

I-WIL INDEX 2018 (IESE - Women in Leadership)

International Version



Nuria Chinchilla, Esther Jiménez and Marc Grau



Carmina Roca
and Rafael Pich-Aguilera
Women and Leadership Chair

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Women and Leadership Chair

The aim of the Women and Leadership Chair is to strive for academic excellence and generate knowledge and strategies for integrating women in business organizations. With respect to research, the Chair pursues a wide range of proven and innovative approaches that include:

- deepening understanding of women's career paths and personal development at different organizational levels;
- promoting the humanization of companies through research, based on the influence women managers have on organizations;
- facilitating and advancing professional development of female managers through support and training networks so that they can discover the differential aspects of an identity that complements that of male managers;
- helping companies and male managers understand the way their role complements that of female managers and the positive impact both have in companies and in society;
- contributing to the professional and personal development of women managers so that they are aware of the distinctive contribution they can make, enabling them to act as agents of change;
- seeking ways to change business cultures so that women are not forced to give up any aspect of their lives; and
- providing empirical evidence to help drive progress in this field.

The I-WIL (IESE – Women in Leadership) Index is one of the studies the Chair promotes with the aim of evaluating women's leadership in various countries around the world. The Index is intended to provide indicators and proposals that help give visibility to female talent and show how it contributes to companies, and to promote a society that is more flexible and humane with respect to working hours, structures and policies, with the ultimate aim of facilitating the reconciliation of work, family and personal life.

Nuria Chinchilla

Professor at IESE Business School, University of Navarra

Holder of the Carmina Roca and Rafael Pich-Aguilera Women in Leadership Chair

Esther Jiménez

Principal Investigator

Dean of the Faculty of Education, UIC Barcelona, University of Navarra

Lecturer at IESE Business School

Marc Grau

Researcher

Researcher at UIC Barcelona and the Harvard Kennedy School

1. Introduction

Women's particular contribution to companies, their role as agents of change, female and male leadership styles, and reconciliation of work, family and personal life are increasingly prominent issues in the media, in company management, and on government agendas.

Twenty-first century women want to be mothers, spouses, professionals and citizens. Men too want to combine different aspects of their lives without giving up any of their traditional domains. Young generations have experienced the consequences of people being short of time and stressed, and therefore place a high value on having access to rights their parents have not been able to enjoy.

Women want their femininity to be respected, but they also want to have a chance to show that their specific contribution can serve to transform companies and society, making them more humane and productive. And they want all these things without giving up the freedom to choose where to focus their efforts at each point in their lives: 60% want to combine work and family life.¹ Twenty percent choose to focus exclusively on caring for their families, and the remaining 20% prioritize their jobs over other areas at certain points in their lives and careers. At present, this choice leads to multiple inequalities in women's lifestyles.

Work is a source of personal fulfillment and socialization for everyone. To work is to serve, and work is an integral part of life. In recent decades, however, paid work has been exalted as the main indicator of a person's worth. You are valued for what the market pays you, not for what you have managed to become. Thus, the emphasis is on living to work rather than on working to live, develop and serve others.

This economic vision, which only values what can be quantified and paid for, has contributed to a progressive devaluation of household duties. Regardless of how much time women are able to devote to these tasks, they merit far greater social and personal recognition. For Gary Becker² (Nobel Laureate in Economics), time spent on one's family is as productive as that spent working in the marketplace because it represents an investment in human capital.³ He also says the family is the best department of social welfare because it sustains people who are unemployed or going through a difficult situation of any kind.

¹ Study conducted by sociologist Catherine Hakim, published in *Work-Lifestyle Choices in the 21st Century* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000).

² G. S. Becker, *A Treatise on the Family* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1981).

³ In the 1960s, Theodore Schultz introduced the notion of "human capital"—that is, the productive capacity people acquire over their lives through different kinds of education and training (Schultz 1983, 181–95).

We would add that it is also the best department of equal opportunities, because it respects each of its members as she or he is and attends to all their needs, thus enabling them to achieve their full potential. It is also the best health department, because it cares for the health of its members, and the best department of education, because it builds a sense of identity and generates confidence.

Various studies have assessed the value of unpaid domestic work. According to research carried out by Bridgman, Dugan, Lal, Osborne and Villones (2012), if unpaid domestic work were paid for at market prices, the gross domestic product (GDP) would go up by 25.7%.⁴ The figure has decreased since 1965, when the impact on GDP was estimated at 39%, because less time is being spent on housework.

Domestic work—sometimes viewed with disdain compared to work done in the labor market—plays an essential role, not only due to its invisible but real contribution to GDP and its role in reducing spending on public social services, but also because by its nature it helps people develop skills and competencies related to service and social harmony. Though men spend far less time on domestic work than women do, the report cited above notes that over the period studied there was an increase in the time men spent on household tasks.

Statistics like those cited above provide an insight into the reality of people's lives and show the economic and social impact of their activity. A lot of progress has been made since the 1960s and 1970s, when legal measures were introduced in the United States to counteract discrimination based on gender, race or religion. However, all too often women are forced to choose between career and family.⁵

As a result of the various trends affecting families—increases in life expectancy, the number of divorces, single-parent families, dual-income families (in which both spouses work outside the home); and birth rates falling to previously unheard-of levels that jeopardize the generational replacement needed to maintain our current standard of living—combined with very long working hours and a rigid approach by companies, people are faced with a serious conflict between work, family and personal life.

⁴ Benjamin Bridgman, Andrew Dugan, Mikhael Lal, Matthew Osborne, and Shaunda Villones, "Accounting for Household Production in the National Accounts, 1965–2010," *Survey of Current Business* 92(5) (2012): 23–36.

⁵ IESE Business School, "Maternidad y Trayectoria Profesional: análisis de las barreras e impulsores para la maternidad de las mujeres españolas" (2017), www.iese.edu/Aplicaciones/upload/IESEORDESALow.pdf, accessed May 2018.

In this context, there is a pressing need for governments, organizations, families, the media and academia to work together to mitigate one of the most acute social problems we face.

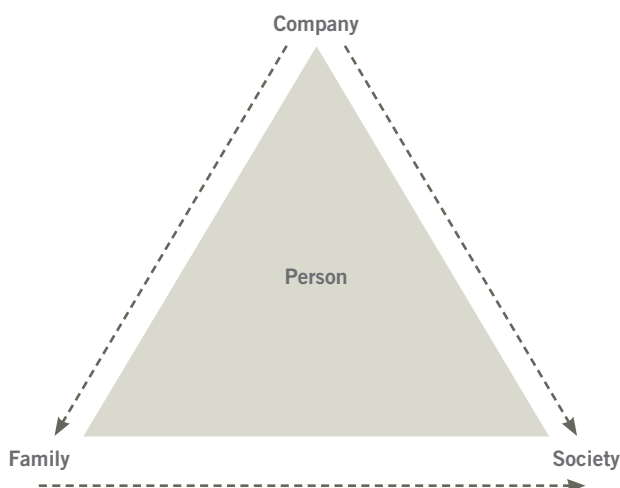
To this end, the I-WIL Index seeks to explore four dimensions of women's leadership (personal, political, business and social), identify changes that have taken place in these areas over time, assess to what extent equal opportunities are being achieved, and put forward proposals that may provide guidance for women, companies, families and governments.

2. The I-WIL Index: Introduction

Work, family, and private and social life are fundamental, essential and complementary dimensions of human life. If people are to achieve a balance between these dimensions and successfully integrate them, we need to take a holistic approach that spans political, corporate, family, social and individual life.

This is a complex task because, in the absence of an overarching vision, the spheres in which people act (company, family and society) appear disconnected from one another. However, over the last decade, movements have emerged and practices have been generated to facilitate the integration of these dimensions of life.

Figure 1. Work-Life Balance Triangle



The interaction between the three vertices of the triangle shown above centers on the individual. Personal decisions and life experiences are transmitted and reflected in organizations, but there is always a broad sphere of action in which individual decisions are crucial. Every day we make decisions about whether something we are working on will have to be left until tomorrow, or whether it is our families that will have to wait one more hour.

However, these personal decisions are also externally constrained if there is not an enabling environment. Clearly, there are many factors that influence these decisions: labor, family-related, economic and social legislation; access to equal opportunity training; the difficulty or ease of reconciling work, private and family life; the importance each individual gives to different areas of life and how they prioritize them; the level of shared responsibility and support people have in their family and social environment; and the culture of the company they work for (i.e., whether the focus is exclusively on maximizing profit, or the employer also considers its corporate family responsibility).

The aim of the I-WIL Index is to analyze changes in these factors and how they impact equal opportunities for women. Other indexes that measure gender inequality, the glass ceiling, and other issues related to the situation of women in contemporary society include:

- The Global Gender Gap Index,⁶ produced annually by the World Economic Forum since 2006 with the aim of measuring the global gender gap. The Index ranks countries based on 14 indicators grouped in four dimensions: economic participation and opportunity, educational attainment, political empowerment, and health and survival.
- The Gender Inequality Index,⁷ produced annually by the United Nations. This index aims to measure gender equality in three broad dimensions—health (mortality), empowerment (secondary education), and labor market (female participation)—based on five indicators.

⁶ World Economic Forum, The Global Gender Gap Report 2015 (Cologne/Geneva: World Economic Forum, 2015), weforum.org/global-gender-gap-report-2015/, accessed May 2018.

⁷ United Nations, Gender Inequality Index (2016), hdr.undp.org/en/content/gender-inequality-index-gii, accessed May 2018.

- The Gender Equality Index,⁸ compiled by the European Institute for Gender Equality (European Union). This index comprises over 70 indicators, grouped within six domains: work, money, knowledge, time, power and health. To date, results have been published for 2005, 2010, 2012, and 2015.
- The Glass-Ceiling Index,⁹ produced by The Economist. This index focuses on the glass ceiling and is based on nine indicators that are not grouped in any way.
- The GIWPS Index¹⁰—produced by the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security—is structured around three basic dimensions: inclusion, justice and security. The first published results are for 2017/18.

The I-WIL Index is based on indicators related to women’s career paths and leadership within the framework of four dimensions: personal leadership, political leadership, business leadership and social leadership. For our purposes, we have not considered significant data reported in other indexes, such as statistics on health and poverty.

Nor have we included data on the so-called “gender pay gap,” even though this factor linked to women’s careers is an enduring reality at the global level. According to the existing research in this area, the pay gap is explained by the following factors:

1. Differences in labor force participation rates for men and women.¹¹
2. The fact that men and women do very different types of jobs¹² with different remuneration (the jobs typically done by men are generally better paid than those typically done by women) or different shifts (night, risk, ...)

⁸ European Institute for Gender Equality, Gender Equality Index 2017 (2017), eige.europa.eu/gender-equality-index/about#about-overview, accessed May 2018.

⁹ The Economist, “The Glass-Ceiling Index: The Best—and Worst—Places to Be a Working Woman” (March 3, 2016), www.economist.com/blogs/graphicdetail/2016/03/daily-chart-0, accessed May 2018.

¹⁰ Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security, <https://giwps.georgetown.edu/index-dimension/inclusion/>, accessed May 2018.

¹¹ Eurostat, “Wages and labour costs,” “Gender pay gap” section (data extracted in April 2018), http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Wages_and_labour_costs, accessed May 2018.

¹² More men than women work in engineering, business, management, electronics and the physical sciences, while women are significantly overrepresented in administrative work, nursing, and health and social services.

3. The difference in the number of hours men and women work. (Women in full-time jobs work an average of 43 hours a week, whereas the average for men is 45 hours¹³).

However, when one controls for these factors, women are still found to earn less than men. Among the “unexplained” causes of the gender pay gap, several researchers¹⁴ have identified the factors listed below, which are set out in the Global Wage Report, produced by the International Labor Organization (ILO):¹⁵

1. undervaluation of women’s work;
2. workplace characteristics (e.g., how substitutable workers are for each other, the value of face time, etc.);
3. sex segregation, which channels women into low value-added jobs;
4. the overall wage structure in a country, which may be shaped by wage-setting mechanisms designed with a focus on workers in male-dominated sectors;
5. the view of women as economic dependents; and
6. the likelihood that women are in unorganized sectors or not represented in unions.

According to the ILO report, if this unexplained wage penalty were eliminated, the mean gender wage gap would be reversed in Brazil, Lithuania, the Russian Federation, Slovenia and Sweden, and would nearly disappear in about half the countries in the sample of developed economies analyzed in the report.

¹³ AAUW, Graduating to a Pay Gap: The Earnings of Women and Men One Year after College Graduation (October 2012), www.aauw.org/files/2013/02/graduating-to-a-pay-gap-the-earnings-of-women-and-men-one-year-aftercollege-graduation.pdf, accessed May 2018.

¹⁴ (Goldin 2014; Chen et al. 2013; Grimshaw 2011; Rubery, Grimshaw and Figueiredo 2005; Heinze and Wolf 2010; Rubery 2003).

¹⁵ International Labour Organization, Global Wage Report 2014/15: Wages and income inequality (2015), www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/--publ/documents/publication/wcms_324678.pdf, accessed May 2018.

Figure 2. Dimensions and Indicators

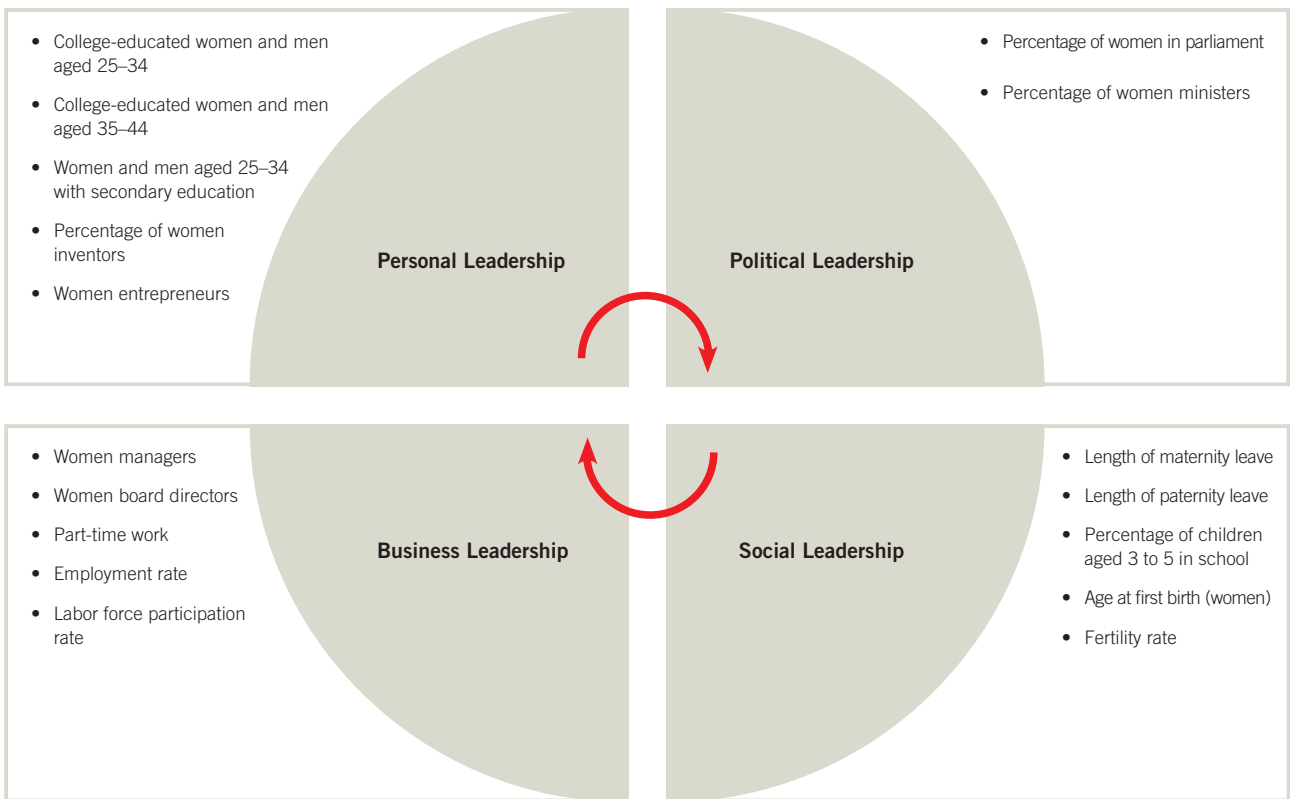
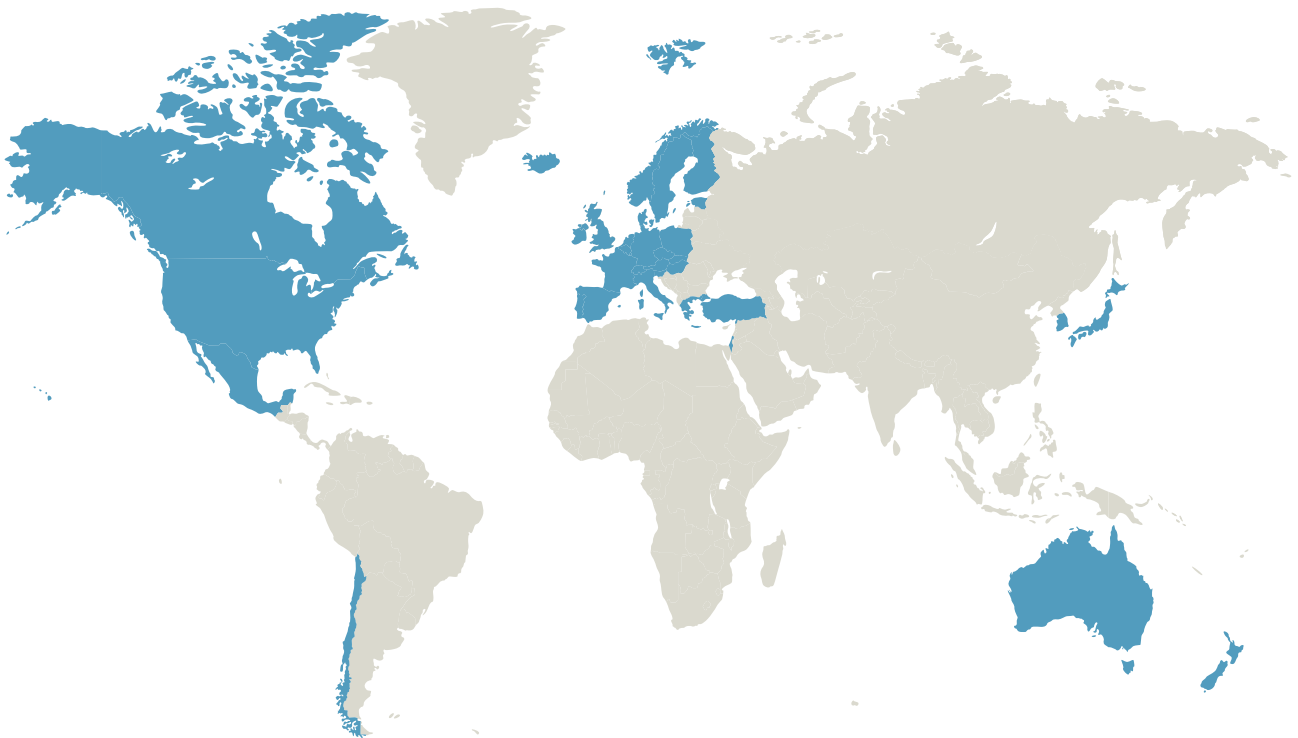


Figure 3. I-WIL Countries



Note: OECD countries except Lithuania

3. Key Results

The I-WIL Index, developed by the Women and Leadership Chair of the IESE Business School, is aimed at analyzing female leadership in 34 OECD countries.

Unlike other indexes, the focus is specifically on women's leadership in four dimensions: personal, political, business and social.

The Index uses 17 indicators based on statistical data from various international organizations of recognized standing and compares the current situation (2018) with the year 2006.

The main results provided by the I-WIL Index for 2018 are as follows:

- Sweden (1st), Iceland (2nd) and Norway (3rd) are the three countries that rank highest for female leadership and equal opportunities between men and women.
- Turkey (34th), Japan (33rd) and South Korea (32nd) are the three countries that rank lowest for female leadership and equal opportunities between men and women.
- France is the country that has made the most progress over the last decade.
- Hungary, Austria and Estonia¹⁶ (17th) are the countries that have dropped the most positions on the I-WIL Index from 2006 to 2018.

The three top-ranking countries by dimension are as follows:

- Personal leadership: Portugal, Spain and Estonia
- Political leadership: Sweden, Iceland and Slovenia
- Business leadership: Norway, Sweden and Ireland
- Social leadership: Israel, United Kingdom and France

This report presents global indicators by dimension and country, together with a series of recommendations based on our analysis of the results, the research conducted, and accumulated experience concerning the reconciliation of work, family and personal life, as well as the advancement of women in business.

¹⁶ Israel and New Zealand fell more but are not considered because the 2006 data for these countries is incomplete.

4. Methodology

4.1 Dimensions

To analyze and rank the 34 countries included in the study, the I-WIL Index considers four key dimensions of women's leadership:

Personal leadership. This dimension is concerned with women's proactivity and is reflected in their ability to pursue post-obligatory education, develop and file patents, and set up companies.

Political leadership. The presence of women in the highest political institutions is a key factor in our analysis of progress in this area. This dimension is concerned with the importance of women and equal opportunities in the echelons of power where major legislative and executive decisions are made in the countries studied.

Business leadership. Here, our aim is to analyze and consider female leadership in the business world. Women managers are agents of change in companies and help enable a flexible culture that adapts to both market and human needs.

Social leadership. In the social sphere, women assume responsibilities related to service and care. We seek to analyze the support they receive and the impact of barriers they face when it comes to integrating their work, family and personal lives.

In the next section, we will describe the 17 indicators used in the Index, which are organized into the four dimensions described above.

4.1.1 Personal Leadership

- **College-educated women and men aged 25 to 34.** This indicator is the ratio of the percentage of college-educated women in this age group to the percentage of college-educated men. A ratio greater than one indicates that a country has more college-educated women than men in the 25–34 age group.
- **College-educated women and men aged 35 to 44.** This indicator is the ratio of the percentage of college-educated women in this age group to the percentage of college-educated men. A ratio greater than one means the country has more college-educated women than men in the 35–44 age group.

- **Women and men aged 25 to 34 with secondary education.** This indicator is the ratio of the percentage of women aged 25 to 34 with secondary education to the percentage of men in this age group with the same level of education. A ratio greater than one indicates that more women than men in the 25–34 age group have a secondary education.
- **Percentage of women inventors.** This indicator refers to the percentage of patents filed by women.
- **Women entrepreneurs.** This indicator is the ratio of the percentage of self-employed women (out of total working women) who employ others to the percentage of self-employed men who meet the same criterion.
- **Involuntary part-time work.** This indicator is the ratio of the percentage of women in involuntary part-time work to the percentage of men in the same situation. If the ratio for a country is greater than one, there are more women than men in involuntary part-time work. However, to maintain a consistent approach in calculations, this item has been reversed. Therefore, if the ratio is less than one, this means there are more women than men in involuntary part-time work jobs.
- **Unemployment rate.** This indicator is the ratio of the female to the male unemployment rate. In principle, if the ratio for a country is greater than one, this means more women than men are unemployed. However, to maintain a consistent approach in calculations, this item has also been reversed. Therefore, if the ratio is less than one, this indicates that a smaller proportion of women than men are unemployed.

4.1.2 Political Leadership

- **Percentage of women in parliament.** This indicator refers to the percentage of women in parliament in each country in the year under study.
- **Percentage of women ministers.** This indicator refers to the percentage of women who head ministries in each country in the year under study.

4.1.3 Business Leadership

- **Women managers.** This indicator is the ratio of the percentage of female managers (out of total female employees) to the percentage of male managers (out of total male employees). For the purposes of the Index, managers are defined as employees classified in category 08 according to the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO).¹⁷ If the ratio for a country is greater than one, this indicates that the proportion of female managers out of total female employees is greater than that of male managers out of total male employees.
- **Women board directors.** This indicator is the percentage of women on board (directors).¹⁸

¹⁷ The ILO's International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) is one of the main classification structures. It belongs to the international family of economic and social classifications. www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco/, accessed May 2018.

¹⁸ The data used for this indicator was obtained from the database "Female share of seats on boards of the largest publicly listed companies." Figures for Japan include data for management boards. EU countries, Iceland, Norway and Turkey only include data for the 50 largest registered companies in each case: Austria–ATX (20), Belgium–BEL 20 (18), Czech Republic–PX-GLOB (13), Denmark–OMX Copenhagen 20 (18), Estonia–OMX Estonia-GI (15), Finland–OMX Helsinki 25 (23), France–CAC 40 (37), Germany–DAX 30 (30), Greece–FTSE/ATHEX Large Cap (23), Hungary–BUX (14), Iceland–OMX Iceland-All (14), Ireland–ISEQ 20 (19), Italy–FTSE MIB (37), Latvia–OMX Riga-GI (28), Lithuania–OMX Vilnius-GI (23), Luxembourg–LuxX (10), Netherlands–AEX (21), Norway–OBX (21), Poland–WIG20 (20), Portugal–PSI 20 (17), Slovakia–SAX (10), Slovenia–SBITOP (20), Spain–IBEX 35 (33), Sweden–OMX Stockholm 30 (27), Turkey–XU050 (50), United Kingdom–FTSE 100 (50). Australia, Canada, India, Japan and the United States include companies on their blue-chip indexes: Australia–S&P/ASX 200 (202); Canada–S&P/TSX 60 (60); India–BSE 200 (200); Japan–TOPIX Core 30 (29); USA–S&P 500 (500).

