

Women

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE PARTICIPATION
OF WOMEN IN BRAZILIAN ECONOMY





“By becoming a more inclusive company for women we will undoubtedly become a better company. This means that women should increasingly work side by side with men to provide the best environment and shopping experience for those who today make up about 80% of our customers. This will also be reflected in greater the appreciation and in the maintenance of female talent to Walmart and many other companies that will become better places to work.”

Marcos Samaha

President and CEO of Walmart Brazil

Summary

Presentation: Daniela de Fiori, VP Corporate Affairs and Sustainability for Walmart Brazil

Introduction: Regina Madalozzo

Chapter 1: The inclusion of women in the labor market

Chapter 2: Woman's role in society: the domestic work issue and division of chores

Chapter 3: The career choice and salary differences between men and women

Chapter 4: Professional development of women and the importance of the presence of female characteristics in the management

Chapter 5: Measures that support the inclusion of a greater proportion of women in the market as agents of economic development

- Company president commitment
- Flexible work and support to manage family with professional life
- Availability of mentoring and professional networking incentive programs
- Programs to attract, develop and retain women in companies
- Working environment suitable for women appreciation



Presentation



In world history, women have started to gain more space with World Wars I and II, when women had to take the position of men in the labor market.

Currently, we are witnessing significant changes in women's role in Brazilian society. Studies indicate that they consume more than men and also influence the decision of what they want to acquire. Thus, they are responsible for about 80% of total purchases. Female participation in the Internet reaches 54% and makes agencies and advertisers develop specialized campaigns, according to data released by Target Index Group.

It is difficult to imagine a sector – either in politics or in the business world – in which women do not have a strong presence. In the third sector, women have had a leadership position for some time and it is acknowledged worldwide that the most successful social programs are those that are focused on women and played by them. Our time in Brazil is symbolic to discuss the topic, as we have in President Dilma Rousseff, the first woman to occupy the highest position in the Executive Power in Brazil.

At Walmart, we work to strengthen female development and leadership. We know that companies with better balance between men and women in leadership positions present high performance and better financial results. But that is not all. Nowadays, worldwide, most of our customers are women and, therefore it makes sense that we want our employees and executives to reflect our customers.

Diversity among employees regardless of position, gender, sexual orientation, race and creed brings an environment richer in ideas, solutions and better outcomes for everyone and for the company.

And the global labor market is increasingly experiencing a tight race for talent. The global population mass that is still outside the labor market is made up of women. Companies that will have competitive advantage will be those that have greater capacity to retain, develop and attract this female labor. For Walmart Brazil, the female development, inclusion and leadership issue is a business strategy.

A few years ago, we created at the company the Women's Council that works closely with the leadership to further practices and policies that enable the creation of an inclusive environment that promotes women's development. Women are the majority within our workforce and occupy

about 35% of managerial positions. Some practices adopted by the company such as a pioneer adoption of the six-month maternity leave, implemented in 2008 had a major contribution to the progress we achieved, already celebrating more than 5 thousand women within the company that benefited from this policy. But there is still room for more.

And developing more women - including them when they are still excluded - has an important impact on the economic development of the country and of the world. Through Walmart Institute, we invested in income generation through productive groups of women, as well as youth in order to prepare them to enter the labor market through the Escola Social do Varejo [Social Retail School]. More recently, we launched a channel in the e-commerce business to market products from productive groups of women.

The potential of what we can do for our society and for our business by developing women is something we cannot yet measure. And we want to share our learning in this area with partners in different areas as, certainly, by acting as a value chain; we will achieve a much more relevant impact.

This report provides a comprehensive study on the role played by women in society and its current status in the labor market. Developed from survey, analysis and market information data, it aims to contribute to the knowledge of different players in society, as well as support a wide discussion for the construction of proposals relating to the topic.

Thus, we hope to direct a greater number of actions, seeking to increase opportunities for women's development, which can be reflected not only in professional activities, but also in different roles played in the society. We believe that the companies of the future will be those that manage to attract and retain this female labor, as well as the most advanced societies will be those more inclusive and that will generate better conditions for their full development.

Daniela de Fiori
Vice President Corporate Affairs and Sustainability,
Walmart Brazil



Introduction

Regina Madalozzo

The conditions of professional inclusion of Brazilian society, as well as in various countries, have evolved to increasingly rely on women in their workforce. Women's participation in the market, which in the past was only accepted as an addition to family income, is currently quite clear and with better professional development for them.

However, the challenges that will allow the cultural and gender diversity within companies still exist. These challenges begin within the family, with the issue of the division of responsibilities of the household work between men and women and children and elderly care, also including reduction of salary differences between men and women performing the same job, and reaching strategic areas of companies that have the obligation and power necessary to provide conditions for the career development of these professionals.

Between the role that women play within their families and the image they can represent for their companies, there is the responsibility of these professionals to manage their career so as to permit equal career development between men and women. Continuous investment in their careers, active participation in internal selection process and mentoring programs and continuous demands for equal treatment between genders are some of the actions that women themselves have in their power to make their careers to have a greater chance of success. Companies, on the other hand, can act more effectively through a strong commitment of their representatives with the gender diversity, providing support so that its professionals are able to take family responsibilities creating a favorable environment for diversity inside companies.

With a greater number of actions in this direction, it will be possible to achieve an effective equality between men and women not only within their careers, but also in all significant areas of society.

Women's inclusion in the labor market

The role of women in society has been changing over time. Recent decades have been marked by the increase observed in women's participation in the labor market. According to IBGE, in 1950, only 13.6% of women in active age participated in the labor market¹. In 2009, this percentage was 52.7%. This means that among all women living in Brazil aged ten or older, 52.7% are employed or searching for a job. In little more than half a century, the profile of the labor available was changed as a result of the participation of this new workforce.

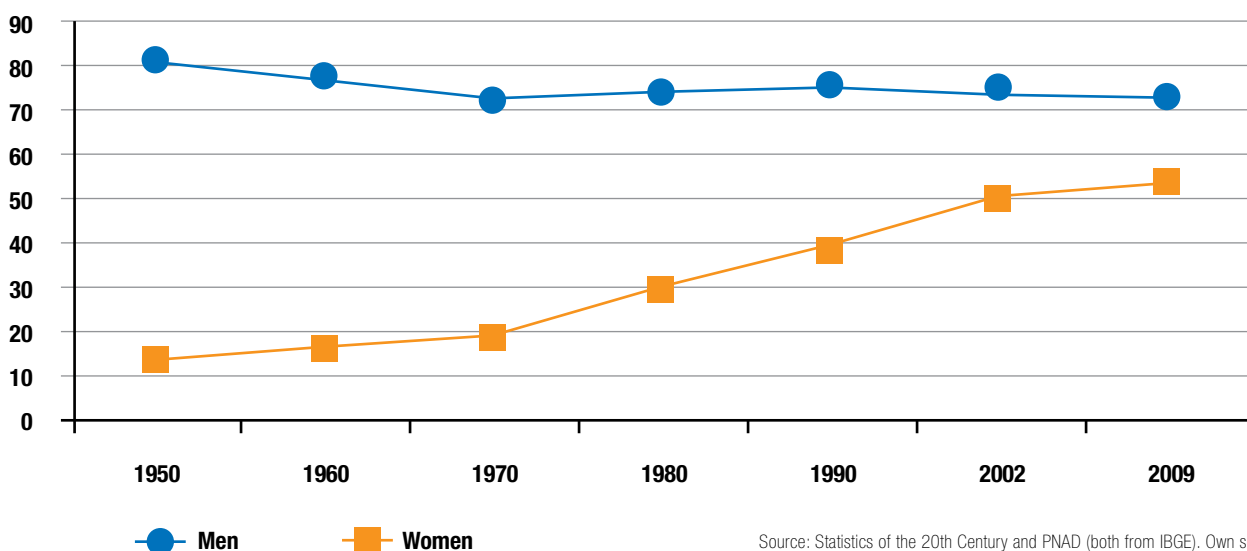
Graph 1.1 shows the evolution of the participation of men and women in the Brazilian labor market from 1950 to 2009. Through this graph, it can be observed that the participation of Brazilian women in the labor market took longer when compared to the Northern Hemisphere, where the massive entrance of women into the labor force occurred during the Second World War, given the shortage of workforce in the period. In Brazil, until the 1970s, less than 20% of women participated in this market. It was during the

1980s, due to a higher and more persistent inflation that women achieved a strong and persistent engagement in the workforce.

