



GENDER EQUALITY IN EMPLOYMENT

Policies and Practices in Switzerland and the U.S.

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Foreword

Switzerland and the United States are called Sister Republics. Our Founding Fathers shared concepts of bicameral legislatures, a system of states and cantons, and even language from constitutional documents. The only problem was that in structuring these proud democratic nations, the Founding Fathers omitted the sisters from the social contract.

Last century sisters in both countries fought to earn basic protections and the right to vote. Women gained suffrage in the United States in 1919, and in Switzerland not until 1971. Today, women in both countries enjoy leadership at the highest levels of government and private enterprise.

In 2011 the U.S. Embassy Bern convened its first bilateral women leaders conference, “Sister Republics: Building Bridges.” This event brought together the best and the brightest women from each country. By closing, we realized we needed to get a better picture of the status of gender issues in the workplace in each country.

In the summer of 2011, George Washington University began its work. Sociology Professor Michelle Kelso traveled to Switzerland to research documents and to interview corporate leaders, academics, and government representatives. She made enduring friendships and gained the trust of Swiss women and men committed to gender equality.

In Washington, Michelle and her colleagues from the GW Global Women’s Initiative, Professors Naomi Cahn and Barbara Miller, conducted a search of initiatives in both America and Switzerland. They focused on information related to five focus areas: Gender Certification, Child Care Structures that Work, Part Time and Flexible Work Schedules, Quotas, and Mentoring.

The team created a survey in four languages that was answered by more than 1,100 women and men in every region of Switzerland. They elicited strong feedback on gender issues in the workplace. The results are fascinating.

This study will guide our 2012 conference, “Sister Republics: Building Bridges: *An Action Plan for Women’s Leadership*”, where we will ask for commitments from leaders to act. The sisterhood of women leaders will work to pave the way for the next generation of women in both countries.

Our Founding Fathers looked across the Atlantic to learn from each other. When we measure something we inevitably change it. This study helps quantify the obstacles for women leaders in both countries while also measuring successes. It will help our leaders to understand what needs to change. This is our hope.

–Megan Beyer, Chair, “Sister Republics: Building Bridges” U.S. Embassy Bern



Acknowledgments

There are a number of wonderful people to thank for their inspiration and guidance throughout this study. First, we are grateful to Megan Beyer and the Honorable Donald Beyer, U.S. Ambassador to Switzerland. Mrs. Beyer, an award-winning journalist, organized the first ever U.S. – Swiss Women’s Leadership Conference in 2011, which was titled “Sister Republics: Building Bridges - The Next Hundred Years of Women’s Leadership” to mark the occasion of the 100th anniversary of International Women’s Day. Mrs. Beyer invited our GW team to provide an analysis of women’s employment challenges and opportunities in Switzerland and the United States as background for the 2012 Sister Republics conference.

We also extend a special thanks to Cynthia Vance, broadcast journalist and member of the GW Board of Trustees for bringing this project home to GW. Funding for this report was received from GW President Steven Knapp, Provost Steven Lerman, and Vice President for Research, Leo Chalupa. We would also like to thank our respective schools for their commitment to work on this study. Michelle Kelso thanks Geralyn Schulz, Associate Dean for Research at GW Colombian College of Arts and Sciences. Naomi Cahn thanks Paul Berman, Dean of the GW Law School. Barbara Miller thanks Michael Brown, Dean of the Elliott School of International Affairs.

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And finally, we thank each other for the collegiality and newfound sisterhood.

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The GW Research Team

The lead researchers are Professors Michelle Kelso, Naomi Cahn and Barbara Miller of the George Washington University in Washington, D.C. Our interdisciplinary backgrounds in sociology, law, anthropology and international affairs have provided a fruitful combination of perspectives and skills. Our work on this project has been inspired by GW's commitment to create a Global Women's Institute.

Work-family conflict and gender equity are some of the most critical social, legal, economic, and political issues in both Switzerland and the United States. In preparing this report, we have researched the issues extensively, but we also recognize the world of literature still to be mined.

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Executive Summary

This report, prepared for the Sister Republics: Building Bridges Conference, presents findings on women's employment in Switzerland and the United States. It considers the social and cultural context that supports different labor force patterns for women and men. It presents findings from a new survey carried out in Switzerland, and offers a review of laws, policies, and practices in six key areas of employment. Our objective is to indicate areas where changes are needed and suggest directions of change that will enable women and men in both countries to achieve their employment potential.

Gender Equality Challenges in Employment in Switzerland

Wage policy and employment segregation (women working more in “traditional” jobs) underlie the gender wage gap in Switzerland. Women are over-represented in low-paid jobs. Women at the top of the job hierarchy earn less than men at the same level. Equal pay policy is difficult to fulfill. Further research is needed to examine firms' policies and practices. The large percentage of women who work part-time along with women's preponderance in jobs “traditionally” associated with women explain much of the gender wage gap.

Gender Equality Challenges in Employment the United States

The median annual earnings of women in the United States are 77% of men's earnings, although the wage gap is decreasing. Compared to men, women are more likely to have interrupted their careers and to work part-time. Women tend to be employed in lower-paying positions. The largest gender wage gap is in the financial services industry, and the pay for women with MBAs in their first job is \$4,600 less than what comparable men earn.

Gender Equality in Switzerland and the United States: Values and Practices

In terms of overall support of gender equality, the World Values Survey data indicates that the United States, on average, faces a greater challenge than does Switzerland. Both Swiss men and women are more supportive of gender equality than American men and women. Swiss men and women report similar values about gender equality, while American women are more supportive of gender equality than are American men. Women and men in both countries state strong support of women's role as housewives. In the United States, people in the south, especially men, are less supportive of gender equality than people in other regions. These values play out in corporate policies and workplace practices, though in somewhat unpredictable ways. In companies in the Corporate Gender Gap Survey, the percentage of female employees is lower in Switzerland (40%) than in the United States (52%). In Switzerland, 40% of the companies surveyed reported having quotas to increase female employment, while in the United States no company reported having quotas. Differences also exist in attention to salary gap, maternity leave, childcare provisions, mentoring, and barriers to leadership. One similarity is that companies surveyed in both countries reported few women CEOs.



GW Building Bridges Survey

The GW team designed and implemented a survey focusing on gender equality issues asking both multiple choice and open-ended questions in 2011. Over 1,100 responses were collected, with 85% of survey takers being women. On the effect of gender on employment and advancement, women and men were sometimes at odds in their views. For instance, 61% of men did not agree that barriers existed for women to reach top levels of management, while 73% of women believed there were obstacles due to their gender. However, there were some common views as well between men and women, with both genders favoring granting parental leave to fathers and altering school hours to better fit into schedules of working parents. Unity occurred as well in rejecting over the idea of introducing quotas for women on company boards in Switzerland. While men felt more strongly against quotas than did women, 89% rejected the idea as compared to 54% of women, neither wanted to see gender mandates legislated into policy. Many women in the survey felt their parental status negatively affected their careers as they attempted to balance work and family life. Particular issues that appeared repeatedly among the responses were the lack of childcare options available in Switzerland, the difficulty of working around school schedules, and career advancement for mothers by employers.

Assessing Workplace Practices

Switzerland: Gender equality is a Swiss woman's right, and the country is working toward salary parity. Although strides have been made, in 2010 Swiss women still made an average of 18.4% less than men. Contributing factors to gender discrimination include education, training, expertise, and type of work performed by men and women. There are several Swiss initiatives to increase gender equality in employment. One method is the certification of Swiss companies as gender equal – by experts in the field of gender, including non-government organizations or specialized consultants. Certification entails statistical analysis of employment data and an audit of company policies and practices.

United States: The U.S. has strong laws against sex discrimination in employment – protecting against sexual harassment, allowing men and women to work the same hours, and establishing the same retirement age for men and women. Although the United States does not have an official government-sponsored certification program for gender equality, some private organizations recognize gender equality and family friendly workplaces through various means.

Part-Time Work

Switzerland: Part-time employment in Switzerland has been rising recently, and one of every three workers now part-time. Among Swiss women, 57% work part-time compared to 13% of Swiss men. The majority of part-time workers choose their part-time status voluntarily, with half of female-employees working part-time for family reasons, including childcare. Because Swiss part-time workers are paid less than their full-time counterparts, deciding to work part-time also means decreased revenue. New working models such as job-sharing, top-sharing, functional flexibility, and project team rotations for part-time workers could improve their status.

United States: There are 17 million part-time female workers in the United States, or two-thirds of all Americans working part time. Reasons for part-time work vary, but most workers undertake part-time work for non-economic reasons, including childcare, family obligations, or education. Part-time workers in the United States face a number of disadvantages when compared to their full-time counterparts. These disadvantages include a wage penalty and inequity in benefits.



Quotas for Women in Management

Switzerland: The Swiss corporate landscape remains male-dominated, with only 11% of board members and 7% of senior executives being women. Switzerland has no gender quota and no plans to introduce one. Although the Swiss have issued a set of voluntary measures, or “good practices,” to encourage greater representation of women in boardrooms, similar voluntary efforts in Norway failed, requiring legally mandated quotas.

United States: Like Switzerland, the United States has no quotas for women on corporate boards or in senior management positions and has no plans to institute quotas. The United States Securities and Exchange Commission’s requirement that corporations publicly disclose whether and how diversity is considered in nomination for director positions is a step in the right direction, but minimal in comparison to efforts by European countries.

Parental Leave Policies

In Switzerland, maternity leave is up to 14 weeks. Currently, fathers are not granted parental leave. In the U.S., the Pregnancy Discrimination Act, the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA), and various state statutes provide some protection to employee-parents requiring leave. However, these statutes have their limits. For example, approximately 40% of employees are not covered by the FMLA due to its employer-size and employment-time requirements.

Child Care and School Policies

Switzerland: The Swiss education system has three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary. The Swiss school day does not cover the schedule of a full-time Swiss worker. A two-hour lunch break during which Swiss children go home to eat creates a mid-day supervision gap that Swiss parents must find a way to cover. An increase in dual-earner Swiss families may mean that Swiss parents need to look for extra-familial childcare.

United States: School hours that do not cover the workday, school holidays and vacations, and child illness create gaps in which working parents must find supervision for their children or leave them unsupervised. Parental concern over finding supervision for their children may lead to job disruption as well as parental stress.

The Role of Mentoring

Mentoring has been shown to lead to increased job satisfaction and higher pay and increased promotions for the mentee. Successful mentoring has four key elements: supportive and engaged senior management who fund the program and offer to serve as mentors; the program must be clearly structured and integrated with the rest of the company; open lines of communication must be available so that women have easy access to support and advice; and strong monitoring and evaluation are needed to ensure the programs are effective and improved as needed.

Conclusion

Our findings reveal varying degrees of progress toward gender equality in employment in Switzerland and the United States as well as areas where the Sister Republics can work to improve women’s and men’s work-family life balance. Stronger public-private partnership will enhance enforcement of existing laws and policies and promote employer commitment to gender equality in the workplace. Future studies should examine more deeply within and cross-country socio-cultural patterns, attitudinal changes over time, and best practices.



Gender Equality in Switzerland and the United States: Values and Practices

Barbara Miller and Matthew LeDuc

Introduction

Two of the richest countries in the world have much to learn from each other about achieving gender equality. While both countries made progress in the twentieth century, both still face many challenges. Women in Switzerland gained the right to vote in some cantons in the late 1950s and early 1960s, and at the federal level in 1971. In the United States, women gained this right in 1919. Switzerland approved a constitutional amendment on equal rights in 1981, while the United States has not yet adopted the Equal Rights Amendment that was first proposed in 1923 and approved by Congress (but not ratified by enough states) in 1972.

Table 1 displays data for basic measures of gender equality in the United States, Switzerland, and ten other Western European countries. We include the other Western European countries to provide a wider context for the Swiss data.