4.1.4 Social Leadership

- **Length of maternity leave.** This indicator refers to the duration of maternity leave in weeks.¹⁹ We converted the figures for this indicator to base 100. The highest percentage is the closest to 100, and the lowest is the closest to 0. The rest are calculated proportionately.
- **Length of paternity leave.** This indicator refers to the duration of paternity leave in weeks.²⁰
- **Percentage of children aged 3 to 5 in school.** This indicator is the percentage of children aged 3 to 5 that are enrolled in school.

¹⁹ According to the database used: "Total duration of paid maternity and parental leave refers to the total number of weeks which a woman can be on paid leave after the birth of a child, combining both maternity and parental leave."

²⁰ According to the database used: "Paid father-specific leave refers to the number of paid weeks reserved for the exclusive use of fathers, including entitlements to paid paternity leave, 'father quotas' or periods of paid parental leave that can be used only by the father and cannot be transferred to the mother, and any weeks of paid sharable leave that must be taken by the father in order for the family to qualify for 'bonus' weeks of parental leave."

- **Age at first birth (women).** This indicator reports the average age at which women in a country have their first child. We converted the figures for this indicator to base 100. The highest percentage is the closest to 100, and the lowest is the closest to 0. The rest are calculated proportionately.
- **Fertility rate.** This indicator refers to the average number of children a woman has during her childbearing years.

4.2 Sources and Weighting

As indicated in Table 1, we have used various secondary databases to create the I-WIL Index. Based on their international scope, reliability and relevance, databases from the following sources were used: Eurostat, the Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD), the Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU), the ILO, the European Conference (EC), and Catalyst. In the following sections, we will describe the sources and weighting used to make the calculations for each dimension.

4.2.1 Personal Leadership

Four of the five personal leadership indicators (items 1.1, 1.2, 1.3 and 1.5) are based on data from Eurostat's European Labour Force Survey. To analyze patent filing (item 1.4), we used the OECD Patent Database, which specifies the sex of the patent filer.

Within the framework of the four dimensions, we assigned personal leadership a value of 0.96 points. To determine the weighting of the five items it includes, we considered the extent to which they affect and facilitate the presence of women in management positions. Based on this principle, less weight is given to secondary education (0.15), while the weighting of the other items is almost equal, with "women entrepreneurs" given slightly more weight because of the added value this item provides for the purposes of this study.

4.2.2 Political Leadership

The two political leadership indicators are from the IPU, which does an excellent job of annually updating information on parliaments and ministries in most of the world's countries.

The two indicators are given equal weight. We assigned this dimension a value of 0.8 within the set of dimensions that comprise the Index in view of the limited number of women who are able to become MPs or ministers compared to those men who can access management positions.

4.2.3 Business Leadership

With respect to business leadership, the first indicator (item 3.1) is taken from the ILO database; the second (item 3.2), from a combined EC-Catalyst database; and the last three (involuntary part-time work, unemployment rate, and labor force participation rate), from the OECD Employment Database.

We assigned business leadership a value of 1.2 and gave each of the items included in this dimension equal weighting. The greater weighting of business leadership within the set of dimensions that comprise the Index reflects the particular significance of women's access to boards and their entry into management positions.

4.2.4 Social Leadership

Finally, social leadership comprises five indicators from various sources. The first two items in this dimension (maternity and paternity leave) are from the OECD Family Database; the third (percentage of children aged 3 to 5 in school), from the OECD Education Database; the fourth (age at first birth), from Eurostat; and the fifth (fertility rate), from the OECD.

This dimension was assigned a value of 1.04 points. The items "maternity leave," "paternity leave," and "percentage of children aged 3 to 5 in school" were all given equal weight (0.2). More weight was given to "fertility rate" (0.25) than to the other items because of the correlation between this factor and lack of support and equal opportunities. Due to the greater weight given to item 4.5, less weight is given to "age at first birth" (0.15). This reflects the lesser impact of this factor compared to the others included in this dimension.

Table 1. Dimensions, Indicators, Sources and Weighting

I-WIL INDEX. Four Dimensions		Sources	Item weighting	Dimension weighting
1. Personal leadership				0.96
Item 1.1	College-educated women aged 25 to 34 (ratio to men)	Labour Force Survey, Eurostat	0.21	
Item 1.2	College-educated women aged 35 to 44 (ratio to men)	Labour Force Survey, Eurostat	0.21	
Item 1.3	Women aged 25 to 34 with secondary education (ratio to men)	Labour Force Survey, Eurostat	0.15	
Item 1.4	Percentage of women inventors	OECD patent databases, OECD	0.2	
Item 1.5	Women entrepreneurs (ratio to men)	Labour Force Survey, Eurostat	0.23	
2. Political leadership				0.8
Item 2.1	Percentage of women in parliament	Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU)	0.5	
Item 2.2	Percentage of women ministers	Inter-Parliamentary Union (IPU)	0.5	
3. Business leadership				1.2
Item 3.1	Female employees who are managers (ratio to men)	ILOSTAT database, ILO	0.2	
Item 3.2	Women on board of directors (%)	Database on Women and Men in Decision-making; Catalyst Census: Women Board Directors (New York: Catalyst/OECD, 2015)	0.2	
Item 3.3	Involuntary part-time work (% – ratio to men)	OECD Employment Database, OECD	0.2	
Item 3.4	Unemployment rate for women (ratio to men)	OECD Employment Database, OECD	0.2	
Item 3.5	Labor force participation rate (ratio to men)	OECD Employment Database, OECD	0.2	
4. Social leadership				1.04
Item 4.1	Length of paid maternity leave	OECD Family Database, OECD	0.2	
Item 4.2	Length of paid paternity leave	OECD Family Database, OECD	0.2	
Item 4.3	Percentage of children aged 3 to 5 in school	OECD Education Database, OECD	0.2	
Item 4.4	Age at first birth (women)	Eurostat Demographic Statistics, Eurostat	0.15	
Item 4.5	Fertility rate	OECD, based on national statistics	0.25	

5. Overall Results – I-WIL Index

Based on the criteria specified in the previous section, below we present the I-WIL Index results for 2018 and 2006, and the changes in country rankings over this period (2018 versus 2006).

5.1 I-WIL Index 2018

Table 2. I-WIL 2018 Results

Country	Personal leadership		Political leadership		Business leadership		Social leadership		I-WIL INDEX 2018	
	Points	Ranking	Points	Ranking	Points	Ranking	Points	Ranking	Points	Ranking
Sweden	45.8	17	94.1	1	75.5	2	43.3	7	63.7	1
Iceland	59.4	9	87.8	2	62.3	8	42.0	9	61.4	2
Norway	45.4	18	76.3	6	80.5	1	38.8	13	60.4	3
Slovenia	67.5	6	83.0	3	54.0	17	33.3	21	57.7	4
France	43.6	21	71.9	9	58.7	12	51.2	3	55.8	5
Finland	50.3	14	78.4	4	62.8	7	32.8	22	55.1	6
Portugal	86.6	1	54.2	18	48.8	24	32.0	26	54.6	7
Spain	72.6	2	75.2	7	46.3	25	28.5	29	53.8	8
Belgium	50.0	15	60.9	13	57.6	13	43.8	6	52.9	9
United Kingdom	33.2	29	55.5	16	64.0	6	52.0	2	51.8	10
Denmark	48.9	16	77.2	5	49.9	19	36.4	18	51.6	11
Estonia	70.7	3	45.8	21	52.7	18	36.5	17	51.4	12
Poland	70.7	4	44.9	22	56.2	15	32.3	25	51.2	13
Netherlands	39.5	25	71.9	8	61.9	9	32.8	23	51.0	14
Canada	52.3	12	70.5	10	65.8	4	17.1	33	50.9	15
New Zealand	50.9	13	63.7	12	49.0	22	40.1	11	50.1	16
Ireland	40.4	23	41.9	24	67.9	3	41.7	10	49.3	17
Italy	67.7	5	54.5	17	44.5	26	30.4	28	48.4	18
Israel	40.4	24	40.5	26	49.8	20	59.5	1	48.2	19
Australia	52.8	11	48.0	20	60.0	10	26.1	31	47.0	20
Germany	24.7	32	66.9	11	58.9	11	35.2	20	46.2	21
Mexico	36.9	27	58.1	14	42.7	27	47.3	5	45.6	22
Slovakia	64.8	7	27.3	30	48.8	23	36.8	15	45.2	23
United States	37.9	26	37.4	27	65.0	5	27.9	30	43.3	24
Austria	28.5	30	49.5	19	54.9	16	32.7	24	41.7	25
Hungary	58.2	10	0.8	34	57.2	14	36.6	16	40.8	26
Greece	63.3	8	33.3	28	36.1	28	25.5	32	39.3	27
Luxembourg	44.5	20	43.6	23	31.0	32	38.3	14	38.6	28
Chile	42.5	22	41.2	25	32.6	31	39.6	12	38.5	29
Switzerland	28.0	31	56.6	15	49.3	21	16.9	34	37.2	30
Czech Republic	45.1	19	30.6	29	33.0	30	35.8	19	36.2	31
South Korea	35.3	28	18.4	31	27.3	34	42.4	8	31.4	32
Japan	19.6	33	14.9	32	34.8	29	49.0	4	30.9	33
Turkey	11.2	34	10.7	33	30.5	33	30.5	27	21.9	34

5.2 I-WIL Index 2006

Table 3. I-WIL 2006 Results

Country	Personal leadership		Political leadership		Business leadership		Social leadership		I-WIL INDEX 2006	
	Points	Ranking	Points	Ranking	Points	Ranking	Points	Ranking	Points	Ranking
Sweden	48.4	16	100.0	1	63.4	3	43.0	11	61.8	1
Norway	51.7	13	59.7	9	53.1	12	53.6	6	59.1	2
Finland	50.4	15	81.4	4	66.2	1	41.8	13	58.3	3
Iceland	73.7	2	15.1	33	52.5	13	39.6	16	54.2	4
Estonia	47.6	17	25.9	24	51.3	15	45.2	10	54.1	5
Israel	58.4	9	84.1	3	57.5	7	39.2	17	51.6	6
New Zealand	64.4	6	84.5	2	34.6	29	30.4	26	51.2	7
United Kingdom	82.0	1	35.6	17	41.7	22	35.1	21	50.9	8
Spain	37.7	24	45.1	12	60.3	4	56.7	3	50.6	9
Denmark	51.2	14	55.7	10	41.2	23	53.2	7	49.8	10
Belgium	67.4	3	24.3	25	56.8	9	24.9	31	49.6	11
Portugal	46.4	19	69.7	7	47.6	19	40.2	14	48.4	12
Australia	64.4	5	31.5	19	58.7	6	56.8	2	47.2	13
Canada	55.2	11	41.2	14	60.0	5	28.8	28	47	14
Slovenia	60.7	8	54.4	11	49.0	18	42.3	12	46.8	15
Hungary	47.6	18	27.4	22	52.2	14	73.3	1	45.9	16
Austria	41.8	23	30.8	20	53.1	11	32.7	23	45.3	17
United States	57.3	10	23.0	27	31.7	30	32.6	24	45.1	18
Germany	64.7	4	42.7	13	53.2	10	27.4	29	44.7	19
Poland	35.4	27	72.0	6	45.2	20	27.0	30	44.5	20
France	36.6	26	32.0	18	40.2	25	51.0	9	43.8	21
Netherlands	27.3	31	76.0	5	49.0	17	31.9	25	43.5	22
Ireland	46.0	20	26.2	23	65.0	2	35.7	20	40.6	23
Mexico	45.8	21	18.2	29	49.6	16	38.5	19	40.5	24
Slovakia	60.9	7	18.3	28	57.3	8	40.1	15	39.5	25
Luxembourg	26.8	32	66.1	8	40.7	24	51.9	8	39.4	26
Chile	36.9	25	35.7	16	30.3	32	55.0	4	38.9	27
Italy	42.8	22	28.3	21	29.0	33	54.9	5	36.3	28
Czech Republic	53.4	12	15.4	32	28.6	34	22.9	33	34.2	29
Switzerland	34.7	28	23.5	26	36.8	28	38.8	18	30.8	30
Greece	22.1	33	37.7	15	42.9	21	19.7	34	30.4	31
South Korea	29.4	29	15.8	31	37.6	27	24.3	32	27.8	32
Japan	29.3	30	17.8	30	30.7	31	29.4	27	27.4	33
Turkey	8.7	34	4.1	34	39.4	26	32.9	22	23.3	34

5.3 Changes in Rankings: I-WIL 2018 vs I-WIL 2006

Table 4. Changes in Rankings: 2018 vs 2006

Country	I-WIL INDEX 2018		I-WIL INDEX 2006		Change in position 2018 vs 2006	
	Points	Ranking	Points	Ranking	Positions	
France	55.8	5	43.75	21	16	+
Slovenia	57.7	4	46.76	15	11	+
Italy	48.4	18	36.33	28	10	+
Netherlands	51.0	14	43.49	22	8	+
Poland	51.2	13	44.55	20	7	+
Ireland	49.3	17	40.64	23	6	+
Portugal	54.6	7	48.43	12	5	+
Greece	39.3	27	30.41	31	4	+
Belgium	52.9	9	49.64	11	2	+
Slovakia	45.2	23	39.53	25	2	+
Mexico	45.6	22	40.48	24	2	+
Iceland	61.4	2	54.22	4	2	+
Spain	53.8	8	50.63	9	1	+
Turkey	21.9	34	23.28	34	0	=
Switzerland	37.2	30	30.83	30	0	=
Sweden	63.7	1	61.81	1	0	=
Japan	30.9	33	27.44	33	0	=
South Korea	31.4	32	27.81	32	0	=
Norway	60.4	3	59.12	2	-1	-
Denmark	51.6	11	49.78	10	-1	-
Canada	50.9	15	46.96	14	-1	-
Germany	46.2	21	44.75	19	-2	-
Chile	38.5	29	38.92	27	-2	-
Luxembourg	38.6	28	39.40	26	-2	-
United Kingdom	51.8	10	50.90	8	-2	-
Czech Republic	36.2	31	34.17	29	-2	-
Finland	55.1	6	58.26	3	-3	-
United States	43.3	24	45.08	18	-6	-
Australia	47.0	20	47.17	13	-7	-
Estonia	51.4	12	54.13	5	-7	-
Austria	41.7	25	45.35	17	-8	-
New Zealand	50.1	16	51.16	7	-9	-
Hungary	40.8	26	45.88	16	-10	-
Israel	48.2	19	51.59	6	-13	-

5.4 Analysis of Overall Results

According to the I-WIL Index data, France is the country that has made the most progress over the last decade, going from 21st place in 2006 to 5th in 2018. Although the country has improved in all areas, its advance in the overall results is due mainly to significant gains in women's political and social leadership. The percentage of women in the French Parliament went from 12.2% in 2006 to 26.2% in 2018, while the percentage of women leading a ministry increased from 17.6% to 52.9% over the same period. With respect to social leadership, it is worth noting an increase in the length of paternity leave, the country's high fertility rate (1.92), and the fact that 100% of children under six are enrolled in school.

Slovenia and Italy have gained ground in all dimensions except social leadership, where they obtain practically the same score in 2018 as they did in 2006. Their progress in the political sphere has no doubt helped drive improvements in the other dimensions. Poland has made significant progress in personal leadership but fallen in the ranking for political leadership. Ireland has gained ground in all areas and stands out for its significant progress on social leadership, which can be attributed to three factors: an increase in the length of maternity leave (from 34 to 42 weeks), a 79% increase since 2006 in the number of children aged 3 to 5 enrolled in school, and the fact that the country has maintained one of the highest fertility rates (1.94).

The countries that have dropped the most on the I-WIL Index over the last decade are Hungary, Austria and Estonia. Israel and New Zealand dropped more positions but are not considered because the 2006 data for these countries is incomplete in the sources consulted. Hungary fell 10 positions, from 16th in 2006 to 26th in 2018. This fall is due mainly to the country's failure to make any progress on most of the indicators; a decline in the percentage of women ministers, from 11.8% in 2006 to 0% in 2018; a drop in the number of women managers, from 5% in 2006 to 4.2% in 2018; and a decrease in the number of women on boards of directors, from 14% in 2006 to 11% in 2018. Two positive developments in Hungary are worth noting: a drop in the unemployment rate for women (from 7.6% to 5.1%) and an increase in their labor force participation rate (from 55.5% to 63.5%).

Austria has lost ground in political leadership (from 8th in 2006 to 19th in 2018). "Women in parliament" went from 32.2% in 2006 to 30.6% in 2018, and "women ministers" declined from 35.3% in 2006 to 23.1% in 2018. In social leadership, Austria fell from 8th in the ranking in 2006 to 22nd in 2018. This drop is explained mainly by an increase in age at first birth (from 29.0 years in 2006 to 30.4 just a decade later) and a decrease in the number of weeks of paternity leave.

6. Personal Leadership – Analysis of Results

Access to education is the key to developing talent and the driver of social change. Admission of women to universities began in the United States in the 1830s (women-only medical schools, which were not necessarily attached to universities). In the following decades, women gained access to higher education in Europe (in Paris, Zürich and England), generally speaking in medical programs. Italy was an exception. Only a few women aristocrats were able to gain access to university studies from the Middle Ages on. These women were able to complete doctoral degrees and even teach at the university level, generally in law programs.²¹ In Europe, women were first allowed to study at universities attended by men in England (Queens College, 1848), and later this was permitted in France (1880) and Germany (1900–09).²²

Since 1970, access to education has increased for both sexes, with women making much more rapid and significant progress in primary, secondary and higher education. In addition to this increase in access to education, girls are outperforming boys academically. At the higher education level, women are doing better than men in terms of the number of bachelor's degrees taken, academic results, and degree completion.²³

However, according to UNESCO databases, it is estimated that 32 million girls of primary school age²⁴ and 30 million of lower secondary school age²⁵ were not enrolled in school in 2015.

²¹ A. I. Palermo, "El acceso de las mujeres a los estudios universitarios (siglo XIX)," Tebeto: Anuario del Archivo Histórico Insular de Fuerteventura (2006), mdc.ulpgc.es/cdm/ref/collection/tebeto/id/343, accessed March 2018.

²² www.h-net.org/reviews/showrev.php?id=9304, accessed May 2018.

²³ C. Buchmann, T. A. DiPrete and A. McDaniel, "Gender Inequalities in Education," *Annual Review of Sociology* 34 (2008): 319–37.

²⁴ <https://data.unicef.org/topic/education/primary-education/>. Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics global databases, 2017, accessed May 2018.

²⁵ <https://data.unicef.org/topic/education/secondary-education/>. Source: UNESCO Institute for Statistics global databases, 2017, accessed May 2018.

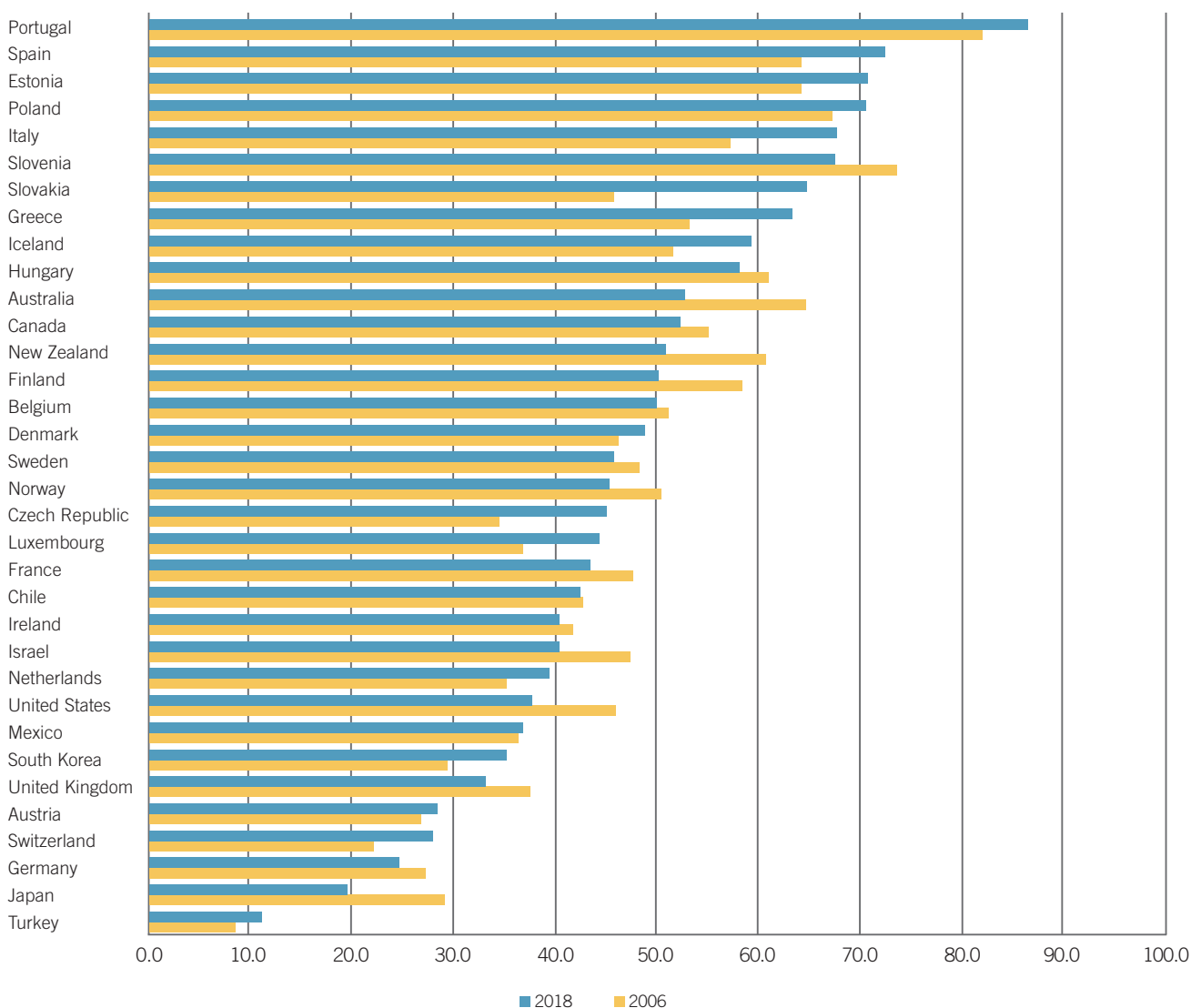
High dropout rates in many countries are one of the major obstacles to achieving universal primary education. The data show that these figures are extremely sensitive to the national economic context. However, in almost all countries, regardless of their stage of development, dropout rates tend to be much higher for boys than for girls.²⁶

On the other hand, women are clearly underrepresented in areas related to science, engineering, manufacturing and construction. The same is true in more advanced degree programs, especially those related to science, where only 30% of researchers are women.

In the next section, we will analyze the main results for the personal leadership dimension.

6.1 Overall Results

Figure 4. Changes in Personal Leadership, 2006–18



²⁶ UNESCO, World Atlas of Gender Equality in Education (Paris: UNESCO, 2012), <http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/world-atlas-of-gender-equality-in-education-2012-en.pdf>, accessed March 2018.

In 2018, the countries that scored highest on personal leadership were Portugal (1st), Spain (2nd), Estonia (3rd), Poland (4th) and Italy (5th). The countries that held the top positions in this dimension in 2006 have made less progress. On some indicators, other countries have pulled ahead of them in 2018.

1. More college-educated women than men in the 25–34 age group in all the countries. For the 34 countries considered by the 2018 I-WIL Index, an average of 48.6% of women aged 25 to 34 are college-educated compared to 37.5% of men.

There are more college-educated women than men in this age group in all the countries studied, with the exception of Mexico, Switzerland and Turkey, where they are at the same level. The largest differences are in Slovenia (54.9% of women versus 31.9% of men) and Italy (31.7% of women versus 19.6% of men).

2. South Korea, Canada and Japan: the countries with the highest percentage of college-educated women. These three countries have the highest percentage of college-educated women in both the 25–34 age group (74.8%, 69.6% and 62.2%, respectively) and the 35–45 age group (51%, 60% and 57%).

South Korea is the country with the highest percentage of college graduates for both men and women in the 25–34 age group. In 2006, it was the most balanced country in this area, with 51% of college-educated women. Over the last decade, there has been a sharp increase in the number of college graduates in the country, particularly women, who went from 51% in 2006 to 74.8% in 2018.

There has also been a significant increase in college-educated women in the 35–44 age group: from 36%

in 2006 to 57.9% in 2018. Currently, 98.2% of South Korean women have completed secondary school (the same percentage as in 2006). This commitment to education is also reflected in consistently high PISA scores. According to the latest report,²⁷ South Korean students are above the OECD average in science, mathematics and reading. One of the keys to the country’s success is the high social value placed on teaching and academic study.

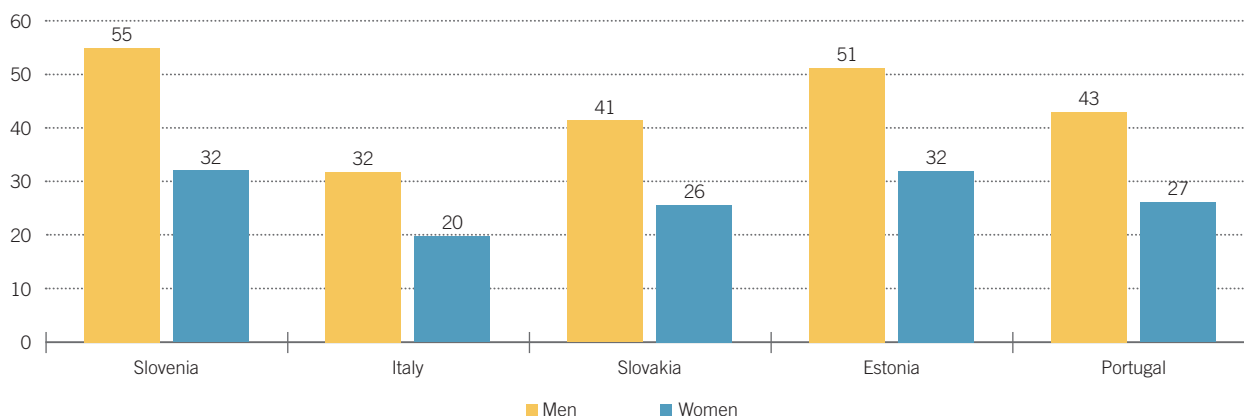
South Korea is followed by Canada and Japan, which also obtain excellent PISA results, with Japan ranking second among 70 countries.