Even though the participation in the labor market was motivated by the inflation crisis and the need for women to contribute with household budget, with the end of the high inflation period, the culture of women participation in the market persisted and, over the decades of 1990 and early 2000s, there was an even greater increase in women's participation in the market, which today exceeds 50%.

Out of the available workforce, that is, men and women aged ten years old or over, employed or seeking employment, women represented 43.9% of the active force in Brazil in 2009. For comparison, in the United States, in the same year, women represented 46.7% of the workforce, in Italy, 41.1% and Sweden 47.4%, and that the participation in those countries occurred about thirty years earlier than in our country.

Graph 1.1: The evolution of men and women participation in the Brazilian labor market.



Source: Statistics of the 20th Century and PNAD (both from IBGE). Own source.

¹ In Brazil, the working age population is defined as of the age of ten. In developed countries, the working age starts at 15 or 16 years. In this report, we will use the working age as of ten years old for Brazilian statistics and, when data refer to a different age group for comparison purposes it will be explained.

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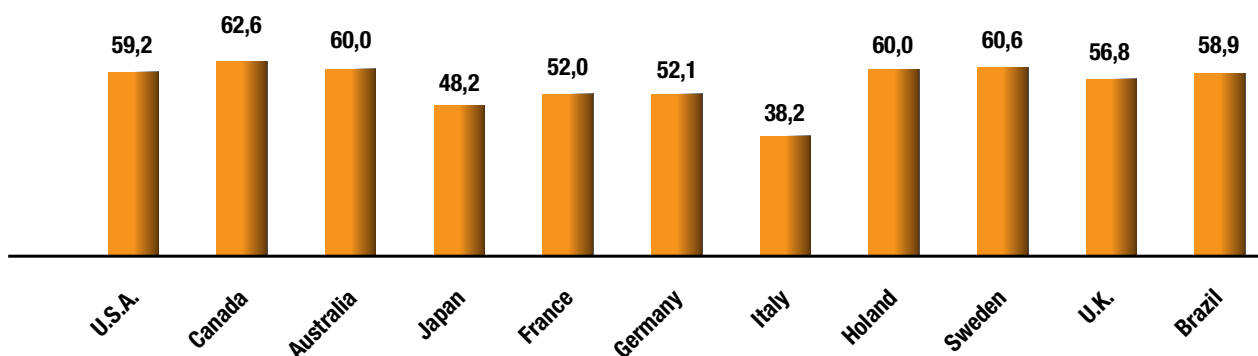
Considering only the female population aged 16 or older, the comparison of women's participation in the Brazilian labor market with data from other countries becomes even closer. Graph 1.2 presents this result. This illustration shows that female participation in the Brazilian labor market is above the international average. Countries like Japan, France, Germany, Italy and the UK have a lower participation of women in the labor market compared to Brazil (58.9%). Brazilian data are close to the U.S. (59.2%), Australia (60.6%), Netherlands (60%) and Sweden (60.6%).

These results show that in addition to economic conditions that favor or not the entry and permanence of women in the labor market, there is also an important influence of social characteristics in these indicators. Japan, for example, despite being a major economic power, maintains traditional values as to the gender issue resulting in lower participation of women in active labor. Data from the World Economic Forum 2009, in the Global Gender Gap Report (GGGR), rank Japan in 101st place among 134 countries assessed in the gender equality issue in the economy, education, politics and health spheres. Brazil, on the other hand, is in the 81st position in this same rank².

Information that reflects the increased participation in the Brazilian labor market by men and women is a comparison of the participation by age group in 1970 and 2009, according to IBGE data, as shown in Table 1.1. Although data about the participation in the labor market for men have changed little in these nearly forty years, the indicators for women changed drastically. In 1970, women aged between 20 and 24 had a participation in the workforce above 25% (27.7% of women were employed or seeking employment in this age group). In 2009, only very young women – under 14 years old - or those already at retirement age - over 60 years old – had participation below 20% in the labor market.

When women's indicators are compared to men's, it is noted that a larger share of men starts earlier in the market compared to women. Based on 2009 data, 55.2% of men participate in the labor market in the age group between 15 and 19 years of age. In the same age group, only 39.4% of women are already employed or seeking employment. Men's age groups with the largest participation in the market also coincide with the highest participation of women. Between 25 and 49 years old, over two thirds of men and women actively participate in the labor market, in which the participation of women is always lower compared to that of men in the same age group.

Graph 1.2: International comparison of women participation in the labor market.



Source: U.S Bureau of Labor Statistics, PNAD 2009 (IBGE). Own source.

² In 2009, Iceland was place first in gender equality, followed by Finland - which had been placed first in 2008 - and Sweden. The Global Gender Gap Report is available on the link <http://pt.scribd.com/doc/21691169/The-Global-Gender-Gap-Report-2009>

Table 1.1: Participation in the Brazilian labor market by gender and age group.

Age groups	1970		2009	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
From 10 to 14 years old	19,2	6,5	10,6	5,6
From 15 to 19 years old	61,9	23,6	55,2	39,4
From 20 to 24 years old	87,7	27,7	88,0	68,8
From 25 to 29 years old	95,9	23,1	94,1	73,7
From 30 to 39 years old	96,7	20,1	95,1	74,9
From 40 to 49 years old	94,2	19,5	93,6	70,9
From 50 to 59 years old	85,7	15,4	86,7	55,2
60 years old or over	59,1	7,9	43,3	19,2

Source: Carlos Chagas Foundation and PNAD 2009 (IBGE). Own source.

The full dedication for the investment in education is one of the factors³ to delay the participation of women in the labor market. For people aged from 25 or over, 64.3% of men have school background lower than high school or equivalent, while 61.5% of women have the same level of education. While 35.7% of men completed at least high school, 38.5% of women did the same. Over the past decade, education data in Brazil show that women remain in school longer and this factor is of great importance to the reduction of salary inequalities between genders.

The participation in the labor market is highly influenced by the educational level achieved. Table 1.2 shows data on women's participation in the labor market by educational level. As the educational level increases, so does the percentage of women seeking employment or that are employed. It is natural that investment in education gives rise to the search for application thereof, and persistence in the labor market is a positive result of this factor. Among women who completed college, 82.2% participated in the labor market in 2009, while for women with no education, only 33.6% were employed or seeking employment in the same period.

³ Other factors, such as contribution in household work, will be discussed throughout the report.



In Brazil, until the 1970s, less than 20% of women participated in the labor market.

Table 1.2: Women's participation in the Brazilian labor market by educational level (%) – women aged from 16 or over.

	Participation in the Work Force
No education	33,6
Incomplete Junior High	49,3
Complete Junior High or Equivalent	56,4
Incomplete High School	55,5
Complete High School or Equivalent	71,4
Incomplete Higher Education	75,4
Complete Higher Education or More	82,2

Source: PNAD 2009 (IBGE). Own source.

A factor closely related to the education of an individual is the income range to which the family belongs. Although intuitively we can conclude that, for families with very low-income women would necessarily need to work to contribute to the household budget and, for the opposite income distribution the contribution was unnecessary, by comparing the participation in the labor market based on family income we find that this is not the case. Table 1.3 shows these results. In higher income groups, women's participation in the labor market is also higher compared with the lower income groups. In families in which income per capita is five minimum wages or more per month - in which only 4% of the Brazilian population is found -, 64.1% of women aged 16 or over work or seek employment. In families with income per capita of up to half a monthly minimum wage, only 51% of them are in the same situation with respect to the labor market.