Table 1: Measures of Gender Equality in the United States and 11 Western European Countries

Country	Female labor force participation (%)	Women in parliament (%)	Female literacy rate	Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births)
Switzerland	76	29	99	10
United States	68	17	99	24
Andorra	-	36	-	-
Finland	74	43	99	8
France	65	19	99	8
Germany	71	33	99	7
Great Britain	69	22	99	12
Italy	52	21	99	5
Netherlands	74	39	99	7
Norway	76	40	99	7
Spain	63	37	97	6
Sweden	77	45	99	5

Source: *Global Gender Gap report 2010*. Andorra data from World Bank.

Despite equally high female literacy rates in Switzerland and the United States, differences between the two countries appear in women's economic and political roles. Compared to the United States, Switzerland has a somewhat higher female labor force participation rate, a higher percentage of women in parliament, and a lower maternal mortality ratio. The United States ranks the lowest on the percentage of women in parliament and the highest in maternal mortality. In both Switzerland and the United States, women's education is underutilized in terms of formal employment and leadership roles.



We first examine data about people's stated values from the World Values Survey¹. We then turn to findings from the Corporate Gender Gap Report². Both datasets provide information on people's stated beliefs and perceptions, not actual behavior.

World Values Survey: Cross-Country Comparisons

The findings discussed here are based on recent data from the World Values Survey (WVS). Because they are a "snapshot in time," they do not indicate trends, nor do they provide insights into causation. The analysis does, however, reveal important similarities and differences between Switzerland and the United States and how Switzerland compares to other Western European countries.

We examined WVS data on attitudes towards gender equality in the United States, Switzerland, and 10 other Western European countries³. These data are drawn from the most recent completed round of the WVS, conducted from 2005 to 2008. For the purposes of this section, we define gender equality as the belief held by members of a society that women and men should enjoy the same rights and opportunities in employment and leadership.

General findings:

- Swiss men are more supportive of gender equality than are American men.
- Swiss women are more supportive of gender equality than are American women.
- Swiss men and Swiss women are equally supportive of gender equality.
- All told, the Swiss population is more supportive of gender equality than the American population.
- American women are more supportive of gender equality than are American men.
- People in Western European countries generally are more supportive of gender equality than are Americans.
- Within Western Europe, the Swiss population is less supportive of gender equality than other people in other countries.

To summarize these points: in terms of stated values and attitudes toward gender equality, the United States, on average, faces a greater challenge than does Switzerland. Within the Western European countries, Switzerland faces the greatest challenge.

By way of background, the World Values Survey includes over 100 questions on a wide range of topics. We selected eight questions that address aspects of gender equality. We present our findings here, with bar graph illustrations for each question showing the percentages for men and women in Switzerland, the United States, and the other Western European countries.

Question 1: *Is it an essential characteristic of democracy that women have the same rights as men?* Swiss respondents, both men and women, rank high on this question (see Figure 1a). In comparison, the United States, both men and women, ranks lowest. About 25 percent more Swiss men than American men, and about 17 percent more Swiss women than American women, consider equal rights between men and women an essential characteristic of democracy. Slightly more Swiss men than Swiss women agree with the statement. In the United States and Western Europe, slightly more women than men agree with the statement. According to Figure 1a, both men and women in Switzerland are the most strongly supportive of women's equal rights being an essential characteristic of democracy. American men's and women's stated values are the lowest, with women being slightly more supportive than men.



Question 2: Which of these problems do you consider the most serious in your country: people living in poverty and need; discrimination against girls and women; poor sanitation and infectious diseases; inadequate education; and environmental pollution? [Note: WVS did not ask this question in the U.S.] Few respondents in Switzerland or other Western European countries see discrimination against women and girls as the most pressing problem for their country, compared to several other problems (see Figure 1b). Slightly more Western Europeans than Swiss do so. This area offers possibilities for awareness-raising, to inform the population about how discrimination against half the population poses both human rights and human resource problems and possibilities.

Question 3: If a woman wants to have a child as a single parent but she doesn't want to have a stable relationship with a man, do you approve or disapprove? Approximately equal percentages of Americans and Western Europeans approve of women as single parents (see Figure 1c). American and Western European men's responses are slightly below 50 percent approval, while American and Western European women's responses are slightly above 50 percent approval. Both Swiss men and women register under 40 percent approval, placing Switzerland relatively low on this measure. By a slim margin, more Swiss men than Swiss women approve of women as single parents.

Question 4: When jobs are scarce, should men have more right to them than women? Western European men and women register the highest levels of disagreement with this statement (see Figure 1d). Among women in all populations, Swiss women (62 %) disagree least with this statement, making them more gender egalitarian on this measure than other women. Among men, American men (58%) disagree least, making them more gender egalitarian on this measure than other men. The difference between Swiss men's disagreement (64 %) and Swiss women's disagreement (62 %) is negligible. The United States displays the widest gender gap, with almost 16 % more women than men disagree with this statement. In Switzerland and Western Europe, the gender gap is less prominent.

Question 5: Do you agree or disagree that a university education is more important for a boy than for a girl? Switzerland, the United States, and Western Europe register high and nearly uniform levels of disagreement with the statement (see Figure 1e). In all populations, over 85% disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. Among women, disagreement exceeds 90% in all three populations. Clearly, people across the populations believe that higher education for boys and girls is important, with women even more positive. Further studies should investigate this strong value in relation to values about career placement and options for highly educated women.

Question 6: Do you agree or disagree that men make better political leaders than women do? Disagreement with this statement is high across the three populations (see Figure 1f). Among men, Switzerland registers the highest level of disagreement. Among women, disagreement is highest in Western Europe. Slightly more Swiss men than Swiss women disagree or strongly disagree with the statement. For both men and women, disagreement is lowest in the United States. In other words, American women seeking political leadership roles face the least attitudinal support among all the populations considered, while Western European women have the most attitudinal support. The male-female differences in Switzerland and other Western European countries may or may not be statistically significant; there may be lessons for the U.S. from Switzerland and Western Europe in this area.

Question 7: Do you agree or disagree that men make better business executives than women do? Disagreement with this statement is high and similar across Switzerland, the United States, and Western Europe (see Figure 1g). More Swiss women than Swiss men disagree with the statement, reversing the trend seen in earlier figures. About 10% more American women than American men, and about 10% more Western European women than Western European men, disagree with this statement. Consistently, across all three groups, women disagree with the statement more than men.



Figure 1a: Percentage who say that equal rights between men and women is an essential characteristic of democracy

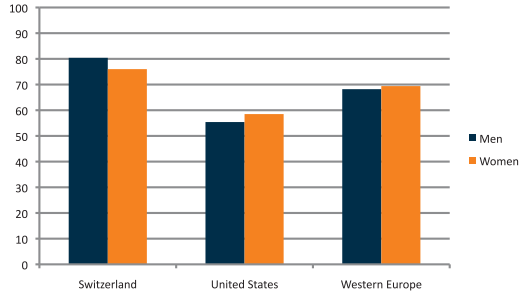


Figure 1b: Percentage who say that discrimination against women and girls is the most serious problem facing their country

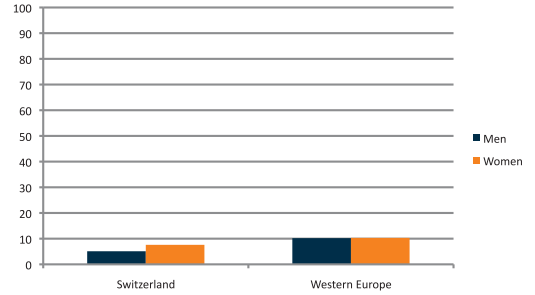


Figure 1c: Percentage who *approve* of women as single parents

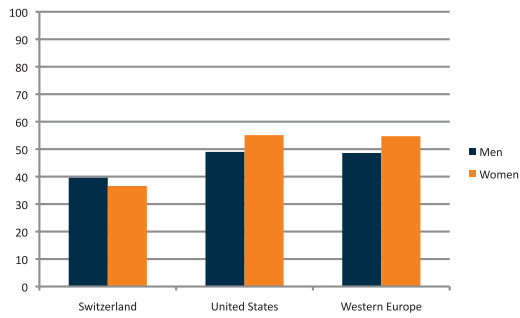


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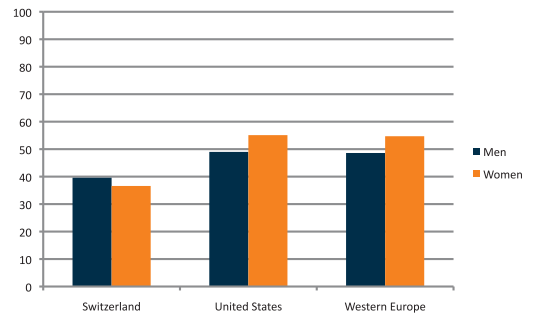


Figure 1e: Percentage who *disagree* with the statement: "University is more important for a boy than for a girl"

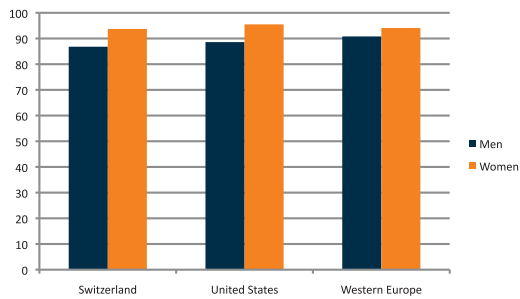


Figure 1f: Percentage who *disagree* with the statement: "Men make better political leaders than women do"

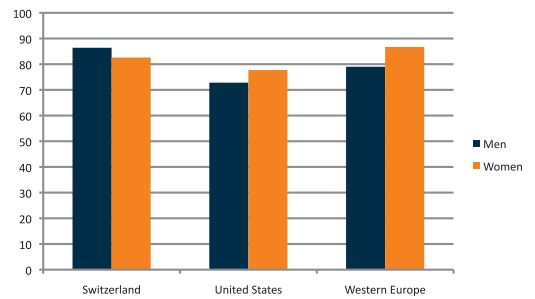


Figure 1g: Percentage who *disagree* with the statement: "Men make better business executives than women do"

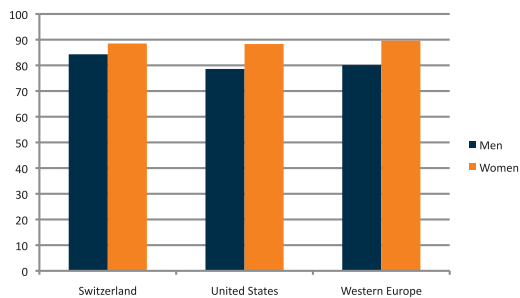
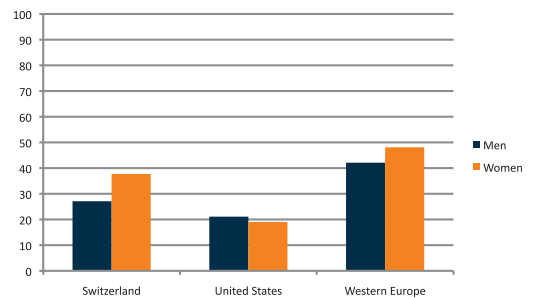


Figure 1h: Percentage who *disagree* with the statement: "Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay"





Question 8: *Do you agree or disagree that being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay?* More divergent attitudes appear in answers to this question (see Figure 1h). Switzerland has the largest gender gap, with about 10% more Swiss women than Swiss men in disagreement with the statement. The gap is smaller for Western Europe and negligible for the United States. Western European men and women are much more likely to disagree than are Swiss or Americans. Compared to American women, nearly 30% more Western European disagree with the statement. Compared to American men, about 20% more Western European men disagree. Overall, people in the Western European countries have a more gender egalitarian perspective. Respondents in the United States are the most strongly in favor of the housewife role as being just as fulfilling as working for pay. Switzerland stands midway. Views about the housewife role offer many possibilities for future research, including studies of how men might feel about part-time work and taking on some “housewife” roles.