3. Germany, among the countries with fewest college-educated women and men. In 2018, 31.5% of German women and 29.6% of German men in the 25–34 age group were college-educated. In the 35–44 age group, 27.7% of women and 31.8% of men had completed this level of study. These figures put the country at the back of the pack in college education, along with Mexico, Turkey, Chile and Italy. In the 35–44 age group, it is the country that saw the smallest increase in college-educated women and men from 2006 to 2018.

The lower percentage of people with a college education in Germany reflects the emphasis put on vocational training, which is one of the pillars of the education system and plays an important role in the labor market and society. The system reduces school failure and ensures that labor market needs are met at different occupational levels.

4. The countries with the greatest imbalance between college-educated men and women in the 25–34 age group are Slovenia, Slovakia, Estonia, Portugal and Italy.

Figure 5. Greatest Imbalance between College-Educated Men and Women



²⁷ See “PISA Results 2015” (2016) at www.oecd.org/pisa/.

5. Fewer college-educated women and men in Finland.

The percentage of college-educated women in the 25–35 age group (49.5%) is lower than that in the 35–44 age group (60.7%). The percentage of college-educated men is also lower in the 25–35 age group: 33.2%, versus 42.4% in the 35–44 age group.

6. Portugal (19.9%) and Spain (15.7%) are the countries with the highest percentage of women inventors. These two countries held the top two positions in 2006 and still have the highest percentage of women inventors in 2018.

7. Political Leadership – Analysis of Results

From the 10th to the 13th century, women in the upper classes were able to hold and administer fiefs. They participated in the Crusades and in government, and some—as a result of the position they held or kinship—achieved great political, economic and social power. This situation changed over the last few centuries (particularly in the early modern and late modern periods) with the development of a bourgeois mentality, and under the influence of the Napoleonic Code of 1804, which was later copied by other countries.

In the early 19th century, women could not vote or hold public office. Neither did they have any property: Ownership of any assets they inherited passed to their husbands. They were not allowed to engage in trade, have businesses of their own, practice many of the occupations open to men, get a loan, or open a bank account.

Women were considered legal minors in civil and criminal codes. They only won the right to vote in the course of the 20th century:²⁸ Australia (1902); Denmark (1915); Finland (1906); Norway (1913); Germany, the United Kingdom and Russia (1918); the Netherlands and Sweden (1919); and the United States (1920). In other countries, women did not get the vote until much later. This was the case, for example, in Spain (1931), France (1944), Italy (1945) and Switzerland (1971).

One of the reasons for women’s limited representation in parliaments and the relatively small number of women ministers is a lack of equal opportunities in access to education and the labor market. Conversely, having a college education facilitates access to positions of responsibility, in both the political sphere and the workplace (Norris 1997; Raaum 2005; Bergqvist 2011).

Over the last decade, most countries have introduced quotas to ensure a minimum percentage of female representation in parliament, whether through legislation or via policies adopted by political parties. These measures are aimed at promoting equal opportunities and at strengthening and advancing women’s access to the spheres of power. When there are more women in parliament, they are also more likely to be appointed as government ministers. In addition, the presence of more women in parliament generates greater social awareness of the need of equal opportunities by increasing women’s visibility in top decision-making positions.

To analyze the dimension “political leadership,” we calculated the percentage of women in parliament and the percentage of women ministers in the 34 countries included in the I-WIL Index. Because few women currently hold the highest office in the executive branch of government, we did not consider the percentage of women presidents/prime ministers.

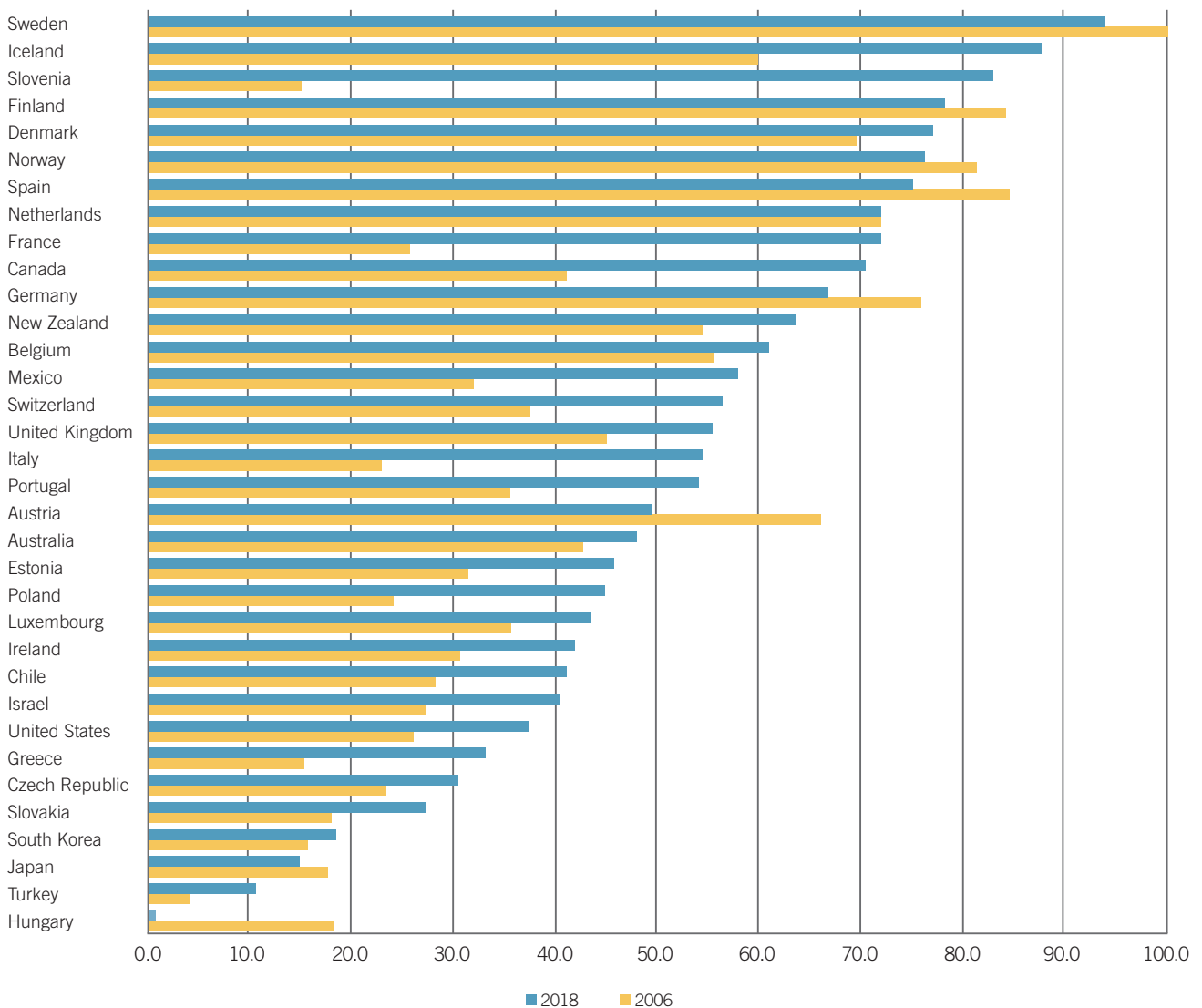
On average, over the last decade, the proportion of women in parliament has increased by six percentage points in the 34 countries covered by the I-WIL Index thanks to quotas set by political parties or legislative measures introduced in the countries analyzed.

In 2018, the five top positions are held by Sweden (1st), Iceland (2nd), Slovenia (3rd), Finland (4th) and Denmark (5th). Figure 6 shows changes (2006 to 2018) in the dimension “political leadership” for the 34 countries studied.

²⁸ http://womensuffrage.org/?page_id=69, based on J. Martin and Mart Martin, *The Almanac of Women and Minorities in World Politics* (Boulder, Colorado: Westview Press, 2000).

7.1 Overall Results

Figure 6. Changes in Political Leadership, 2006–18



1. Iceland (47.6%) and Sweden (43.6%) are the countries with the strongest women's presence in parliament. Sweden stands out for having elected over 40% women MPs in every parliamentary election held since 1994. This progress has been made as a result of mobilization around this issue, which aims to ensure that Swedish parties present approximately the same number of candidates of both sexes by applying formal or informal quotas. It is also worth noting that four of the five top positions in this dimension are held by Nordic countries.
2. Slovenia, Mexico, Italy and France have made the most progress in this dimension. Over the last decade, Slovenia has gone from 12.2% women MPs (2006) to 36.7% (2018); Mexico, from 24.2% to 42.4%; Italy, from 17.3% to 31%; and France, from 12.2% to 26.2%. As in many other countries, one factor that has contributed to this advance is the introduction of quotas by political parties to increase the number of female candidates on party lists.

3. France, Sweden and Canada have more women ministers than men in 2018. These countries have achieved a greater balance over the last decade. Once again, the establishment of quotas by parties has had a positive effect on appointment of women to ministerial positions.

8. Business Leadership – Analysis of Results

Apart from factory work, which surged during the Industrial Revolution, women's entry into the labor market on a mass scale began in the mid-20th century. One effect of the First World War was that many women had the opportunity to fill jobs which men had to leave to serve in the military.²⁹

In 2015, women's labor force participation rate was 51.7%, compared to 77% for men.³⁰ Women aged 25 to 54 increased their participation in the workforce in most regions,³¹ while for men in the same age group, the participation rate remained at the same level or decreased slightly.

Employment rate results vary between OECD countries according to sex and level of education. The data show that on average only 66% of women are in employment, compared to 80% of men.³²

The lower the level of education, the greater the gender gap in access to employment. The difference is 20 percentage points for those with primary education, 14 points for those with secondary education, and nine points for college graduates. However, even though they have more qualifications, the entry of college-educated women into the labor market has not advanced evenly across all countries. Of 92 countries with data on unemployment rates by level of education for 2012–13, in 78 women with advanced education have higher rates of unemployment than men with similar levels of education. Women also do the unpaid work of caring for family members.³³

Since 2000, the number of women in middle and upper management positions in the public and private sectors has increased, though they are still poorly represented in positions of executive responsibility and in senior management.³⁴ Since periodic data has been available, there has been a slight increase in the number of women in management positions in EU countries. The largest percentage increases from 2000 to 2012 were in Italy (11.5%), Iceland (10.9%), Switzerland (9.7%), Norway (9.7%), Malta (9.4%) and Slovenia (9.4%).

The countries that scored highest on business leadership in 2018 were Norway (1st), Sweden (2nd), Ireland (3rd), Canada (4th) and the United States (5th). These countries have a high ratio of female to male managers, a higher percentage of women board directors than the average for the Index, low rates of involuntary part-time work and unemployment, and greater gender balance in labor force participation rates.

1. **No increase in the number of women managers.** In 2018, there is an average of 4.5% women managers in the countries included in the Index—practically unchanged from 2006 (4.4%).
2. **The United States is the country with the most managers and the best balance between men and women in this role.** The U.S. has the highest percentage of male and female managers (14.6% and 16.9%, respectively) and the best balance between the sexes.
3. **South Korea and Japan are the countries with the greatest imbalance between female and male managers.** In 2018, 0.3% of women in South Korea are managers, compared to 2.1% of men. In the case of Japan, the corresponding figures are 0.7% and 3.5%.

²⁹ G. Padilla and J. Rodríguez, "La I Guerra Mundial en la retaguardia: la mujer protagonista," *Historia y comunicación social* 18 (2013): 191–206, revistas.ucm.es/index.php/HICS/article/viewFile/43422/41079, accessed March 2018.

³⁰ United Nations, *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2015* (New York: United Nations, 2015), [www.un.org/millenniumgoals/2015_MDG_Report/pdf/MDG%202015%20rev%20\(July%201\).pdf](http://www.un.org/millenniumgoals/2015_MDG_Report/pdf/MDG%202015%20rev%20(July%201).pdf), accessed May 2018.

³¹ *Ibid.*

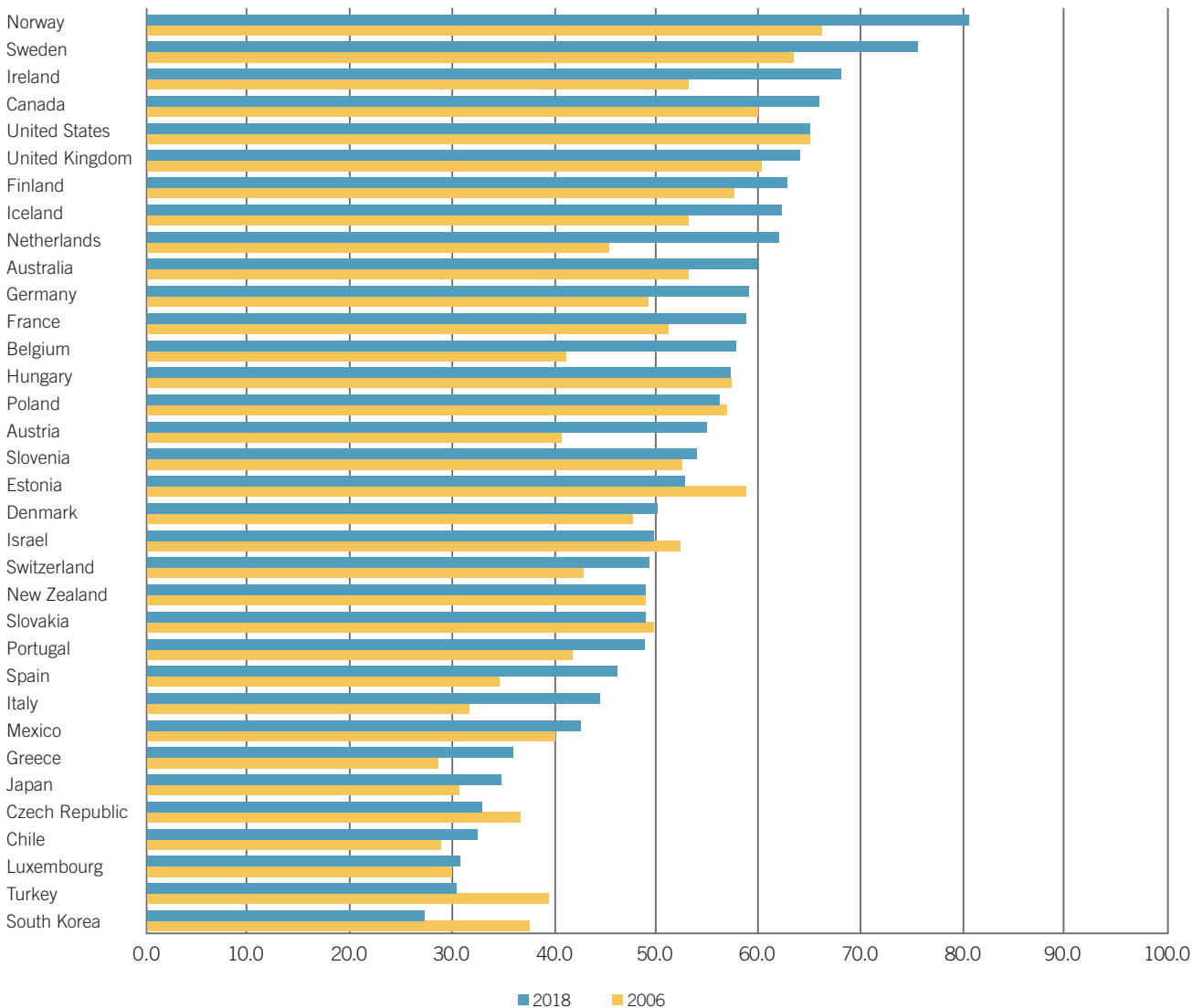
³² OECD, *Education at a Glance 2014* (2014), www.oecd.org/education/Education-at-a-Glance-2014.pdf, accessed March 2018.

³³ Results published in *The Millennium Development Goals Report 2015*.

³⁴ ILO, *Women in Business and Management: Gaining Momentum* (2015).

8.1 Overall Results

Figure 7. Changes in Business Leadership, 2006–18



- 4. In Finland, the percentage of employees (men and women) in management positions fell.** In 2006, 3.4% of women were managers, compared to 2.2% in 2018. In the case of men, the proportion of managers fell from 6.8% in 2006 to 4.1% in 2018.
- 5. Iceland has the highest proportion of women board directors in 2018 (44%).** In Iceland, quotas were introduced in 2012, with a target of 40% female

representation on boards by September 2013. Iceland is followed by Norway (41%), France (37%) and Sweden (36%). Representation of women on boards is strongest in Nordic countries thanks to the emphasis on mandatory quotas which ensure that at least 40% of members of governance structures are women. Quotas were introduced in 2003, and the presence of women on boards went from 22% in 2004 to 42% in 2009.

6. Iceland, France and Italy are the countries that have made the most progress in increasing women's participation on boards over the last decade.

France, Italy, the Netherlands and Belgium introduced quotas in 2011. In France, companies with over 500 employees or annual revenue of more than €50 million are required to have a minimum of 20% women board directors. According to the I-WIL Index data, France has gone from 12% women board directors in 2006 to 37% in 2018. In Italy, publicly traded domestic companies and those with public equity are required to have at least one third women board directors. According to the data provided by the Index, the country has achieved this, going from 5% in 2006 to 30% in 2018. The Netherlands (28%) and Belgium (27%) have also come close to achieving the 30% legally mandated quota.

7. The countries with the most women in involuntary part-time work are Italy (19.1%) and Spain (14.7%).

In countries that facilitate the reconciliation of work, family and personal life, the percentage of involuntary part-time work tends to be below 10%. In Italy and Spain, in contrast, the percentage of women in this situation is higher. In all the countries analyzed, there are more women than men in involuntary part-time work. In Spain, 14.7% of women are in this situation, compared to 5.5% of men.

8. Ireland and Norway have fewer unemployed women than men. In these two countries, a smaller percentage of women than men are unemployed. In Ireland, 7.1% of women are unemployed, compared to 9.7% of men; and in Norway, 4% of women are out of work, compared to 5.4% of men.

9. Unemployment rates for women are highest in Greece (28.1%) and Spain (21.4%). Both countries also have very high male unemployment rates: 19.9% and 18.1%, respectively.

10. Women's labor force participation rate is lower than men's in all the countries analyzed. Despite women having moved into paid work on a massive scale, their labor force participation rate remains lower than that of men in all the countries covered by the I-WIL Index.

9. Social Leadership – Analysis of Results

Women's entry into the labor market has transformed family life, increasing the proportion of households in which both spouses work full-time. In the United States, 46% of households fit this description in 2015, compared to 31% in 1970.³⁵ At the same time, the share of households with a father who works full time and a mother who does not work outside the home has declined considerably. According to the latest analysis carried out by the Pew Research Center (based on Current Population Survey data for 2015), 26% of two-parent households now fit this description, compared to 46% in 1970.³⁶

In the workplace, the arrival of children in a family has an uneven impact on the careers of men and women. Men appear to benefit from a fatherhood premium (Killewald 2012), which rewards them for their role as financial providers and their greater commitment to the company. In contrast, women are penalized for being mothers. This effect—known as the motherhood penalty (Budig and England 2001; Correll, Benard and Paik 2007; Waldfogel 1997)—reduces the career opportunities and potential earning of mothers.

In recent decades, populations have aged and there has been a sharp decline in birth rates. This situation will eventually lead to imbalances in the welfare state. The consequences of this demographic suicide are also being noted in the living conditions of the elderly and their families, who are overburdened and face many constraints as they seek to combine family and work responsibilities while also finding time for leisure activities.

While it is true that other factors have also contributed to falling birth rates, there is a direct relationship between the labor force participation rate and the birth rate. In Nordic countries, where the participation rate is higher, birth rates are also higher. Labor flexibility, active employment policies, and strong social benefits are some of the factors that enable these countries to maintain high fertility rates.

It is important to bear in mind that human capital is essential for economic growth. A minimum level of demographic dynamism or reproduction is needed to ensure generational replacement. It is estimated that the minimum fertility rate

³⁵ Pew Research Centre, Raising Kids and Running a Household: How Working Parents Share the Load, 4 November 2015, <http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2015/11/04/raising-kids-and-running-a-household-how-working-parents-share-the-load/>, accessed May 2018.

³⁶ Pew Research Centre, Raising Kids and Running a Household: How Working Parents Share the Load, 4 November 2015, <http://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2015/11/04/raising-kids-and-running-a-household-how-working-parents-share-the-load/>, accessed May 2018.

required to produce replacement population and ensure the economic activity of a country is 2.1 children per woman. Demographers and sociologists agree that there are only two ways to tackle the demographic threat posed by lower birth rates: a sustained and significant flow of immigrants, or measures to increase the fertility rate.

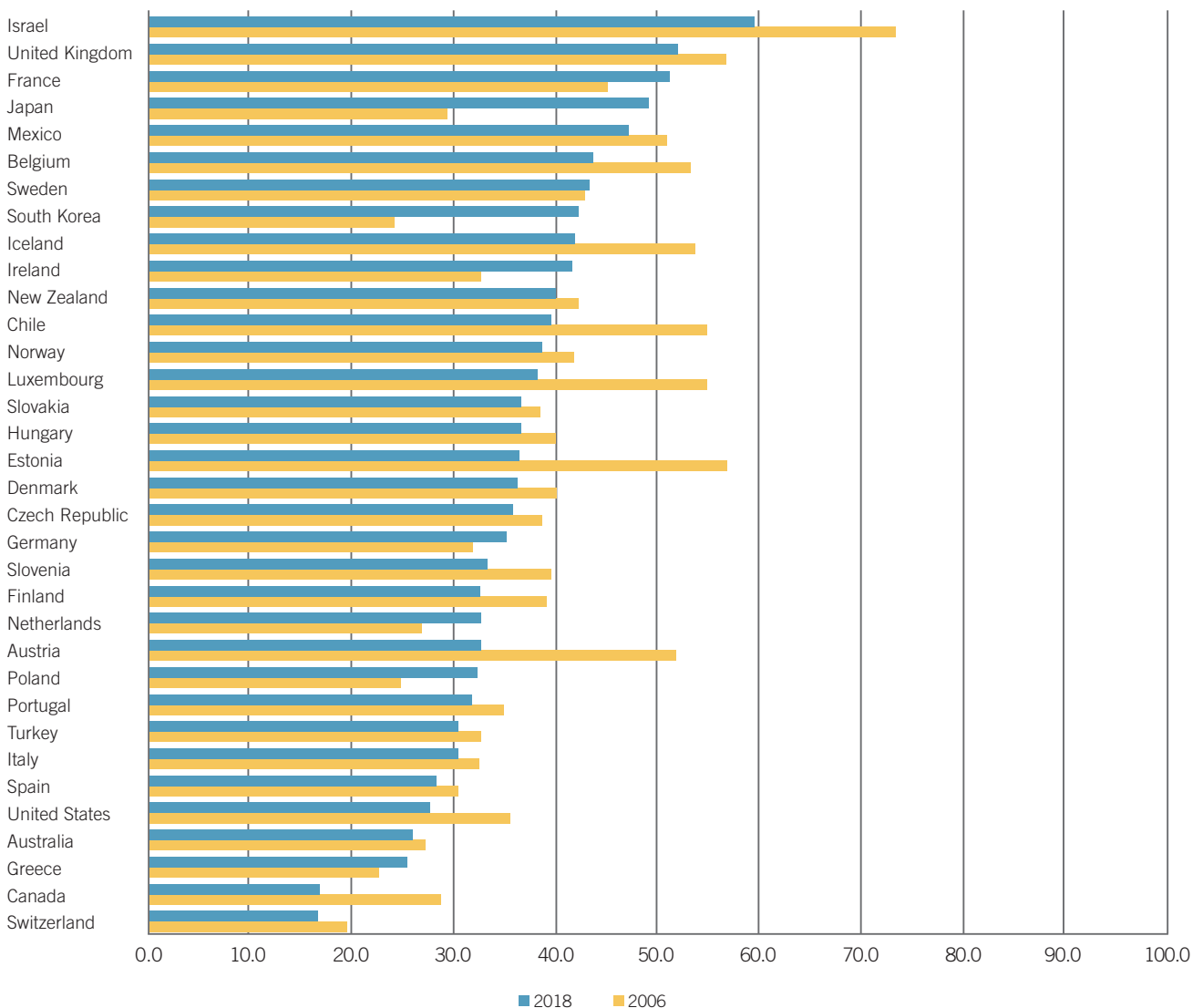
9.1 Overall Results

The countries with the highest I-WIL Index scores on social leadership in 2018 are Israel (1st), the United Kingdom (2nd), France (3rd), Japan (4th) and Mexico (5th). Spain ranks 29th, around the same level as Poland, Portugal

and Greece. This low position is due to a very low fertility rate (1.3), an average age at first birth of 31.9 years (the second highest after South Korea), and the differing length of maternity and paternity leave.

In 2018, Israel has the highest fertility rate (3.09), and the United Kingdom is the country where parents enjoy the most weeks of maternity and paternity leave. France is one of the countries that offers the longest paternity leave, 100% of children aged 3 to 5 are enrolled in school, and the fertility rate is 1.92. Mexico stands out with an age at first birth of 26.6 years, though one of every three women does not live with a partner.