Table 1.3: Women's participation in the labor market by monthly income per capita (%) – women aged 16 or over.

Monthly Income Per Capita	Women's participation in the work force	Percentage of families in the income group
Up to 1/4 of minimum salary	51,2	12%
Between 1/4 e 1/2 of min. salary	51,1	19%
Between 1/2 and 1 min. salary	57,3	30%
Between 1 and 2 min. salaries	64,0	23%
Between 2 and 3 min. salaries	63,6	7%
Between 3 and 5 min. salaries	65,2	5%
5 minimum salaries or more	64,1	4%

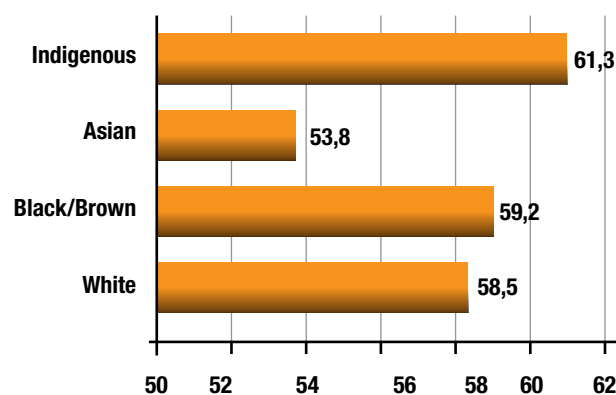
Source: PNAD 2009 (IBGE). Own source.

A characteristic of great importance to women's participation in the labor market is the presence of small children at home. In large urban areas, vacancies in kindergartens and preschools are lacking, which makes it very difficult for low-income women to work, as, being unable to afford private care for their children, they often choose not to work while children do not reach the compulsory school age⁴.

Considering only women aged between 20 and 49 years of age, as this is the range of greater participation of women in the market, the presence of children under 16 years old has influence on maternal participation in the labor market. Women who have no children aged 16 years or less show a participation of 75.8% in the market, while those with children in this age group participate with 70%. Small children result in greater effect: only 56.1% of women in this age group with children under one year old participate in the labor market, while 73.9% of those who have no children at this age do. The extension of the maternity leave benefit is intended to enable mothers to deviate only temporarily from their jobs, and maintain the consistent performance prior to the birth of the child during these months, allowing a healthier return to the market. However, the lack of places in kindergartens and preschools can cause these women to have to be away from the market during the most productive phase of their lives and, thereby, lose competitiveness in relation to other workers on their return.

Finally, it is interesting to draw a profile of women's participation in the labor market by different races. Graph 1.3 shows the results by race for women aged 16 years or over.

Graph 1.3: Women's participation in the labor market by race – women aged from 16 or over.



Source: PNAD 2009 (IBGE). Own source.

The highest percentage of participation of women in the labor market occurs among indigenous people, in which 61.3% were working or seek employment. Then, black and/or mixed race, with 59.2% of market share and white, with 58.5% share. Among Asian women, only 53.8% were working or seeking employment, which also allows perceiving the cultural factor tied to career choice.

The diverse economic and cultural transformations Brazil has undergone also transformed labor work allowing for greater inclusion of women in the labor market. There are still cultural differences in treatment between men and women and differences in family responsibilities that affect both the participation in the labor market and the income earned. The following Chapters will address these factors and the possibilities of public and entrepreneurial policies so that gender equality becomes a reality within a short period in time.

⁴ As of 2016, pre-school education will become mandatory. All children aged four years old or over should be in school. The city and state governments are already working to expand the offer of vacancies to this age group, but vacancies currently available are far below demand. In kindergartens, where a larger number of teachers and assistants is needed for children, difficulty is even greater. Many companies set up their own nurseries for their employees' children as a positive measure for greater inclusion of women in the labor market.

Chapter 2

Women's role in society: the domestic work issue and the division of chores

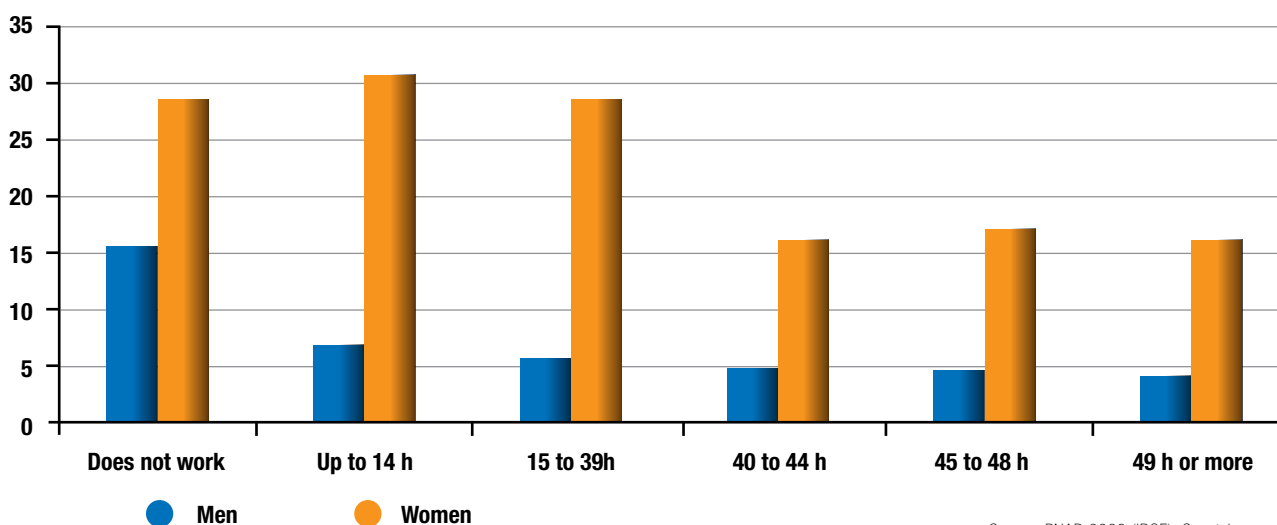
The participation of women in the labor market brought with it the need for a reformulation of gender roles in society, companies and also within families. In the conservative concept of family, a couple would divide their work so that man would be responsible for working in the marketplace and with his income, support his wife and children. The wife, however, would be responsible for household chores (cooking, cleaning the house, washing and ironing clothes, etc.) and for looking after and educating children. However, as the woman initiates the movement to enter the labor market, a conflict comes up between the hours spent in the market - receiving payment for such work - and the hours of work at home, taking care of household chores – without payment.

Using the IBGE data for the year 2009⁵, we know that women aged 16 or over spend on average 23.9 hours per week doing housework. Men, also in this age group, spend 5.2 hours per week for the same purpose. However, with the participation of men and women in the labor market it is quite different - on aver-

age, women work less hours in the market compared to men -, it is necessary to also assess the hours of domestic labor of men and women taking into account the number of hours that each dedicate to their paid work. Graph 2.1 shows this comparison.

This illustration shows that regardless of the number of the hours worked in the labor market, women spend about four times more hours on housework than men. When the comparison is made between men and women who do not participate in the labor market, on average, men spend 6.9 hours a week doing the housework, while women use 28.5 hours for this purpose. For cases in which both have a job in the market, the situation is not much different. Women who work between 40 and 44 hours in the labor market - that is, work full time outside the home - spend an average of 16.2 hours with routine domestic chores. Men, however, who have the same amount of paid work, spend on average 4.7 hours a week with these tasks. This work, both at home and on the market, received the name of "second shift"⁶.

Graph 2.1: Hours of weekly domestic labor regarding the number of hours worked in the labor market – comparison between genders.



Source: PNAD 2009 (IBGE). Own tab.

⁵ The National Survey for Household Sample – PNAD (acronym in Portuguese), includes questions related to domestic work, where the most useful for this purpose is the "number of hours usually dedicated to household chores per week". The PNAD is conducted annually by IBGE, except the years when the census is conducted.