Regional Variations within Switzerland and the United States

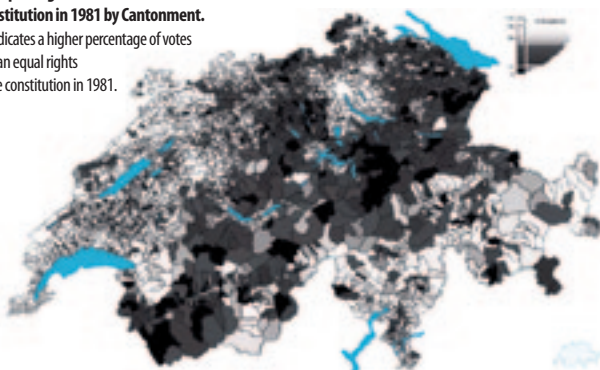
Within Switzerland, differences in responses to the eight World Values Survey questions between Swiss-Germans and Swiss-French, men and women, are generally small. On most of the WVS questions considered in this analysis, there is no statistically significant difference between Swiss-French and Swiss-Germans. Statistically significant differences can be seen on three questions. Swiss-French men (32%) are more likely than Swiss-German men (25%), and Swiss-French women (45%) are more likely than Swiss-German women (35%), to disagree with the statement, “Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay.” Swiss-French men (93%) also disagree more than Swiss-German men (85%) with the statement, “University is more important for a boy than for a girl.” In contrast, more Swiss-German men (84%) than Swiss-French men (70%), and more Swiss-German women (81%) than Swiss-French women (62%), call equal rights between men and women an “essential characteristic” of democracy. Overall, the evidence suggests that Swiss-French men are more supportive of gender equality than are Swiss-German men, but the difference is not substantial.

These findings of minor differences in values about gender equality within Switzerland by cultural group (as indicated by language) are perplexing because clear regional/linguistic differences existed in terms of acceptance of the 1981 constitutional amendment on equal rights (see Map 1)⁴. A belt of Swiss-German cantonments, stretching from the southwest toward the northeast stands out as less supportive of the Equal rights amendment. No such clear pattern exists in the WVS data. Several possible explanations exist, none of which can be proved or disproved at this time: the WVS elicits people’s stated values which may be more egalitarian than actual behavior

(as in voting); group differences in values in 1981 may have smoothed in the past 30 years; and the WVS data on various language groups are too thin, due to small sample sizes especially for Swiss-French, to reveal possible differences.

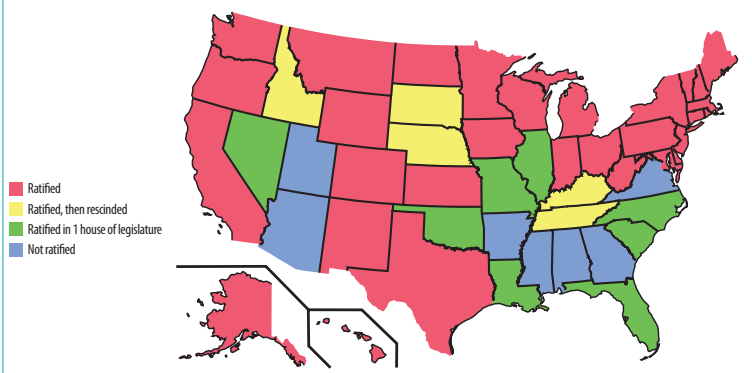
Within the United States, the WVS reveals marked regional differences in attitudes toward gender equality. These findings generally correspond to the regional pattern of acceptance/non-acceptance of the U.S. Equal Rights Amendment (see Map 2). The widest difference exists between the South and West. A gender-disaggregated

Map 1
Support for the Equal Rights Amendment to the Swiss Constitution in 1981 by Cantonment.
Lighter shading indicates a higher percentage of votes in favor of adding an equal rights amendment to the constitution in 1981.





Map 2 United States, Status of Vote on Equal Rights Amendment



view, however, reveals some important differences between men and women in various regions. Men in the South (34%) are more likely than men in other regions (Northeast: 24%; Midwest: 27%; and West: 21%) to believe that men make better political leaders than women do. More men in the South (32%) than in other regions (NE: 17%; MW: 18%; W: 14%) also say that men make better business executives than women do, and that a university education is more important for boys than for girls (S: 17%; NE: 8%; MW: 9%; W: 10%). They are least likely to call equal rights between

men and women an “essential characteristic” of democracy (S: 51%; NE: 59%; MW: 56%; W: 58%).

Among women in the United States, regional differences are less pronounced than they are among men. Women in the South are somewhat more supportive of gender equality than are women in other regions. They are less likely than women in other regions to say that men make better business executives (S: 9%; NE: 12%; MW: 16%; W: 11%); less likely to say that being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay (S: 74%; NE: 78%; MW: 92%; W: 83%); and less likely to say that a university education is more important for boys than for girls (S: 2%; NE: 3%; MW: 5%; W: 10%). In summary, the South stands out as the region in which the largest discrepancy exists between men’s and women’s attitudes toward gender equality.

The Corporate Gender Gap Survey: Swiss-U.S. Comparisons

The World Economic Forum’s Corporate Gender Gap Survey provides a new (2010) source of data and insights into perceived attitudes toward gender equality among employers in some of the largest corporations around the world.

Findings are presented in these categories: representation of women in business, measurement and target setting (including quotas), work-life balance practices, mentorship and training, and barriers to leadership. Comparing data from all companies in the survey, The Corporate Gender Gap Report summarizes its findings as: “general norms and cultural practices” of a country and “masculine/patriarchal corporate culture” are the two biggest barriers to women’s advancement to senior positions within companies.⁵ The Report states that these two factors outrank 13 others, including women’s lack of networks and mentoring, lack of targets for women’s participation, and lack of childcare facilities.

Female employment and quotas: Several differences between Switzerland and the United States stand out in this area. In Switzerland, the approximate percentage of female employees overall is 40%, while in the United States it is 52%. In response to the question about whether a company has targets, quotas, or other affirmative action policies to increase the percentage of women in senior management positions, in Switzerland 40% of companies reported yes, while none reported yes in the United States.

Salary gap: In response to the question about whether the company monitors and tracks salary differences between male and female employees, 36% of Swiss responses state that there are “no salary gaps” while zero percent of American companies report no salary gap. Nine percent of Swiss companies report that tracking male-female



salary gaps is not part of their policy, while 25% of U.S. companies report no such policy.

Maternity leave: Maternity leave policies reveal further differences, with Swiss companies offering more weeks of leave and higher percentages of salary paid during leave. Swiss companies, however, offer fewer benefits in terms of longer-term leave and/or career breaks for parents and/or caregivers.

Child-care: Provision of on sight child-care facilities also differs between the two countries, with 55% of Swiss companies providing permanent facilities compared to 20% in the U.S. Eighteen percent of Swiss companies provide occasional or part-time child care facilities compared to 30% of U.S. companies.

Mentoring: In terms of company-sponsored mentoring, Swiss companies do worse compared to U.S. companies. One point of similarity between companies surveyed in the two countries is that they all report having no female CEOs.

Barriers to leadership: Responses to the question about barriers to leadership, in both countries, name “masculine/patriarchal culture and corporate culture” as the leading barrier. Beyond that, little consistency in the other top barriers exists. Swiss companies name: lack of childcare facilities, lack of role models, general norms and cultural practices in the country, and lack of mentoring or participation of women. U.S. companies, likewise, point to general norms and cultural practices in the country, but then include lack of adequate “re-entry” opportunities, lack of adequate work-life balances, and lack of flexible work solutions.

Overall: Swiss companies place lack of childcare facilities as number two, while U.S. companies rank it twelfth out of 16 barriers. More agreement exists about the least important barriers, with respondents in both countries agreeing that inadequate labor laws and regulations in their country constitute the least important barrier.

Summary

The findings presented here from the World Values Survey contribute to an understanding of men and women’s values about gender equality in employment and leadership in Switzerland, the United States, and ten Western European countries. They show that, in general, Switzerland is more gender egalitarian than the United States and less gender egalitarian than other Western European countries. It is unclear as to whether or not substantial regional variations in attitudes about gender equality still exist in Switzerland, as only minor differences are revealed by the survey results. As of 1981, such variations did appear to be significant, with more conservative values among the German-Swiss population. In the United States, men in the South appear to have the most conservative values. In most topic areas, women favor gender equality as much as men do (in Switzerland) and often more than men do (the American South). On the topic of women as housewives, wide variation among Switzerland, the United States, and Western Europe exists. Compared to their European counterparts, men and women in the United States are much more likely to view being a housewife as just as fulfilling as working for pay. Within the United States, women in the South are the least likely, and women in the Midwest the most likely, to say so. Swiss men and women are also more likely than Western Europeans as a whole to view being a housewife favorably.

Data from The Corporate Gender Gap Survey, collected from employers in large companies in Switzerland and the United States about specific company policies and practices, offer a more detailed picture of gender equality challenges in the corporate world. Companies in both countries share a serious problem with a “glass ceiling” for women, with no women CEOs reported. One of the starkest differences is the lack of quotas/targets in U.S.



companies, especially for women at higher levels of employment and on boards. Corporate/“patriarchal culture” is cited as a key problem in both countries.

ENDNOTES

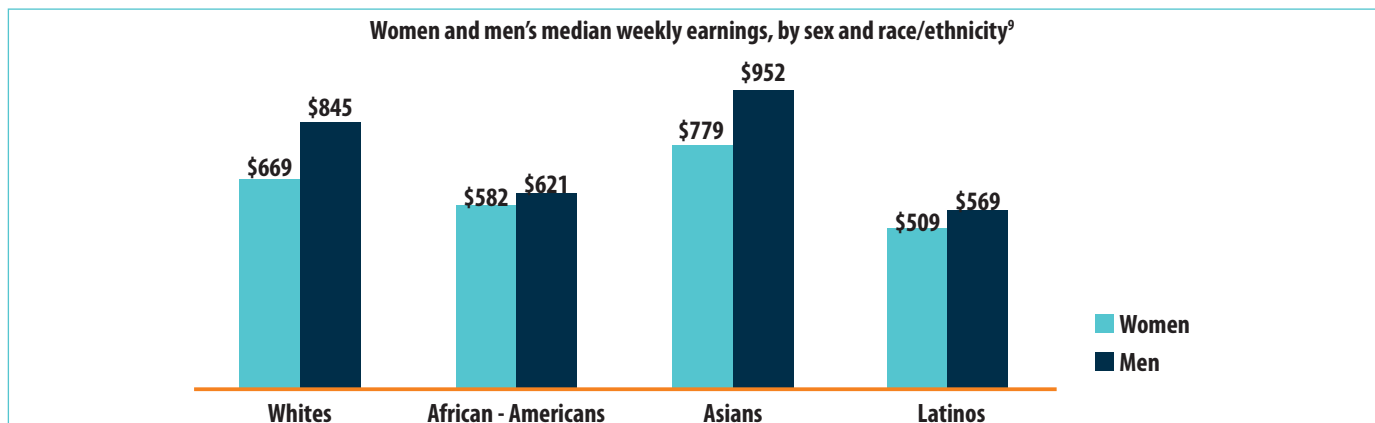
1. The World Values Survey collects data on and quantifies values and beliefs on a wide range of topics including social issues, family, politics, employment, religion, and national identity. It began in 1981 and, as of this writing, is in its 30th year of operation, with five rounds of surveys completed and a sixth in progress. More than 250,000 people in over 100 countries have been surveyed. The data presented in this report are primarily from the last completed round of the WVS, conducted from 2005 to 2008. Further information about the WVS is available at www.worldvaluessurvey.org. A discussion of the methods used in the analysis is available from the authors.
2. In 2006, the World Economic Forum introduced the Global Gender Gap Index, which seeks to measure the magnitude of gender-based inequality in health, education, economic and political criteria, and for tracking change over time. The World Economic Forum then decided to develop a survey to look more deeply into company policies and practices to close the economic opportunity gap for women. They therefore undertook an extensive survey of the 100 largest employers in the member countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and Brazil, Russia, India and China, for a total of over 3,400 companies. Further details on methods and findings are provided in *The Corporate Gender Gap Report 2010*, by Saadia Zahidi and Herminia Ibarra, Geneva, Switzerland: The World Economic Forum, pp.3-5. Available at <https://members.weforum.org/pdf/gendergap/corporate2010.pdf>
3. In this analysis, Western Europe includes Andorra, Finland, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Netherlands, Norway, Spain, and Sweden.
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Catalyst Quick Take: Women’s Earnings and Income¹