Figure 8. Changes in Social Leadership, 2006–18



1. **United States: the only country with no maternity leave.** The United States is the only country included in the I-WIL Index that does not provide any paid maternity leave. The business and union culture, which is less focused on protection of labor rights, explains why the country has made no progress in this dimension. The law only requires that companies with over 50 employees ensure that female employees are able to return to their jobs within 12 weeks of giving birth. They are not required to provide any paid leave.
2. **The United Kingdom (52), Greece (43) and Ireland (42) are the countries with the most weeks of maternity leave.** Poland and Greece are the countries where the number of weeks of maternity leave has increased the most since 2006.
3. **In 2018, France is the only country where 100% of children aged 3 to 5 are enrolled in school.** In France, pre-school education (pre-primary), introduced in 1881, is aimed at children aged 3 to 6. Although education at this level is optional, 100% of children aged 3 to 5 are enrolled, most in public centers.
4. **Mexico is the country where age at first birth is lowest (26.6 years).** Over the last decade, the age at which mothers have their first child has risen. South Korea, Estonia and Luxembourg are the countries where the average age of mothers at first birth has increased the most (by 2.4, 1.8 and 1.7 years, respectively).
5. **South Korea (1.24) and Poland (1.29) are the countries with the lowest fertility rates.** The next lowest are Portugal, Spain and Greece.
6. **The countries with the highest fertility rates are Israel (3.09), Mexico (2.19) and Turkey (2.14).** The next highest are New Zealand (1.99), Ireland (1.94) and France (1.92).
7. **The United States is the country in which the fertility rate has fallen the most over the last decade.** The fertility rate in the U.S. has gone from 2.11 in 2006 to 1.84 in 2018. Slovenia, the Czech Republic and Israel are the countries where the fertility rate has increased the most over the last decade.

Canada (30.3%), Turkey (37.3%), Greece (47%) and Switzerland (48.1%) are the countries with the lowest percentages of children aged 3 to 5 enrolled in school. The Netherlands, Poland and Ireland are the countries where there has been the largest increase in school enrollment of children under three.

10. Ranking by Dimension

Figure 9. Ranking by Dimension: Personal Leadership

Country	1.1. College (25 a 34)	1.2. College (35 a 44)	1.3. Secondary (35 a 44)	1.4. Women inventors	1.5. Women entrepreneurs	Personal leadership ranking
Germany	30	32	25	32	21	32
Australia	21	17	21	17	4	11
Austria	23	28	31	33	20	30
Belgium	17	14	12	13	17	15
Canada	16	12	18	10	13	12
Chile	28	29	23	4	12	22
South Korea	26	31	28	34	11	28
Denmark	15	18	9	16	22	16
Slovakia	3	4	29	12	10	7
Slovenia	1	1	14	11	27	6
Spain	18	13	1	2	3	2
United States	24	20	22	18	28	26
Estonia	4	2	7	7	16	3
Finland	9	5	13	23	30	14
France	22	21	17	8	26	21
Greece	13	15	5	9	2	8
Netherlands	20	26	10	25	19	25
Hungary	8	11	20	20	8	10
Ireland	19	19	15	28	25	23
Iceland	7	7	3	21	23	9
Israel	10	22	16	14	33	24
Italy	2	8	4	24	7	5
Japan	29	25	34	30	32	33
Luxembourg	27	23	11	29	5	20
Mexico	33	30	27	3	18	27
Norway	12	10	8	31	29	18
New Zealand	25	16	24	27	1	13
Poland	6	6	19	5	6	4
Portugal	5	3	2	1	9	1
United Kingdom	31	27	26	26	15	29
Czech Republic	11	24	32	15	24	19
Sweden	14	9	6	22	31	17
Switzerland	32	33	30	19	14	31
Turkey	34	34	33	6	34	34

Figure 10. Ranking by Dimension: Political Leadership

Country	2.1. Women in parliament	2.2. Women ministers	Political leadership ranking
Germany	11	13	11
Australia	18	20	20
Austria	16	22	19
Belgium	6	21	13
Canada	23	3	10
Chile	31	12	25
South Korea	30	32	31
Denmark	8	5	5
Slovakia	26	31	30
Slovenia	10	4	3
Spain	7	9	7
United States	29	19	27
Estonia	24	16	21
Finland	4	8	4
France	22	1	9
Greece	28	25	28
Netherlands	9	10	8
Hungary	33	34	34
Ireland	25	18	24
Iceland	1	6	2
Israel	21	27	26
Italy	15	17	17
Japan	34	30	32
Luxembourg	19	26	23
Mexico	3	29	14
Norway	5	7	6
New Zealand	14	11	12
Poland	20	23	22
Portugal	12	24	18
United Kingdom	17	14	16
Czech Republic	27	28	29
Sweden	2	2	1
Switzerland	13	15	15
Turkey	32	33	33

Figure 11. Ranking by Dimension: Business Leadership

Country	3.1. Women managers	3.2. Women board directors	3.3. Involuntary part-time	3.4. Unemployment	3.5. Labor force participation	Business leadership ranking
Germany	26	10	21	5	12	11
Australia	8	13	9	17	19	10
Austria	25	17	18	6	15	16
Belgium	15	9	17	9	20	13
Canada	13	18	10	3	8	4
Chile	23	32	33	27	32	31
South Korea	33	34	34	10	30	34
Denmark	29	11	20	24	5	19
Slovakia	14	22	5	31	23	23
Slovenia	6	12	27	26	6	17
Spain	16	16	25	30	18	25
United States	2	20	4	14	22	5
Estonia	27	30	14	4	13	18
Finland	18	5	13	13	2	7
France	22	3	28	11	11	12
Greece	24	29	11	33	29	28
Netherlands	28	7	1	28	14	9
Hungary	3	26	8	15	24	14
Ireland	12	21	3	1	25	3
Iceland	7	1	30	22	4	8
Israel	19	19	23	21	9	20
Italy	21	6	24	29	31	26
Japan	32	33	22	7	28	29
Luxembourg	31	24	31	23	21	32
Mexico	1	31	32	19	33	27
Norway	9	2	12	2	3	1
New Zealand	34	14	16	25	16	22
Poland	4	15	19	16	27	15
Portugal	20	27	15	18	7	24
United Kingdom	10	8	6	12	17	6
Czech Republic	17	28	29	32	26	30
Sweden	5	4	7	8	1	2
Switzerland	11	23	26	20	10	21
Turkey	30	25	2	34	34	33

Figure 12. Ranking by Dimension: Social Leadership

Country	4.1. Maternity leave	4.2. Paternity leave	4.3. Children in school	4.4. Age at first birth	4.5 Fertility rate	Social leadership ranking
Germany	26	12	4	22	23	20
Australia	32	19	29	20	11	31
Austria	17	11	21	19	24	24
Belgium	24	6	2	17	15	6
Canada	15	31	34	12	18	33
Chile	13	21	25	2	7	12
South Korea	30	1	14	34	34	8
Denmark	12	18	8	26	14	18
Slovakia	4	28	28	4	28	15
Slovenia	25	13	20	11	21	21
Spain	21	14	5	33	31	29
United States	34	34	30	5	9	30
Estonia	10	17	17	8	19	17
Finland	14	10	27	18	17	22
France	16	3	1	16	6	3
Greece	2	24	32	28	30	32
Netherlands	18	26	13	27	16	23
Hungary	8	20	16	7	27	16
Ireland	3	27	24	30	5	10
Iceland	29	8	7	14	10	9
Israel	7	30	3	15	1	1
Italy	9	25	9	31	29	28
Japan	27	2	15	24	26	4
Luxembourg	22	4	18	29	25	14
Mexico	31	23	22	1	2	5
Norway	28	9	6	21	13	13
New Zealand	19	32	12	10	4	11
Poland	6	16	26	6	33	25
Portugal	33	5	19	23	32	26
United Kingdom	1	15	11	13	12	2
Czech Republic	5	29	23	9	20	19
Sweden	11	7	10	25	8	7
Switzerland	20	33	31	32	22	34
Turkey	23	22	33	3	3	27

11. The I-WIL Index vs Other Indexes

As mentioned in the introduction, there are other indexes that measure gender inequality, the glass ceiling, and other issues related to equal opportunities for women in contemporary society. In the figures below, we compare the results obtained for the I-WIL Index with those of several other indexes that also focus on the world of work: the Global Gender Gap Index, developed by the World Economic Forum; the Glass-Ceiling Index, produced by The Economist; and the GIWPS Index, produced by the Georgetown Institute for Women, Peace and Security. The data used in these comparisons are for 2018.

This analysis focuses on the 34 countries included in the I-WIL Index. We have not considered the rest of countries analyzed by the Global Gender Index and the GIWPS Index, which look at 144 and 153 countries, respectively. The Glass-Ceiling Index covers 29 countries, so in this case we have excluded Slovenia, Mexico, Chile, Luxembourg and Estonia (which are included in the I-WIL Index) from the comparison.

Figures 13, 14 and 15 show the extent of convergence/divergence between the results for the I-WIL Index and those for the other indexes. The countries above the diagonal line in each figure obtained a higher score on the I-WIL Index than on the other index considered in the comparison (the Global Gender Gap Index, Glass-Ceiling Index, or the GIWPS Index). Countries below the line received a lower score on the I-WIL Index.

Figure 13 compares the countries included in the I-WIL Index with those covered by the Global Gender Gap Index. The comparison shows a certain convergence of results for the countries that receive the highest scores (Iceland, Sweden, Norway and Finland) and those which obtain the lowest scores (Turkey, South Korea and Japan). Figures 14 and 15 compare our results with those of the Glass-Ceiling Index and the GIWPS Index and indicate similar scores. Even though each index uses a different methodology and set of indicators, the countries identified as most or least advanced in terms of equality of opportunity are the same in each case.

Figure 13. I-WIL vs Global Gender Gap Index

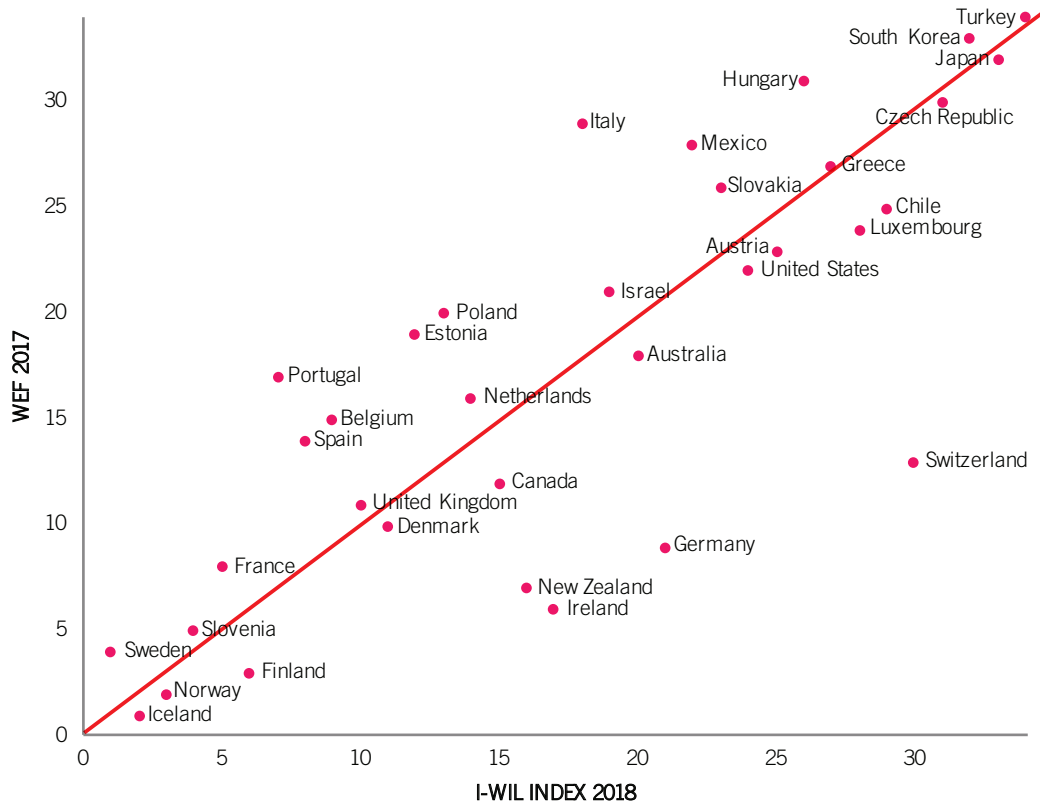


Figure 14. I-WIL vs Glass Ceiling Index

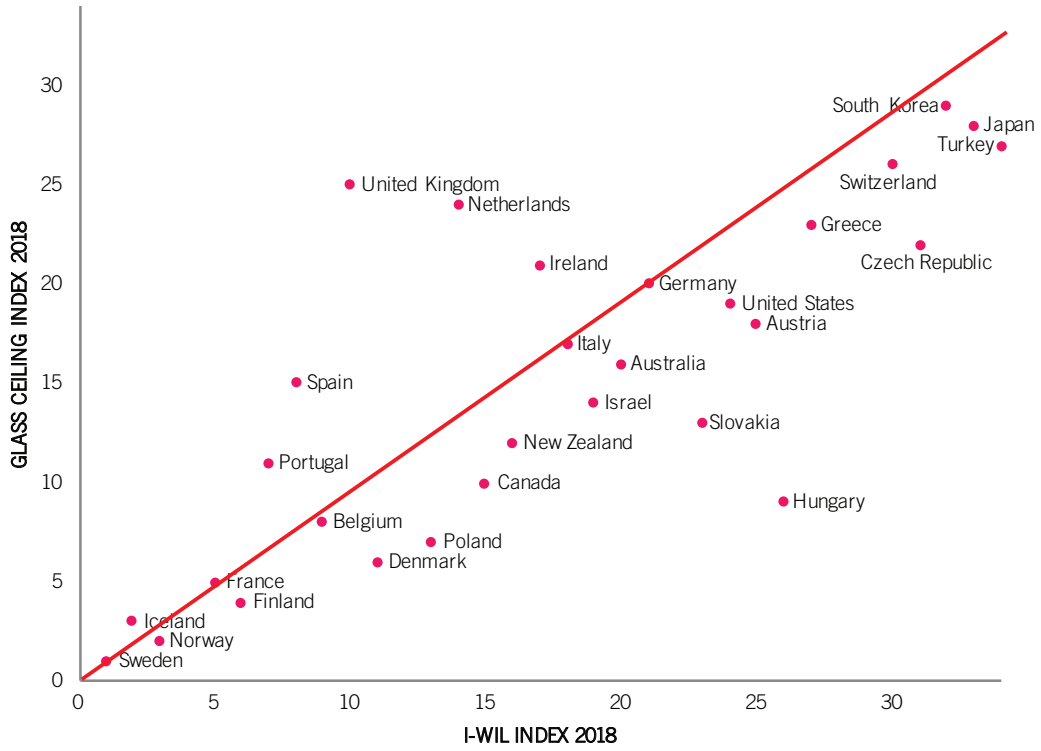
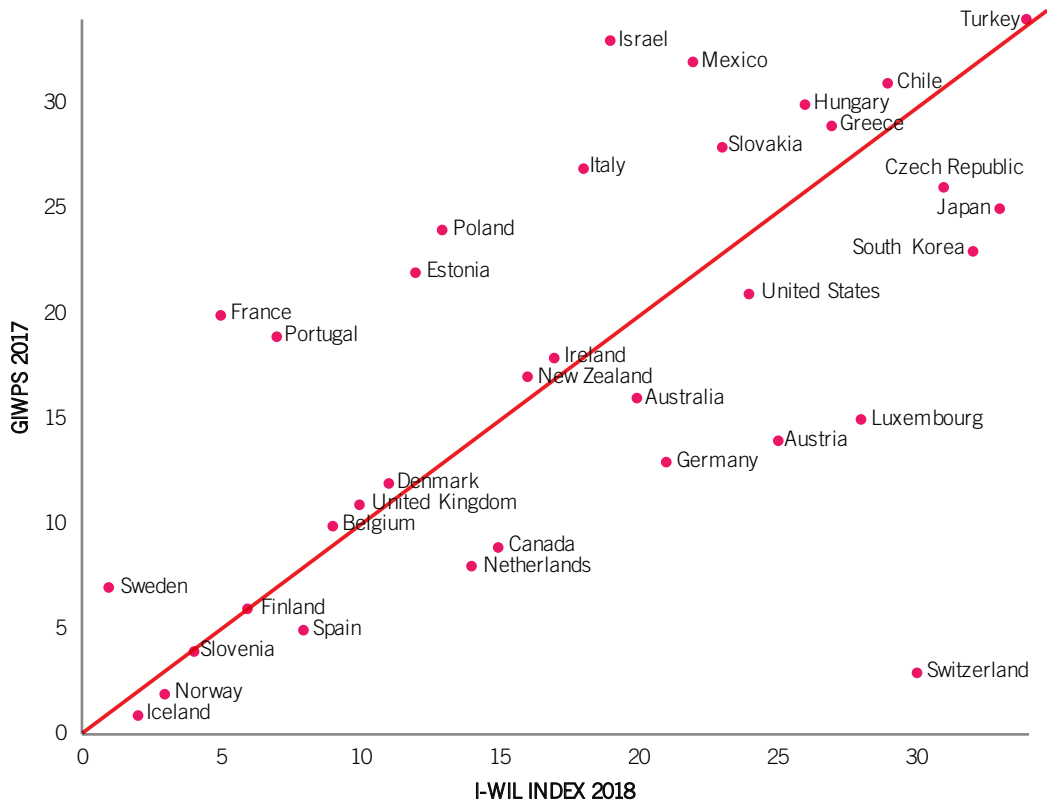


Figure 15. I-WIL vs GIWPS Index



12. Analysis of Changes in I-WIL Index Rankings (2018 vs 2006)

In this section, we analyze how the rankings of various countries have changed over the last decade. We have considered two variables: the position each country holds in the I-WIL Index ranking for 2018 and the trend for its progress in the ranking, calculated based on the difference between the score obtained in 2006 and that achieved in 2018. This approach allows us to classify the countries in four quadrants according to how much headway they are making.

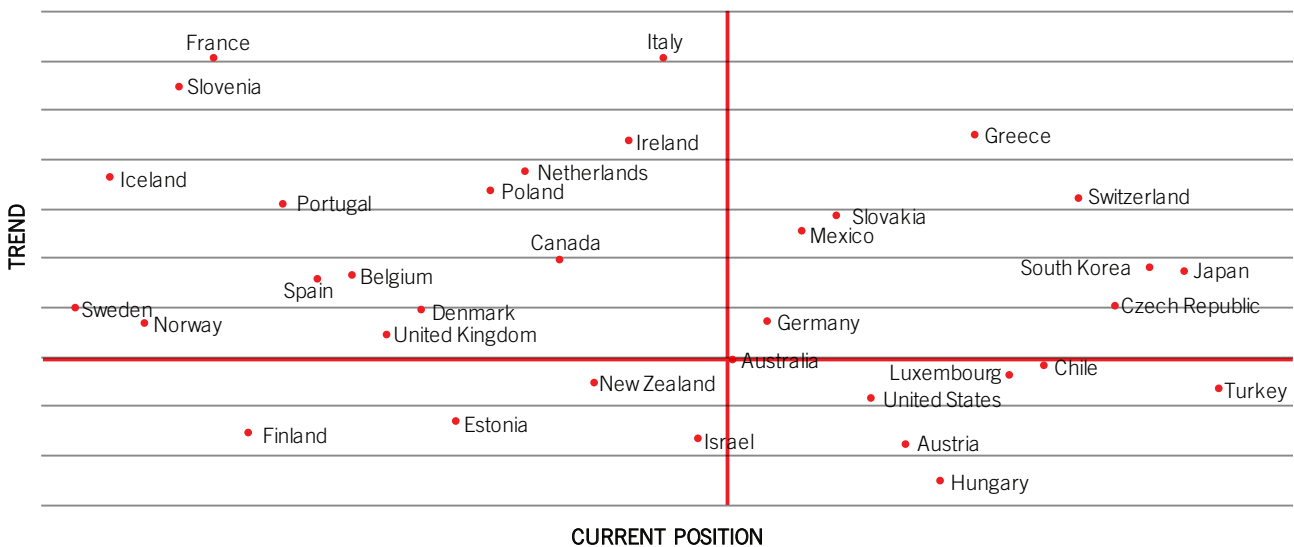
The countries in the upper-left quadrant, including France and Slovenia, are those which are well positioned and have made good progress in relation to the results obtained for 2006.

In the lower-left quadrant are the countries that have maintained a medium-high position. These are countries where women have relatively equal opportunities, but that have not made further progress over the last decade. As a result, these countries have been overtaken in the ranking by others. In this quadrant, we find Israel, New Zealand, Estonia and Finland, which have descended in the ranking by thirteen, nine, seven and three places, respectively.

In the upper-right quadrant are the countries which rank in a medium-low position. These are countries that have improved their ranking since 2006, although to a lesser degree and from a lower starting point. Countries in this quadrant include Greece and Switzerland.

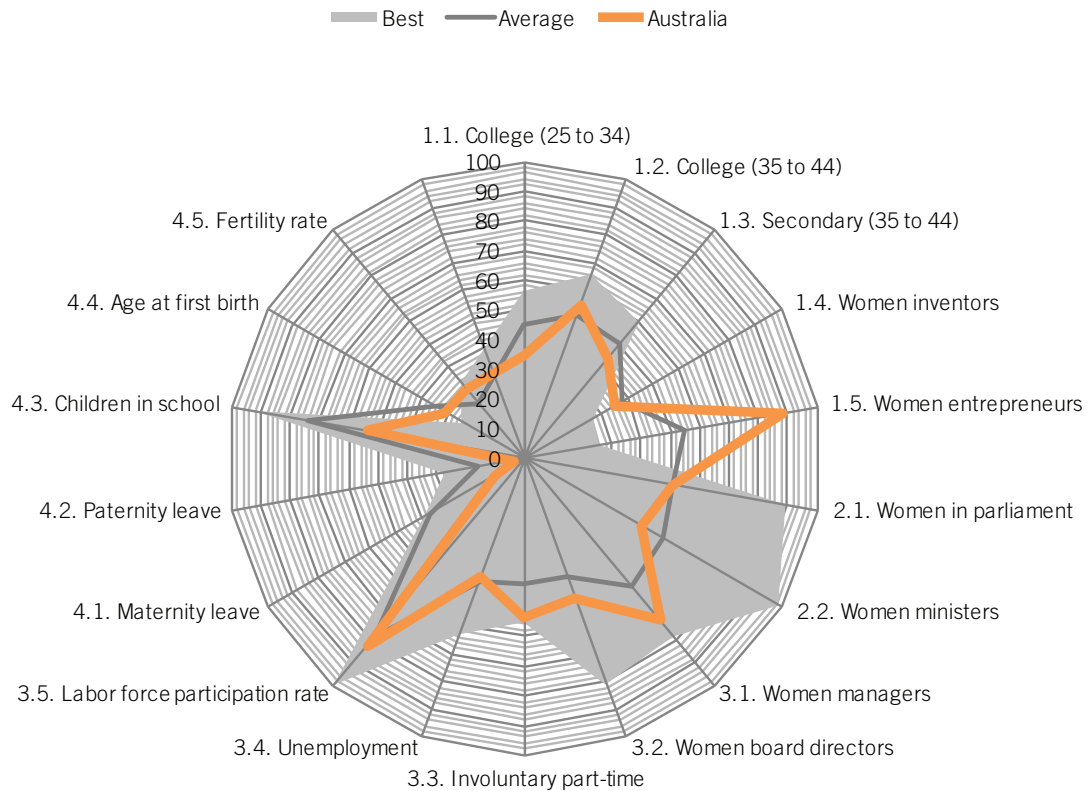
Finally, in the lower-right quadrant, we have the countries that rank in a medium-low position and have fallen in the ranking since 2006. These countries, where there is less equality of opportunity, include Austria and Hungary.