⁶ The name "second shift" is used by the sociologist Arlie Russell Hochschild in her book by the same title. From a field study that observed the behavior of families in loco, but also through interviews with couples, the researcher realized the extent of domestic work for women and how this additional responsibility was important in their decisions.



Men and women have complementary roles in companies, the same way as in personal areas.

Several countries measure the distribution of housework between men and women and, in all of them women have a heavier load in the responsibility with the housework. Difficulties in the division of housework between men and women have an impact on women's participation in the labor market. A study carried out by three Polish researchers⁷ shows that the rate of women's activity in the member countries of the European Union is negatively influenced by the number of hours women spend on housework. Using data from 2006 for some European countries, the researchers show that, on average, in Germany, men spend 16.4 hours per week on housework and women, 29.3. The data from Italy are of 11.1 hours per week of housework for men and 37.3 hours for women. Even in Sweden, one of the most equal countries regarding gender, women spend an average of 25.9 hours weekly with household chores, and men, 17.4.

The Institute for Social Research (ISR) used 2005 data from a nationwide research to discover the impact of the presence of a partner in household work. The result researchers found was that married women spend on average seven hours more per week on housework than single women do. Data for Brazil are similar. Single women spend on average 17.8 hours per week on housework (single men spend 5.3 hours a week on housework) and married women say they dedicate 28.5 hours a week for the

same task (married men say they use 5.2 hours of their weekly time on housekeeping). That is, a difference of about ten hours a week of housework with the presence of a partner.

One possibility for this difference is the presence of children at home, that is, it would not be the presence of a partner that generates additional household work, but the presence of a child. Table 2.1 shows the comparison of weekly hours dedicated to housework by women according to the presence of a partner and/or children under 14 years old at home.

Table 2.1: Hours per week dedicated to domestic work - women.

	With Partner	Without Partner
With Children at Home	30.1	18.8
Without Children at Home	27.9	17.7

Source: PNAD 2009 (IBGE). Own tab.

⁷ Time spent on housework as a determinant of women's economic activity in the member states", written by Patrycja Zwiech and Jaroslaw Korpysa (available at <http://mikro.univ.szczecin.pl/bp/pdf/44/6.pdf>)

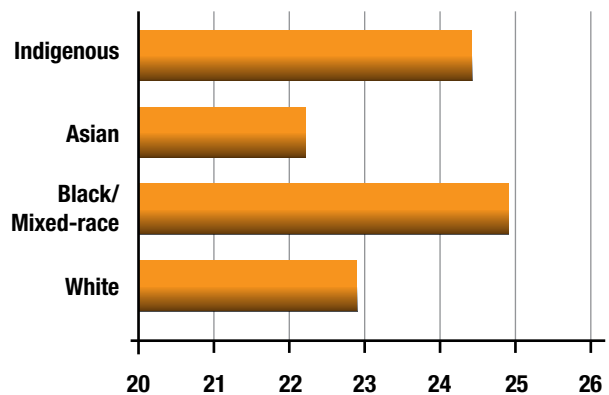


Women aged 16 years old or over dedicate, on average, 23.9 hours per week to housework, while men in this age group spend 5.2 hours per week.

This illustration shows that the variation in the time women dedicate to domestic work is higher with the presence of a partner than with the presence of children. While a single woman with children works on average 18.8 hours per week on household chores, another woman who also has children and partner works 11.3 hours per week more than the first one. Without the presence of children in the family, the situation is not much different. A single woman spends 17.7 hours per week on average with the housework and another woman, also with no children, but now with a partner, spends 27.9 hours per week on household chores. What this indicates is the persistence of a conservative culture in Brazil, in which the division of family responsibilities did not occur in the same pace as the woman took responsibility with the labor market. Despite spending a significant portion of her time with her career, she still has duties accomplishing a great domestic workload.

Analyzing different ethnic groups, we found small differences in the average standard of weekly hours spent on housework. Graph 2.2 shows these results.

Graph 2.2: Hours of weekly domestic work performed by women in different ethnic groups.



Source: PNAD 2009 (IBGE). Own tab.

While black, mixed-race or indigenous women spend approximately 24.5 hours per week on housework, white or Asian women spend on average two hours less per week on these tasks⁸. Cultural standards that may exist for these different ethnic groups do not have enough influence to distinguish the number of hours spent by these women in domestic work.

Comparing the results for different regions, there is also a little difference in the number of weekly hours spent by men and women in domestic work. Table 2.2 shows the average number of hours used to perform household tasks by men and women in different regions. It is in the Northeast Region that women dedicate more hours to household work (26.4 hours per week) and in the North and Midwest that they devote fewer hours to this type of task (21.7 hours per week). Men in the South are the ones who dedicate more hours to household work (6 hours per week) and men in the Midwest show the lowest numbers (4.7 hours per week). Also in these statistics, there are no significant differences among regions, indicating that the average behavior of Brazilians is to make women responsible for the housework.

Table 2.2: Weekly hours dedicated to domestic work – men and women per region.

	Men	Women
North	5.0	21.7
Northeast	4.8	26.4
Southeast	5.4	23.5
South	6.0	22.6
Midwest	4.7	21.7

Source: PNAD 2009 (IBGE). Own tab.

The impact of paid work in changes of domestic responsibilities was examined in a study with Brazilian data⁹. Using PNAD data from 2006, researchers analyzed the impact of various factors on the number of hours of housework performed by men and women. For both genders, the older the individual and the greater the time devoted to the labor market, the fewer hours of housework. The presence of children under six years old at home increases the housework for both men and women. Other variables have different impact for men and women. For men, the higher the level of education attained, the greater their participation in domestic work (for women, the opposite) and the presence of the wife at home decreases their participation in household chores, the same way as discussed earlier in this Chapter.



Women spend more time in school, which could help decrease salary inequalities between genders.

However, the most interesting result of this work is the influence of financial power of wives and their husbands in the number of hours devoted to housework. For both, the larger the portion that earnings represent in total family income, the lower the number of hours devoted to housework. The difference is the size of such impact. While the increase of one percent in the participation of their own income in family income it decreases by about two hours per week of domestic work for a man, the same relative increase in the wife's income decreases by about eight hours per week their dedication to domestic work. That is to say, women who have more successful careers work relatively less in housework compared those who do not.

Results of studies like this show how important it is to value women in economic development. This appreciation represents not only greater equality with men in professional terms, but also a better distribution of responsibilities in the home and family for both genders.

⁸ The variety of individual data is large, which makes the difference among races not to be statistically significant.

⁹ "Participation in the labor market and in the domestic labor", written by the authors Regina Madalozzo, Sergio R. Martins and Ludmila Shiratori, published on Estudos Feministas [Feminist Studies] Magazine and available on <http://www.scielo.br/pdf/ref/v18n2/15.pdf>.

Chapter 3

Choosing a professional career and salary differences between men and women

The choice of a career is defined not only by the personal skills and preferences regarding professional activities to be performed, but also by social conditions of acceptance of the individual as a professional. For a long time it was considered acceptable for a woman to be a teacher in elementary school, for example, but not as appropriate that she acted as a civil engineer. The combination between social rules and women's choices made, as women entered the labor market, a majority of them chose professions considered more acceptable for women and the consequence of these choices, although it has changed, still influences the proportion of women in various professions.

Table 3.1: Proportion of women in different careers.

	1989	2009
Mechanics	0,2	0,9
Drivers	0,4	1,2
Police officers	7,0	9,5
Engineers	8,6	12,9
Lawyers	29,4	42,3
Doctors	29,6	40,4
Business Managers	30,8	36,0
Nurses	89,0	86,4
Teachers	91,5	83,0
Secretaries	95,0	97,2

Source: PNAD 1989 and PNAD2009 (IBGE). Own tab.

Table 3.1 shows a comparison of the proportion of women in different occupations for 1989 and 2009. This table is divided into three parts according to the percentage of women's participation in professions in 1989.