Earnings and Income of U.S. Women and Men

- The median annual income for full-time, year-round women workers in 2009 was \$36,278 compared to men’s \$47,127.²
- In 2008, of the 33,905,000 dual-career couples, wives earned more than their husbands 26.6% of the time, up from 17.8% in 1987.³
- In 2010, the median weekly earnings of full-time working women was \$669, compared to \$824 for men.⁴
- In 2010, the median weekly earnings for women in full-time management, professional, and related occupations was \$923, compared to \$1,256 for men.⁵
- In 2009, full-time working married women with spouses present had median usual weekly earnings of \$708, somewhat higher than never married women (\$577) or women of other marital status (divorced, separated, or widowed - \$646).⁶
- In 2009, married men with spouses present had median usual weekly earnings of \$936, significantly higher than never married men (\$608) or men of other marital status (\$761).⁷
- In 2009, Asian women who were full-time wage and salary workers had higher median weekly earnings than women of all other races/ethnicities as well as African-American and Latino men.⁹



- Education is a factor in income – statistics show that higher degrees lead to higher median salaries. For full-time workers data below, men earn more than women in each category.¹⁰

Degree	Median weekly earnings, women	Median weekly earnings, men
Doctoral	\$1,243	\$1,754
Professional	\$1,269	\$1,772
Master’s	\$1,126	\$1,458
Bachelor’s	\$891	\$1,200
Associate’s	\$674	\$878
High school graduate, no college	\$542	\$716



- Earnings for women with college degrees have increased by 33.0% since 1979 (on an inflation-adjusted basis) compared to a 22.0% increase for male college graduates.¹¹
- Between 1969-70 and 2008-2009, the percent of bachelor’s degrees earned by women rose from 43.1% to 57.2%, and by 2019-2020, they are projected to increase to 58.0%.¹²
- Between 1969-70 and 2008-2009, the percent of master’s degrees earned by women rose from 39.7% to 60.4%, and by 2019-2020, they are projected to increase to 61.0%.¹³
- Between 1969-70 and 2008-2009, the percent of doctoral degrees earned by women rose from 13.3% to 52.3%, and by 2019-2020, they are projected to increase to 55.7%.¹⁴
- Between 1980 and 2010, the percent of women 25 and over with four or more years of college rose from 13.6% to 29.6%.¹⁵

Economics of Marriage

The Pew Research Center looked at marriage and earnings data for women and men in the U.S. ages 30-44 in 2007. The study found that in recent decades, the economic gains usually associated with marriage have been greater for men than for women. Women outpaced men in education and earnings growth, leading to “gender role reversals” in marriage’s economic benefits.¹⁶

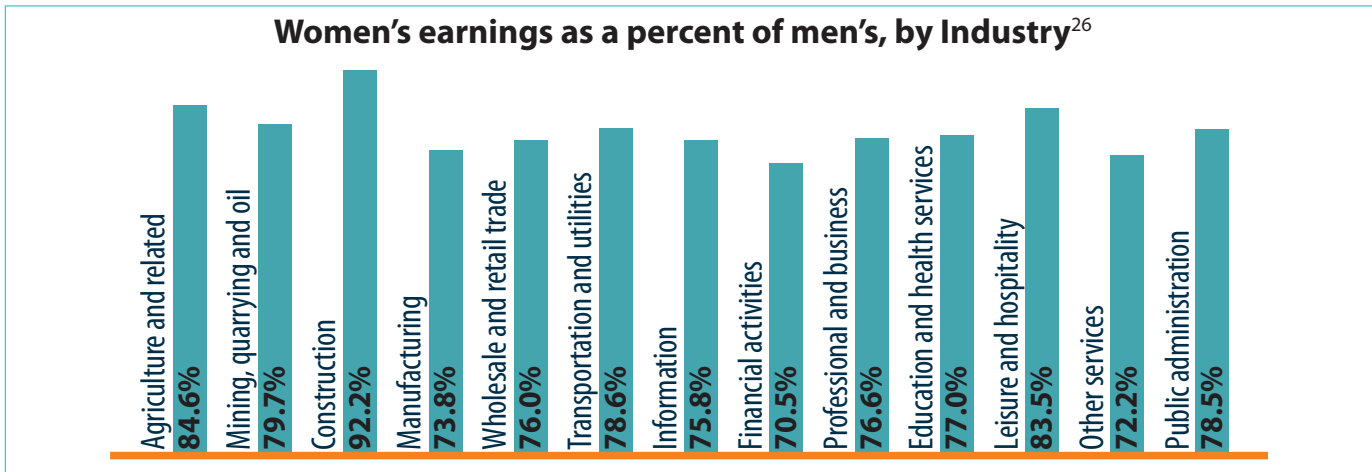
- In 2007, median household incomes married women, married men, and unmarried women were about 60% higher than those of their counterparts in 1970. For unmarried men, however, the rise in median household income was 16%.¹⁷
- Women’s earnings grew 44% from 1970 to 2007, compared with 6% growth for men.¹⁸
- The percentage of women earning more than their husbands increased to 22% in 2007 from 4% in 1970.¹⁹

Wage Gap

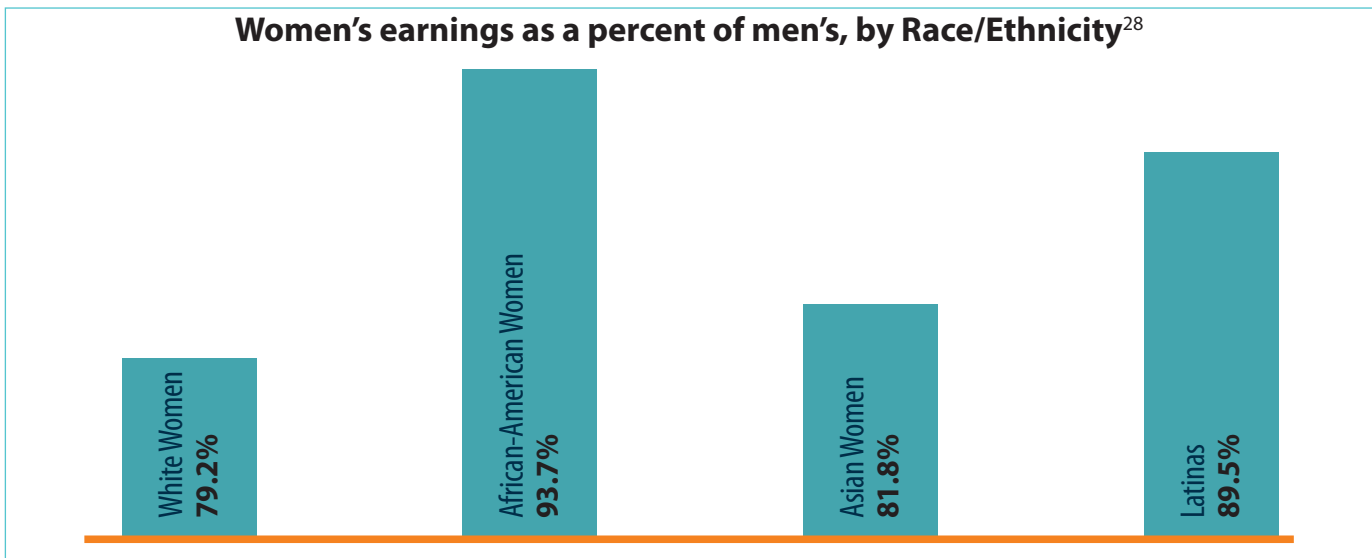
- Women earned 77.0% as much as men in 2009, based on the median annual earnings for full-time, year-round workers.²⁰
- Based on the median weekly earnings for full-time workers, (which excludes self-employed), in 2010 women earned 81.2% as much as men.²¹
- In 1979, women earned 62.3% as much as men.²²
- The earnings difference between women and men varies with age, with younger women more closely approaching pay equity than older women (2009, median weekly earnings), for full-time wage and salary workers.²³

Age Groups	Women’s % of Men’s Earnings ²⁴
20-24	92.9%
25-34	88.7%
35-44	77.4%
45-54	73.6%
55-64	75.3%
65+	76.1%

- The gender wage gap also varies by industry. The biggest wage gap in the U.S. is in the Financial Activities industry, with women earning 70.5 cents for every dollar men make.²⁵



- The wage gap between women and men was widest for whites and Asians in 2008.²⁷



Wage Gap Theories and Research

Although the Bureau of Labor Statistics shows that women's median earnings are less than men's, the reasons behind the gap are highly debated. Some studies state that the gap can be explained to a large extent by non-discriminatory factors and are based in a division of labor in the home that relies more heavily on women than on men. Women are more likely than men to have interrupted careers, taking time off for family reasons (i.e., child care or elder care), and are more likely to work part-time. Women tend to be employed in "helping" and support professions, positions that are not considered comparable in pay to men's work. Women also tend to be clustered in lower-paying positions.²⁹ Women also have fewer incentives to invest in market-based formal education and on-the-job training and may avoid jobs that demand large investment in skills.³⁰



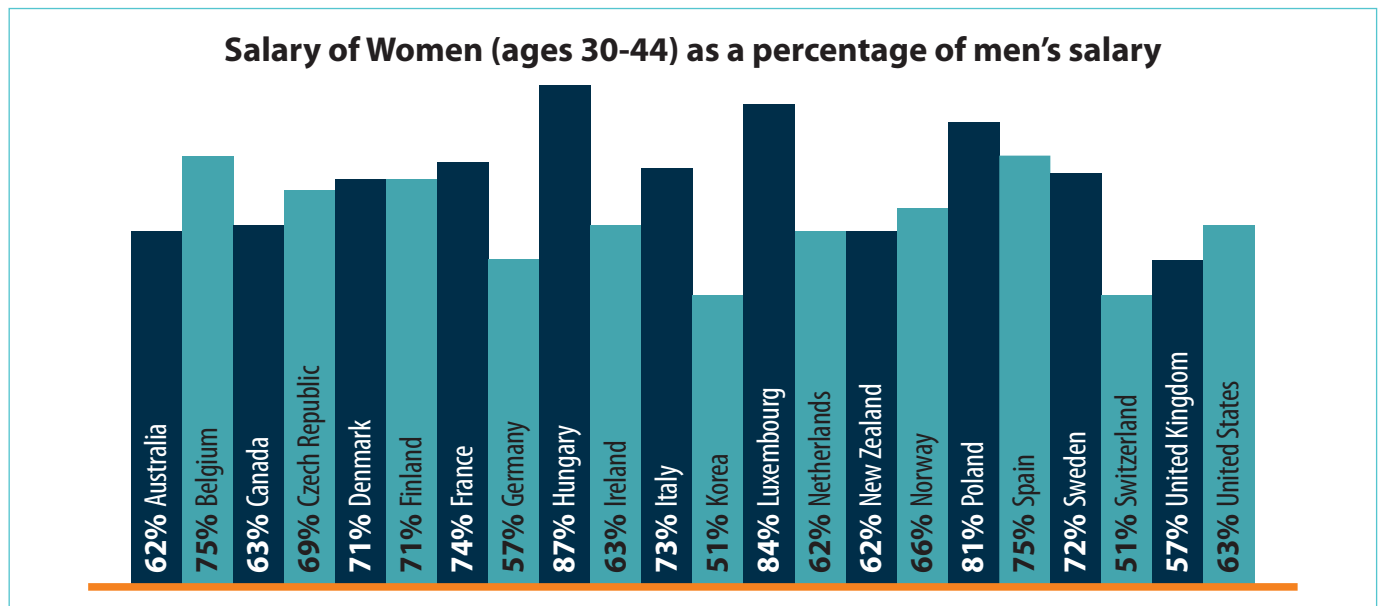
Meanwhile, further studies have found that a significant wage gap exists between women and men even when expected factors like family and labor force experience were eliminated and look toward systemic discrimination as one of the explanations.³¹

