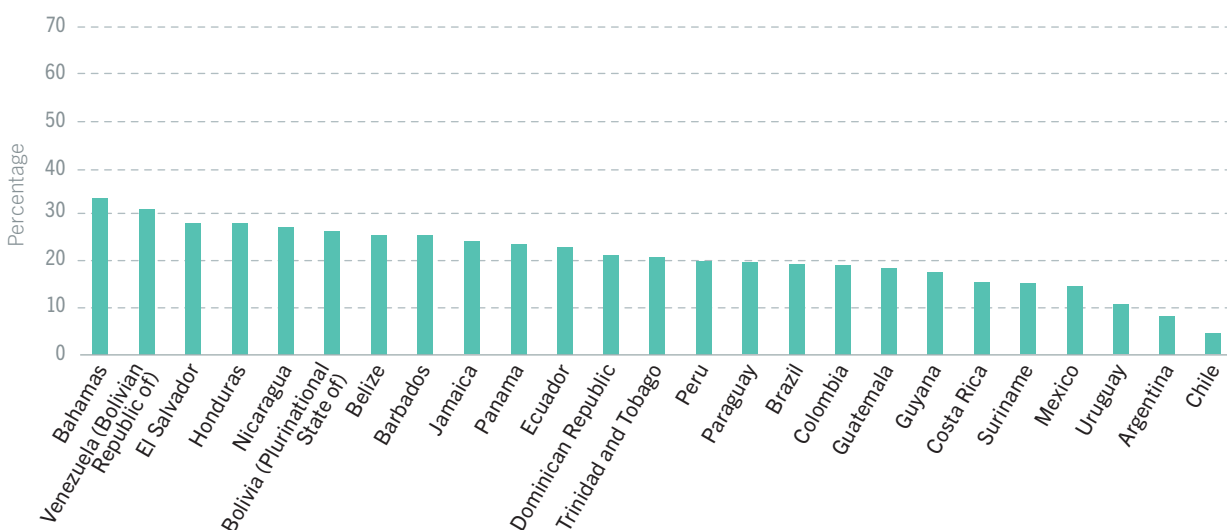
Figure A17. Share of enterprises with a female top manager by region, latest years, (A) Africa, (B) Americas, (C) Asia and the Pacific, (D) Europe and Central Asia and (E) Middle East and North Africa

Panel A. Africa



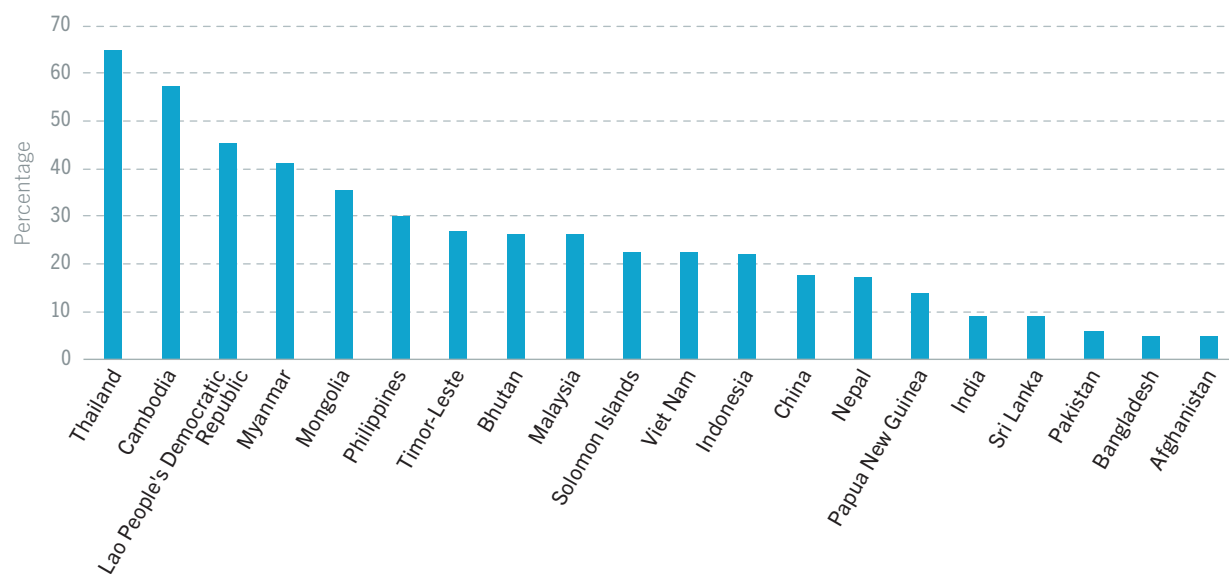
Note: Data are based on enterprise surveys (2016), except for Guinea-Bissau (2006), Mozambique and South Africa (2007), Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, the Congo, Eritrea, Gabon and Mauritius (2009), Angola and Botswana (2010), the Central African Republic and Rwanda (2011), the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Djibouti, Ghana, Kenya, Madagascar, the United Republic of Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia (2013), Burundi, Malawi, Mauritania, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal and South Sudan (2014), Ethiopia (2015), Liberia, the Niger and Sierra Leone (2017), Chad and the Gambia (2018).

Panel B. Americas



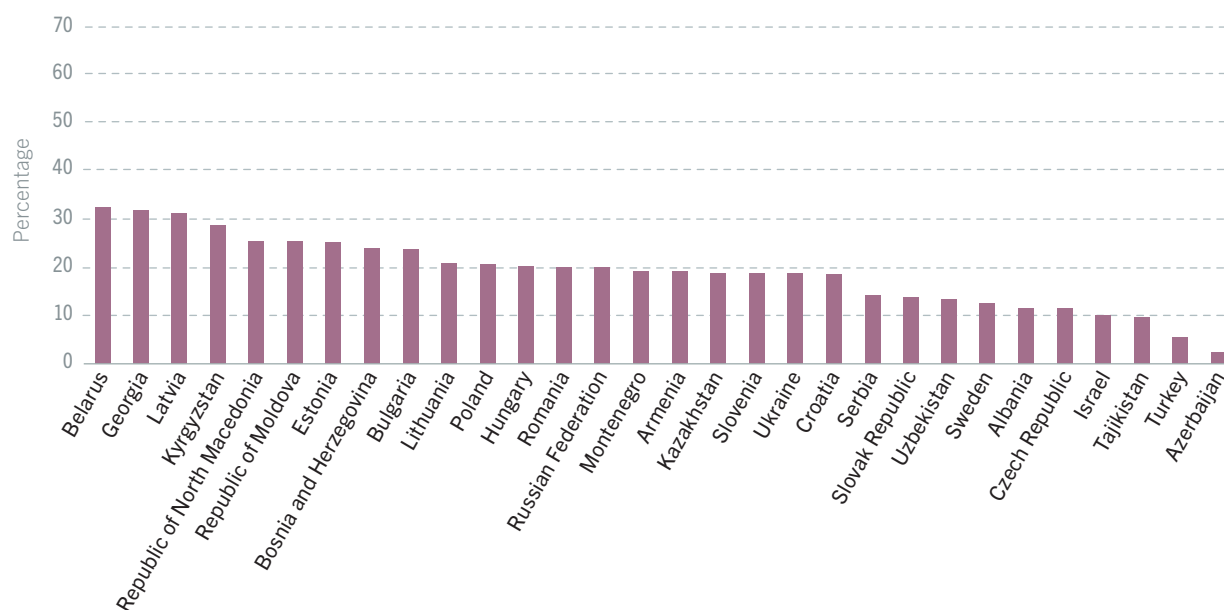
Note: Data are based on enterprise surveys (2010), except for Brazil (2009), the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Honduras and Nicaragua (2016), Argentina, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Colombia, Ecuador, Guatemala, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay (2017).