In the first part of the table, three professions selected were considered essentially male, auto mechanic, driver and police officer. For 20 years, only 0.2% of auto mechanics, 0.4% of drivers and 7% of police officers were women. These professions are the image of violent activities, with an excessive load of heavy work for women to perform. Probably, the concepts regarding these activities was based on the reality in which most people who drove cars were men, and naturally, were served by mechanics who were also men. Regarding the participation of women in the police and armed forces, there is an increasing discussion about the positive effects of the presence of women as a factor of greater humanization of the profession. According to a report released in 2010 by Security and Defense Network in Latin America (Resdal, acronym in Portuguese)¹⁰, the presence of women in peace forces in areas of violent conflict will lead to increased ability to provide protection for women and children. However, to date, the presence of women in peace forces is restricted to management and logistics activities, with few exceptions. The increase of this effect can be seen in the establishment of Police Stations for Women, where it is expected that the largest contingent of officers is comprised of women, in order to ensure proper care in violence situations. Table 3.1 shows that there was an increase of 2.5 percent in the participation of women in the police (military and civilian) in Brazil in the last two decades. A less significant development occurred in auto mechanic profession, where less than 1% are women, even though the percentage of professional drivers increased from 0.4% of women to 1.2%. These three professions are examples of activities with the greatest difficulty in integrating women and a significant insertion will probably only be possible with more profound cultural changed in society.

The second part of table shows professions that were essentially played by men 20 years ago, but have a growing share of women working. They are engineers, lawyers, doctors and business managers. In 1989, only 8.6% of engineers, 29.4% of lawyers, 29.6% of doctors and 30.8% of managers were women. These numbers are quite different in 2009 when 42.3% of lawyers, 40.4% of doctors and 36% of business managers are women

¹⁰ "Women in the armed and police forces: resolution 1325 and peace operations in Latin America", organized by Marcela Donadio and Cecilia Mazzota, with the collaboration of Ivette Castañeda García.

That is to say, women are close to reaching half of the participation in these occupations, in which, once their presence was quite restricted. In relation to the occupation of engineer, the participation of women remains low, only 12.9%, but even so it means an increase of 4.3 percentage points with respect to the participation of women in this profession for two decades.

Finally, at the bottom of the table, are the jobs that were and continue to be feminine: nurse, teacher and secretary. For 20 years, 89% of nurses, 91.5% of kindergarten, elementary and higher education schools teachers, and 95% of secretaries were women. After 20 years, the differences are small: 86.4% of nurses, 83% of teachers and 97.2% of secretaries are women. It is noticed that although there was the inclusion of women in masculine activities, there is still a reluctant entry of men in typically female occupations.

One explanation to this fact is that the professions referred to as “feminine” do not call the attention of men, who would prefer less stigmatized occupations. Another possible explanation is that these jobs would pay a very low remuneration to the level of investment in education needed to perform them, and men have different options of activities that offer better payment for this effort. To better understand this second possibility, it is necessary to examine the differentials of wage between the occupations and for each gender. Table 3.2 presents these data.

Only two occupations analyzed based on IBGE data released in 2009 do not show significant difference¹¹: mechanical and nurse. In these occupations, on average, men and women receive the same compensation per hour worked.

In two other occupations, women earn higher salaries than men: driver and police officer. Because they are essentially masculine professions, the difference favoring women may seem strange. However, the explanation for such result is quite simple: while men engaged in the occupation of driver have, on average, 7.4 years of education (primary school incomplete), women who work as drivers have, on average, 9.6 years of education (elementary education and part of high school). The same happens with individuals serving as police officers: men have on average 11.3 years of education, and women 12.4 years of education. Because education is both a variable that impacts

positively on people's wages, but also serves as a signal of the worker's intellectual capacity, it explains this positive difference for women through better qualification of these workers in relation to their peers in these two professions.

Table 3.2: Differences in average hourly wages for men and women (in reais).

	Men	Women	Is the difference significant?
Mechanics	5,36	5,14	No
Drivers	6,31	13,37	Yes, it favors Women
Police Officers	12,93	14,32	Yes, it favors Women
Engineers	30,67	24,30	Yes, it favors Men
Lawyers	31,13	20,97	Yes, it favors Men
Doctors	49,19	38,18	Yes, it favors Men
Administrators	21,73	17,15	Yes, it favors Men
Nurses	12,98	15,27	No
Teachers	13,20	11,23	Yes, it favors Men
Secretary	22,68	11,09	Yes, it favors Men

Source: PNAD 1989 and PNAD2009 (IBGE). Own source.

In the other six occupations studied, all presented an average wage gap favoring men. It is observed that the difference occurs in both professions formerly considered “male” and “female”. The high presence of women in a particular profession does not guarantee that there is equal pay when compared to men. Again, significant differences in educational background between men and women could explain this result. However, for most of these professions, there is no significant difference in the investment in education for men and women. In the only occupation in that such difference is significant, it favors women: although women acting as administrators have an additional year of study than men in that same profession - 11.9 years of study for women and 11 years of study for men, on average – women have salaries 21% lower than their peers.

¹¹ The concept of “significant difference” is a measurement made using a statistical method that takes into account the variability of the data.

Wage gaps between men and women exist in the most different countries analyzed. The Figure 3.1 presents data on wage differences between genders for different countries.

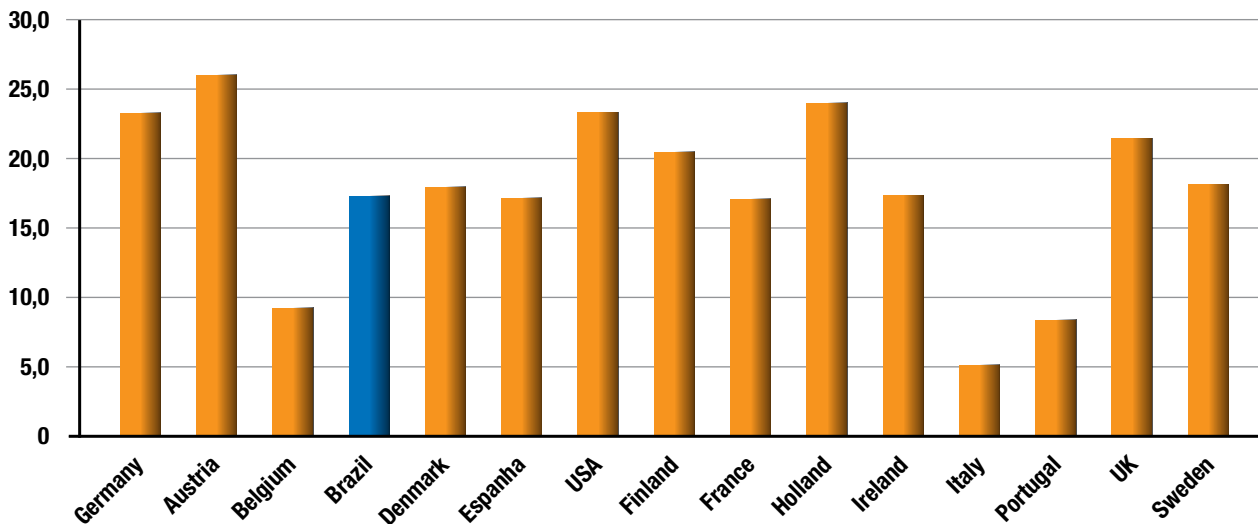
This chart shows the percentage difference between the average hourly wage received by men and women aged between 16 and 64 who worked more than 15 hours per week on their jobs. With this characterization, the sample analyzed only includes people with a stronger bond in the labor market and, although the comparison has yet to specify differences regarding the degree of education, experience and other important characteristics, it serves as a basis for analyzing different stages of evolution regarding equal treatment of women with respect to compensation in the labor market.