Figure 16. Dynamic Analysis



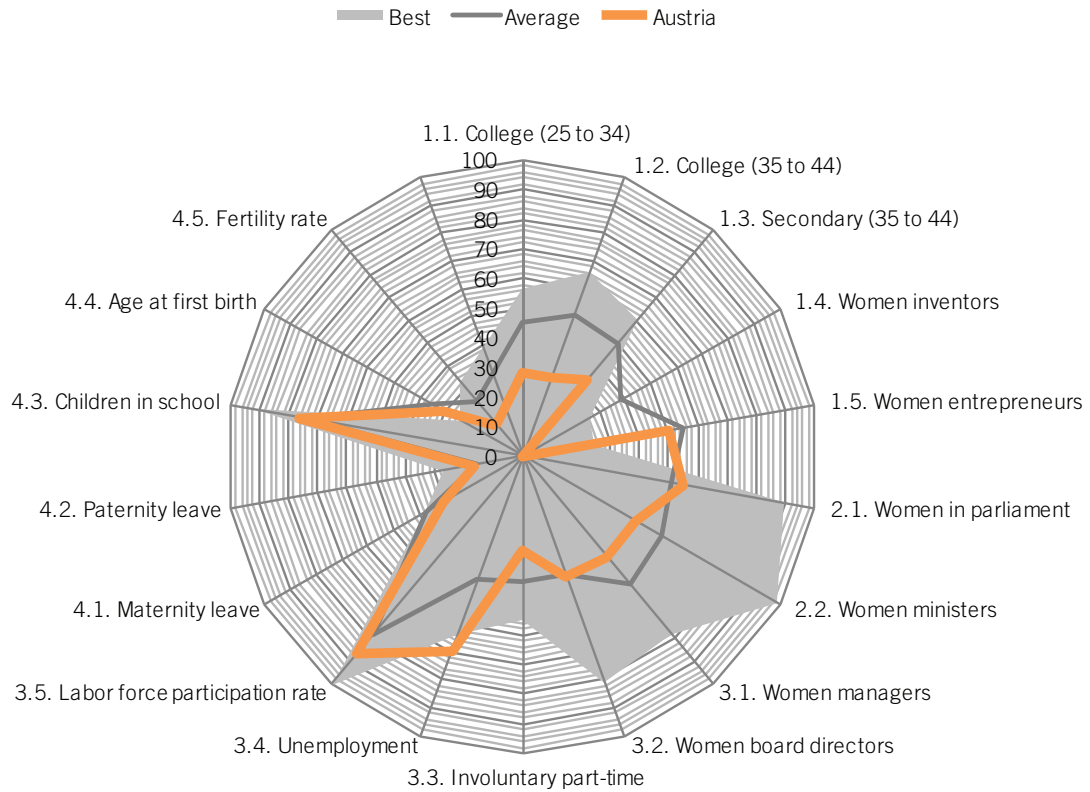
13. Country Profiles

Australia



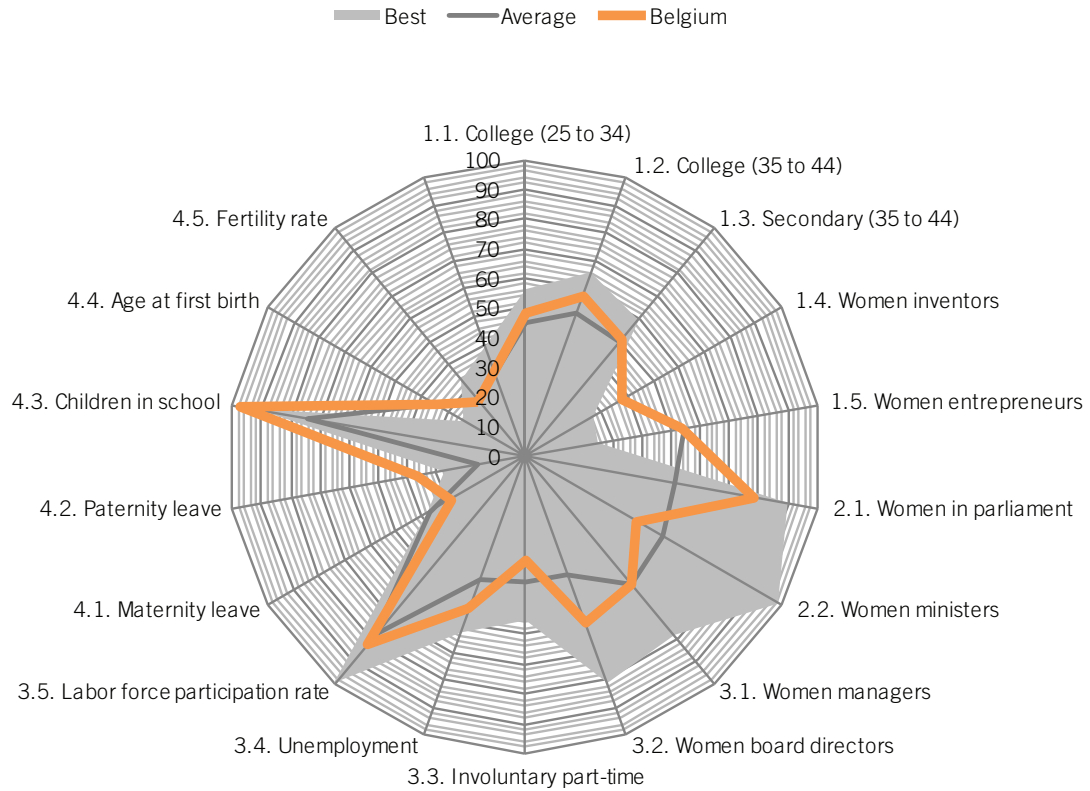
Australia ranks 21st overall on the I-WIL Index, down seven places from its 2006 position. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on business and personal leadership (10th and 11th, respectively). On political leadership, the country ranks 20th. On social leadership it has fallen to a position near the bottom of the ranking (31st). The indicator on which it scores highest is “percentage of women entrepreneurs” (4th).

Austria



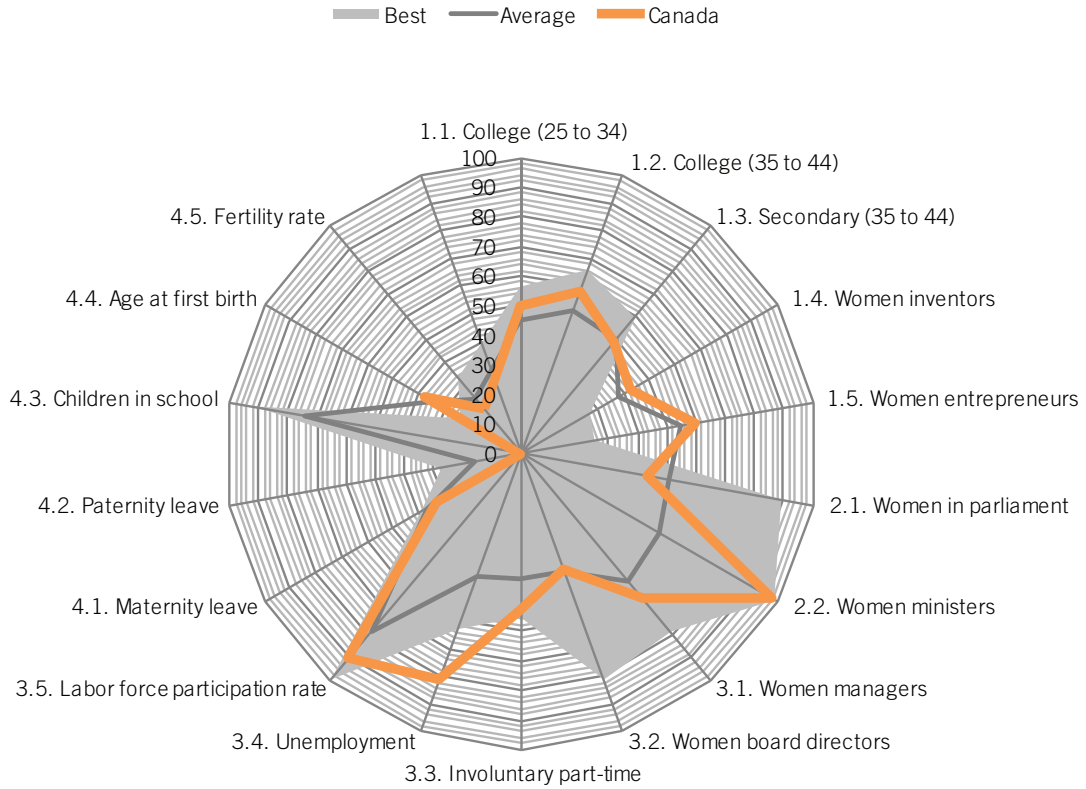
Austria ranks 25th overall on the I-WIL Index, down eight places from its 2006 position. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on business and political leadership (16th and 19th, respectively). On social leadership, the country ranks 24th. On personal leadership, it has fallen to a position near the bottom of the ranking (30th). Austria's highest score is for the indicator "unemployment rate for women" (6th).

Belgium



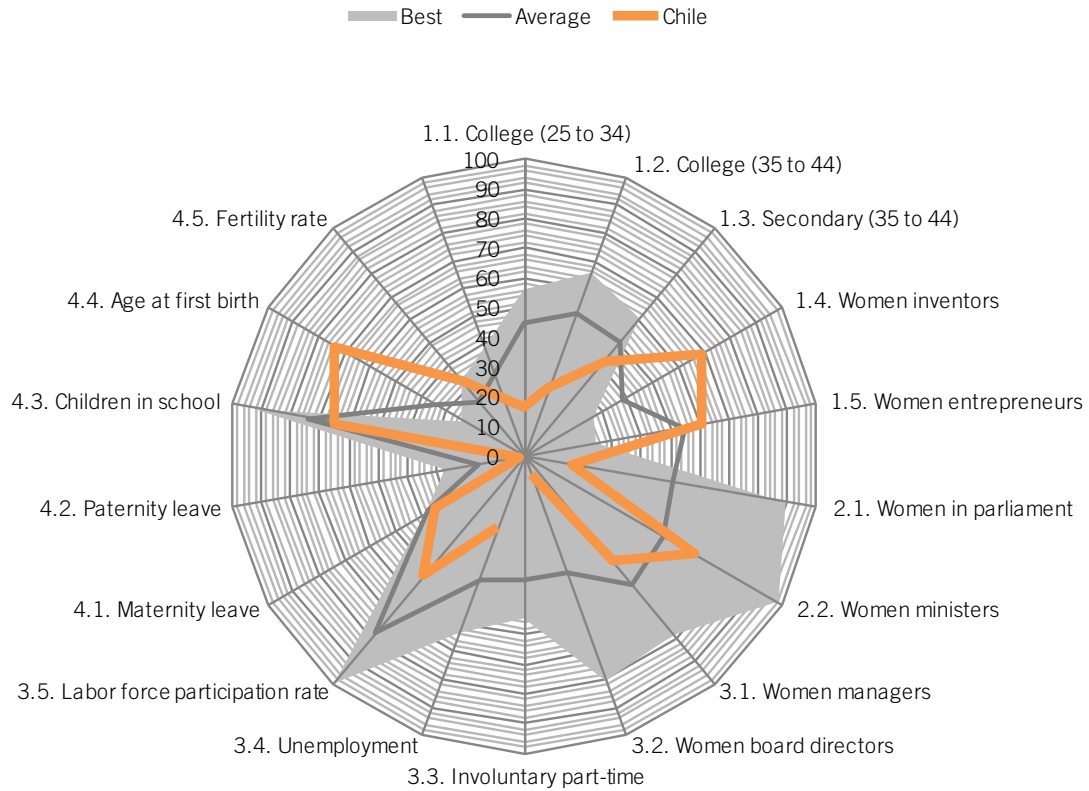
Belgium ranks ninth overall on the I-WIL Index, up two places from its 2006 position. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on social leadership (6th). The country ranks 13th on political and business leadership, and the dimension on which it fares worst is personal leadership (15th).

Canada



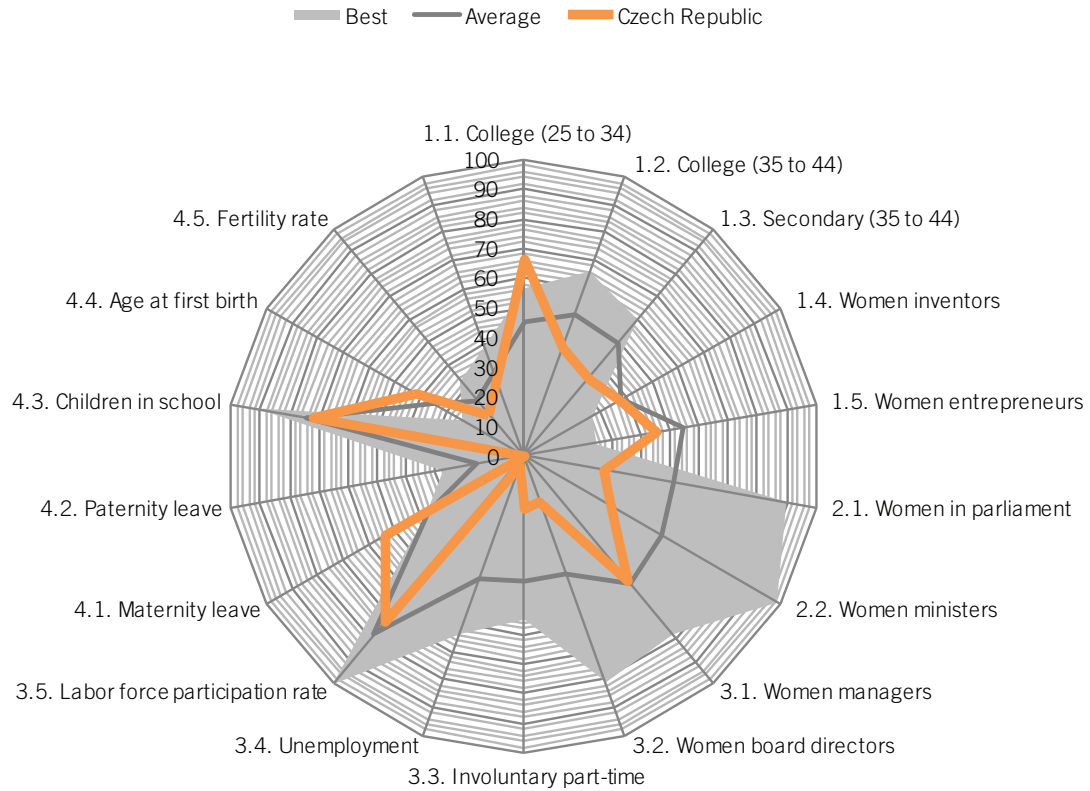
Canada ranks 15th overall on the I-WIL Index, down one place from its position in 2006. On specific dimensions, the country scores highest on business leadership, where it ranks fourth. The dimension on which it fares worst is social leadership, where it is second from the bottom (33rd). Canada ranks 10th on political leadership and 12th on personal leadership. It scores highest on the indicators “unemployment rate for women” (3rd) and “number of women ministers” (3rd).

Chile



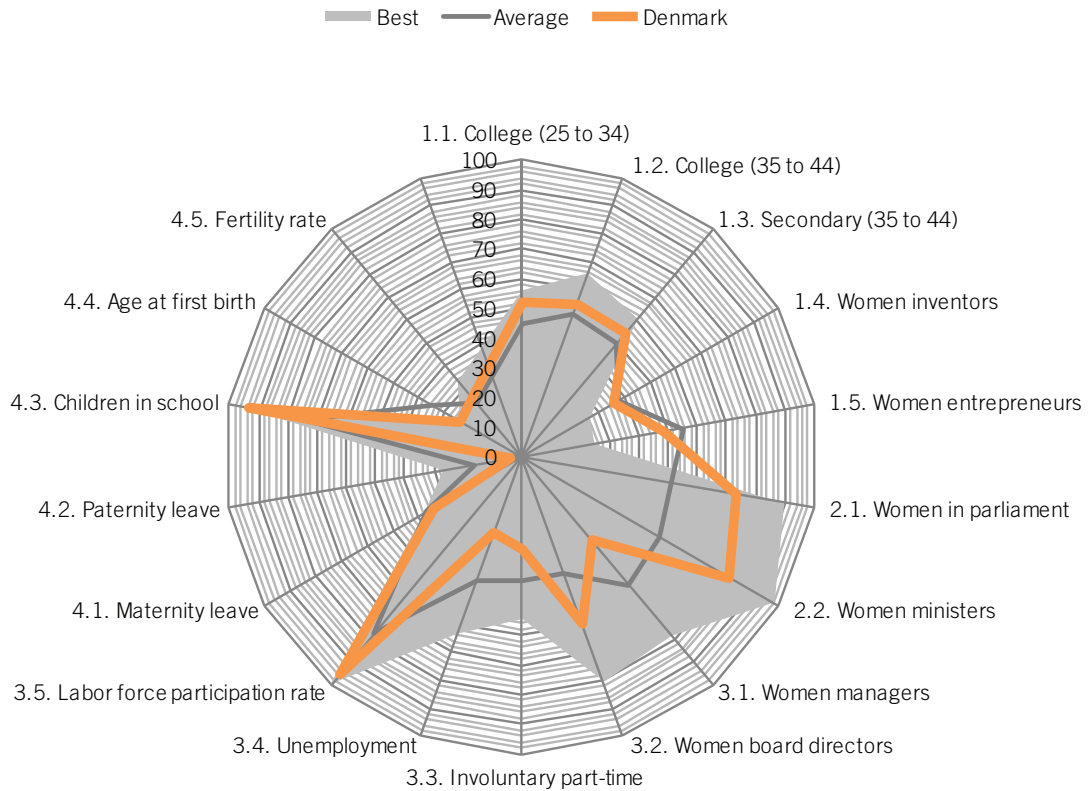
Chile ranks 29th overall on the I-WIL Index, down two places from its 2006 position. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on social leadership (12th). The country ranks 22nd on personal leadership and 25th on political leadership. The dimension on which it fares worst is business leadership (31st). The indicators on which Chile scores highest are “age at first birth” (2nd) and “number of women inventors” (4th).

Czech Republic



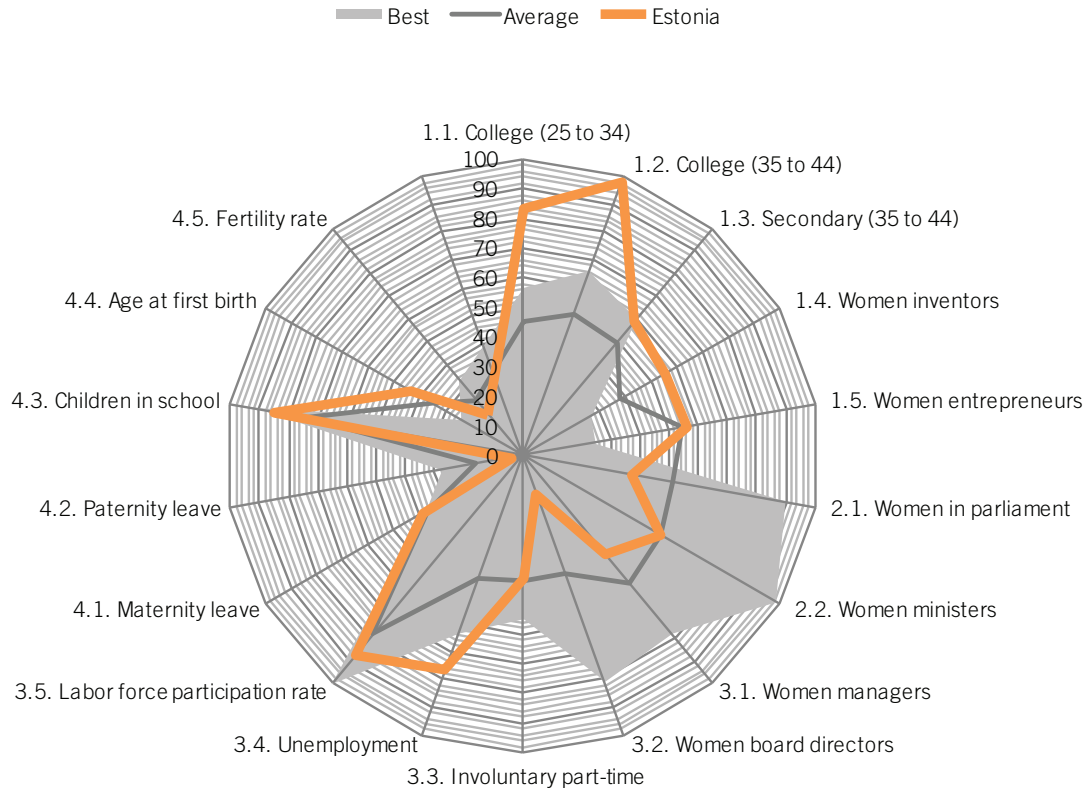
The Czech Republic ranks 31st overall on the I-WIL Index, down two places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, it ranks in the medium to low range: 19th on personal and social leadership, 29th on political leadership, and 30th on business leadership. The indicator on which it scores best is “maternity leave” (5th).

Denmark



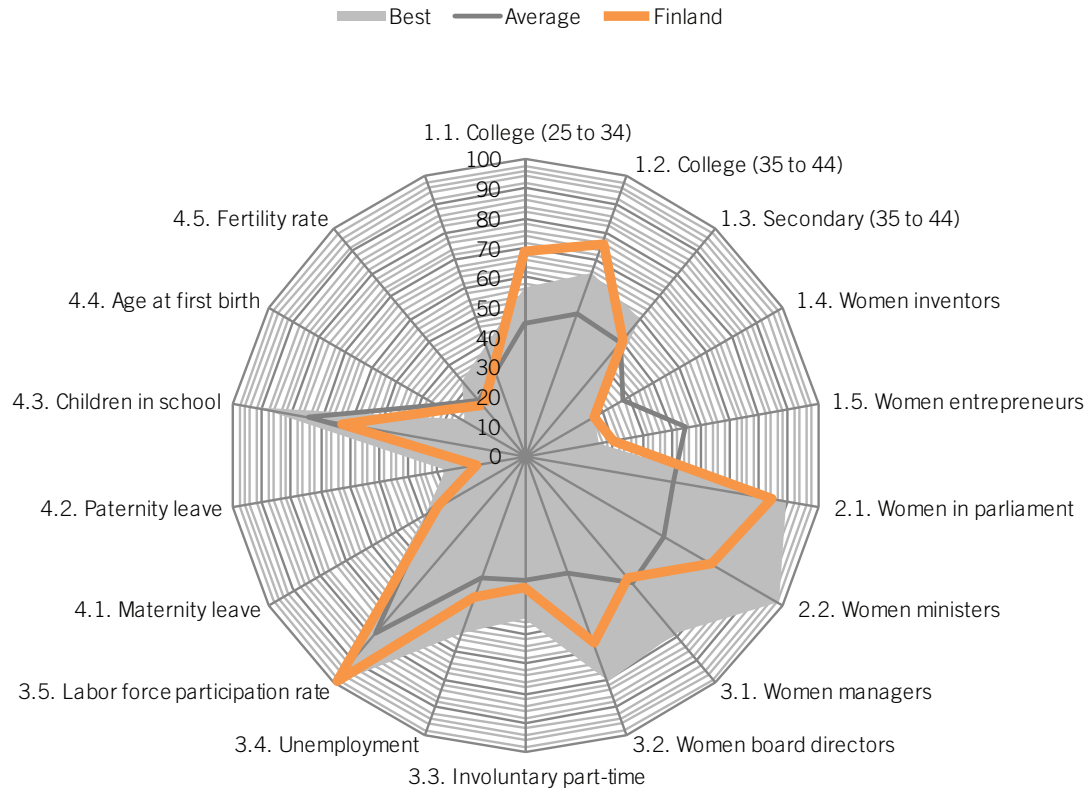
Denmark ranks 11th overall on the I-WIL Index, down one place from its 2006 position. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on political leadership (5th). The country ranks 16th on personal leadership and 18th on social leadership. The dimension on which it fares worst is business leadership (19th). The indicators on which it scores highest are “number of women ministers” and “labor force participation rate” (5th in each case).

Estonia



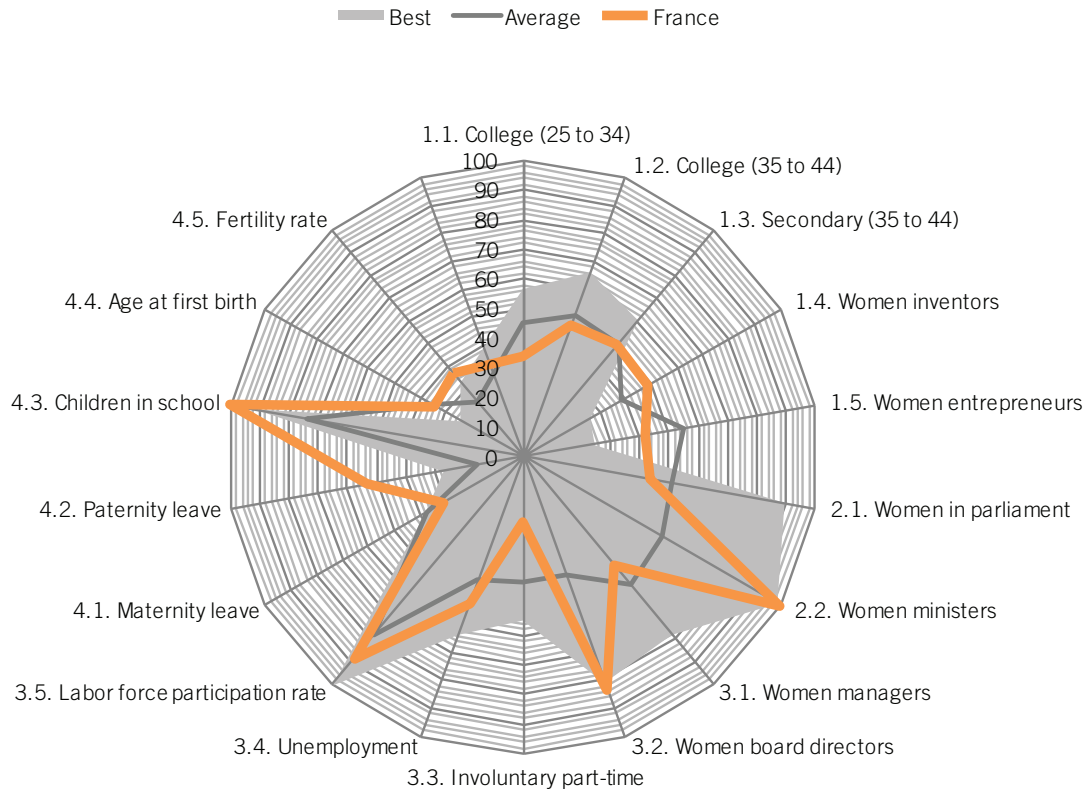
Estonia ranks 12th overall on the I-WIL Index, down seven places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on personal leadership (3rd). The country ranks 17th on social leadership, 18th on business leadership, and 21st on political leadership. The indicator on which it scores highest is “percentage of college-educated women.”