Panel C. Asia and the Pacific



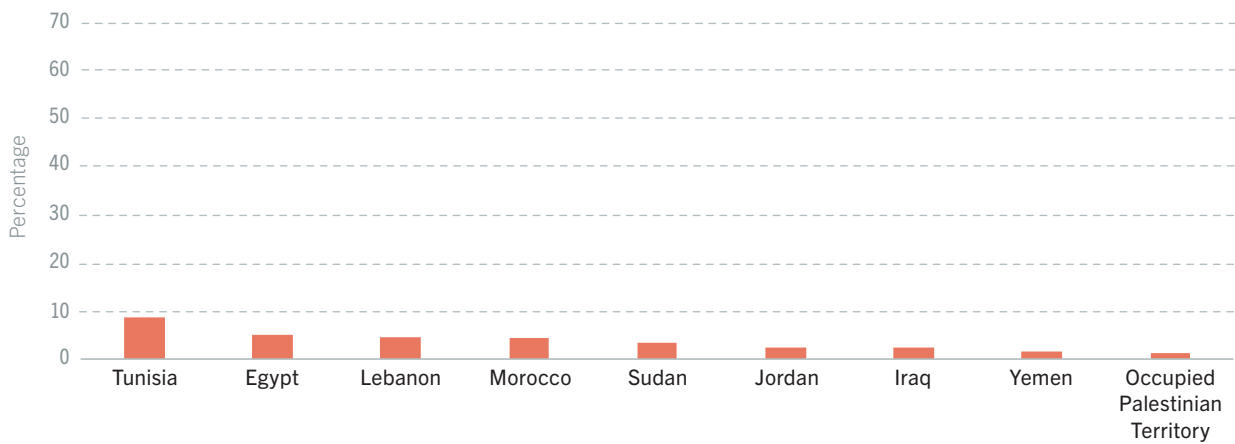
Note: Data are based on enterprise surveys (2015), except for Sri Lanka (2011), China (2012), Bangladesh, Mongolia, Nepal and Pakistan (2013), Afghanistan and India (2014), Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar and Thailand (2016).

Panel D. Europe and Central Asia



Note: Data are based on enterprise surveys (2013), except for the Russian Federation (2012) and Sweden (2014).

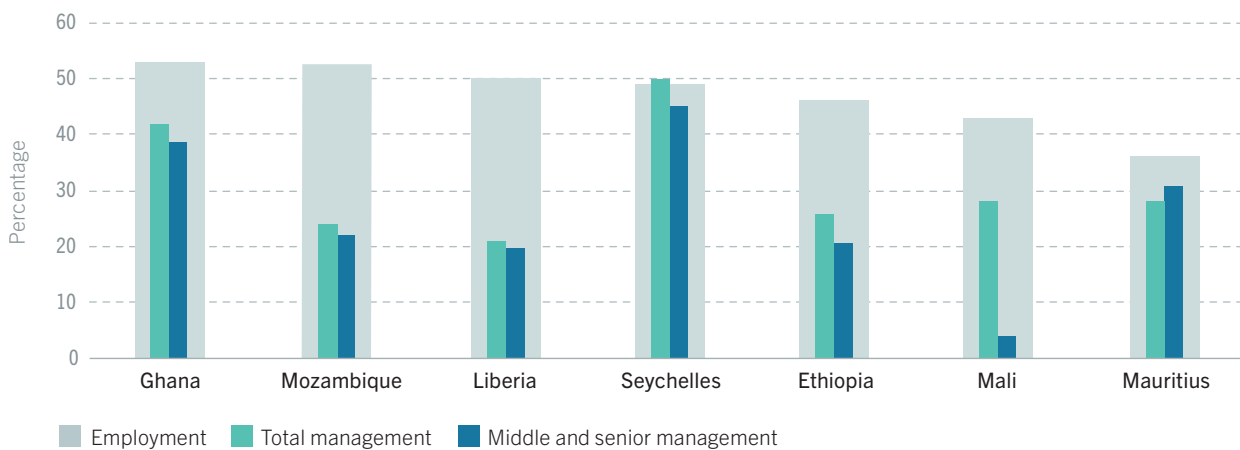
Panel E. Middle East and North Africa



Note: Data are based on enterprise surveys (2013), except for Iraq (2011), the Sudan (2014) and Egypt (2016).
 Source: World Bank, 2019b.

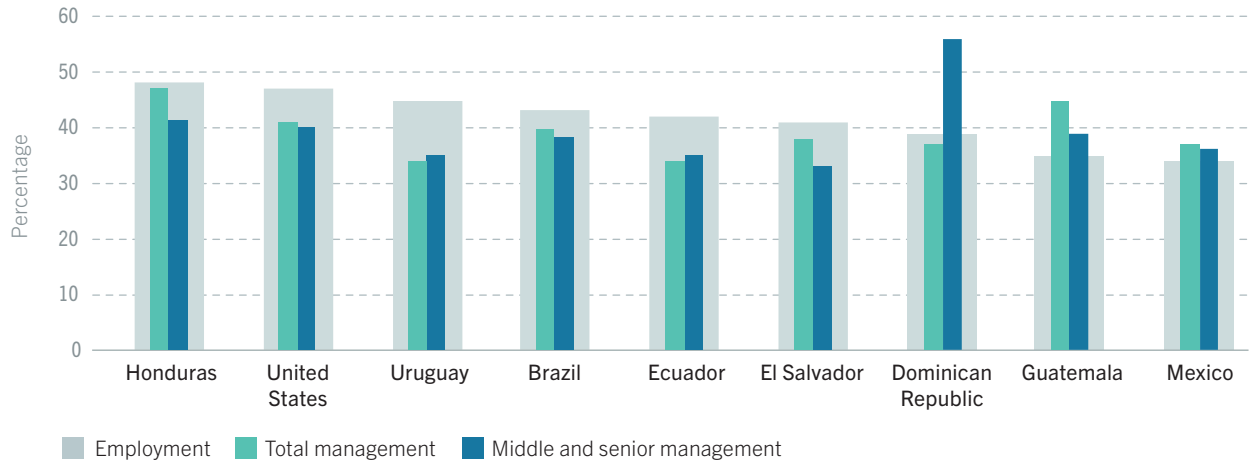
Figure A18. Share of women in employment, total management and middle and senior management by region, latest years, (A) Africa, (B) Americas, (C) Asia and the Pacific, (D) Europe and Central Asia and (E) Middle East and North Africa