Catalyst research has found that women MBA were being paid, on average, \$4,600 less in their first job than men. This is after taking into account number of years prior experience, time since MBA, job level, global region, industry, and even parenthood.³²

The Institute for Women's Policy Research finds that women earn far less than what men earn when measured over many years instead of over one year. Using what they see as a more inclusive 15-year time frame and taking into account women's lower work hours and their years with zero earnings due to family care, they report that women workers in their prime earning years earned 62% less than men, or only \$0.38 for every dollar men earned. During that 15-year period, the average woman earned only \$273,592 (in 1999 dollars) while the average man earned \$722,693 (in 1999 dollars). During that 15-year period, the more likely women are to be married and have children under 18, the more likely it is that they will be low earners and have fewer hours in the labor market. The opposite is true for men: Men who are married and have dependent children are more likely to have higher earnings and work longer hours.³³

Gender Pay Gap Globally

- Gaps in earnings of women and men vary from country to country. The following table examines salaries of women ages 30-44 compared to salaries of men ages 30-44 for all educational levels. Data is for 2004 or the most current year available.³⁴





ENDNOTES

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The Gender Wage Gap in Switzerland: The Impact of Wage Policy and Employment Segregation

Sophia Dini¹

Introduction

In 1981, the Swiss Federal Constitution incorporated the notion of equal work for equal pay, and the first equal wage and opportunity law came into effect in Switzerland in 1996, concerning remuneration and promotion. The law states that “employers may not pay unequal wages to men and women who perform jobs that require substantially equal skill, effort and responsibility, and that are performed under similar working conditions within the same establishment.” Despite the legal framework for equality, women continue to earn less than men in Switzerland. In 2010 the female median wage was about 81% of the male median wage in the private sector, with women representing about 45% of the working population.² Analyzing wage differences between men and women remains therefore an important research topic since equal pay and opportunity policies, as well as family policies aiming at reducing gender wage differences in Switzerland do not seem to have been successful so far.

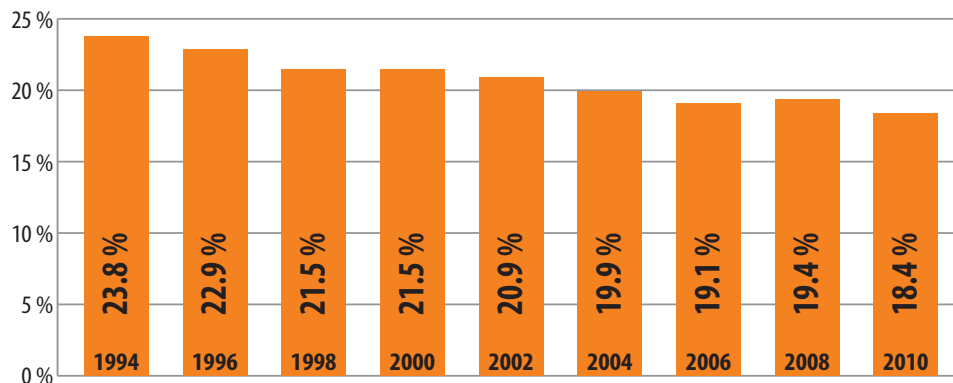
Traditionally labor economists who are concerned with discrimination and segregation issues have focused their attention on measuring discrimination to explain gender wage differences. How can one measure that part of the wage gap that is a consequence of discrimination? Oaxaca (1973)³ and Blinder (1973)⁴ were the first to show how to decompose the gender wage gap into two different components, one part due to differences in personal characteristics (education, experience and tenure) and the other part attributable to differences in the returns to these characteristics, the remaining gender wage gap being the consequence of unobserved factors and discrimination. Discrimination is therefore understood as the part of the wage gap that cannot be explained by the differences in human capital characteristics and productivity measurements. Discrimination is therefore considered to exist when people, who have the same skills and the same qualifications, are treated differently according to the group they belong to, in this case women.

Discrimination in the Swiss Labor Market

In Switzerland, most of the studies on the gender wage gap have focused on the Oaxaca and Blinder approaches. Pure discrimination was shown to be the source of 14 to 19% of the gender wage gap using the Swiss Wage Structure Survey (SWSS), which is conducted by the Swiss Federal Statistical Office (SFSO). However, it is not easy to measure the exact portion of the wage difference between men and women that is due to discrimination. Some researchers suggest that the Oaxaca/Blinder approaches overestimate the extent of discrimination, while other suggest that certain factors may lead to an underestimation of its importance as well (discrimination may, for example, induce under-investment in human capital). Several studies have shown the important role played by employment segregation, in particular occupational segregation in explaining the gender wage gap.⁵ In my research, I have attempted to identify the factors explaining the gender wage gap in Switzerland.



Figure 1 The median gender wage gap in Switzerland from 1994 to 2010



Source: Swiss Wage Structure Survey (SWSS), SFSO.

In examining the statistics, it is clear that women earn less than men throughout the wage distribution. Furthermore, the wage difference significantly rises at the top of the wage scale. This becomes clear when looking at salaries in high-level management positions. In Switzerland in 2010, highly educated women employed in top managerial positions earned 29.1% less than men who have the same education level and the same position. It appears that the differences in men and women's individual characteristics (education, experience, tenure, etc.) are an important explanatory source of the differences at the top of the wage distribution. If we associate this result with those obtained from the separate estimation of wage equations, namely, the education and hierarchical positions of women are less valued than those of men, we note that women are discouraged to invest in their human capital or undertake a professional career as they expect a lower remuneration for their investments. For instance, the reward in terms of salary for a woman to have a PhD is lower than the returns for a man having the same educational investment. As the majority of women choose to work part-time essentially for family reasons, they therefore do not often have access to higher hierarchical positions that grant larger salaries. To the contrary, discriminatory behavior toward women explains an important part of the wage differences at the bottom of the wage scale.

Occupational segregation and more generally employment segregation are not necessarily the results of discriminatory behaviors. Women make certain career choices as a result of cost-utility calculations. In other words, women choose particular jobs that can be combined with their family responsibilities. As such, women are more often employed in lower status, less demanding jobs and in areas that have fewer career opportunities.⁶

To test which differences in occupational distribution have an impact on the gender pay gap, I merged a model of occupational attainment with a model of gender wage differences.⁷ In particular, I was looking at the distinction between the explained and unexplained components of the within-occupation wage differential and occupational segregation. My results were similar to those attained by other researchers in that the importance of within-occupation wage differences was the major source of the unexplained differential. The implications in terms of public policies are important since the magnitude of the inter- and intra-occupational effects indicate whether future anti-discrimination legislation should be directed at promoting equal pay within occupations or at promoting a more equal pay distribution across occupations.

Previously, research focused on productivity differences or occupational segregation to explain the gender wage differences. Bayard et al. (2003)⁸ and Gupta and Rothstein (2005)⁹ provide evidence of the relevance of segregation at



the job-cell level.¹⁰ Segregation at the workplace, relatively neglected hitherto, is likely to have an important impact on gender wage inequality. The main reason why previous studies ignored the establishment level is that there were no data matching individuals to their firms. Moreover, the disaggregation of data to the job-cell level induces a substantial loss of data. However, for policy recommendations, it is important to find out to what extent the gender wage gap remains unexplained when controlling for employment segregation at four different levels, that is, at the industry, occupation, establishment and occupation – establishment (job-cell) levels. If wage differences are mainly explained by employment segregation, the authorities should implement policies guaranteeing equal opportunities in employment and promotion. If, however, the main reason for gender wage differences is unequal pay, even when men and women have identical characteristics, then equal pay policies should be implemented.

I found that the contribution of employment segregation to the gender wage gap is small. Unobserved factors and discrimination attitudes seem to contribute for a larger part to the gender wage differential in Switzerland. It is worth stressing that the contribution of segregation at the job-cell level is large before controlling for individual and job characteristics. The family friendly working policies and promotion policies of firms play probably an important role in explaining gender wage differences.

Study Findings

My findings show that differences in human capital characteristics, such as education and experience, tend to decrease but still explain a large part of the gender wage gap in Switzerland. Women are overrepresented in low-paid jobs in Switzerland. In particular, employment segregation at the occupational activity and firm levels is important but its contribution to the gender wage gap, however, is not remarkable. It is thus important to consider employment segregation when analyzing gender wage gap. Employment segregation could arise from labor market inequalities, such as barriers of entry, education choices, career opportunities, and work time flexibility.

Equal pay policy, aiming at eliminating direct or indirect gender wage discrimination, is difficult to fulfill since it presupposes to define equal work criteria. Moreover, as my results show, women are still overrepresented in specific kinds of employment, such as teaching, administrative, services and medical activities, which are usually lower paid jobs. Men work mostly in male dominated jobs, such as construction and banking, and women work mostly in female dominated jobs as noted above. Any comparison between female and male work activities is thus difficult. One way for policymakers to begin to even out the pay differential thus would be to target pre-market inequalities, such as female education choices.

Equal opportunity policies, aiming at encouraging women to have continuous employment and eliminating employment segregation, seems thus to better respond to the gender wage differences persistence in Switzerland. Due to family constraints, more than 50% of women work part time. Part time work explains a large part of the gender wage gap at the top of the wage distribution. Moreover, rewards of the female personnel are lower than those of men, probably because employers assume that women are less productive than men (because of family responsibilities) so that they face higher costs when hiring women. There is a vicious circle since employers assume that women are less productive, thus women are discouraged to invest in human capital and then give up career opportunities. Policies aiming at increasing childcare facilities are therefore important, as mothers still do much of the childrearing in Switzerland. Moreover, young women still opt for traditional female occupations that lead to lower paid jobs. Equal opportunity policies should encourage young women to consider a wider range of occupational options.



Wage policies should aim at eliminating wage differences and increasing remuneration in low-paid jobs. One response could be the female promotion to higher hierarchical levels even in female dominated activities.

The gender wage gap is still explained by sex differences as shown in my research. Thus, even if it is difficult to compare skill, effort, responsibility, and working conditions required by the job performed by men and women, enforcement of the equal pay policy can play a fundamental role in closing the gender wage gap.

Employers should commit themselves to reducing the gender pay gap. The benefits they could get from hiring women are important. Indeed, with the aging population and globalization, women are both an available and innovative labor market force. Thus, employers should encourage women to invest more in their human capital and to consider their career plans.

Conclusion

My results thus highlight the importance of promotion processes and pre-labor market choices in explaining differences in wages between men and women. Indeed, women are still underrepresented in high hierarchical positions and overrepresented in specific activities and firms. Moreover, for women the rewards associated with the hierarchical position are small compare to those of men. Women are not encouraged to invest in human capital or to plan a professional career since they face visible or invisible barriers that prevent them of being promoted or having better paid positions. Thus, in future research it would be interesting to analyze wage distributions and employment segregation relative to the repartition of hierarchical positions between men and women.

Further studies that examine the gender wage gap in terms of firms' policies and unionization would be beneficial, as these are most likely an important source of gender wage inequalities. I believe that knowing more about these firm practices (such as promotion, continuing education, work flexibility and wage structure) would lead to a probable explanation of a larger part of the gender wage gap in Switzerland.