Finland



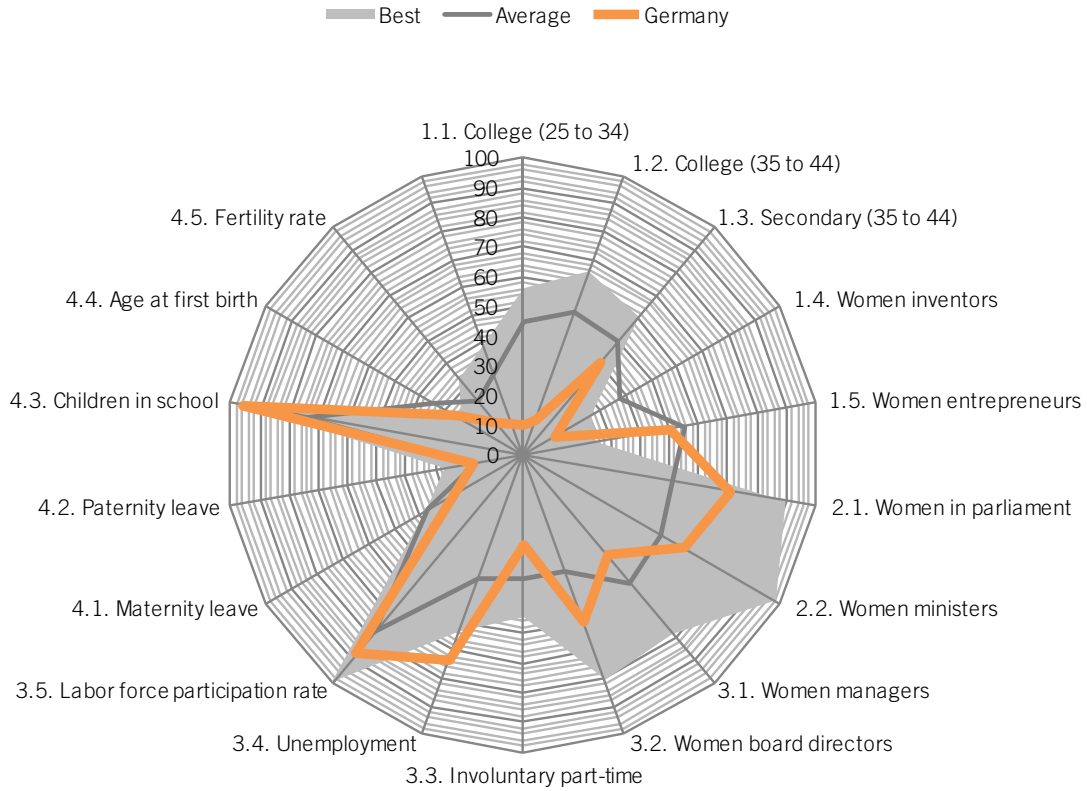
Finland ranks sixth overall on the I-WIL Index, down two places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on political and business leadership (4th and 7th, respectively). The country ranks 14th on personal leadership and 22nd on social leadership. As for indicators, it ranks second, fourth and fifth on “labor force participation rate,” “women in parliament,” “women board directors” and “college-educated women aged 35 to 44,” respectively.

France



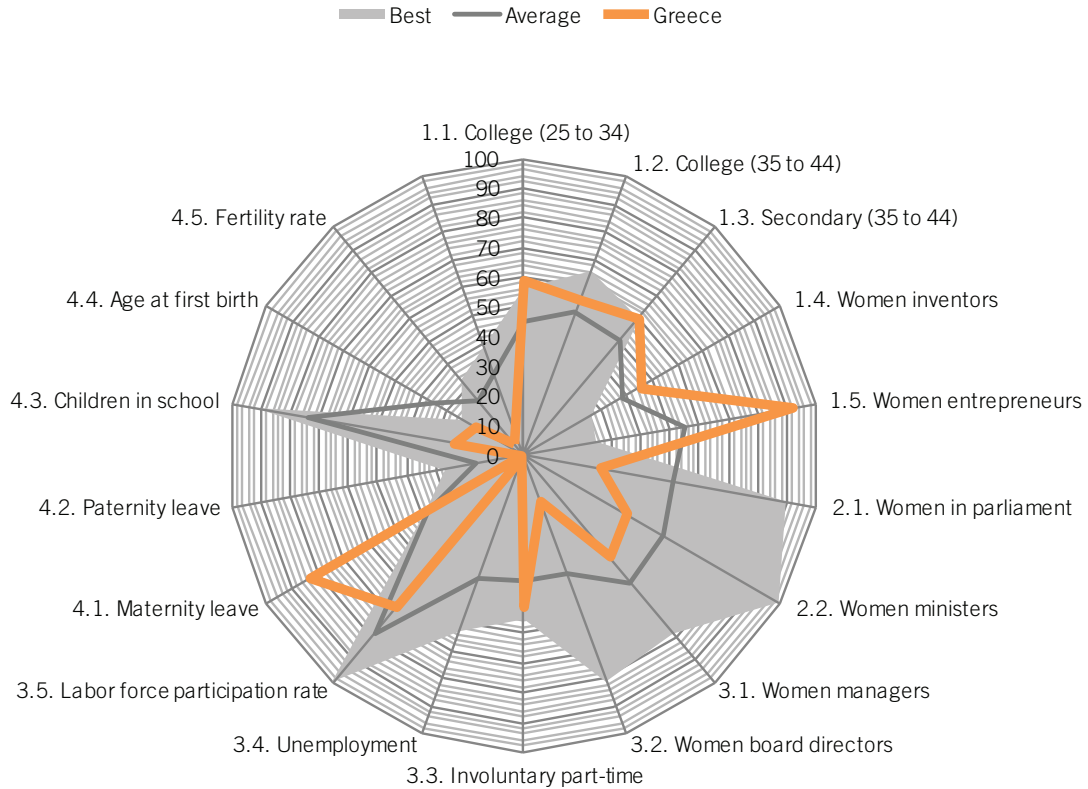
France ranks fifth overall on the I-WIL Index, up 16 places from its 2006 ranking. It is the country that has advanced most on the Index. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on social leadership (3rd), and it ranks ninth on political leadership, 12th on business leadership, and 21st on personal leadership. As for indicators, France ranks first on “women ministers,” and third on “women board directors” and “paternity leave.”

Germany



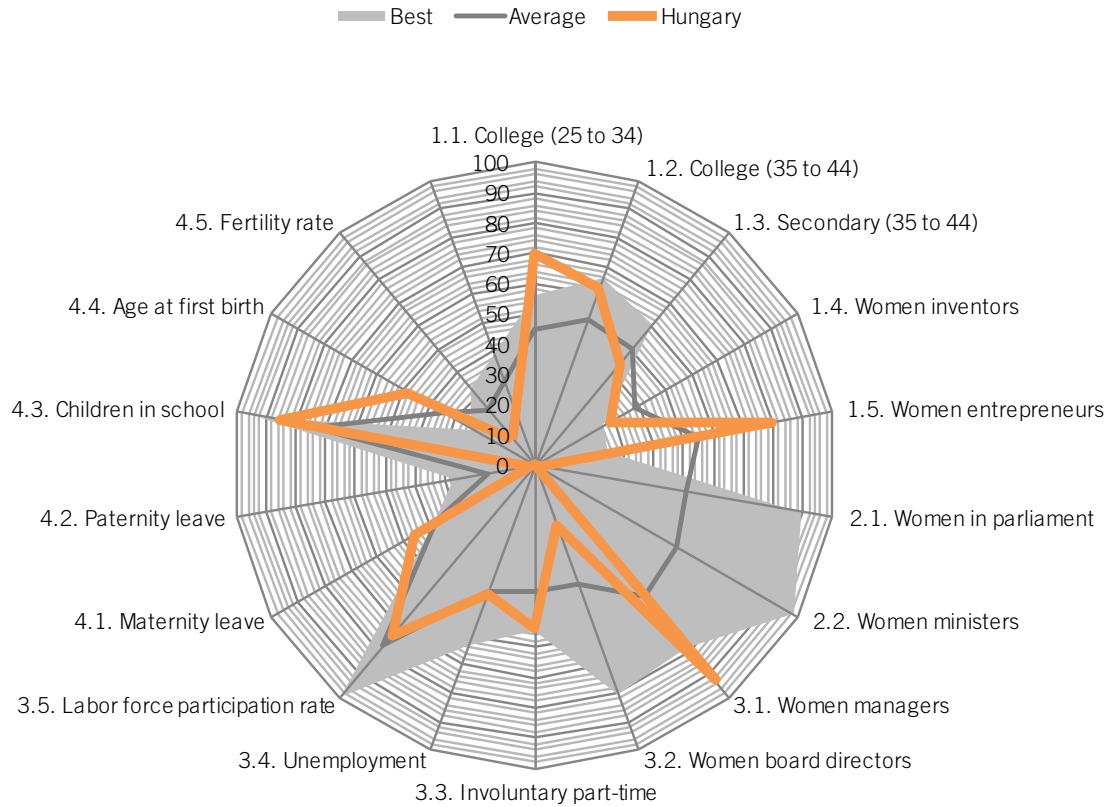
Germany ranks 21st overall on the 2018 I-WIL Index, down two places from its 2006 position. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on political and business leadership (11th). On social leadership, the country ranks 20th. On personal leadership, it has fallen to a position near the bottom of the ranking (32nd). The indicator on which it scores highest is "percentage of children in school" (4th).

Greece



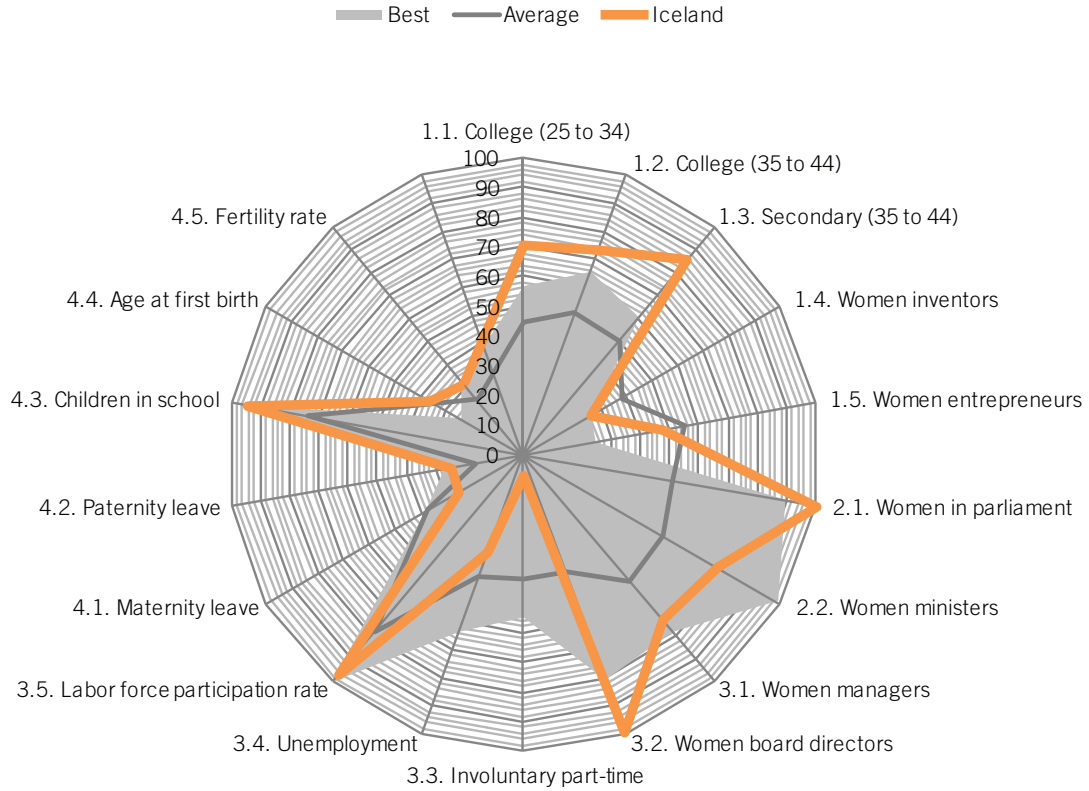
Greece ranks 27th overall on the I-WIL Index, up four places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on personal leadership (8th). On political, business and social leadership, it ranks 28th and 32nd, respectively. The indicator on which the country scores highest is “maternity leave” (2nd).

Hungary



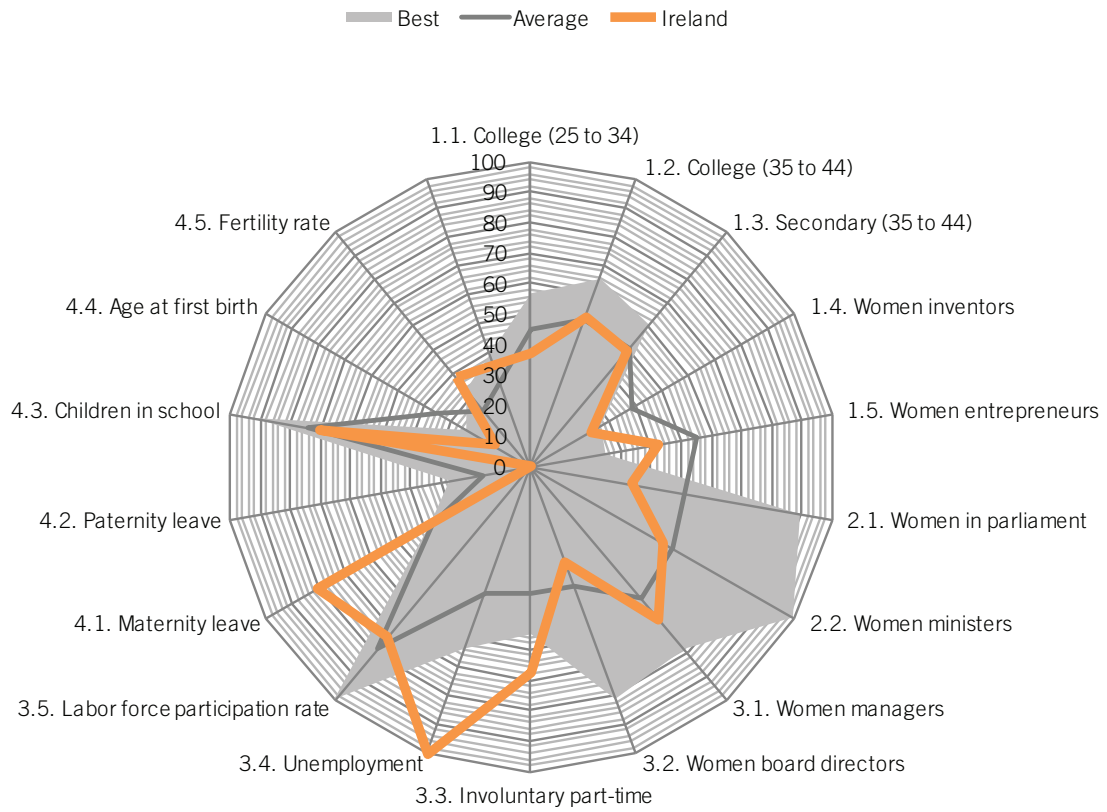
Hungary ranks 26th overall on the I-WIL Index, down 10 places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on personal leadership (10th). It ranks 14th on business leadership and 16th on social leadership. The country fares worst on political leadership, where it occupies the last place in the ranking. As for indicators, it ranks third on “women managers.”

Iceland



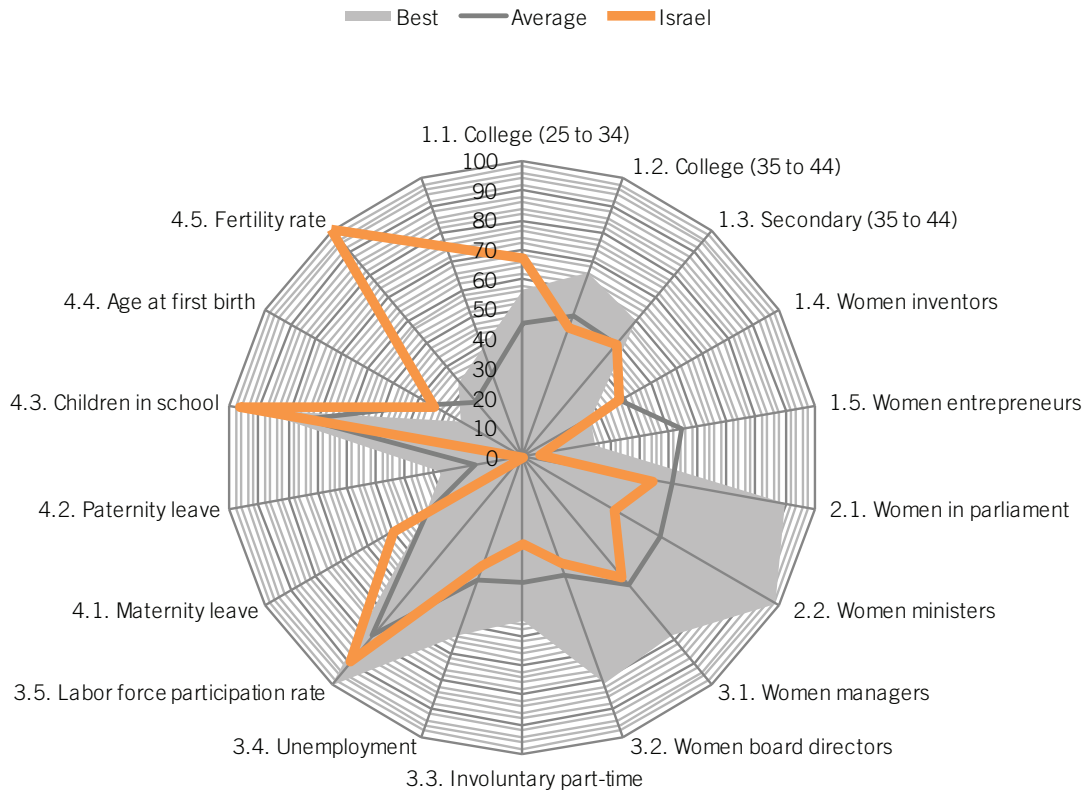
Iceland ranks second overall on the I-WIL Index, up two places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, it ranks among the top 10 countries on political leadership (2nd), business leadership (8th), and personal and social leadership (9th). As for indicators, it is the top-scoring country on “women board directors” and “women in parliament.”

Ireland



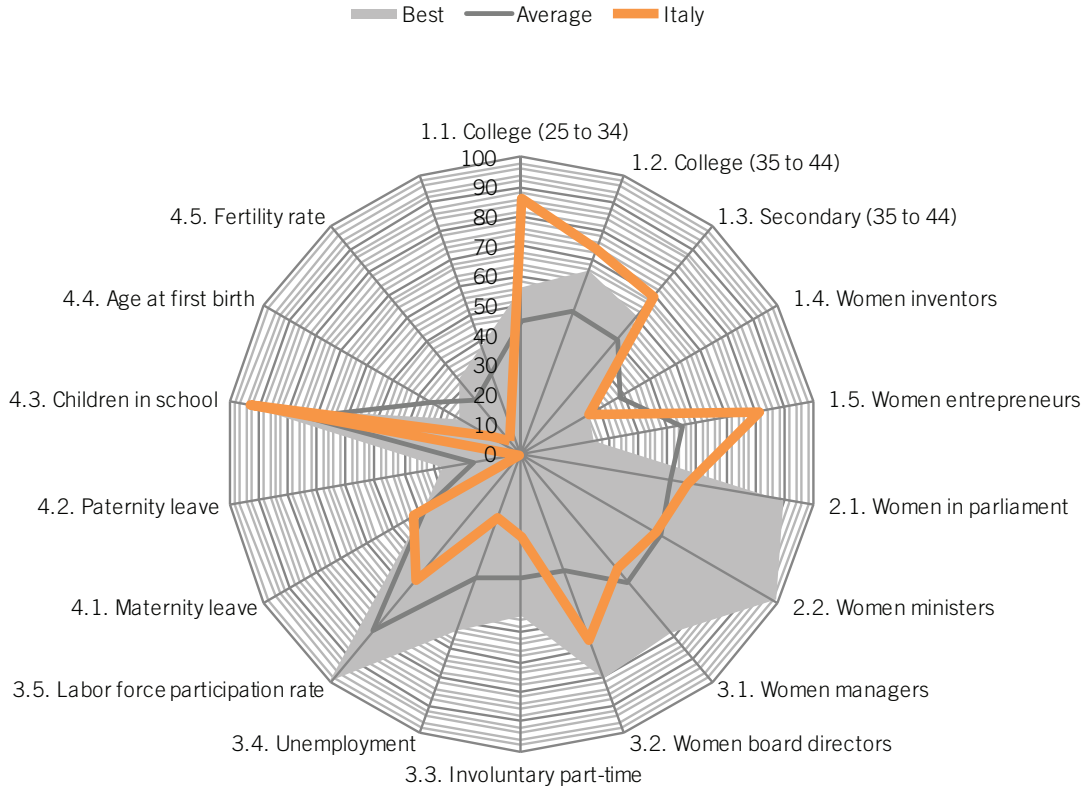
Ireland ranks 17th overall on the I-WIL Index, down six places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on business and social leadership (3rd and 10th). It ranks 23rd on personal leadership and 24th on political leadership. As for indicators, the country achieves its best result for having the smallest difference between male and female unemployment rates. On this indicator, Ireland ranks first on the Index.

Israel



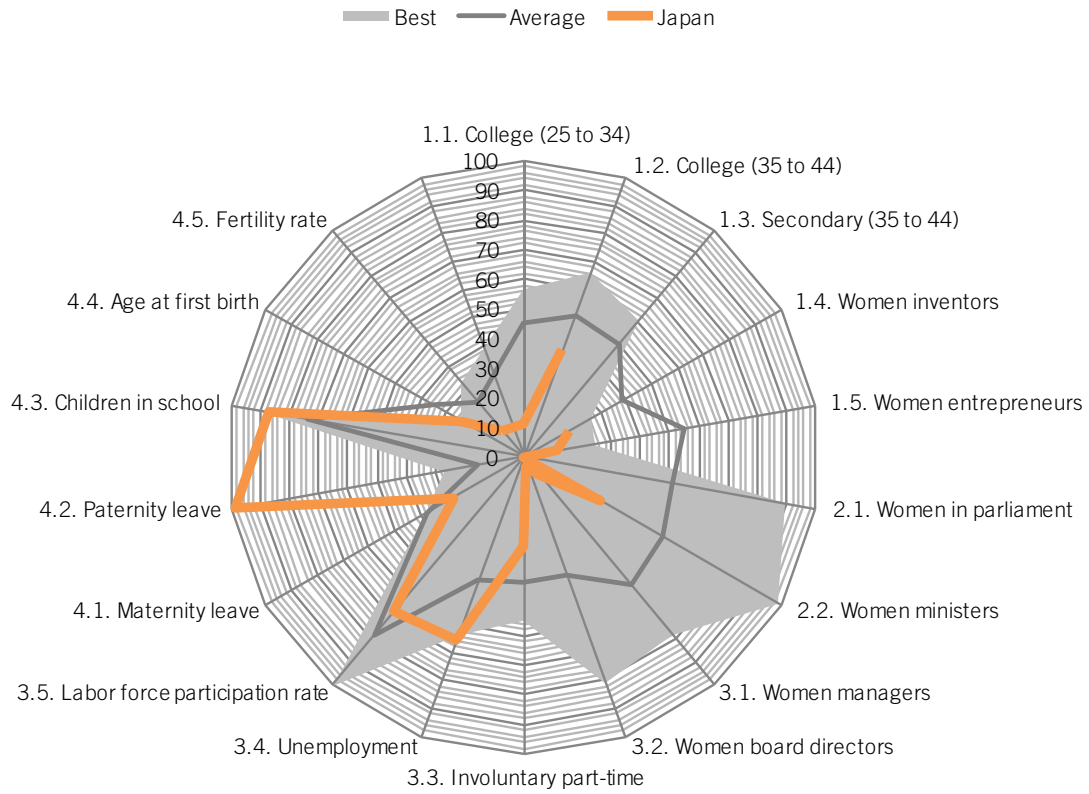
Israel ranks 19th overall on the I-WIL Index. This drop of 13 places compared to 2006 is the largest of any of the countries considered. On specific dimensions, the country's best result is on social leadership (1st). On business, personal and political leadership, it ranks 20th, 24th and 26th, respectively. As for indicators, Israel has the highest fertility rate of any of the countries (3.09) and ranks third on "percentage of children aged 3 to 5 in school."