Panel A. Africa



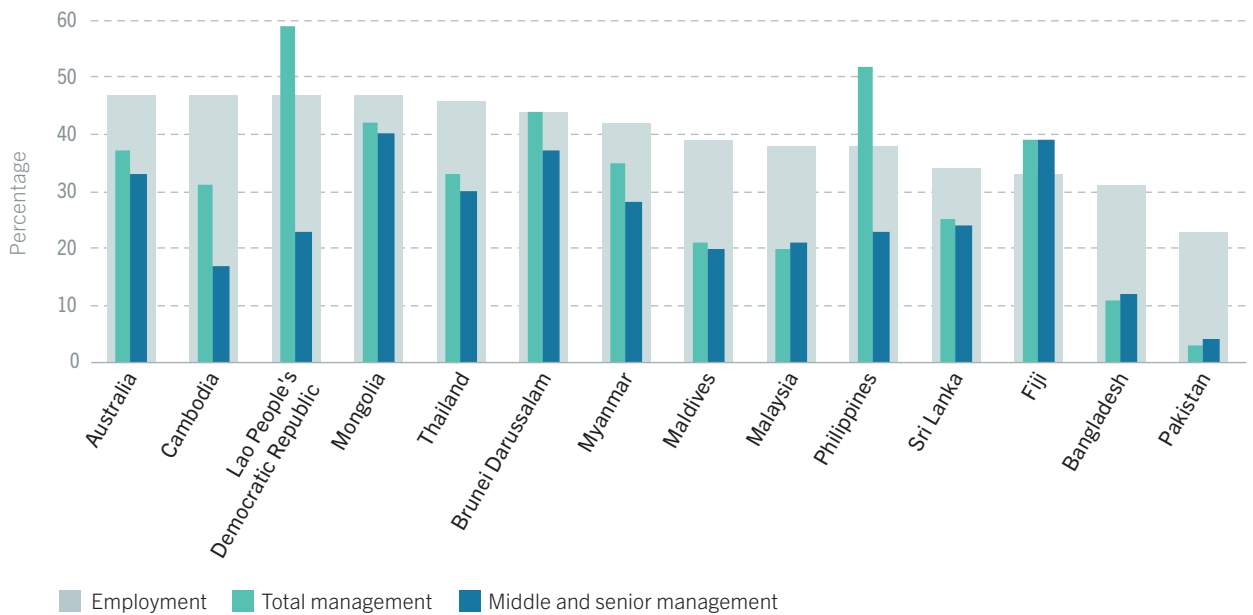
Note: The selected countries had data for each category in a given year. Ghana and Mozambique (2015), Liberia (2010), Mauritius (2011), Ethiopia (2013), Mali (2016) and Seychelles (2017).

Panel B. Americas



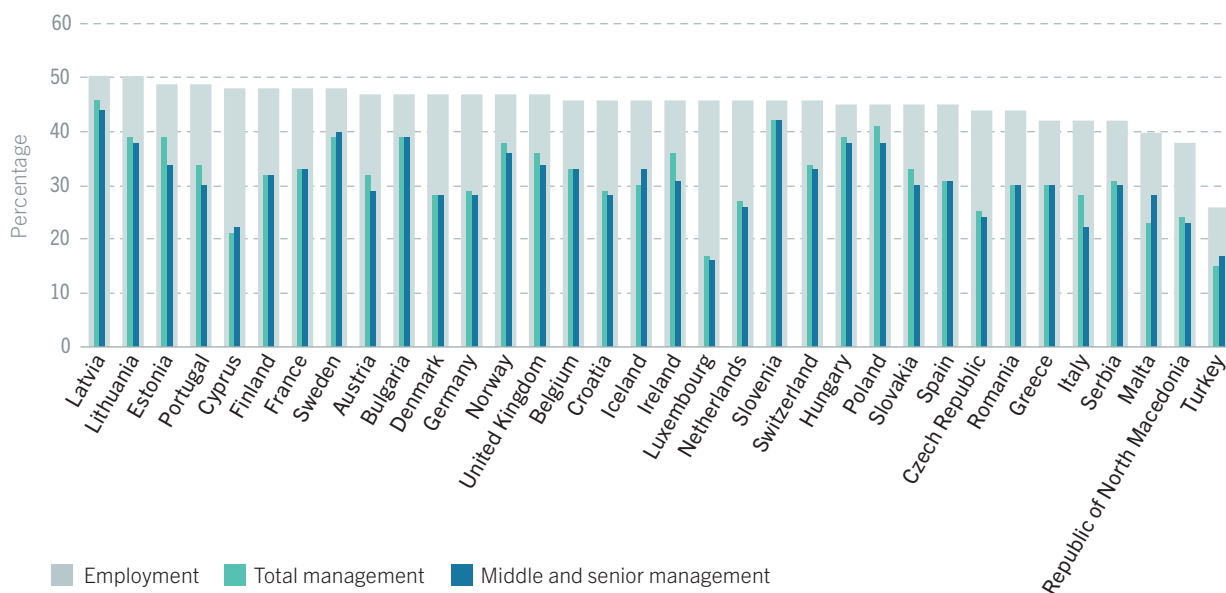
Note: The selected countries had data for each category in a given year. Data are from 2017 except for the Dominican Republic, Guatemala and Honduras (2016).

Panel C. Asia and the Pacific



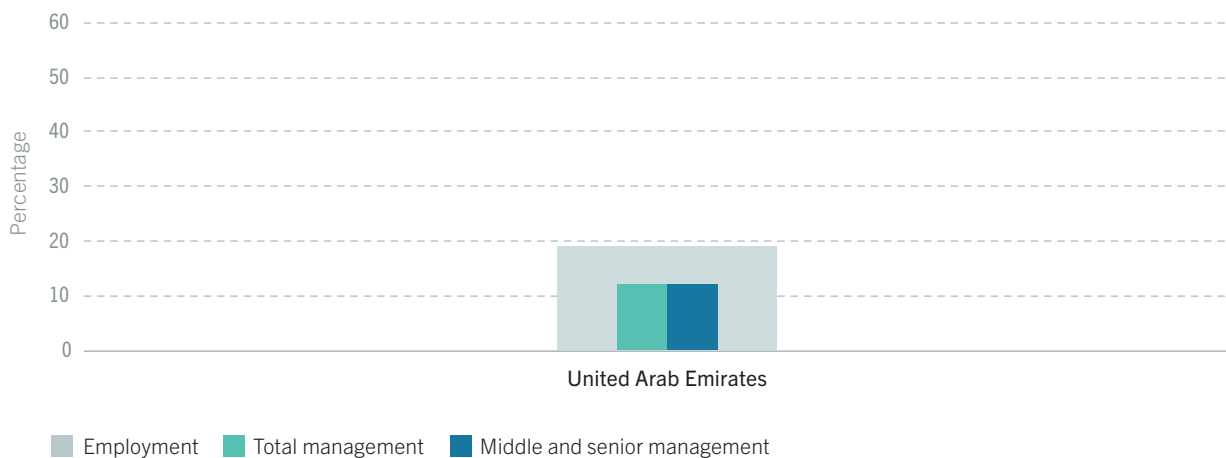
Note: The selected countries had data for each category in a given year. Data are from 2017, except for Cambodia (2012), Sri Lanka (2014) and Australia, Fiji, Malaysia, Maldives, Pakistan and Thailand (2016).

Panel D. Europe and Central Asia



Note: The selected countries had data for each category in a given year. Data are from 2017.