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Women and the Swiss Labor Market: A Brief Overview

Iulia Hașdeu

Introduction

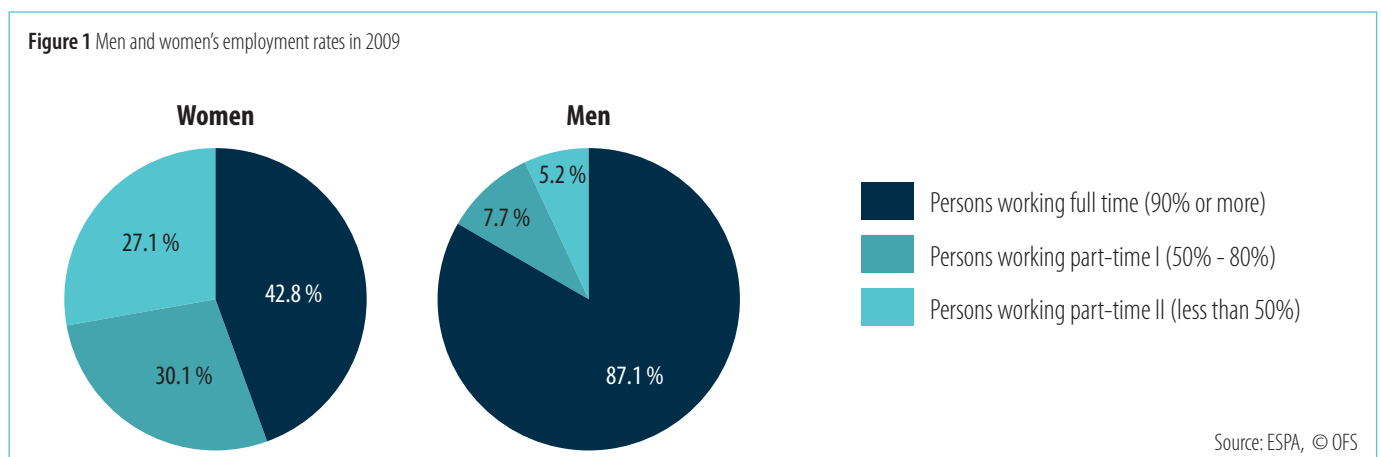
Switzerland has one of the highest standards of living in the world. Compared to the average of the European countries, earnings and employment rates are higher and the unemployment rate is lower. These favorable economic indicators, however, mask deep and persistent gender inequalities in the Swiss workforce.

A 2004 report of the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE) noted that as a result of lower earnings and more part-time work, Swiss women contribute less than men to bi-parental family income. When they become mothers, many women choose to stop working temporarily due to the high cost of professional nursery care relative to their earnings. This publication explicitly says that “unfortunately, ‘temporarily’ can mean ten years or more, as the early education system involves short school programs and varied schedules. For this reason, women often find their professional careers compromised as a result of having children” (2004: 183).¹

I argue in this essay that the child-care system is not the only factor causing these inequalities, but that the structure and the mechanisms of the national employment market itself are also key factors. In examining general data compiled by the Swiss Federal Statistical Office (OFS) and available for the public on the its web site or in their different periodical reports, we can arrive at these other factors.

Women and Part-time Employment

Switzerland’s federal survey on the active population (ESPA)², which is conducted every two years, in 2009 showed that a majority of employed women (57.2 %) worked part-time. In comparison, only 12.9 % of employed men worked part-time (Figure 1).





The gender gap in part-time employment has remained constant over the past 20 years, even as the overall employment rate among women has increased slightly (see Figure 2).

Figure 2 Percentage of active part-time employees according to gender

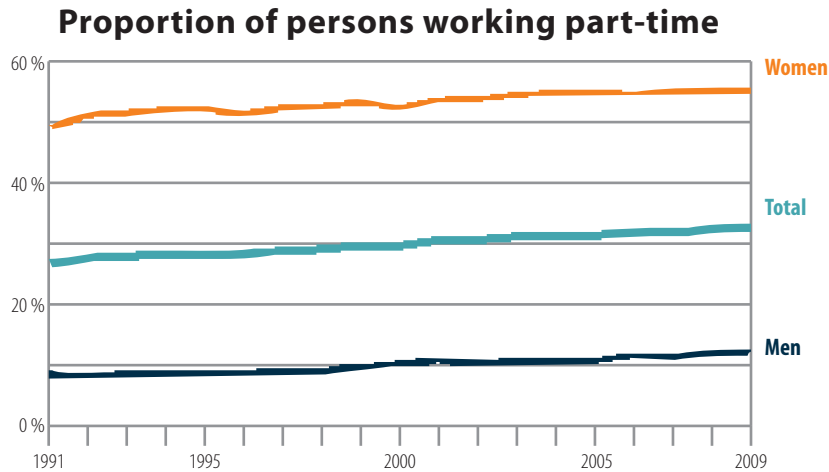
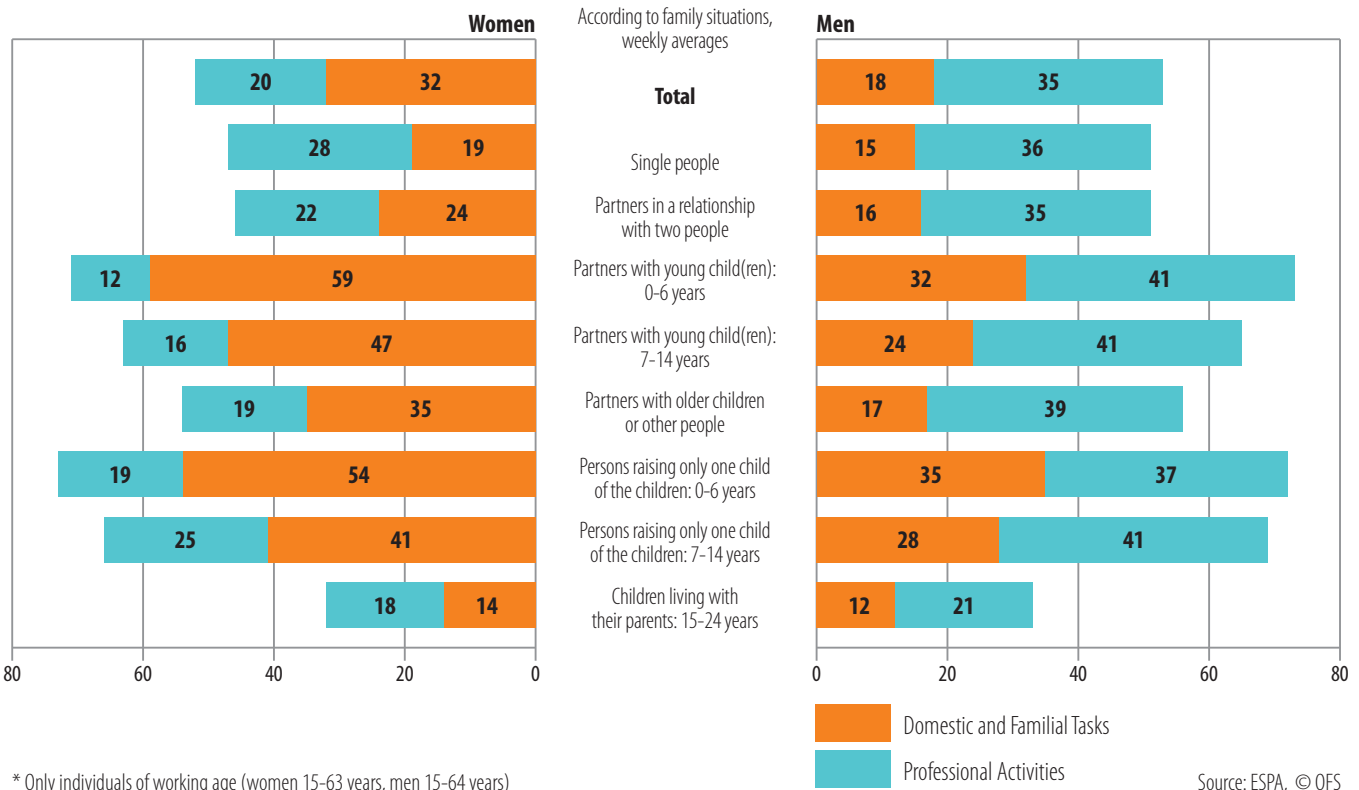


Figure 3 Professional/domestic work in hours according to gender.

Number of hours dedicated to professional activities and domestic and familial tasks in 2007*



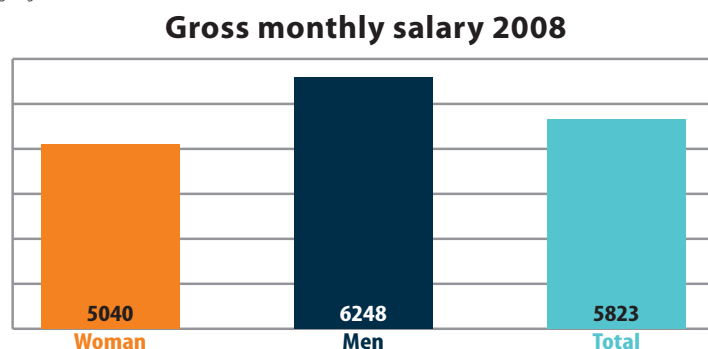


This disparity between employed men and women varies as a result of one's family situation and status. Employment rates are closer between men and women who do not have children (84.4 % for men to 77.4 % for women). With children, the employment gap widens considerably: among parents of children under 15 years old, 97.2 % of men and 77 % of women are employed. The presence of children is a major factor in the employment gender gap. Further, men's employment rate rises after having children, while women's employment rate stays more or less the same. In other words, the data suggest that the widening gap is almost entirely due to more men increasing their employment rates after becoming fathers.

The presence of children in the household works as an explanatory for what feminists know very well, namely that the position of women in the labor market is highly dependent on the time spent on domestic work and child-rearing. As Figure 8.3 indicates, on average women do the majority of housework in all family situations, with or without children. The gender gap in hours devoted to housework widens when the couple has children.

The difference in overall rates of employment and the higher proportion of women in part-time work contributes to a wide gap between men and women's salaries. As Figure 8.4 shows, women on average earn 1,208 CHF less than men per month (ESS, 2008).³

Figure 4 Gross monthly wages according to gender in 2008, in CHF



Source: ESS, 2008

Women's Employment

The wage gap can be partly explained by the fact that the majority of women are employed in health care, domestic work, and education – sectors often characterized by low incomes and part-time, flexible work (ESPA 2007).

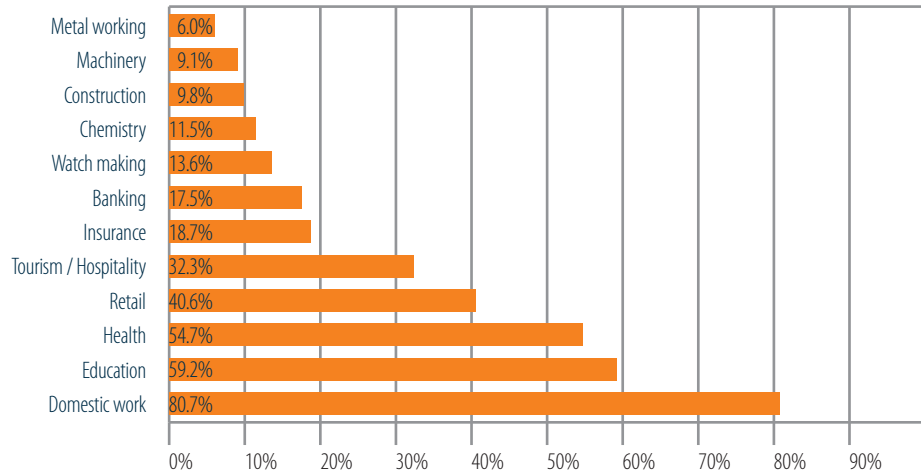
Women's lower salaries relative to men's can also be partly explained by the fact that few women occupy senior positions in companies. As in other countries across the world, the "glass ceiling" is a reality that Swiss women face in their careers.