One can see, in the figure, that there is not one simple relation between wage differences between genders and the level of equal treatment between men and women in one country. While in the UK, the country ranked in the 15th position in the Global Gender Gap¹² index, the wage gap between men and women reaches 21.1% in Italy, placed 72nd in this rank, the difference is only 5.1% between them. Such comparison could indicate that the

increase of equal treatment between genders can cause the adverse effect of even greater differences in wages. However, this is not true because, Belgium, placed 33rd in the rank of the Global Gender Gap, has a 9.1% wage gap between genders, and Brazil, ranked 81st has a 17% difference between the wages of men and women. In other words, the wage differences observed in the most different countries depend on the context of the social and economic reality in which they live.

One possibility for wage differences being often quite significant in countries with a highest degree of development is the greater variety among the professions and jobs available for men and women and, if women have greater difficulty for promotion to hierarchically high positions within companies, then the difference between genders becomes greater than in countries where the diversity of options for men and women is similar. In such case, countries with a very similar population of men and women and serving in positions and jobs with low difference between them, will present less evident wage gap between men and women than in countries where there is a high concentration of men in management positions and high concentration of women in lower corporate hierarchy.

Graph 3.1: Percentage difference in wages between men and women.



Source: The Social Situation in the European Union (2007), US Women's Bureau and the National Committee on Pay Equity (2008), PNAD 2009 (IBGE). Own source.

¹² Release annually by the World Economic Forum. Data of 2009 report.

Another hypothesis, which is conceptually close to the first one, is that wage differences between genders become deeper with the expertise of individuals. Evidences of this hypothesis are given in Table 3.3, which uses data from the Ministry of Trabalho¹³ on the remuneration of men and women working registered in December 2009, in Brazil. These data show that, although the average wage gap between men and women is 17.2%¹⁴, for people with higher education background, the difference is much greater.

Table 3.3: Differences on average monthly salary for men and women (in reais).

	Men	Women	Difference(%)
Illiterate	735,14	611,91	16,8
4th Year of Elementary School Incomplete	947,29	708,91	25,2
4th Year of Elementary School Complete	1.048,06	713,79	31,9
8th Year of Elementary School Incomplete	1.047,96	720,96	31,2
Year of Elementary School Complete	1.148,24	826,80	28,0
High school Incomplete	1.057,84	779,69	26,3
High school Complete	1.459,84	1.022,17	30,0
Higher Education Incomplete	2.290,60	1.503,08	34,4
Higher Education Complete	5.019,49	2.919,99	41,8
Grade	1.717,66	1.422,99	17,2

Source: Ministry of Labor, 2009. Source CGET/DES/SPPE/MET and calculation of percentile difference between genders.

When comparing illiterate men and women, that is, people who probably work in quite homogeneous occupations and positions, the wage gap is 16.8% in favor of men. However, when comparing the wages of men and women with higher education, this difference increases to 41.8%.

There are some possible explanations for this difference. The first of them is that women may be working fewer hours than men and, thus, their monthly salaries are lower. Another possibility is that women have exercised their free will, and despite having attended

higher education, they have opted for careers and occupations that pay lower wages. Finally, there is a possibility that, although having the same level of education and qualification, men and women are being evaluated in a different way by their employers, and that, women are the majority in lower hierarchical positions while men represent the majority in leadership positions.

If this last possibility is the reason for the wage gap between genders, then it is necessary to evaluate the existence of some invisible barriers that are preventing women from advancing in their careers and reaching higher positions. This barrier is known as “glass ceiling” and it will be further analyzed in greater depth. However, it is important to realize that behind these results, lies the doubt regarding the treatment comparatively given to the genera. If, to achieve the same position performed by a man, a woman needs more investment in education, experience or any further qualification than required for their male peers, then one can say that there is still discrimination in labor market against women.

This differentiated treatment based solely on gender is harmful, not only to women who fail to develop naturally in their careers, but also for the companies that invest in these women. Many women who have invested and received investment in training by their companies gave up continuing to working because they felt they had no option to combine personal and professional life, and receive the deserved acknowledgement in both spheres of their lives. This is a negative reaction to the invisible barriers faced by this professional and brings a non productive reflection also to their companies, with increase in costs related to employee change and decrease in measures for employee satisfaction, among others. There is an imperative need for reassessment of careers and ways to further equality between genders so that women persist in their professions and are recognized in them - also in terms of salary – just like men.

¹³ The report containing data can be found at http://www.mte.gov.br/rais/resultado_2009.pdf and discloses data collected from RAIS and prepared by the Ministry of Labor.

¹⁴ Previously, using data from PNAD 2009, the average wage gap between men and women was 17%. Using data from RAIS, this difference increases to 17.2%. It is noteworthy that, although data are used for the same year, 2009, PNAD and RAIS bases are different. For the PNAD, it is used a sample of families and the statements are made by individuals regarding their formal and informal income. For the RAIS, the statement of wages is made by the companies, thus, including only the wages of formal employees.

Chapter 4

Professional development of women and the importance of the presence of female characteristics in the management

The increased participation of women in the labor market caused social relations within and outside companies to change. Outside companies, families had to restructure their routines so that women were able to act in the market. These changes involve from the influence the education of children, who started to attending day care and pre-school earlier than previous generations, to even the distribution of domestic chores which, although to date women are more penalized than men, the participation of men in this kind of work has increased each generation. In companies, the changes also have taken place gradually. The inclusion of women on boards, in leadership positions and presidency has been happening and slowly changing the inner operation of these companies.

A study published by McKinsey consult in 2010¹⁵ shows that, despite the increased presence of women in higher education and in companies, the number of women in higher hierarchical positions remains small. Table 4.1 presents the percentage of women on boards of directors of publicly held companies for various countries in 2010, and placement of the country in the rank of the Global Gender Gap Report 2009¹⁶. While the placement of the country in this rank depends on four different levels of treatment between genders - Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational Background, Health, and Survival Index and Political Empowerment - the percentage of women on boards addressed only the effective participation of women within companies and in the position of strategic decision makers for these companies. However, it is possible to observe a very strong relationship between the both data. The countries ranked in the first places on equality of gender are those with a higher percentage of women on the boards of administrations of their companies. As the country's position worsens in the rank of gender equality, the participation of women in these boards also decreases quite significantly, showing that gender equity transcends economic decisions, but it are highly influenced by them.

Table 4.1: Percentage of women on boards of administration and rank of countries in the Global Gender Gap Report.

Country	% Women in the BoardsRank	Of the country io the GGGR
Norway	32	3
Sweden	27	4
United States	15	31
France	15	18
Germany	13	12
United Kingdom	12	15
Spain	10	17
Russia	8	51
Brazil	7	81
China	6	60
India	5	114

Source: Women Matter 2010, McKinsey and Global Gender Report 2009. Own source.

Norway, the country with the highest percentage of women on boards of administration of companies, was the first country to set quotas for women in these boards. In 2006, it was enacted a law providing that, within the next two years, companies would have to have at least 40% of the seats of the boards held by women. Although the data mentioned above does not reach the stipulated amount, the participation of women on boards of Norwegian companies is much higher than the participation of women on boards of other countries. Spain, which in 2010 had only 10% of women on their boards, followed the Norwegian model and stipulated that by 2015, the boards of publicly held companies must also have a minimum of 40% women. The violation of this legislation, in both countries, may lead to closure of business operations.