Panel E. Middle East and North Africa

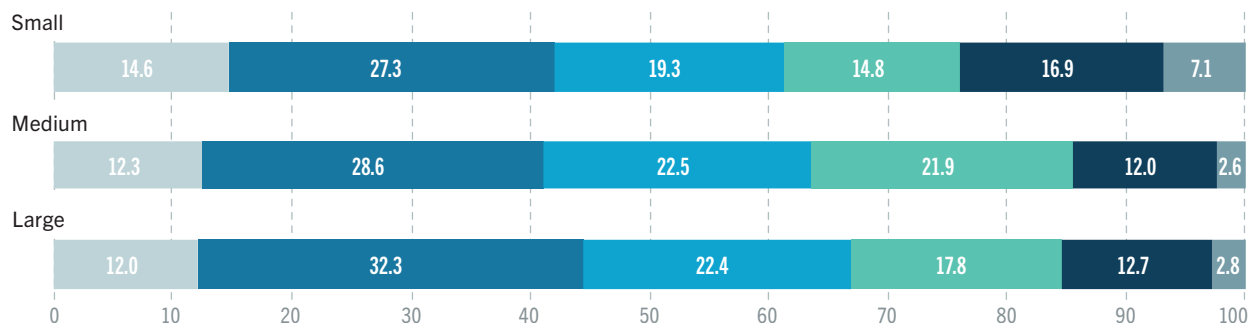


Note: The United Arab Emirates is the only country in the Middle East and North Africa with data across the three categories. Data are from 2017.

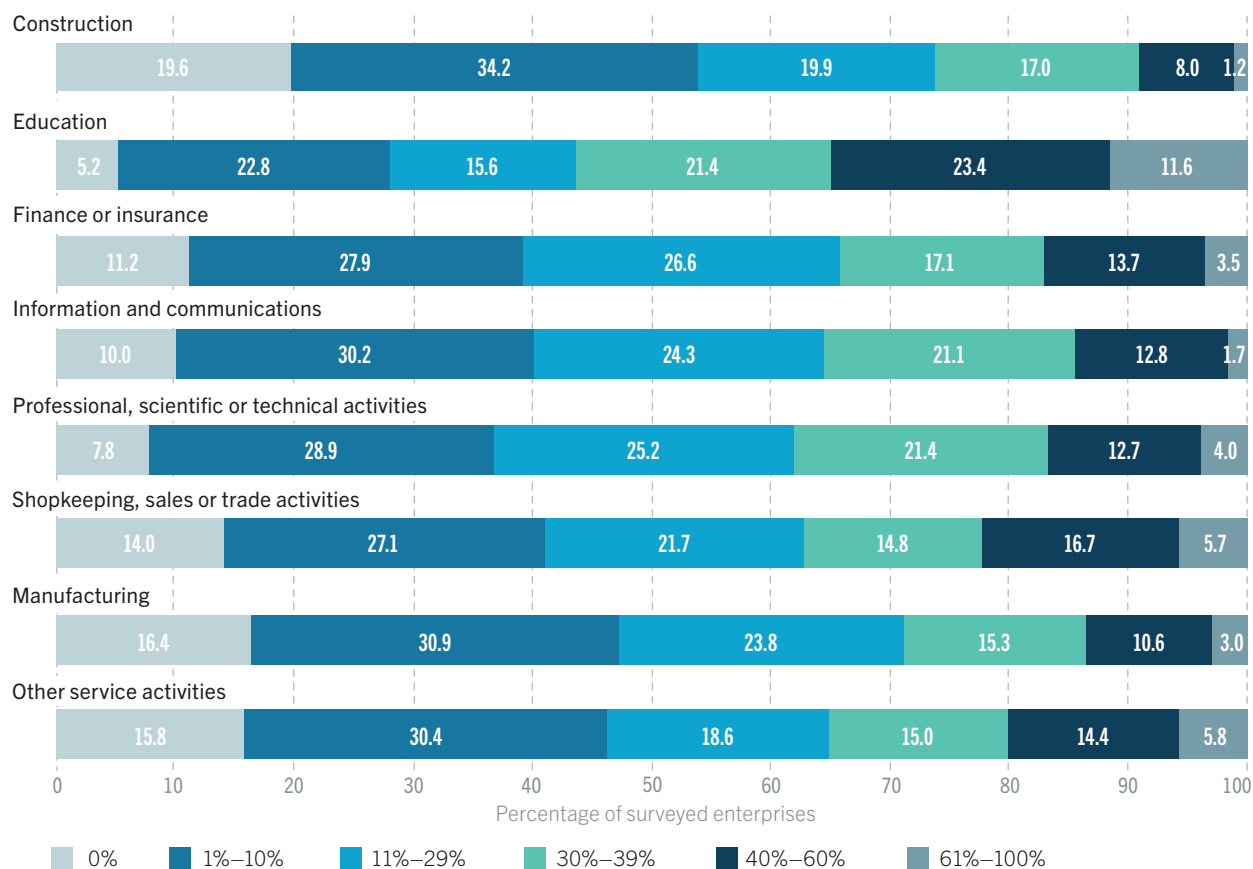
Source: ILOSTAT.

Figure A19. Share of enterprises reporting the proportion of female board members, (A) enterprise size and (B) economic sector

Panel A. Results by enterprise size



Panel B. Results by economic sector



Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Tables

Table A4. Predicted probabilities for enterprises to face challenges in retaining skilled women when the enterprise culture is gender-inclusive

Variables	Average marginal effects
When enterprises have:	
Inclusive business culture	-1.332 (0.0115)
Observations	8,965
Economic activity FE	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes
Country FE	Yes
Region FE	Yes
Standard errors in parentheses *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 Note: FE=fixed effects.	

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A5. Predicted probability for surveyed women to be in management positions in relations to various enterprise characteristics

Variables	Average marginal effects
Firm size (reference: medium)	
Small	3.162** (0.0130)
Large	2.694** (0.0126)
Firm type (reference: national)	
Multinational	3.665*** (0.00990)
Proportion of women in enterprises (reference: 0–29%)	
30–39%	3.695*** (0.0142)
40–60%	10.14*** (0.0145)
61–100%	12.26*** (0.0182)
Board of directors	-2.717*** (0.00977)
Observations	6,174
Economic activity FE	Yes
Department FE	Yes

Region	Yes
--------	-----

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
Note: FE = fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A6. Likelihood for enterprises to have a female CEO in relations to various enterprise initiatives, policies and characteristics

Variables	Average marginal effects
When enterprises have:	
Equal employment opportunity policy Yes	3.081** (0.0124)
Enhanced business outcomes by initiatives on gender diversity Yes	3.915*** (0.0126)
Observations	7,199
Economic activity FE	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes
Country FE	Yes
Region FE	Yes

Variables	Average marginal effects
Proportion of women in enterprises:	
30–39%	5.696*** (0.00993)
40–60%	15.15*** (0.0107)
61–100%	21.75*** (0.0154)
Observations	9,700
Economic activity FE	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes
Country FE	Yes
Region FE	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses
*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
Note: FE=fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A7. Share of enterprises with women as top manager or CEO according to enterprise size by region, latest year