For an illustration of gender difference in higher education, we can look at public universities and the gender ratios among students and faculty there (see Figure 6 Lausanne University). Among undergraduate and postgraduate students, women outnumber men. However, when looking at the teaching faculty, the situation is reversed and the disparity is particularly acute among full professors.

These statistics support the conclusion that Swiss women earn less, are less often employed full-time, and devote more time to housework and children care than Swiss men.



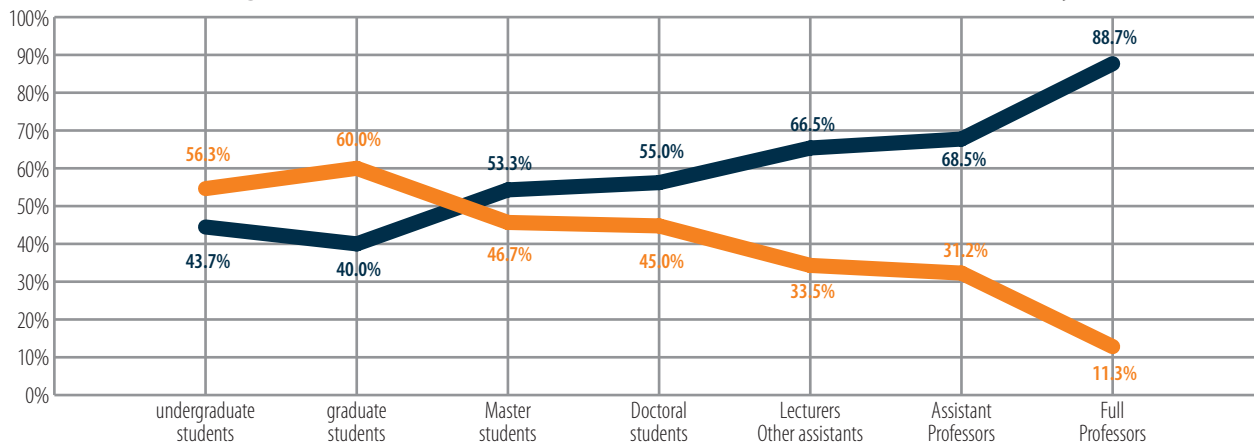
Figure 5 Female labor force participation by sector



Source: ESPA

Figure 6 Rates of women and men in different academic positions at Lausanne University⁴

Percentages of women and men at Unil (Lausanne University) in 2005



Conclusion

To conclude, we can affirm that the Swiss gender gap in the labor force represents a persistent inequality, which raises questions about social justice within a wealthy democratic western European country. In 2011, feminist associations celebrated 30 years since the introduction of the equal salary clause introduced into the Swiss constitution. Unfortunately, feminists and non-feminists alike are forced to accept the evidence that the law has yet to reflect the reality of the Swiss labor market.

ENDNOTES

1. Bébés et employeurs. Comment réconcilier travail et vie de famille, OCDE, 2004. Direction de l'Emploi, du travail et des affaires sociales. Available at http://www.oecd.org/document/19/0,3746,fr_2649_34819_39970643_1_1_1_1,00.html.
2. Enquête sur la population active.
3. Enquête sur les salaires.
4. Fassa Farinaz, Sabine Kradolfer and Sophie Paroz. 2008. "Enquête au royaume de Matilda." La relève académique à l'Université de Lausanne. Lausanne



Building Bridges Survey on Gender Equality in Switzerland

Michelle Kelso

Introduction

In March 2011, the U.S. Embassy in Switzerland hosted a women and leadership conference, bridging the American and Swiss-based experiences of its participants. For this year's follow-up 2012 Sister Republics conference, our team decided to do an exploratory study among working professionals who are or have recently been in the labor force in Switzerland. In July 2011, preparatory fieldwork was conducted in Switzerland to assess what types of conversations were happening around gender equality in the workplace. Open-ended interviews were done with fourteen individuals working in business, government, academia, and civil society, as well as experts in the field of gender.

Survey Objectives and Data Collection Methods

Based on preliminary data collected, our GW team chose to implement a survey concentrating on prominent subjects raised in those interviews, such as the glass ceiling, work-life balance, part-time employment, mentoring, public policies, school schedules and parental leave, among others. Through the survey, our goal was to better understand the perimeters through which women and men have navigated their professional and personal lives. We also wanted to provide area-focused data that could be used during the 2012 Sister Republics conference to better inform discussion. While our endeavor was not a nationally representative sample, meaning that population-level generalizations cannot be made, it can and does indicate self-assessment of gender equality as reported by the respondents, many of whom closely resemble in career profile conference participants.

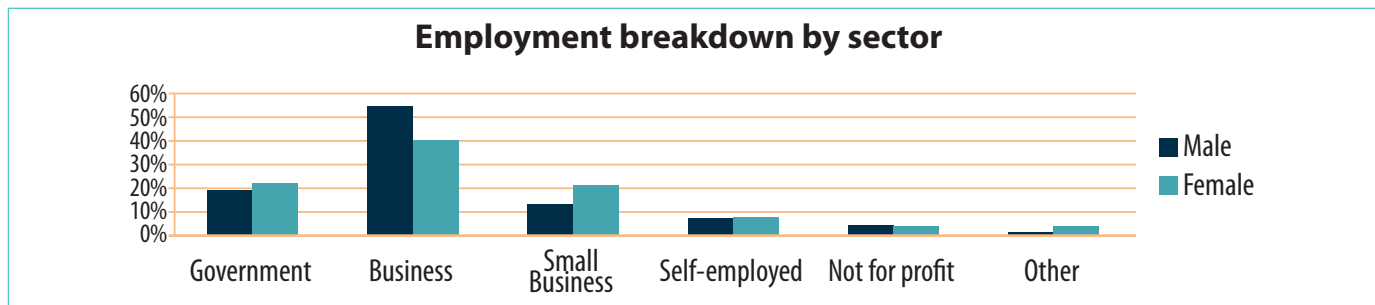
Our survey employed multiple-choice questions that asked respondents their opinions on issues such as whether gender quotas for company boards should be imposed and whether maternity leave should be extended. As we were also interested in personal accounts from respondents, we offered some open-ended questions. For instance, we asked individuals to share their thoughts on the effect gender may have had on their careers. Additionally, mentoring and job sharing were areas that respondents could comment on, however those qualitative views will not be covered in this report.

Working closely with a team at the U.S. Embassy in Bern, recruitment and distribution networks were developed. Respondents were recruited mainly through professional organizations, many of which focus on women. An online survey was distributed over a six-week period in November and December 2011. Originally we intended for the survey to go out in the four official languages in Switzerland. However, after consulting with experts, we dropped the Romansh version, keeping German, French, and Italian ones, while adding an English version to accommodate for any foreign nationals working in Switzerland since many of our outreach participating firms were international enterprises.



Survey Population Characteristics

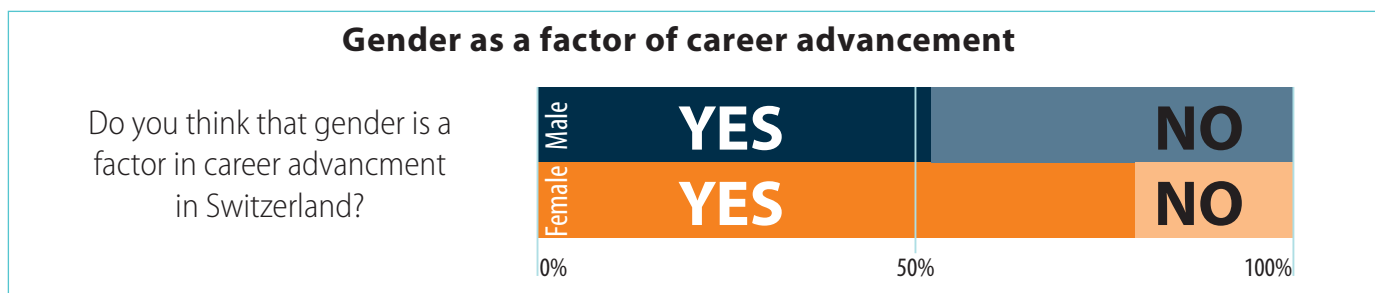
Over 1100 people completed our survey, and not surprisingly given our targeted outreach, 85% of those were women. Over 87% of respondents were in the labor force, the largest concentration of those worked in either businesses or for the government. Individuals reported high levels of education, as more than 70% of respondents had at least a bachelor’s degree, with 57% reporting they held a postgraduate degree. There was a good age distribution among respondents, with the majority ranging in age from 36-55 years old. It is important to note there was sizable representation (34%) among individuals in the 46-55 age range. The majority of respondents were married or partnered. Over one-third, or 34%, had no children, and 27% reported having children over eighteen years of age. Thus most had no children of school age in the household. Among language categories, 63% were German-speakers, followed by 16% who declared themselves as bilingual (mainly German-French), 12% French speakers, and the rest were either Italian speakers, those having declared themselves as tri-lingual, or those with another language spoken at home.



Survey Findings

The Gender Effect

When asked whether gender was a factor in career advancement in Switzerland, there was a divide between how men and women viewed the situation. While 79% of women believed gender was a factor, only slightly over half of men thought it was.



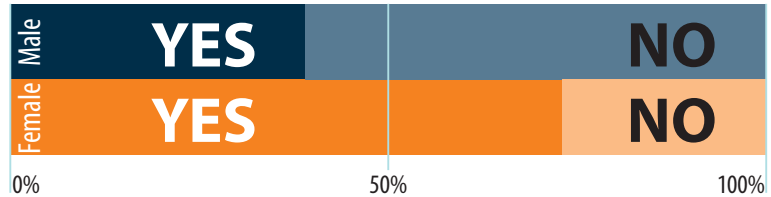
Salary, career opportunities and the decision to have a child were all perceived as contributing to gender inequality for women.

When asked a related question on the effect of gender in employment, there was a clear division between men and women’s opinions. When questioned as to whether there were barriers to women advancing in upper management in Switzerland, 61% of men did not agree that barriers existed for women while 73% of women believed there were obstacles.



Barriers to Women Entering Top Management

Do you think that there are barriers to women progressing to top levels of management in Switzerland?



In 2010, women in Switzerland earned an average of 18.4% less than men.¹ During preliminary interviews, this pay gap was frequently discussed among those interviewed who suggested that this fact was not yet commonly known in Switzerland. So we asked respondents whether a gender-based pay gap existed. Some 78% of women said that that equal work does not mean equal pay in Switzerland. However, only 57% of men believed that women and men did not receive equal pay for equal work.

Parental Status and Career Advancement

Over two-thirds of both men and women reported that having children negatively affected a woman's career, with more women believing motherhood did so at a rate of 89%. Only 3% of women believed that fatherhood negatively affected a man's career, whereas 18% of men reported being a parent was a career setback. Given the inequality in wages between women and men, part-time work being overwhelming done by women, and a gendered distribution of work in Switzerland placing women in lower-paying jobs, further analysis of Swiss women's preferences for a means of achieving equality seems noteworthy. When asked whether school schedules need to be changed to accommodate working parents, over 86% of those surveyed believed that they should, with 93% of women supporting educational changes.