Italy



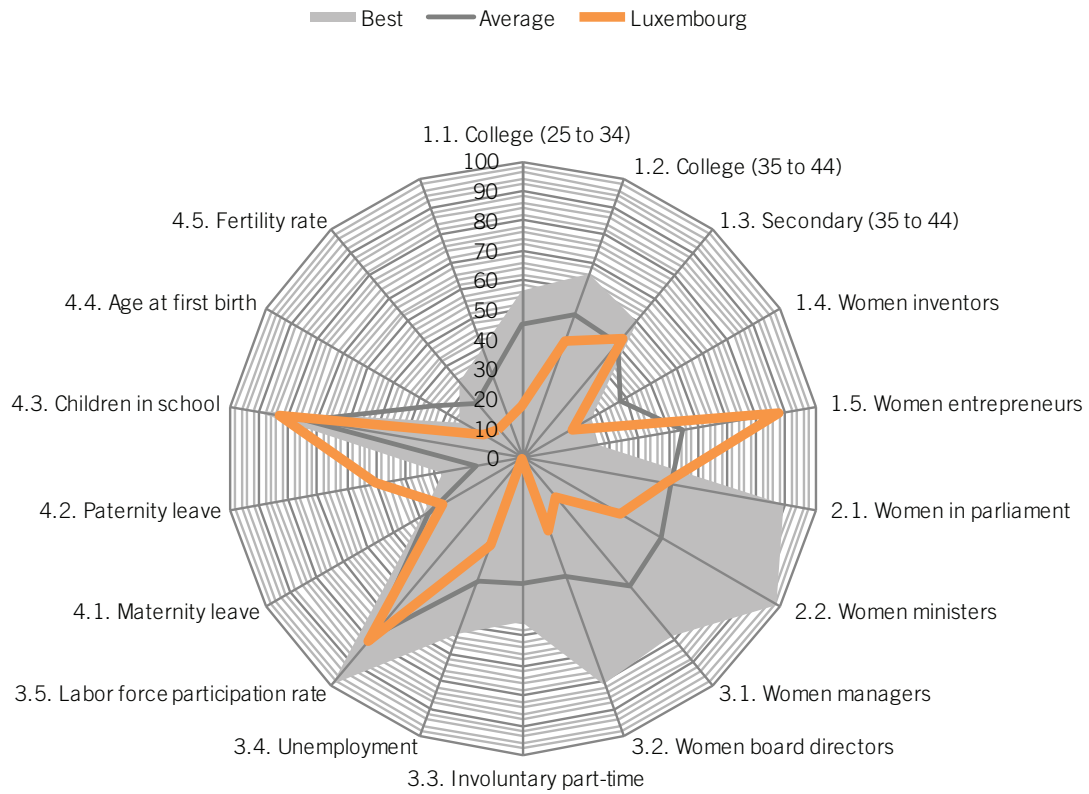
Italy ranks 18th overall on the I-WIL Index, up ten places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, the country scores highest on personal leadership (5th). On political, business and social leadership, it ranks 17th, 26th and 28th, respectively. As for indicators, it ranks second on “college-educated women aged 25 to 34” and sixth on “women board directors.”

Japan



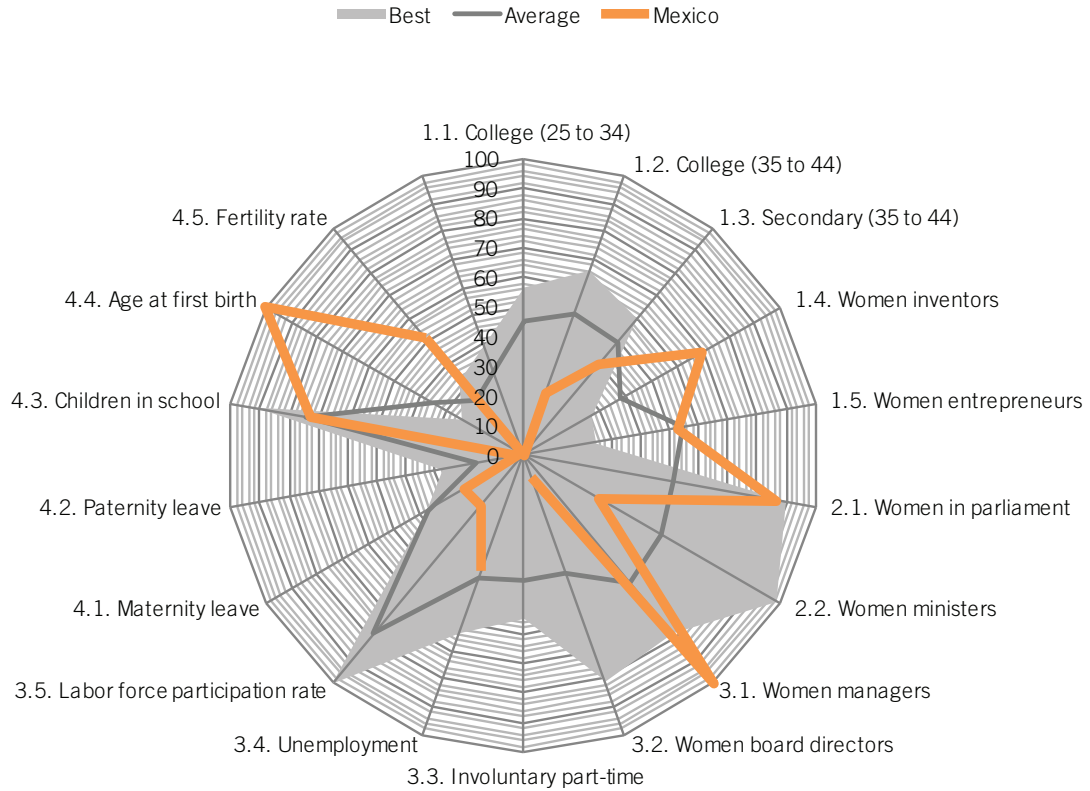
Japan ranks 33rd overall on the I-WIL Index, the same position it held on the 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, the country scores highest on social leadership (4th). On business, political and personal leadership, it holds positions at the bottom of the ranking: 29th, 32nd and 33rd, respectively. As for indicators, it achieves its highest ranking on “unemployment rate for women” (7th).

Luxembourg



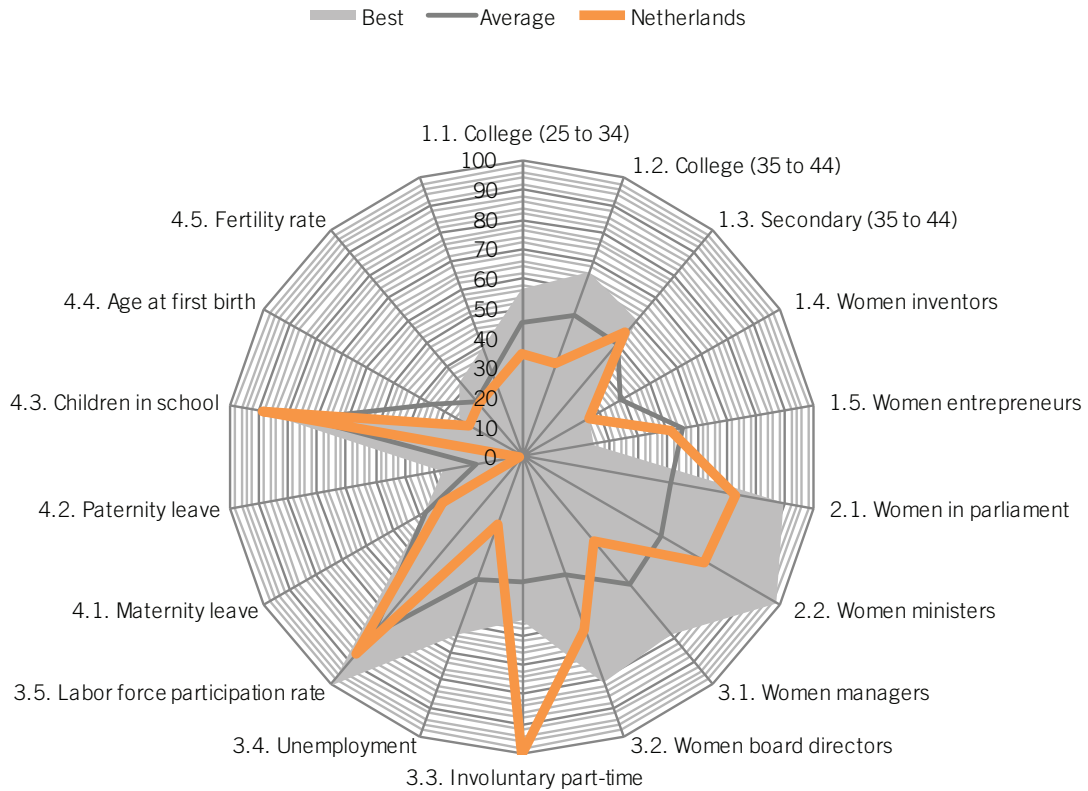
Luxembourg ranks 28th overall on the I-WIL Index, down two places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, the country scores highest on social leadership (14th) and personal leadership (20th). It ranks 23rd on political leadership and 32nd on business leadership. As for indicators, Luxembourg ranks fourth on “paternity leave” and fifth on “women entrepreneurs.”

Mexico



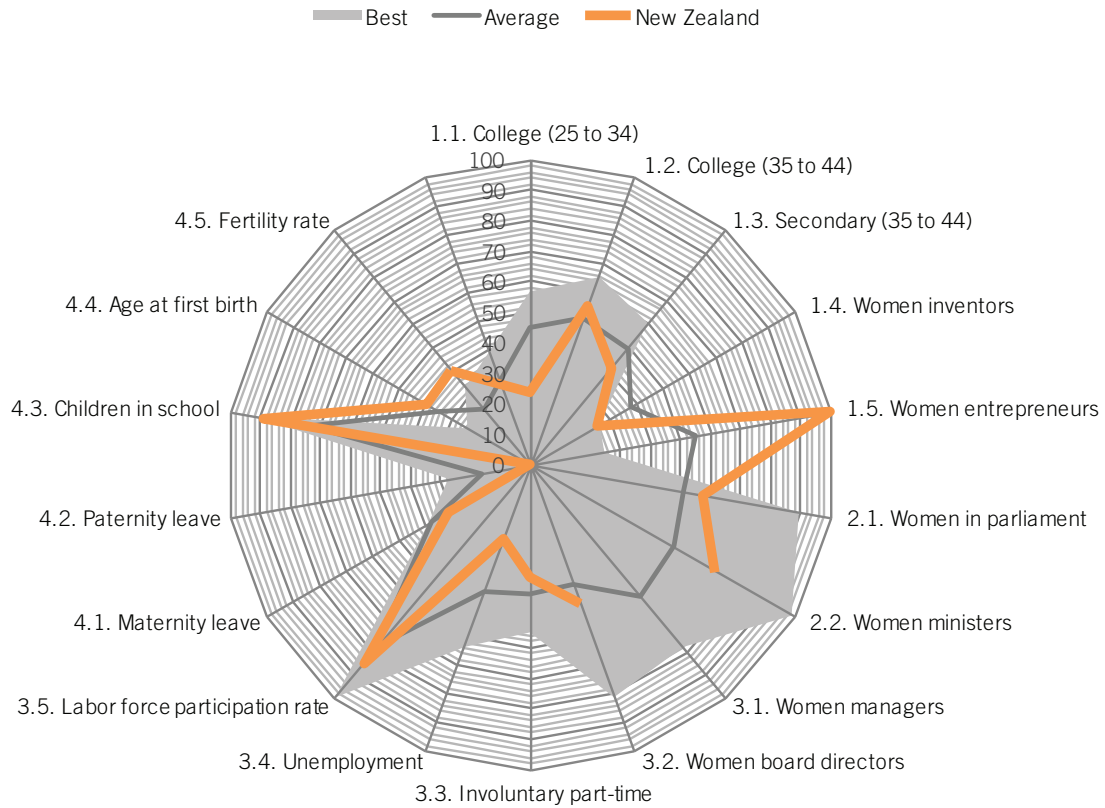
Mexico ranks 22nd overall on the I-WIL Index, up two places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, the country scores highest on social leadership (5th). On political leadership, it ranks 14th, and on personal and business leadership, 27th. As for indicators, Mexico is the country where mothers have their first child at the youngest age.

Netherlands



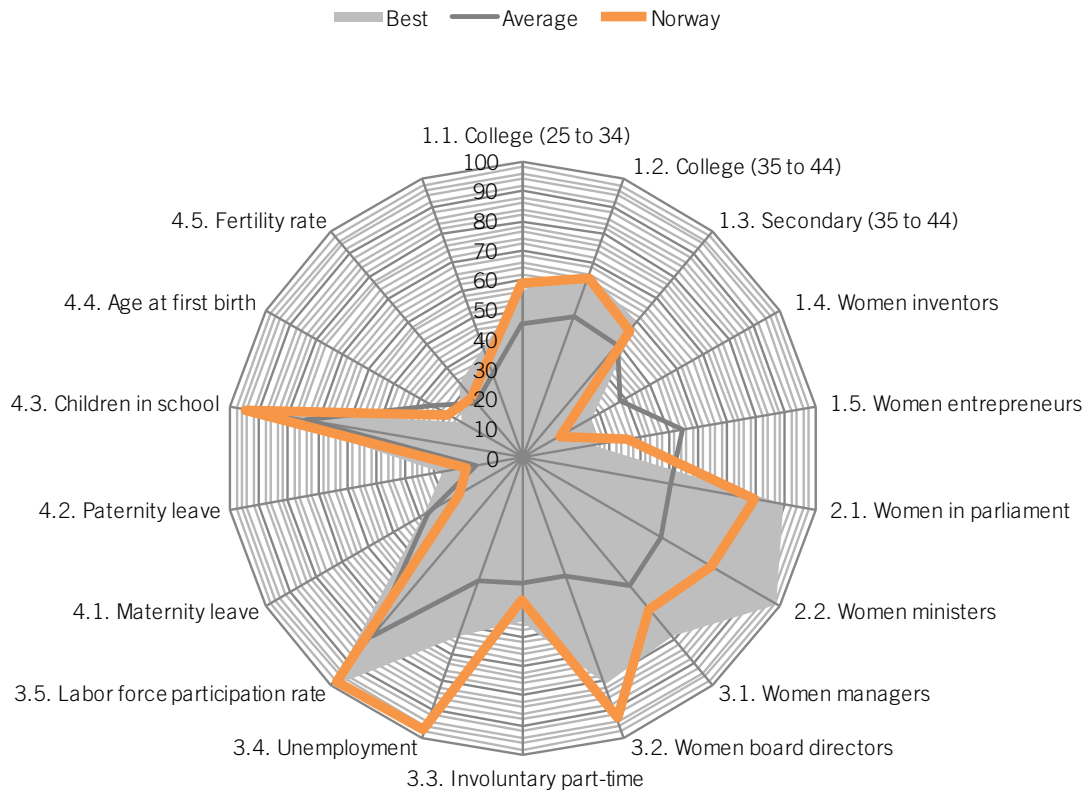
The Netherlands ranks 14th overall on the I-WIL Index, up eight places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on political and business leadership (7th and 9th). It ranks 23rd on social leadership and 25th on personal leadership. As for indicators, it obtains the highest score of any of the countries on “involuntary part-time work.”

New Zealand



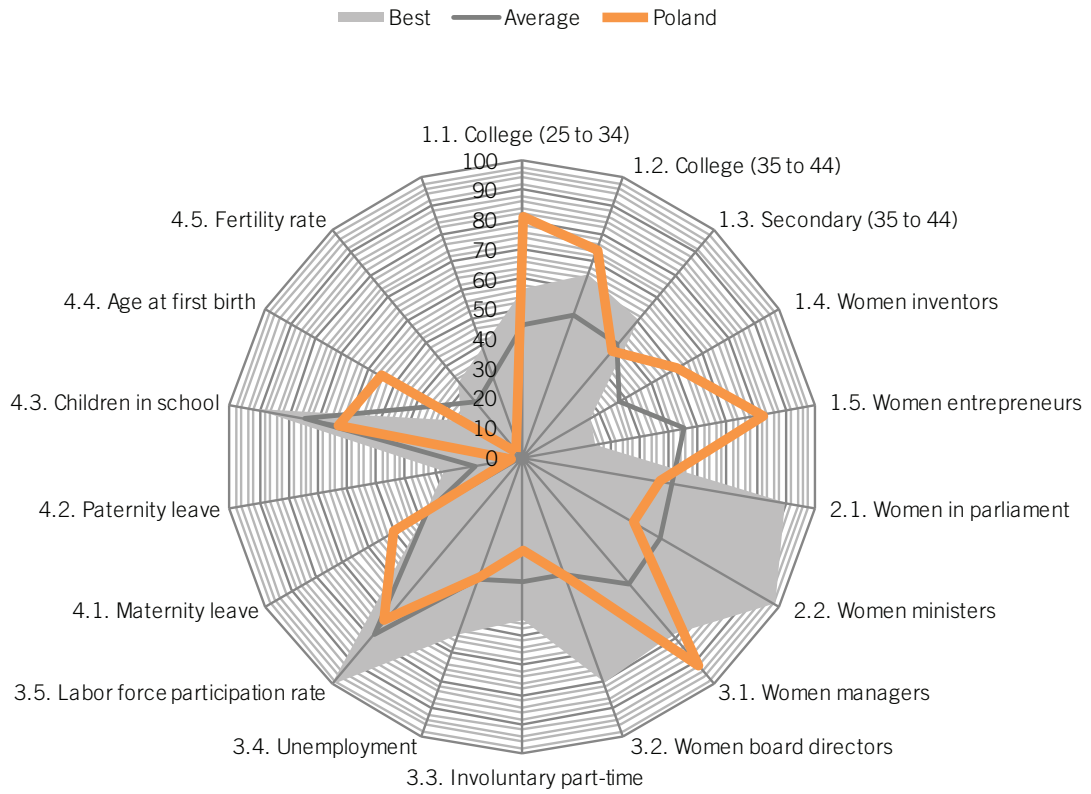
New Zealand ranks 16th overall on the I-WIL Index, down nine places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, the country ranks around the middle of the pack: 11th on social leadership, 12th on political leadership, 13th on personal leadership, and 22nd on business leadership. As for indicators, it receives the highest score of any of the countries on “women entrepreneurs” and the fourth highest on “fertility rate.”

Norway



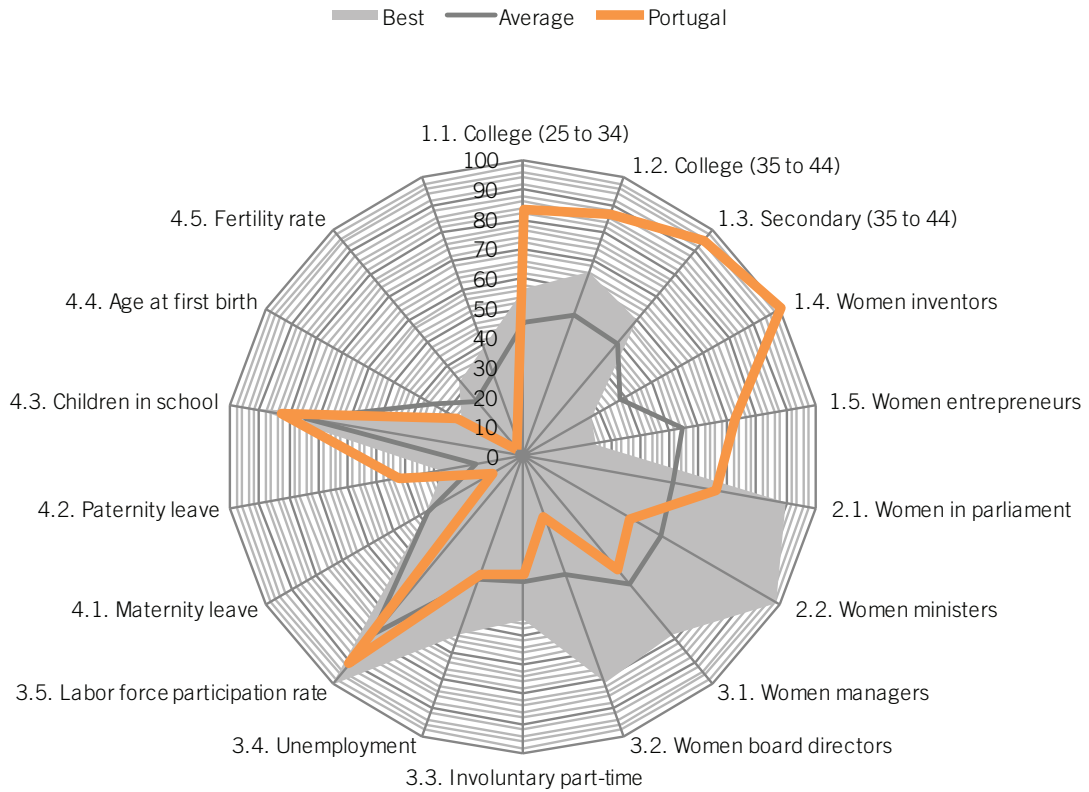
Norway ranks third overall on the I-WIL Index, down one place from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, the country scores highest on business leadership (1st) and political leadership (6th). It ranks 13th on social leadership and 18th on personal leadership. As for indicators, Norway receives the second highest score on “women board directors” and has the second smallest difference between male and female unemployment rates. It ranks third on “labor force participation rate” and fifth on “women in parliament.”

Poland



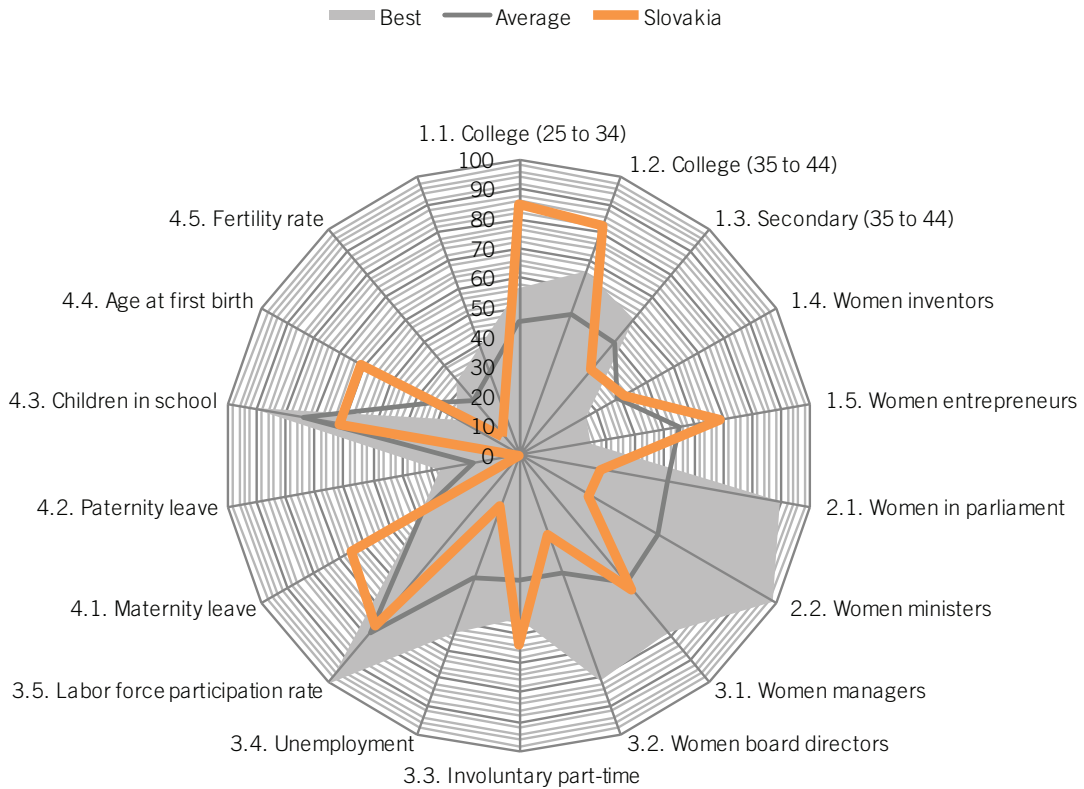
Poland ranks 13th overall on the I-WIL Index, up seven places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, the country scores highest on personal leadership (4th). On business, political and social leadership, it ranks 15th, 22nd and 25th, respectively. As for indicators, it ranks fourth on “women managers.”

Portugal



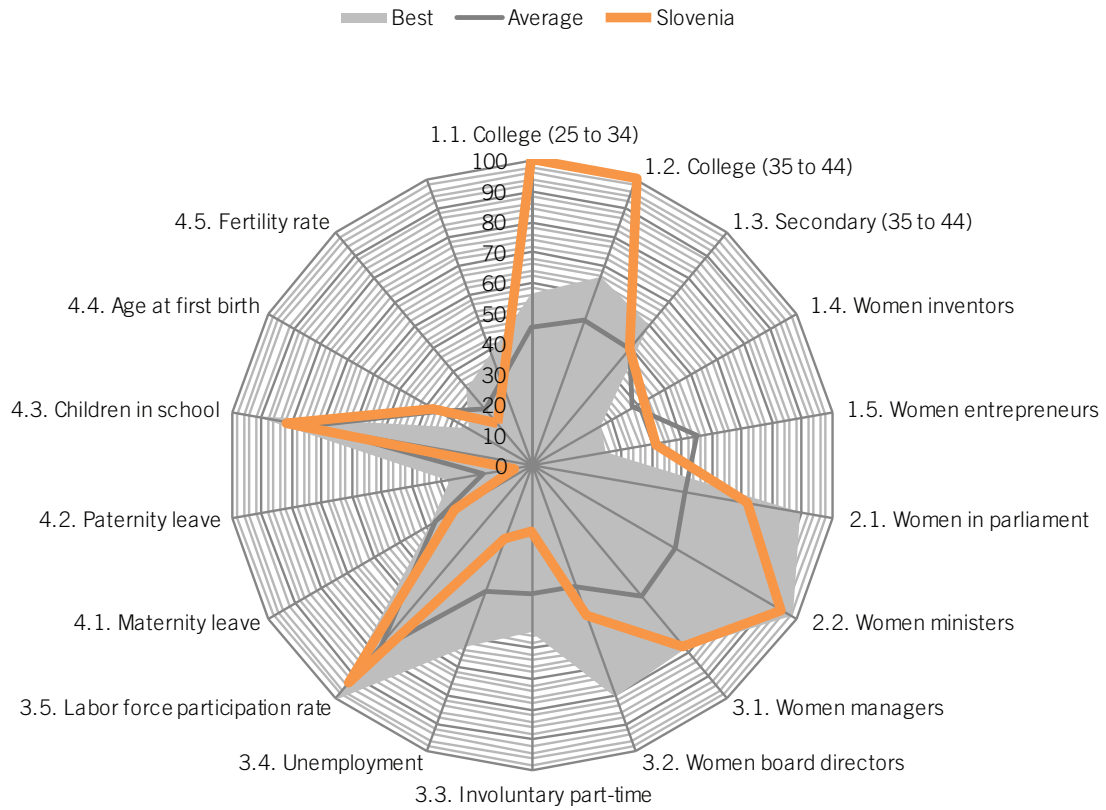
Portugal ranks seventh overall on the I-WIL Index, up five places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, the country scores highest on personal leadership (1st). On political, business and social leadership, it ranks 18th, 24th and 26th, respectively. As for indicators, it scores highly on “women inventors” (1st) and “women aged 35 to 44 with secondary education.”