Country	Small	Medium	Large	Latest year
	Percentage			
Africa				
Burundi	22.9	5.1	20.9	2014
Cameroon	20.9	31.8	20.5	2016
Democratic Republic of the Congo	12.2	3.4	6.6	2013
Eswatini	31.3	23.0	14.6	2016
Ethiopia	4.1	5.3	4.9	2015
Ghana	16.9	11.9	8.7	2013
Kenya	18.3	8.0	2.8	2013
Liberia	14.9	34.4	10.2	2017
Madagascar	32.7	27.6	8.8	2013
Mali	13.0	8.3	13.6	2016
Mauritania	2.0	7.2	5.5	2014
Malawi	17.3	13.9	36.0	2014
Namibia	28.3	24.5	21.6	2014
Niger	8.9	16.8	4.7	2017
Nigeria	16.0	5.6	6.2	2014
Sudan	2.5	4.6	4.4	2014
Senegal	18.6	9.2	0.5	2014
Sierra Leone	16.8	12.1	4.0	2017
Uganda	16.8	10.5	6.9	2013
United Republic of Tanzania	13.2	18.3	4.2	2013
Zambia	29.1	11.0	9.6	2013
Zimbabwe	18.8	7.8	1.8	2016

Country	Small	Medium	Large	Latest year
	Percentage			
Americas				
Argentina	9.5	4.7	6.9	2017
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	31.9	10.8	4.2	2017
Colombia	23.2	12.7	11.8	2017
Dominican Republic	25.0	12.8	18.1	2016
Ecuador	25.4	23.7	5.8	2017
El Salvador	26.5	37.7	7.7	2016
Guatemala	20.3	15.3	12.1	2017
Honduras	32.9	20.1	5.1	2016
Nicaragua	23.0	36.9	2.1	2016
Peru	27.1	11.7	17.6	2017
Paraguay	20.5	18.0	19.7	2017
Uruguay	10.9	11.1	5.6	2017
Asia and the Pacific				
Afghanistan	2.8	9.0	8.0	2014
Bangladesh	3.6	2.7	9.4	2013
Bhutan	27.1	27.5	7.3	2015
Cambodia	57.2	52.1	80.7	2016
Indonesia	23.5	17.4	12.9	2015
India	6.9	7.7	19.1	2014
Lao People's Democratic Republic	48.2	17.5	6.9	2016
Myanmar	44.5	34.9	37.3	2016
Mongolia	41.3	30.7	17.7	2013
Malaysia	25.0	26.5	41.0	2015
Philippines	29.6	33.9	14.0	2015
Nepal	17.4	9.6	63.8	2013
Papua New Guinea	17.3	9.2	19.4	2015
Pakistan	1.5	3.7	23.8	2013
Solomon Islands	26.4	21.4	14.8	2015
Thailand	61.3	70.8	75.2	2016
Timor-Leste	26.3	21.4	57.8	2015
Viet Nam	26.9	16.7	16.1	2015

Country	Small	Medium	Large	Latest year
Europe and Central Asia				
Armenia	21.6	19.8	7.1	2013
Azerbaijan	1.6	3.8	0.0	2013
Bulgaria	28.1	14.6	14.7	2013
Belarus	37.1	27.7	19.9	2013
Croatia	22.3	10.2	12.5	2013
Czech Republic	12.5	11.3	5.5	2013
Estonia	25.6	25.6	15.1	2013
Georgia	32.4	36.2	8.0	2013
Hungary	23.8	12.8	8.0	2013
Kazakhstan	23.2	15.6	4.9	2013
Kosovo	20.5	16.6	19.2	2013
Kyrgyz Republic	25.5	41.0	11.4	2013
Lithuania	22.5	19.6	2.1	2013
Latvia	36.9	18.5	10.2	2013
Montenegro	22.4	9.5	4.3	2013
Poland	40.5	36.5	34.2	2013
Republic of Moldova	28.7	21.0	2.9	2013
Republic of North Macedonia	27.1	18.5	22.2	2013
Romania	19.4	21.0	25.2	2013
Russia	25.7	15.2	10.1	2012
Slovakia	15.1	11.8	14.2	2013
Slovenia	17.9	23.4	11.1	2013
Sweden	14.5	11.4	7.2	2014
Tajikistan	11.5	8.3	4.1	2013
Turkey	5.1	7.1	2.1	2013
Ukraine	24.1	10.7	8.8	2013
Uzbekistan	23.8	28.2	26.9	2013

Source: World Bank, 2019b.

Table A8. Women CEOs of publicly listed companies for selected countries, latest years

Country or region	Index	Year	Women CEOs (percentage of companies)	Source
Argentina	MERVAL	2018	3	Rivas, 2018
Australia	Australian Securities Exchange (ASX) 200	2018	7	Chief Executive Women, 2018
Brazil	BM&FBOVESPA	2016	6	SSE, 2017
Canada	Standard & Poor's (S&P)/ Toronto Stock Exchange (TSX) 246 S&P/TSX 60	2017	7	Rosenzweig and Company. 2017; Ligaya and Deschamps, 2018
		2017	0	
Europe	STOXX Europe 600 EU 28	2017	4	Elders and Mahmud, 2017; European Institute for Gender Equality, 2019
		2018	6.3	
Finland	NASDAQ OMX HELSINKI 125	2017	7.2	FINNCHAM, 2017
France	CAC40 SBF120	2018	2.5	Sciolino, 2018; Les Echos Executives, 2018
		2018	5	
Germany	DAX 30 DAX 160	2018	0	Handelsblatt, 2019; Holst and Wrohlich, 2018
		2018	3	
Hong Kong, China	Hang Seng Index 51	2018	2	Ngai, 2018
India	Bombay Stock Exchange 500	2016	3.4	The Economic Times, 2016
Japan	Nikkei 225 Tokyo Stock Price Index 100	2017	0.4	Spencer Stuart, 2017
		2017	0	
Kenya	Nairobi Stock Exchange 65	2018	3	Katsiya, 2018
New Zealand	New Zealand Stock Exchange (NZX) 50	2017	2	Shaw, 2017
Nigeria	Nigerian Stock Exchange 146	2016	6.7	Deloitte, 2017
Peru	BVL 249	2018	5.6	Villar, 2018
Republic of Korea	KOSDAQ Index	2018	2.8	KOSDAQ, 2018
South Africa	Johannesburg Stock Exchange (JSE) 40	2017	2.5	Mkhonza, 2017
Spain	IBEX 35	2017	11	IESE Insight, 2018
United Kingdom	Financial Times Stock Exchange (FTSE) 100 FTSE 250 FTSE 350	2018	7	Vinnicombe, Doldor and Sealy, 2018; Statista, 2018
		2018	2	
		2018	5.1	
United States of America	Fortune 500	2018	4.8	Fortune Media, 2017

Note: Data for Europe include the 50 largest companies of the primary blue-chip index. The blue-chip index covers the largest companies worldwide by market capitalization and/or trade.