¹⁵ "Women at the top of corporations: Making it happen" Women Matter series, available at <http://www.mckinsey.com/locations/paris/home/womenmatter.asp>

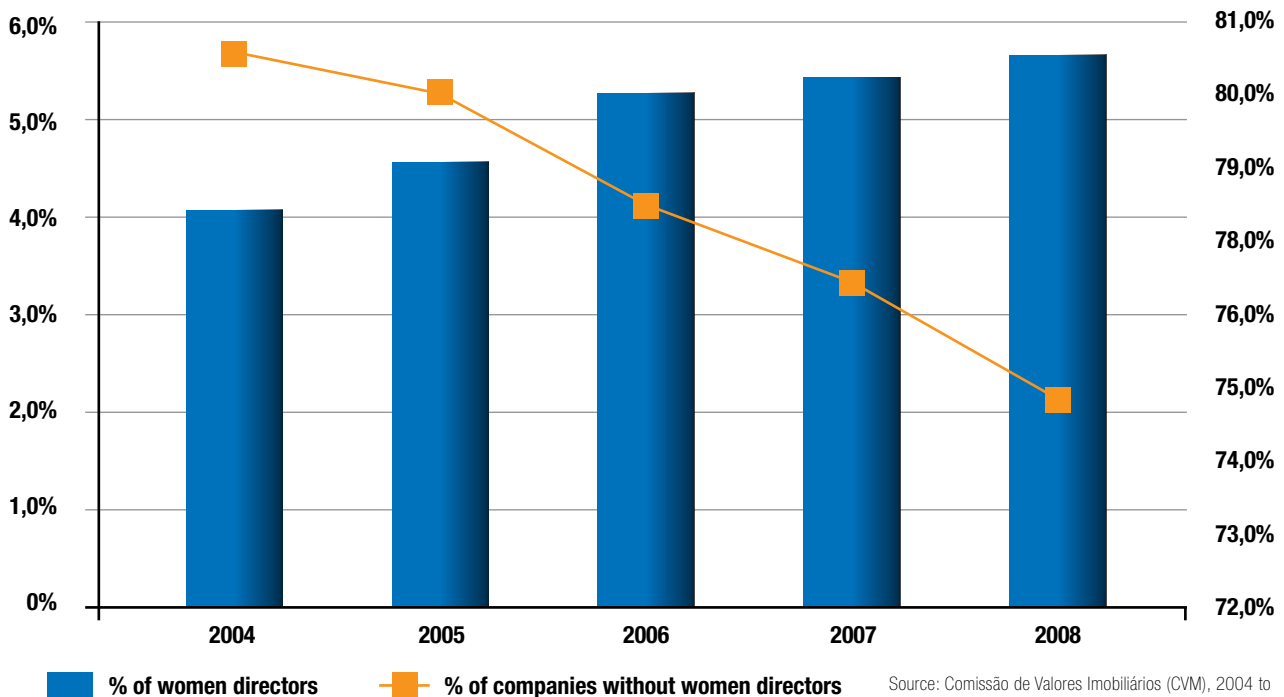
¹⁶ Annually released by World Economic Forum and available at <https://members.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap/report2009.pdf>

Despite being a well-intentioned attempt and, in the case of Norway, having the potential to represent an effective advancement of women in strategic positions of companies, yet this type of legislation may cause undesirable effects to companies and, consequently, for women's careers. This is because, in an attempt to fill the quotas set, not necessarily all companies will promote or choose women with high managerial skills and have effective and positive role within boards, but rather, they may choose women who are more aligned to what the board proposes to do and not generate further discussion, what would make their presence a differentiated factor for such company. If so, a greater presence of women on boards might reduce the effectiveness of the boards and make them less important to the success of companies, which would justify a return to lower participation of women on boards, and perhaps in the very companies, which could mean a setback in the quest for gender equity in society¹⁷.

A more interesting measure than the imposition of quotas for women in any positions within the companies is the due promotion of women for their professional merits. Figure 4.1 shows two aspects: On the columns, the evolution of the participation of women having positions of directors in companies in Brazil¹⁸ and, on the line, the percentage of companies having no women on their boards.

In 2004, women represented, on average, 4.1% of directors and, in 2008, 5.8%. At the same time, in 2004, 80.4% of companies had only men as directors and, in 2008, 74.5% maintained their board of directors composed only by men. Undoubtedly, these figures show an improvement in the participation of women for management positions in companies, but still quite timid to mean an adequate representation of gender in companies.

Chart 4.1: Composition of the boards of publicly held companies in Brazil.



¹⁷ Magazine The Economist published, in 2010, an article outlining the situation in France and questioning the imposition of quotas rather than encouraging a best qualification of women and enabling their professional development to occur based on their own characteristics and professional achievements than by imposing quotas (available at <http://www.economist.com/node/15661734>)

¹⁸ Data collected from the annual company report to the Securities and Exchange Commission (CVM) regarding the composition of councils and boards of publicly held companies. Data only for companies that had tendered shares at Bovespa between 2004 and 2008, inclusive



Despite the increased presence of women in business, the number of women in higher hierarchical positions is still small.

A possibility to be investigated is the existence of the “glass ceiling” phenomenon in companies. “Glass ceiling” is the usual designation for cases where, although there is no formal restriction, women can not be promoted to certain positions within the company. When women representation in leading positions (managers, directors, vice presidents and presidents) is low compared to the number of women within the company, one questions whether women are being given the same career opportunities that are given to men. To do so, not only will the good intention of managers to include women in their control panels be required, but also appropriate policies for the acknowledgement of gender differences and, if appropriate, a proper appraisal of features brought by women to the business.

A study published by two economists¹⁹ who studied the composition of the boards of directors in companies comprising the Standard & Poor's (S&P)²⁰ index showed that the presence of women in the board of directors has real positive effects among the directors. According to this study, women are more present at meetings to which they are summoned, and because of such higher frequency of women, men board members start attending more meetings. From the standpoint of the role of men and women in the boards, it appears that women have a higher probability to participate in internal committees of the board. More specifically, a larger portion of women than men directors participate in the monitoring committees of companies, such as audit and corporate governance committees. This also leads to the conclusion that women are apparently stricter with regards to the expected performance of officers and presidents in their companies: a larger share of women in boards cause a turnover in leading positions caused by the loss of corporate financial performance. Finally, a higher percentage of women in boards of directors makes a greater proportion of salaries paid to top executives to be tied

to company performance, which in theory would mean that there would be a better alignment of incentives to employees with the mission and vision of the company.

In an analysis conducted with public and private companies in Canada²¹, researcher Barbara Orser showed that the presence of women in business, especially in high-ranking positions, not only contributes to the compliance with laws or quotas imposed for equality between genders, but also makes companies more efficient and competitive in market terms. Some features that are more frequent in women than in men would contribute to this result, according to the company presidents and executives interviewed in this research.

The feature that distinguishes most women from men in leadership positions, according to those interviewed, is the ability of women to make decisions by consensus. This means that, although women in management positions may take longer to decide on an issue, this decision will hardly be taken unilaterally. It will be discussed, evaluated in its strengths and weaknesses, and then decided. This possibility of participating in the strategy being adopted and in the effective management of the company makes people feel more engaged and important for the company, also increasing job satisfaction levels, which reduces a large proportion of company turnover.

Another feature that is highly prevalent in women and less frequent in men is the ability to communicate. Even by the need for interpersonal relationships that most women have, communication between a woman in a leading position and her team is more frequent and usually more direct than if she were a man.

In another study²² that uses data from American companies, we evaluated the effect of personal characteristics of the CEO in corporate social performance, which encompasses both the concept of social responsibility and the measurement of company performance. The researcher concludes that three characteristics of the CEO increase the rate of corporate social performance: having attended a college in the humanities, having a broader career spectrum before holding the position of president and, last but not least, being a woman.

That is, companies that promote women have benefits in communication between persons, in rates of social responsibility, in decision making and management processes, among others. However, why is it virtually impossible to get a larger number of women in managing positions?

¹⁹ “Women in the boardroom and their impact on governance and performance”, by Renée B. Adams and Daniel Ferreira, published in the Journal of Financial Economics in 2009.

²⁰ S & P releases analysis and comparative evaluations among businesses around the world.