Slovakia



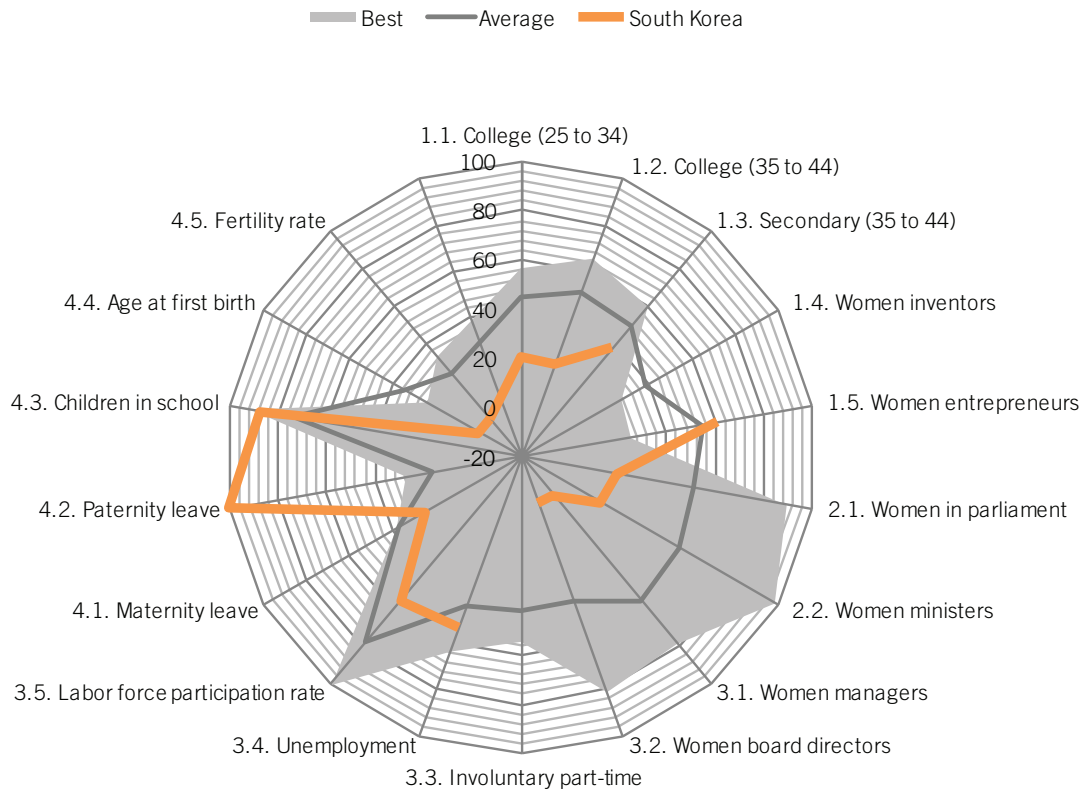
Slovakia ranks 23rd overall on the I-WIL Index, up two places from its 2006 position. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on personal and social leadership (7th and 15th, respectively). The dimensions on which the country fares worst are business and political leadership, where it ranks 23rd and 30th, respectively. The indicators on which Slovakia scores highest are “percentage of college-educated women aged 24 to 34,” (3rd), “percentage of college-educated women aged 35 to 44” (4th), “age at first birth” (4th), and “involuntary part-time work” (5th).

Slovenia



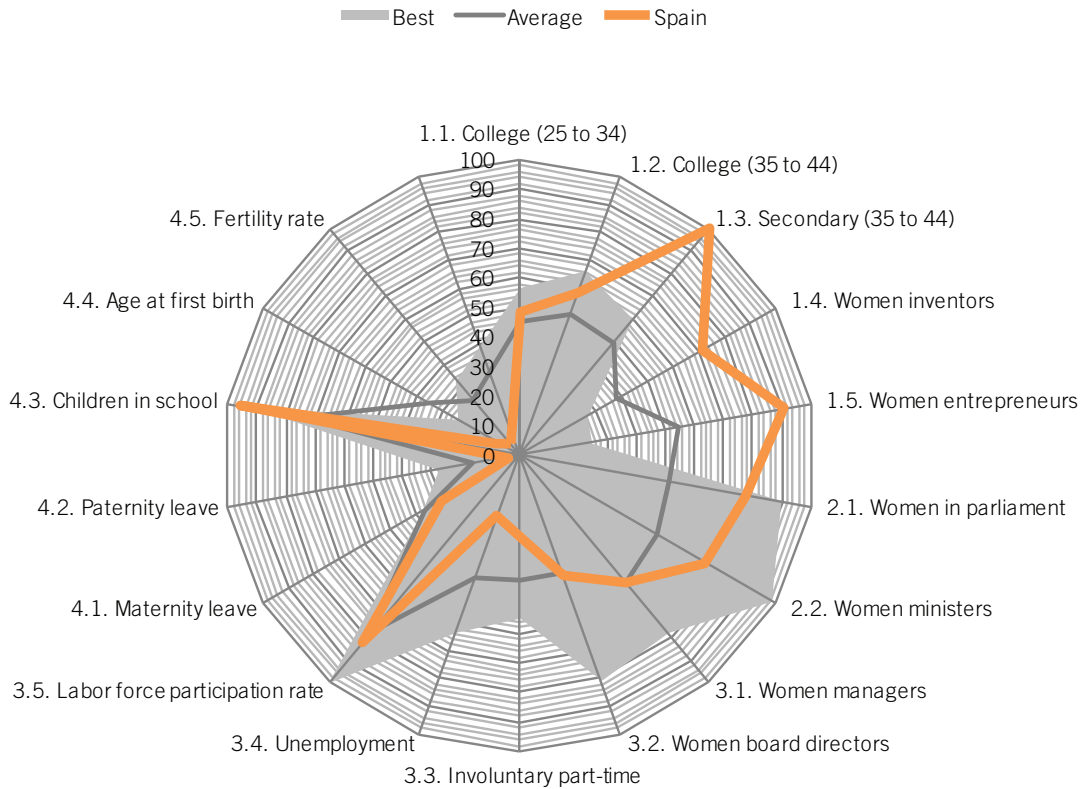
Slovenia ranks fourth overall on the I-WIL Index, up eleven places from its 2006 position. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on political and personal leadership (3rd and 6th, respectively). The country ranks 17th on business leadership and drops to 21st place on social leadership. Its highest score is on the indicator “college-educated women” (1st), and it also scores highly on “women ministers” (4th).

South Korea



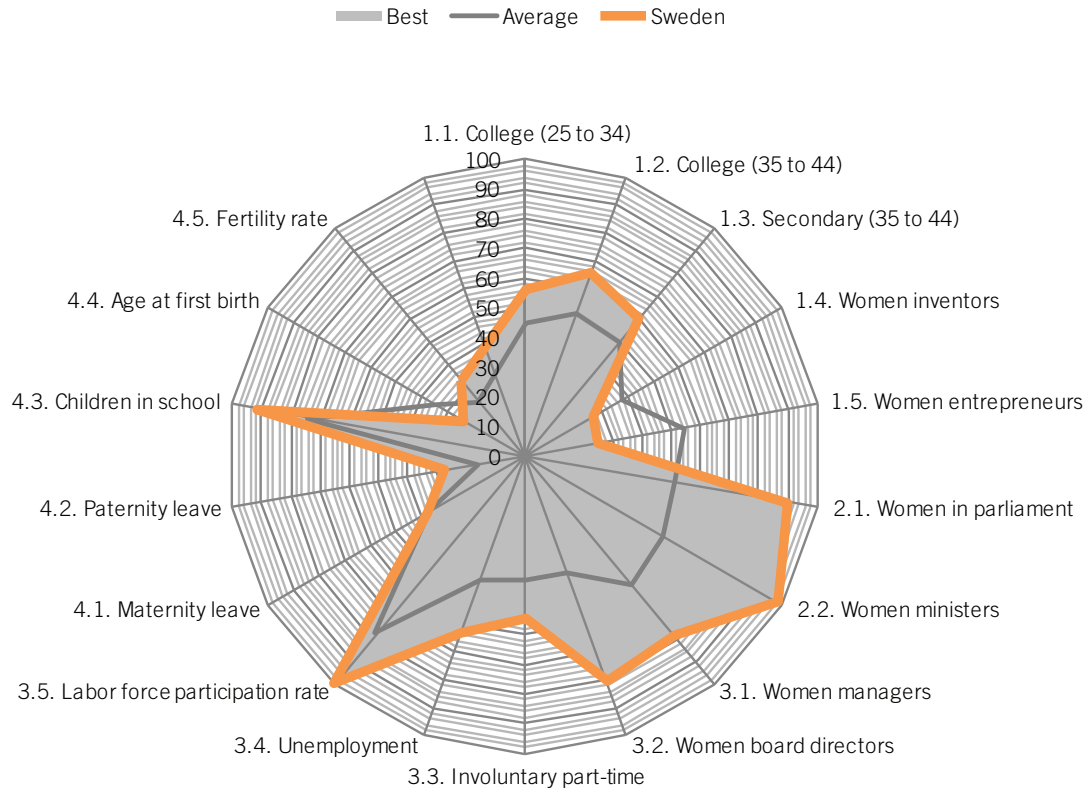
South Korea ranks 32nd overall on the I-WIL Index, the same position it held in 2006. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on social leadership (8th). On the other dimensions, it holds positions at the bottom of the ranking: personal leadership (28th), political leadership (31st) and business leadership (34th). The indicators on which it scores highest are “paternity leave” and “percentage of children in school.”

Spain



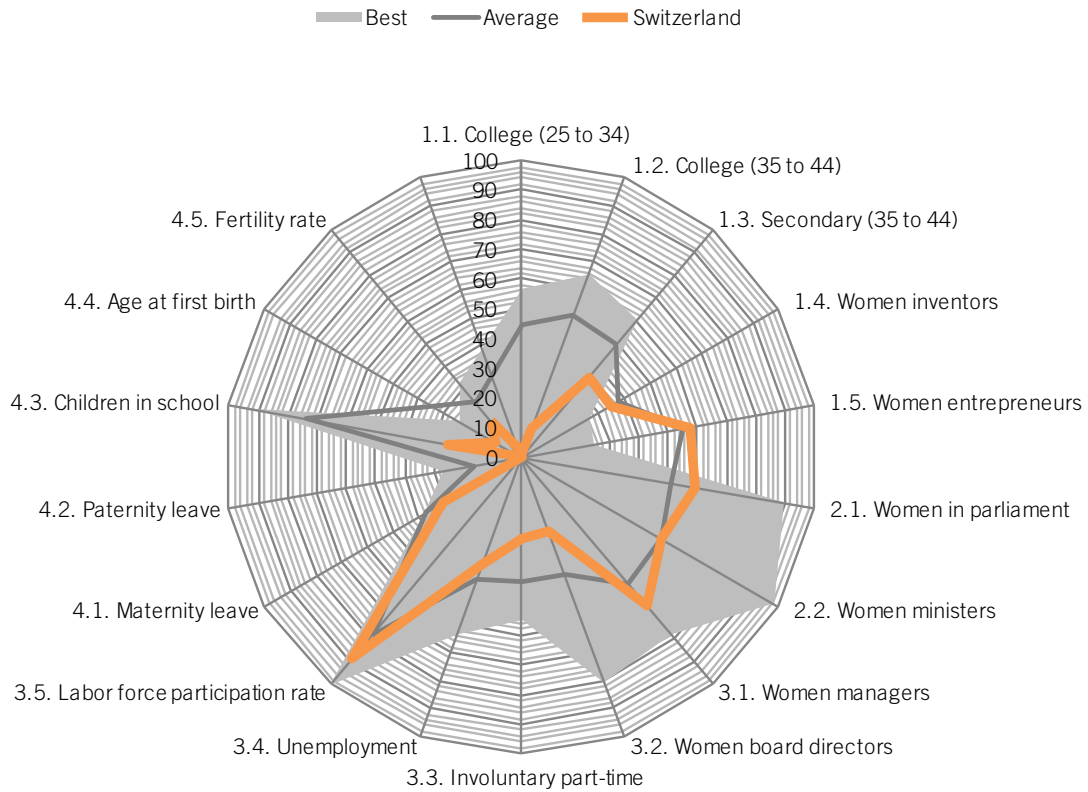
Spain ranks eighth overall on the I-WIL Index, up one place from 2006. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on personal and political leadership (2nd and 7th, respectively). On the dimensions on which it fares worst—business and social leadership—the country has fallen to near the bottom of the ranking (25th and 29th, respectively). The indicators on which it scores highest are “women inventors” (2nd), “women entrepreneurs” (3rd), and “percentage of children aged 3 to 5 in school” (5th).

Sweden



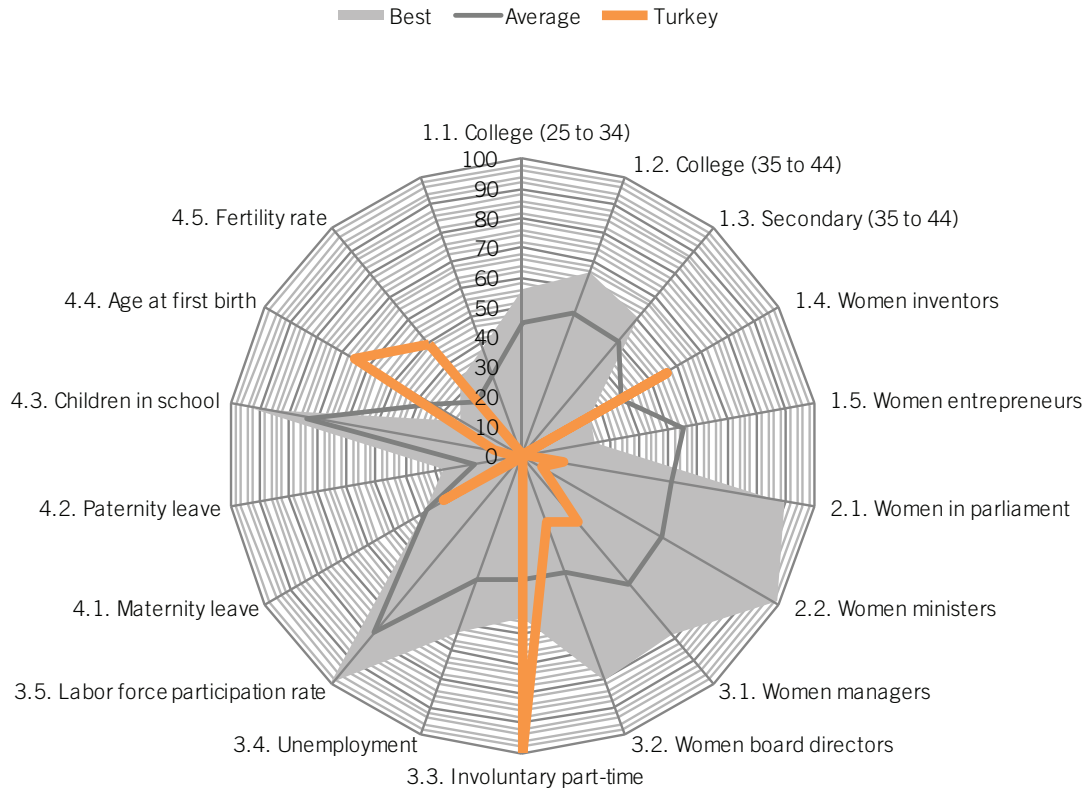
Sweden takes the top position on the I-WIL Index, as it did on the 2006 ranking. The country ranks first on political leadership, second on business leadership, and seventh on social leadership. However, it drops to 17th place on personal leadership. As for indicators, Sweden obtains the second highest score on “women in parliament” and “women ministers.”

Switzerland



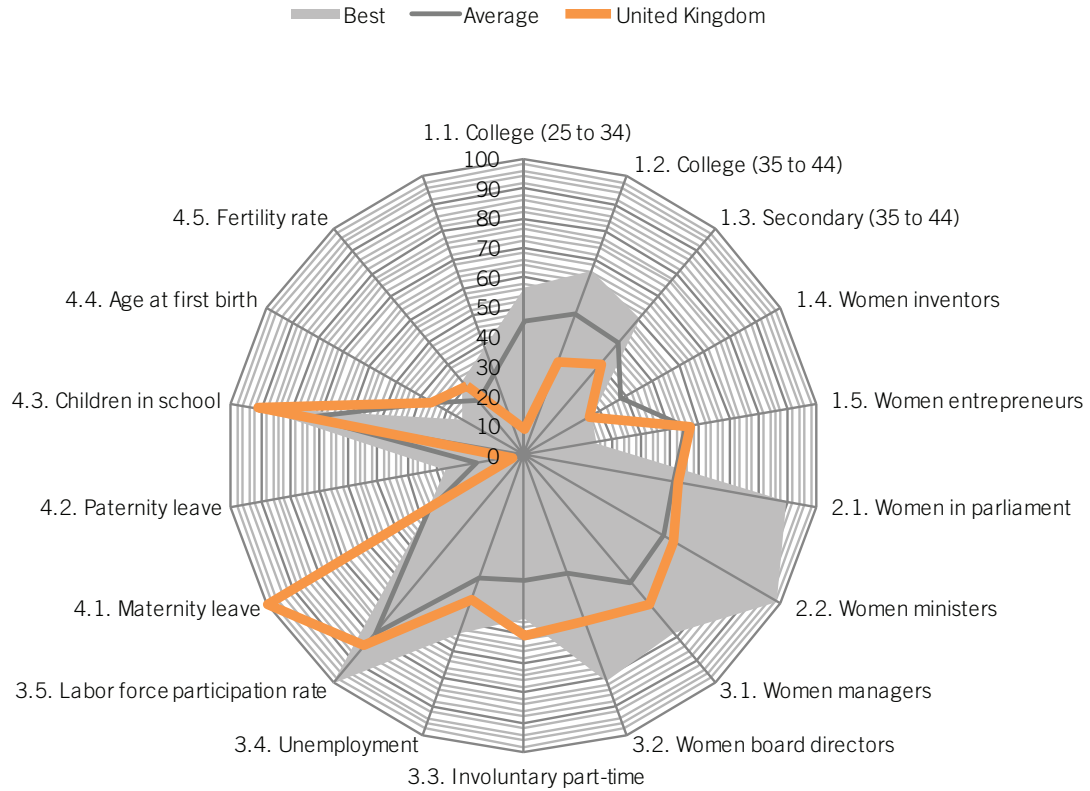
Switzerland ranks 30th on the I-WIL Index, the same position it held on the 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, the country scores highest on political leadership (15th). On the other dimensions, Switzerland holds positions towards the bottom of the ranking: 21st on business leadership, 31st on personal leadership, and 34th (last place) on social leadership. As for indicators, it does particularly well on “labor force participation rate.”

Turkey



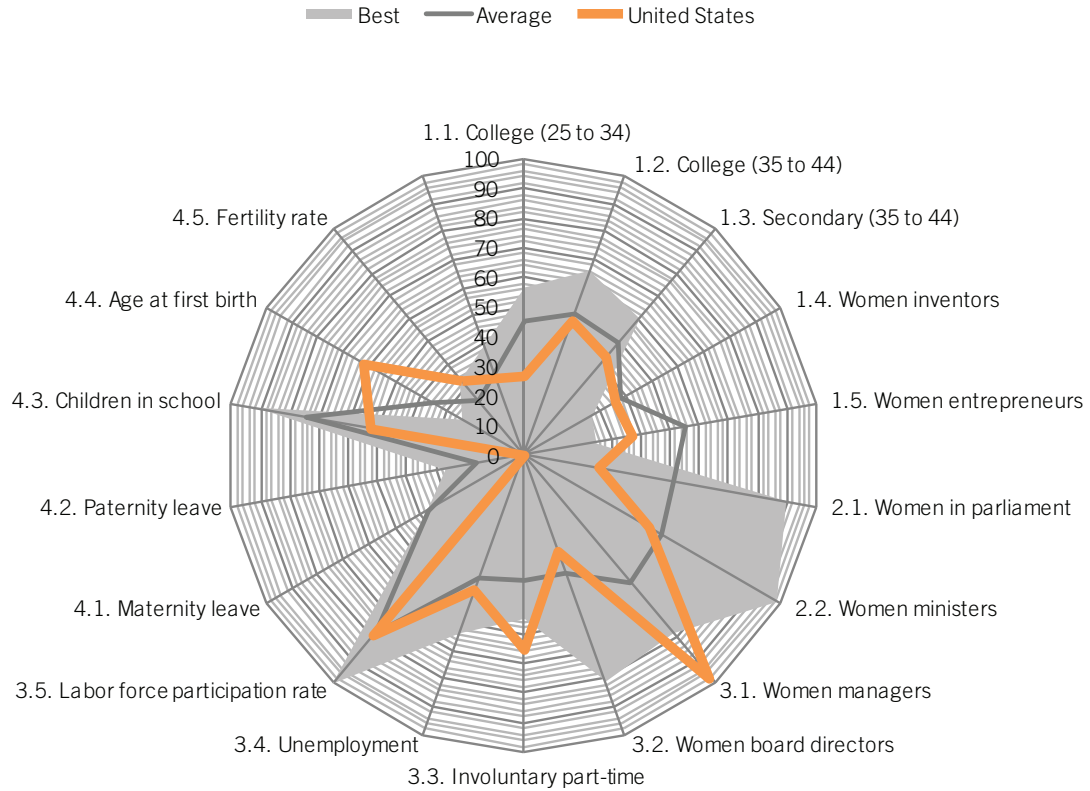
Turkey ranks 34th overall on the I-WIL Index, the same position it held on the 2006 ranking. It is among the lowest-ranked countries in all dimensions: social leadership (27th) and political and business leadership (33rd). As for indicators, Turkey obtains an exceptionally good score on “involuntary part-time work.”

United Kingdom



The United Kingdom ranks 10th overall on the I-WIL Index, down three places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, the country scores highest on social leadership (2nd) and business leadership (6th). It ranks 16th on political leadership and 29th on personal leadership. As for indicators, it obtains the highest score of any of the countries on “maternity leave.”

United States



The United States ranks 24th overall on the I-WIL Index, a drop of six places from its 2006 ranking. On specific dimensions, it scores highest on business leadership (5th). However, on personal, political and social leadership it occupies positions near the bottom of the ranking (26th, 27th and 30th, respectively). As for indicators, the country ranks second on “women managers,” fourth on “involuntary part-time work,” and fifth on “age of first birth.”

14. Six Proposals

Results on the I-WIL Index indicate that there is a clear need for policies, programs, and short- and long-term measures to improve the situation, especially as regards women's business and social leadership. We offer six proposals:

- 1. Encouraging childbearing.** The I-WIL Index shows an increase (from 2006 to 2018) in the average age at which women have their first child. This has a direct impact on parental decisions about whether to have more children and therefore partly explains the country's low fertility rate. It is important to raise awareness of the benefits of not delaying childbearing and ensure that women who decide to become mothers do not incur a motherhood penalty in the workplace.
- 2. Promote corporate family responsibility.** Many companies continue to see employees as just another resource and motherhood as a drag on performance. However, numerous studies show that flexibility and corporate family responsibility (CFR) facilitate work-life balance and boost commitment and productivity. It is therefore necessary to facilitate work arrangements that are flexible in time and location, focus on talent rather than on employees spending long hours in the workplace, and provide managers with training on how to handle flexible working arrangements.
- 3. Promote female leadership and value its benefits.** Today, many companies and organizations are aware of the need to have diverse, multidisciplinary management teams. Numerous studies report that having women in middle and upper management has a positive impact on company performance. The low percentage of women managers still in many countries shows that the real practices of companies in the country fall far short when it comes to equality of opportunity, work-life balance, and recognizing the value of motherhood.
- 4. Encourage vocational training and eliminate stereotypes in higher education.** High levels of unemployment and school failure in some countries underscore the need for a new approach to vocational training, along the lines of systems used in countries such as Germany and Finland, which put less emphasis on university training. Steps must also be taken to eliminate stereotypes in fields of study traditionally viewed as the domain of men (science, technology, engineering and mathematics – STEM) as opposed to others regarded as being for women. Female role models are needed so that women are not left out of the world of technology and progress.
- 5. Promote women's leadership in ministries and in senior positions.** Female leadership in senior positions of responsibility is necessary to bolster social leadership and act as a lever for advancing leadership in the other dimensions. Eliminating barriers and facilitating access for the best qualified women is essential to increase the visibility of female leadership and ensure equality of opportunities also in this area.
- 6. Harness women's strong personal leadership.** Throughout this study, we have seen how women, especially younger women, use all their resources to continue diligently advancing in the completion of their studies and other responsibilities. Women who exhibit strong personal leadership—as many do in Spain and other countries in southern and eastern Europe—should have access to sufficient tools to develop their full potential in all areas.

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Av. Pearson, 21
08034 Barcelona, Spain
(+ 34) 93 253 42 00

Madrid

Camino del Cerro
del Águila, 3
28023 Madrid, Spain
(+34) 91 211 30 00

New York

165 W. 57th Street
New York,
NY 10019-2201 USA
(+1) 646 346 8850

Munich

Maria-Theresia-Straße 15
81675 Munich, Germany
(+49) 89 24 20 97 90

Sao Paulo

Rua Martiniano de
Carvalho, 573
Bela Vista
01321001 Sao Paulo,
Brazil
(+55) 11 3177 8221