Table A9. Likelihood for enterprises to have women in middle management, senior management and executive positions in relations to (A) the effects of a gender-balanced workforce, a female CEO, female chairperson and women in boards and (B) the effects of enhanced profits

Panel A. Average marginal effects of a gender-balanced workforce, a female CEO, female chairperson and women in boards

Variables	Management		
	Middle	Senior	Executive
Gender-balanced workforce (reference: no)	12.61***	7.507***	10.60***
Yes	(0.0138)	(0.0146)	(0.0177)
Woman CEO (reference: no)	3.230**	6.576***	3.890**
Yes	(0.0155)	(0.0176)	(0.0189)
Woman chairperson (reference: no)	0.278	6.515***	3.165*
Yes	(0.0133)	(0.0163)	(0.0183)
Women in board of directors (reference: yes)	-7.928***	-1.825	0.242
No	(0.0160)	(0.0336)	(0.0500)
Observations	3,717	2,906	1,914
Economic activity FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region FE	Yes	Yes	Yes

Panel B. Average marginal effects of enhanced profits

Variables	Management		
	Middle	Senior	Executive
Increased profits over 10 per cent (reference: no)	3.311**	1.951	2.579
Yes	(0.0160)	(0.0199)	(0.0268)
Woman CEO (reference: no)	2.375	5.067**	4.519*
Yes	(0.0208)	(0.0235)	(0.0273)
Observations	1,901	1,512	963
Economic activity FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm type (national/multinational) FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Technology-enhancing productivity FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region FE	Yes	Yes	Yes

Table A10. The likelihood for women to be managers by function by (A) middle management and (B) senior management**Panel A. Middle management, average marginal effects**

Variables	Human resources	Profit and loss	Operations	General manager
Gender-balanced workforce (reference: no) Yes	1.993 (0.0157)	5.200*** (0.0122)	7.584*** (0.0140)	5.807*** (0.0133)
Inclusive business environment (reference: no) Yes	6.757*** (0.0149)	-0.464 (0.0111)	2.639** (0.0132)	5.359*** (0.0126)
Enhanced business outcomes (reference: no) Yes	2.680 (0.0207)	2.505 (0.0152)	1.465 (0.0182)	-2.284 (0.0181)
Challenge to retain skilled women (reference: no) Yes	-1.620 (0.0153)	1.121 (0.0114)	-2.823** (0.0135)	-1.260 (0.0129)
Enterprise size (reference: small and medium) Large	14.51*** (0.0151)	3.674*** (0.0117)	6.912*** (0.0137)	8.071*** (0.0132)
Enterprise type (reference: national) Multinational	3.316** (0.0165)	1.451 (0.0126)	4.103*** (0.0148)	3.122** (0.0142)
Woman CEO (reference: no) Yes	0.590 (0.0187)	6.885*** (0.0150)	2.755* (0.0165)	6.818*** (0.0164)
Woman chairperson (reference: no) Yes	-1.728 (0.0172)	4.842*** (0.0135)	3.396** (0.0153)	1.762 (0.0143)
Women in boards of directors (reference: yes) No women	-15.04*** (0.0252)	-6.208*** (0.0183)	-8.000*** (0.0220)	-9.543*** (0.0196)
Observations	5,182	5,182	5,182	5,182
Economic activity FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Note: FE=fixed effects.

Panel B. Senior management, average marginal effects

Variables	Human resources	Profit and loss	Operations	General manager
Gender-balanced workforce (reference: no) Yes	1.172 (0.0150)	1.968 (0.0121)	4.987*** (0.0137)	6.385*** (0.0148)
Inclusive business environment (reference: no) Yes	6.366*** (0.0141)	1.191 (0.0115)	3.969*** (0.0130)	8.278*** (0.0141)
Enhanced business outcomes (reference: no) Yes	6.168*** (0.0200)	2.721* (0.0151)	2.288 (0.0178)	1.080 (0.0198)

Variables	Human resources	Profit and loss	Operations	General manager
Enterprise size (reference: small and medium)	12.51***	5.509***	8.258***	8.667***
Large	(0.0143)	(0.0120)	(0.0135)	(0.0147)
Enterprise type (reference: national)	0.937	1.290	5.174***	2.044
Multinational	(0.0157)	(0.0126)	(0.0146)	(0.0158)
Woman CEO (reference: no)	-0.768	7.195***	6.778***	12.59***
Yes	(0.0179)	(0.0153)	(0.0168)	(0.0181)
Woman chairperson (reference: no)	0.700	6.496***	2.243	4.906***
Yes	(0.0164)	(0.0140)	(0.0149)	(0.0163)
Women in boards of directors (reference: yes)	-17.25***	-6.258***	-5.914***	-12.71***
No women	(0.0257)	(0.0187)	(0.0221)	(0.0227)
Observations	5,182	5,182	5,182	5,182
Economic activity FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Note: FE=fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A11. Share of women on boards for listed or largest companies for selected countries, latest years

Country	Stock exchange	Year	Women on boards (percentage)	Source
Argentina	MERVAL 106	2017	7.8	Comisión Nacional de Valores (National Securities Commission), 2017
	MERVAL 256	2017	10.4	
Australia	ASX200	2018	29.7	Australian Institute of Company Directors, 2019
	ASX300	2018	26.5	
Brazil	BM&FBOVESPA 223 largest	2016	6	SSE, 2017
Canada	FP500	2017	22.6	Canadian Board Diversity Council, 2017
	TSX60	2017	24.9	
Hong Kong, China	Hang Seng Index 51	2018	13.8	Ngai, 2018
Finland	NASDAQ Helsinki 125	2017	27	FINNCHAM, 2017
France	CAX40 Supervisory boards	2018	42.3	Les Echos Executives, 2018; Secrétariat d'État chargé de l'Égalité entre les femmes et les hommes et la lutte contre les discriminations, 2018
	CAX40 Executive boards	2018	14.7	
	SBF120 Supervisory boards	2018	42.6	
	SBF 120 Executive boards	2018	15.3	
Germany	200 executive boards	2017	8.1	Holst and Wrohlich, 2018
	200 supervisory boards	2017	24.6	
	DAX30 executive boards	2017	13	
	DAX30 supervisory boards	2017	33.3	

Country	Stock exchange	Year	Women on boards (percentage)	Source
Malaysia	Bursa Malaysia 100	2017	19.2	Securities Commission Malaysia, 2018
Montenegro*	Largest blue-chip companies	2018	41	European Institute for Gender Equality, 2019
New Zealand	NZX100 S&P/NZX50	2018 2017	24.1 27	McLennan, McGregor and Eaqub, 2018; Scoop Business, 2018
Pakistan	KSE-100	2016	4	South Asian Federation of Exchanges, 2016
Poland*	Largest blue-chip companies	2018	23.8	European Institute for Gender Equality, 2019
Romania*	Largest blue-chip companies	2018	8.2	European Institute for Gender Equality, 2019
Panama	Private 495 Public 86	2018 2018	14 18	Women Corporate Directors' Association of Panama, 2018
Singapore	SGX100 SGX 738 (all)	2018 2018	14.7 11.2	Diversity Action Committee, 2018
Spain	133 listed companies IBEX 35	2018 2018	19 24	IESE Insight, 2018
South Africa	JSE 277	2017	19.1	BWASA, 2017
Sri Lanka	CSE	2017	8.2	International Finance Corporation, 2018
United Kingdom	FTSE 100 FTSE 250	2018 2018	29 23.7	Vinnicombe, Doldor and Sealy, 2018
United States	S&P 500 Russell 3000	2019 2018	21.2 17.7	Equilar, 2018; Catalyst, 2019a

Note: In some countries, data are available for one or more groups of listed companies, based on their level of capitalization, and in others data are available for only the very largest listed companies.

* Companies with ISIN code.