²¹ “Creating high-performance organizations”, by Barbara Orser, released in 2000 and available at <http://www.conferenceboard.ca/documents.aspx?did=128>

Managers, academics and a series of studies ask this question while trying to understand what drives the decision process or prevents women from being promoted. Some studies conclude that women are less exposed than men to situations of competition²³ and this would mean that companies would not be able to promote them at the same rate they do with men because of a lack of such feature. Other studies conclude that women opt out of the labor market more easily than men and thus they themselves would be responsible for not being promoted. Finally, a last line of studies reaches conflicting results regarding the influence of a greater number of women holding positions in the board of directors and/or executive boards and the profitability of the companies. Just to refer to two studies mentioned previously, the study conducted by economists Adams and Ferreira in 2009 shows that despite all the benefits in the company management with the inclusion of women in the board of directors, corporate profitability measured by means of returns on assets is lower when a larger portion of the board of directors is formed by women. On the other hand, the McKinsey study, Women Matter 2010 compares the financial performance of the largest companies by dividing them into two groups: the first group with executive committees being formed only by men and a second group where there is the presence of women in at least one of the executive boards. The conclusion reached is that the presence of women in the executive boards increased by 41% the returns on assets when compared to enterprises that have only men on their boards.

The conclusion one can reach after all the analysis is that the profile of women is different from the profile of men, but is by no means a perfect substitute of the other. Men and women have roles in businesses that are complementary in the same way as they are in personal spheres. However, this complementarity does not mean the need for unequal treatment that results in situations of "glass ceiling" or wage gaps due to gender. A common goal for many companies concerned with the sustainability of their businesses is the inclusion of real women in their governing bodies and the next Chapter presents evaluated strategies that contribute to this goal.



The economic and cultural transformations through which Brazil has been have also been transforming manpower and allowing greater inclusion of women in the labor market.

²² "The impact of CEO characteristics on corporate social performance", by Mikko H. Manner, published in the Journal of Business Ethics in 2010.

²³ Most studies with this conclusion is based on experiments with students who show women having the same capacity as men to solve problems individually, but when placed in a contest with a man, the women's performance worsened compared to what she herself had previously conquered.

Chapter 5

Measures that support the inclusion of a greater proportion of women in the market as agents of economic development

The previous Chapters have shown the panorama of women's participation in the labor market, difficulties in reconciling family responsibilities with the needs of labor and wage differences and career climbing between genders. Although all of these items comprise the reality faced by women in the labor market, some specific measures and actions by companies imply a greater chance of success, both in keeping women present in the labor market and in making their participation in this market even more relevant in contributions to economic development. The final objective of this Chapter is to provide a summary of these actions already tested in several companies, which are, in the view of CEOs, managers, human resources staff and women themselves who have had professional success, the key drivers for retention and success women in business²⁴. The sequence mentioned in this text does not necessarily represent a ranking of importance, but the set of measures that provides the event of a greater presence of women in top management positions in companies.

- 1. Commitment of the CEO:** the way the company's CEO stands with regards to the need for professional success of women in their company is vital for this to occur. In their speeches, their actions and their internal and external communications, the speech of the CEO, which includes the concern with equitable treatment between genders and promotes such equality implies greater success for the internal programs of gender empowerment in their company. Besides making the need to promote gender equality explicit, indicators must be put in place to allow for monitoring and following up on the process of promoting women by the company president.
- 2. Flexible work and support for managing family and professional life:** although these measures should not be restricted only to female professionals, it is natural that they are initially more used by women. Not only in developing countries, but perhaps more intensively in those due to the presence of a more conservative culture regarding the roles played by each gender, it is necessary for the company to support women who are relocated from their city, region or even country by providing information and conditions that allow for the adjustment of

family needs - such as school for children, for example - while the professional is adjusting to the professional conditions in her new work base. The flexibility of schedules and the possibility of working from outside the office also allow family responsibilities to be more easily managed with the professional demands.

- 3. Availability of mentoring programs and encouragement of professional networking:** several studies indicate the importance of mentors for career success. For women, the monitoring of their career by a more experienced person in the market is even more important as this represents a chance to assess a model of success and find a way to identify with this model and have success with it. However, it is shown that a low number of women - compared to men - participates in mentoring programs in companies. The reasons for this lower participation of women range from the low availability of women who can act as mentors - due to the low presence of women in higher positions within companies and with a history of professional success as an example for those being mentored - to the level of responsibility of the mentor regarding the career of these women. On one hand, mentoring programs represent the follow-up of the career, indicating needs for personal and professional development, and monitoring of this development. On the other hand, the mentor also serves as a help and support for those being mentored so that they have positive indications and backup when necessary, for greater visibility of their work and, consequently, their promotion. At the same time, establishing and maintaining networking tasks are often difficult for female professionals due to the excessive time required to attend meetings outside working hours and at the same time, managing professional with personal duties. The promotion of events during work and the incentive for women's participation in these meetings and events increases the chances of creating a supporting network among women allowing greater professional success.
- 4 Programs to attract, develop and retain women in companies:** talented women, who are included in companies very

²⁴ The measures mentioned here were compiled mainly from three sources: "Women Matter 2010 - Women at the top of corporations: Making it happen", report from McKinsey & Company (available at <http://www.mckinsey.com/locations/paris/home/womenmatter.asp>), "Creating high-performance organizations", report written by Barbara Orser and released by the Conference Board of Canada (2000), and "The battle for female talent in emerging markets", from Sylvia Ann Hewlett and Ripa Rashid, published at the Harvard Business Review magazine in May 2010. All cited sources used field research with people working in the labor market and in leadership positions, to analyze the needs and results of these measures within companies in order to increase success rates of women in their work.



Managing the different women roles becomes very difficult for women without the support of the company.

early in their careers and placed in specific development programs, were successful in their promotions at rates closer to those of men. In the case of multinational corporations, women's exposure to international experience motivates their stay in the market and offers better conditions for them to succeed within the company. Specific programs to attract young women are an option. Specific programs are also quite important for women's return after being away from the company due to maternity leave. Again, managing the various women's roles becomes very difficult without the support of the company that can emerge as a partner in phases where the management of these responsibilities becomes more evident. Finally, there must be programs to attract women at all levels of hiring allowing senior professionals to have proper insertion in the labor market, which allows for greater gender equality.

5. Work environments suitable for women's appreciation: men and women have different characteristics and the result of these characteristics also occurs within companies. When the appreciation of the male model of professional performance is the company's keynote, women have more difficulty to ascend in their careers²⁵. It is important that companies identify these different forms of performance, to assess their impact on their goals and, according to these results, include them in the metrics for assessing professionals' performance. Finally, cor-

porate policies require periodic assessments with the objective of detecting the existence of non-evident discriminatory factors. An emphasis is needed on the harassment issue - sexual or moral - within companies. Researches indicate that many professionals feel inhibited in reporting harassment and prefer to minimize the problem rather than to face it by reporting it to the management. After many years of discussions about differences and discrimination, researcher Elisabeth Kelan²⁶ found that women are tired of showing gender-related problems they face in the labor market. She calls this effect "gender fatigue" which involves giving up on discussions about the problems faced by female professionals in their companies, choosing instead the position of believing that their work is neutral regarding gender and that discriminatory incidents are isolated and not so frequent, although reports show that they are not. It is important that the company increases its dialogue with these professionals and signals the implementation of equal values between genders in it.

Measures and actions that imply a greater presence of women in the labor market and their professional success will also have positive consequences for companies. The cultural diversity and appreciation of differences in thoughts and behavior makes the circulation of people decrease, increasing job satisfaction and thus, all stakeholders of the company have a greater return with their actions.

²⁵ Generally, women are more participatory in committees and indirect demands of their professional goals (Adams and Ferreira, 2009). The diversion of attention of these professionals for a parallel activity often implies less focus on their career goals and it delays the promotion of these women. However, committees are created to decide on strategies and actions of great importance for the business and for professionals of both genders to have the same incentive to participate, it is necessary that their participation are also valued when measuring indicators for promotion.

²⁶ "Gender fatigue: The ideological dilemma of gender neutrality and discrimination in organizations", by Elisabeth K. Kelan, published in the Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences in 2009.

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MASTHEAD

This Report was prepared in March 2011 by Walmart Brazil's Department of Sustainability.

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Proofreading: Nanci Vieira
Images: Shutterstock bank image and Walmart Brazil archive.

Women

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE PARTICIPATION
OF WOMEN IN BRAZILIAN ECONOMY



Walmart Brazil

Corporate Affairs

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