Table A12. Share of companies with women as board chairpersons in publicly listed companies for selected countries and region

Country or region	Stock exchange	Year	Share of companies with a woman board chairperson (percentage)	Source
EU 28	Largest blue-chip companies	2018	7.5	European Institute for Gender Equality, 2019
Argentina	MERVAL 256	2017	3	Comisión Nacional de Valores (National Securities Commission), 2017
Australia	ASX200	2018	6	Australian Institute of Company Directors, 2018
Germany	200 largest (executive)	2017	3.4	Holst and Wrohlich, 2018
	200 largest (supervisory)	2017	1.4	
	100 largest (executive)	2017	0.0	
	100 largest (supervisory)	2017	1.4	
France	SBF 120	2017	3	Les Echos Executives, 2018
Montenegro*	Primary blue-chip index	2018	20	European Institute for Gender Equality, 2019
Romania*	Primary blue-chip index	2018	8.3	European Institute for Gender Equality, 2019
Serbia*	Primary blue-chip index	2018	27.3	European Institute for Gender Equality, 2019
South Africa	JSE 277	2017	6.9	BWASA, 2017
United Kingdom	FTSE 100	2017	7	Vinnicombe, Doldor and Sealy, 2018
United States	Fortune 500	2016	6	Whitler and Henretta, 2018

Note: * Companies with ISIN code.

Table A13. Likelihood of enhanced business outcomes in relations to the proportion of women on boards and female chairperson

Variables	Average marginal effects	
Proportion of women on boards (reference: 0%)		
1–10%	15.75***	(0.0237)
11–29%	18.65***	(0.0245)
30–39%	18.49***	(0.0255)
40–60%	19.68***	(0.0264)
61–100%	14.65***	(0.0367)
Gender of the chairperson (reference: man)	3.184**	(0.0125)
Woman		
Observations	5,451	5,441
Economic activity FE	Yes	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes	Yes
Country FE	Yes	Yes
Region FE	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses
 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
 Note: FE=fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A14. Likelihood of an enterprise to have a woman as the board chair in relations to various enterprise initiatives, policies and characteristics

Variables	Average marginal effects	
Enhanced business outcomes by gender diversity initiatives	4.675***	(0.0165)
Yes		
Equal employment opportunity policy	4.179***	(0.0156)
Yes		

Female CEO	16.97***
Yes	(0.0169)
Company's culture on gender diversity	1.220
Inclusive	(0.0127)
Firm type (reference: multinational)	-2.090
National	(0.0140)
Firm size	-3.195**
Large	(0.0128)
Observations	5,353
Economic activity FE	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes
Country FE	Yes
Region FE	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses
 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
 Note: FE=fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A15. Effect of gender-balanced boards on the likelihood for women to be in senior management and top executive positions

Variables	Average marginal effects	
Senior management	3.046***	(0.00801)
Top executive	5.981***	(0.00979)
Observations	6,410	6,410
Economic activity FE	Yes	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes	Yes
Country FE	Yes	Yes
Region FE	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses
 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
 Note: FE=fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A16. Measures undertaken in terms of laws and voluntary initiatives to accelerate the inclusion of women on boards for selected countries

Country	Type of measure	Year introduced	Source
Australia	Securities Exchange adopted diversity reporting guidelines as a corporate governance measure.	2010	Australian Securities Exchange Corporate Governance Council, 2007
	Corporate governance guidelines introduced with 30 per cent target. Monitored through “if not explain why not”.	2018	
Canada	Nine provincial Securities Exchange Commissions introduced comply-and-explain rules on the disclosure of the percentage of female board directors.	2014	Ontario Securities Commission, 2014
Chile	Securities Exchange Commission enacted new rules on disclosing gender diversity on a comply and explain basis for listed companies.	2015	Deloitte, 2017
France	Quota law requiring 40 per cent female directorship by 2016.	2011	Catalyst, 2019b
Germany	Quota law of 20 per cent women for supervisory boards of listed companies. If not filled by women, board position must remain vacant.	2016	Deloitte, 2017
Hong Kong, China	HK Stock Exchange Corporate Governance Code obliges companies to report on gender diversity policies and if not explain why not.	2013	Deloitte, 2017
India	Companies' Act requires at least one woman on the board of listed companies and fines exist for non-compliance.	2013	Catalyst, 2019b
Italy	33 per cent of the unrepresented gender. Large fines for non-compliance.	2011	Catalyst, 2019b
Japan	Government target of 10 per cent for leadership positions in private and public sector to be filled by women by 2020.	2014	Deloitte, 2017
	Corporate governance reports of listed companies required to indicate share of women on boards and to report on initiatives to increase women's participation.	2015	
Kenya	Quota 33 per cent of each gender in state companies.	2010	Catalyst, 2019b
Malaysia	Government policy for women to comprise of at least 30 per cent of senior management and board positions of companies with more than 250 employees by 2016.	2011	Deloitte, 2017
Netherlands	All public companies with more than 250 employees required to have 30 per cent board seats filled by women.	2011	Catalyst, 2019b
New Zealand	Stock Exchange (NZX) Corporate Governance Best Practice Code requires listed companies to report on their diversity policy with measurable objectives and an annual assessment of progress. Gender diversity should be addressed as a minimum.	2017	Simpson Grierson, 2017
Norway	40 per cent quota for publicly listed and state companies by 2008. Possible sanctions include company non-registration, dissolution of the company by court order and fines.	2006	Catalyst, 2019b
Panama	30 per cent quota for state and certain private entities by 2020.	2017	Castillo, 2018
Philippines	Corporate code of governance requires a gender diversity policy with a “comply or explain” approach.	2016	Securities and Exchange Commission, 2016
Romania	Corporate governance rule for all BSE-listed companies to comply with or explain why not in relation to gender balance on their boards and committees.	2016	Deloitte, 2017

Country	Type of measure	Year introduced	Source
South Africa	JSE requires listed companies to have and report on their policies on the promotion of gender diversity at board level.	Jan. 2017	BWASA, 2017
	Six months later, JSE required disclosure of racial diversity on boards.	June 2017	
Spain	40 per cent quota all publicly listed companies with more than 250 employees.	2007	Catalyst, 2019b
	Good Governance Code of Listed Companies recommends a 30 per cent representation of women serving on boards by 2020, on a comply-or-explain basis.	2015	
Sweden	Swedish Annual Accounts Act requires companies to disclose information on the gender proportionality of their managers in the companies' annual reports. The Corporate Code of Conduct indicates that companies are to strive for gender balance on their boards.	2015	Swedish Corporate Governance Board, 2016
Switzerland	Quota law for firms listed on the Swiss stock exchange and with more than 250 employees that women must make up at least 30 per cent of board members and at least 20 per cent of management. No sanctions but requirement to explain non-compliance	June 2018	SWI, 2018
United Kingdom	Corporate governance code includes "comply or explain" clause on gender diversity and applies to all companies with a premium listing of equity shares regardless of whether they are incorporated in the United Kingdom or elsewhere.	June 2016	Financial Reporting Council, 2016
California, United States	Quota law for companies headquartered in California: two women on five-person boards by 2019 and three women on seven-person boards by 2021	Oct. 2018	Mirvis and Schwartz, 2018

Table A17. The effect of enterprises with a male dominated culture on the likelihood for the chairperson to be a woman and boardroom to be all-male

Variables	Average marginal effects
Female chairperson	-23.53*** (0.0222)
All-male board (0 per cent women)	19.82*** (0.0200)
Observations	3,831
Economic activity FE	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes
Country FE	Yes
Region FE	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses
 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
 Note: FE=fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A18. The effect of gender-balanced boards on the likelihood for an enterprise to have a gender-inclusive culture

Variables	Average marginal effects
Gender-inclusive business culture	4.069*** (0.00849)
Observations	6,679
Economic activity FE	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes
Country FE	Yes
Region FE	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses
 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
 Note: FE=fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A19. Average marginal effects of a gender-inclusive business culture on the likelihood for enterprises to have women in various management levels

Variables	Management level		
	Middle	Senior	Top executive
Company's business culture (reference: male- and female-dominated): Gender-inclusive culture	8.901*** (0.0122)	11.60*** (0.0134)	11.51*** (0.0129)
Observations	6,433	6,433	6,433
Economic activity FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region FE	Yes	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses
 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
 Note: FE=fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Table A20. Average marginal effects of an equal employment opportunity policy or diversity and inclusion policy on the likelihood for enterprises to have women in various management levels and on enhanced business outcomes

Variables	Management level			Business outcomes
	Middle	Senior	Top executive	
Inclusion policies	3.851*** (0.0134)	5.933*** (0.0141)	4.470*** (0.0128)	26.08*** (0.0145)
Observations	8,705	8,705	8,705	7,199
Economic activity FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm size FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Firm type FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Country FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Region FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes

Standard errors in parentheses
 *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1
 Note: FE=fixed effects.

Source: ILO enterprise survey, 2018.

Annex III. Glossary

For the purpose of this report, the following definitions are used.

Critical mass. Enterprises with at least 30 per cent of women in management or boards have a critical mass in terms of influencing and decision making.

Gender-balance. A workforce consisting of 40 to 60 per cent of either sex.

Gender bias. Gender bias is a preference or prejudice toward one gender over the other. Bias can be conscious or unconscious. It can detract from objectivity in recruitment and promotion decisions.

Gender division of labour. Allocation of different jobs or types of work to women and men both in the labour market.

Gender-inclusive culture. The working environment values the individual and group differences that women and men bring to the workplace.

Gender pay gap. The average difference between remuneration of working men and women.

Glass ceiling. An intangible barrier within a hierarchy that hinders women from obtaining upper-level positions.

Glass walls. Invisible barriers within an organization that boxes women into certain managerial roles (e.g. administrative support functions), preventing them from moving into strategic functions that lead to higher levels of decision making.

Golden skirts. Women who accumulate board directorships in bulk and sit on multiple enterprise boards.

Leaky pipeline. The disappearance of women at senior and executive levels of management.

Occupational gender segregation. The unequal distribution of women and men in certain occupations or industries, or in organizational hierarchies. It manifests itself in two distinct ways: horizontal segregation is under- or over-representation of women and men in certain occupations or industries; vertical segregation is the imbalance between women and men in leadership and management jobs with one gender having a disproportionate share.

Annex IV. Country groupings by region and income level

Country and territory groupings by region

Region	Sub-region	Countries
Africa (Sub-Saharan)		Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Cabo Verde, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Comoros, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Equatorial Guinea, Eritrea, Eswatini, Ethiopia, Gabon, the Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Lesotho, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, the Niger, Nigeria, Rwanda, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Africa, South Sudan, the United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe
Americas	Latin America and the Caribbean	Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, the Bahamas, Barbados, Belize, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Grenada, Guatemala, Guyana, Haiti, Honduras, Jamaica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Puerto Rico, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Suriname, Trinidad and Tobago, the United States Virgin Islands, Uruguay, Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)
	Northern America	Canada, the United States
Asia and the Pacific	Eastern Asia	China, Hong Kong (China), Japan, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, the Republic of Korea, Macau (China), Mongolia, Taiwan (China)
	South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific	Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Fiji, French Polynesia, Guam, Indonesia, Kiribati, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, the Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Myanmar, Nauru, New Caledonia, New Zealand, Palau, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Samoa, Singapore, Solomon Islands, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu, Viet Nam
	Southern Asia	Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka
Europe and Central Asia	Northern, Southern and Western Europe	Albania, Andorra, Austria, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Channel Islands, Croatia, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Republic of North Macedonia, Malta, Monaco, Montenegro, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Serbia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom
	Eastern Europe	Belarus, Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Hungary, the Republic of Moldova, Poland, Romania, the Russian Federation, Slovakia, Ukraine
	Central and Western Asia	Armenia, Azerbaijan, Cyprus, Georgia, Israel, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan
Middle East and North Africa		Algeria, Bahrain, Egypt, Libya, Morocco, Iraq, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Occupied Palestinian Territory, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, the Syrian Arab Republic, the Sudan, Tunisia, United Arab Emirates, Yemen

Country and territory grouping by income level

Income level	Countries
Low income	Afghanistan, Benin, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cambodia, the Central African Republic, Chad, the Comoros, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Eritrea, Ethiopia, the Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Haiti, the Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Liberia, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mozambique, Nepal, the Niger, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, Somalia, South Sudan, the Syrian Arab Republic, Tajikistan, the United Republic of Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, Yemen, Zimbabwe
Lower-middle income	Angola, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Bolivia (Plurinational State of), Cameroon, Cabo Verde, the Congo, Côte d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, El Salvador, Eswatini, Georgia, Ghana, Guyana, Honduras, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Kiribati, Kyrgyzstan, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Lesotho, Mauritania, Micronesia, the Republic of Moldova, Morocco, Myanmar, Nauru, Nicaragua, Nigeria, Occupied Palestinian Territory, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Samoa, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Solomon Islands, Sri Lanka, the Sudan, Timor-Leste, Ukraine, Uzbekistan, Vanuatu, Viet Nam, Zambia
Upper-middle income (emerging economies)	Albania, Algeria, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Belize, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Botswana, Brazil, Bulgaria, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Fiji, Gabon, Grenada, Guatemala, Iran (Islamic Republic of), Iraq, Jamaica, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Lebanon, Libya, Republic of North Macedonia, Malaysia, Maldives, the Marshall Islands, Mauritius, Mexico, Mongolia, Montenegro, Namibia, Palau, Paraguay, Peru, Romania, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Serbia, South Africa, Suriname, Thailand, Tonga, Tunisia, Turkey, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)
High-income (developed countries)	Andorra, Antigua and Barbuda, Argentina, Australia, Austria, the Bahamas, Bahrain, Barbados, Belgium, Brunei Darussalam, Canada, Channel Islands, Chile, Croatia, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Equatorial Guinea, Estonia, Finland, France, French Polynesia, Germany, Greece, Guam, Hong Kong (China), Hungary, Iceland, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Japan, the Republic of Korea, Kuwait, Latvia, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Macau (China), Malta, Monaco, the Netherlands, New Caledonia, New Zealand, Norway, Oman, Panama, Poland, Portugal, Puerto Rico, Qatar, the Russian Federation, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saudi Arabia, Seychelles, Singapore, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Taiwan (China), Trinidad and Tobago, the United Arab Emirates, the United Kingdom, the United States, the United States Virgin Islands, Uruguay

Women in business and management: The business case for change

Enterprises globally recognize the imperative of having a gender diverse workplace, including the integral benefits of having women in top decision-making positions. Mounting evidence shows that achieving gender balance and diverse management teams at all levels deliver positive business outcomes.

The second edition of *Women in business and management* explores the business case for gender diversity in the workplace, women's representation at management and board level and the various success factors that drive enterprise behaviour for inclusion. The report adds to the growing body of evidence that shows many enterprises are actively pursuing initiatives to boost the number of women in their talent pool but also shows that these efforts alone are insufficient. Enterprises still need to translate their policies into concrete action and critically address gender diversity within their organizational culture.