Quotas and Equal Opportunities

Although over half of men and women in the study recognized at least some labor force inequities, neither group supported a quota system for placing women in boardrooms in Switzerland. Quotas have been used as a means of rectifying gender inequalities in other European countries such as Norway.² Men felt more strongly against quotas than did women, as 89% rejected the ideas as compared to 54% of women who opposed it. However, women would like to have the same treatment as men at work. When asked whether they would like to work for an equal opportunity employer, and 93% of the women said they would, as compared to 70% of the men. This paradox of women wanting equality but not through legislative means may be linked to particularities of the Swiss society,³ or it may be part and parcel of what a 2010 McKinsey study found to be one barrier in women's advancement into top management: reluctance of women to advocate for other women, among other motivations.⁴

Parental Leave

In turning to the issue of parental leave, our study yielded interesting findings. Maternity leave was only introduced in Switzerland in 2005. Mothers have the right to a 14-week maternity leave that pays 80% of wages, which is one of the shortest leaves granted in Europe.⁵ Men currently do not have the right to paternity leave in Switzerland, although proposals have been put forward. We asked respondents whether they thought maternity leave should be extended, and whether fathers should also have the right to parental leave. Among women respondents, 59% agreed that



maternity leave should be extended, while 59% of men disagreed with expanding leave for mothers. Most women and men felt that fathers also should be entitled to a paternity leave period. In terms of gender equity and parental leave, a 2010 study ranked Switzerland last among 21 high-income nations since men did not have the right to take paid parental leave.⁶ Switzerland also ranked second to last in terms of generosity of paid leave, followed by Australia and the U.S., which tied for last place. Neighboring Germany, for instance, was one of the most generous countries surveyed, granting 47 weeks parental leave, while Sweden topped the list as having the most gender equality for parental leave.⁷ Even though Switzerland's maternity leave policy lags behind many of its European neighbors, there was a clear split between women and men in our study on whether that policy should change.

Part-time Work and Job Sharing

Half of respondents (50%) in the survey worked full-time, with 64% of the men reporting that they did so as compared to 48% of the women. The greatest concentration of part-time workers was in the 46-55 years category, which was more than double the figure of those in the 26-35 age bracket. One-third of women reported working part-time, and they were nearly twice as likely to have partial work contracts than were men. Of those reporting part-time employment, 72.5% had children at home. Respondents working for the government were the largest segment reporting part-time work (52%), while the not-for-profit section had the least amount of part-time employees (28.9%). The effect of education among part-time employees held fairly steady across levels of those who held university or post-university degrees (28% and 29% respectively). However, education had a greater effect on part-time employment among those having finished training programs (33.1%) and individuals having only a high school education (38.6%).

When asked about job sharing opportunities at their current place of employment, there was little difference between men and women, as around one-third of both declared having the opportunity to job share. Women were more attracted to job sharing opportunities than men, as 60% said if given the chance they would be interested, whereas only 33% of men felt the same way. More government employees, almost half, reported that they had the opportunity to job share, while fewer than one-third of private sector employees said that this was an option at their workplace.

Mentoring

In preliminary interviews, almost all respondents discussed the idea of mentoring as a way to move women forward in leadership and management positions. To gauge how many in our study population were mentored, we asked them about their experiences. More than half of the women and men had never been mentored in their careers, with women reporting less mentoring than did men. Thirty percent of women were mentored, while 40% of men had mentoring. Age had a significant effect on mentoring. Those in the 26-35 age bracket had the most mentoring, at 45.6%, while that figure dropped nearly in half to 23% for the 56-65 age category.

The Effects of Gender on Careers: Qualitative Assessments

In open-ended questions, we gave respondents opportunities to comment on how gender has affected their careers. For the most part, there was a clear distinction between how men and women felt gender had affected their employment. Women tended to report negative associations with gender and career advancement, while men tended to report positive associations.⁸ Themes emerged from the data, such as gender-based wage discrimination, family sacrifices, sexual harassment in the workplace, and partner/spousal support, among others. Two themes that were dominant around career advancement will be explored in this report: penalization due to motherhood, and



penalization due to being a woman. In the former category, women wrote that as mothers, they had to shift to part-time work, they sacrificed career advancement to focus on family commitments, and they believed employers passed them for promotions for having children. Men generally did not comment on any parental effects, and when they did, it was seldom viewed as a career setback. In the latter category, women wrote about feeling penalized due to their gender. They commented on being evaluated based on their sex rather than their job performance, feeling pressure to sacrifice having children, and being passed up for promotions by employers.

The Penalty of Motherhood

Many of the comments offered by women stated that their parental status negatively affected their careers as they attempted to balance work and family life. Particular issues that appeared repeatedly were lack of childcare options available in Switzerland and the difficulty of working around school schedules, a topic which was often raised in comments. Women reported that these circumstances forced them to work part-time or not at all, which meant that in many cases, there were career consequences. Indeed, it was often hard for our team to separate in comments the idea of part-time work and the disadvantages of motherhood on careers, as the two were frequently linked:

After giving birth to my children, for me only part-time employment was possible. In our home[town] there were no childcare facilities outside of school hours, so [we] resorted to private [help] and help [from] relatives. Otherwise, an occupation would have been utterly impossible due to the catastrophic school timetables.

It is difficult in Switzerland to have children and build a career. As a single parent anyway. At schools there are still no cafeterias. Lunches for the children [have] to be privately organized.

A woman is more likely to make sacrifices for her children (or follow her husband!) than (most) men. In Switzerland, the lack of nursery places and high cost is an issue, as well as school hours (no support over the noon and afternoon).

Several women commented on the high cost associated with private childcare and the possible effect on their careers:

Childcare is expensive, restricted in respect of available places. A 12-week school vacation vs. a 5 week work vacation is unrealistic for working families, unless better vacation programs are provided. School hours are also complicated. Part-time or reduced % [of work] to accommodate school timetables is not granted easily, and not for management positions.

Privately organized [care] means that a full-time nanny must be present. These costs are not now tax deductible by the state. I have always seen this as a clear disadvantage for women with children.

Worst discrimination factor is the cost of external [child] support....Means that working with children is not worthwhile.

Lack of Career Advancement

Some women noted that they felt employers viewed them differently because they were mothers. They wrote about having to accept less responsibility at work, being denied promotions, and being questioned on their ability to commit to a job. Several women mentioned sacrificing having children to continue with their jobs.



Working-moms mentioned making career sacrifices. Women clearly felt they had choices to make regarding family or work:

With the birth of my daughter my career was over. There are no part-time jobs for highly qualified women.

Since the birth of the children I work part-time... this naturally has an effect on career development. You cannot have an equally responsible position.

Many of the respondents mentioned that they worked part-time, which also factored into how they were perceived at work by employers:

Passed over for promotion because didn't return to work full-time after giving birth, have been rated poorly because 40% job [part-time] doesn't match up well vs. other people's 100% roles [full time] in terms of responsibility.

Especially during pregnancy/infant stage, placed "on hold" by the employer, ie: delayed promotions, or not at all.

Since our daughter was born, I've reduced [my workload] to 60%. I am thus not as productive as my colleagues and had to reduce the number of my responsibilities. I also have the impression that my manager does not want to give me certain responsibilities because I am less frequently at the office.

Additional Screening in the Hiring Process

Some women reported that while on job interviews, their qualifications and/or commitment to the job were questioned by potential employers due to their status as mothers:

At job interviews, I was often asked the following question: on your CV, we found that you have three children. Can you imagine being able to accept a 100 percent [full-time] job?

Question in an interview: "[You] have children. Can you perform the requirements of this place at all?"

At every job interview I was asked, "And how you do it with the kids?" I doubt that [a] man must disclose this. I often have to justify why I work 100%.

The Penalty of Womanhood

The Glass Ceiling

Several women commented on facing a glass ceiling at the workplace. They wrote that:

[When applying for] the next higher-level position, I was rejected primarily because I was a woman [and] did not match the image of the recruitment. It is difficult for a woman to move ahead at a certain level.

The glass ceiling still exists in Switzerland. The division of labor is still wishful thinking, both in the mind [and] in reality!

I have often observed... if [women] come up against the glass ceiling, they drift off into independence. It seems to me



that [this is] one important reason why large companies have so few women on the team. A quota system could help.

Medium-sized, pure Swiss Enterprises prefer a man [more] than a woman [in] the selection for management positions. At some point, I have no chance of a leadership position.

Equal Pay

Equal pay for equal work has not yet been achieved in the Swiss labor market despite strong legislation to promote pay parity. While a few men did comment on equal pay, either generally to note that it wasn't a problem in their workplace or that they recognized it was a problem, women frequently pointed to gender-based inequalities. Women wrote about their experiences of receiving less pay than male colleagues with similar jobs:

[I] was a financial manager for big corporation for 15 years until 2009, lots of satisfaction, high [ranking] on the career level, never got a company car and earned a few thousand less than man in same position.

My boss told me during a salary negotiation that I would get more if I were a man.

While working in government, I knew that my colleague had a salary higher than mine. . . . we were hired at the same time, had the same training and same specifications. I also had the feeling of not being [offered] another job because I was a woman, had to work with men (police). I had higher skills and better training than the man who took the job.

Attitudes About Women in the Workforce

Another common sub-theme to emerge focused on attitudes concerning women and work. In their comments, many women wrote about navigating their careers in a traditional male-dominated work environment, which they felt had impeded their job trajectories. Or as one woman said when referring to the echelon of higher management: "Classic men's society." Comments ranged from being left out due to male-only networking circles to having gender-biased evaluations that under-rated the type of work that women did at their jobs. Several women mentioned having to "prove" their worth to their employers, while their male colleagues were rarely, if at all, questioned on their abilities due to their gender. Some women wrote:

The evaluation of the work is done by men, since the majority of bosses are men. This affects the evaluation. Women get top marks with adjectives such as "loyal" and "reliable," but rarely "professional and know[ledgeable]."

Communication differences between men and women are viewed negatively (women depicted as shy); social skills of women are not adequately assessed, not seen as an opportunity for a new leadership culture.

In my business there was a kind men's club to which I had no access, but my male peers already [had]. I think some old-fashioned men see me as less competent even though I am trained and work better than the men with whom I compare myself. . . . Swiss women in leadership positions do not exist in my environment.

A few women commented on negative cultural stereotypes about working mothers in Swiss society. As late as 2000, in one-third of families, the father was the sole earner, and in half of families, the father was the only one with full-time employment.⁹ Slightly more than one per cent of those surveyed reported that partners shared equally



income earning, housework and childcare.¹⁰ In our survey, two-thirds of respondents felt that both parents should share equally in childrearing.

Working part-time

Over one-third of women in the survey worked part-time, many seeking it as an option if they had children. However, not all employers grant the possibility of doing so. Part-time work was clearly viewed as a conundrum by those women surveyed who want to take care of their families and to advance in their professions, as they mentioned that often time part-time employment stalled or even killed a career. Some women wrote:

Part-time work makes it difficult [for a] career. The various working time models in the society are not accepted the same. Only those who work 100% are regarded as a possible line manager, successor to leadership, etc.

I work part-time and I was definitely penalized in my last company for this. Even though I had far more experience and education than others on the team, I was told to report to a younger woman without children and “train” her.

Conclusion

The GW team implemented a survey concentrating on prominent subjects such as the glass ceiling, work-life balance, part-time employment, mentoring, public policies, school schedules and parental leave. A majority of both women and men participating in the survey identified gender as a factor affecting career advancement. Several factors combine to diminish the career opportunities for Swiss women, including scarcity of child care options, which affects women more as they are still seen by society as main child care providers, the discrimination against people in part time jobs, the pre-employment discrimination, the persisting gender gap in pay and the glass ceiling. Creative methods should be considered to improve women’s access to the labor market, including extending school programs to accommodate the parents working program, state subsidies for the cost of post-school childcare for low income families, improving the rights of part time workers, programs such as job sharing, increasing the presence of women in high positions through mentoring, etc.

The strong indication of Swiss both men and women in preferences for equity in contribution to the household and in access to the labor market show that Swiss society could be open to adopting new methods of encouraging the presence of women in the workforce, and the success of some of these methods in other European Union states may provide the benchmarks for a more active social policy in regard to women in the workplace in Switzerland.

ENDNOTES

1. “Swiss salary survey 2010.” Swiss Federal Statistical Office. Available at <http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/en/index.html>
2. In 2003, Norwegian state mandated that at least 40% of company boards had to be women. Firms were given five years to comply. By 2011, the state has surpassed its goal, with some 42% of boards being comprised of women. For more information, see:
3. For more on this, see Krone-Germann, Irenka. 2011. Part-Time Employment in Switzerland. Relevance, Impact and Challenges. Berne: Peter Lang Ed., pp.179-181.
4. “Women Matter 2010. Women at the Top of Corporations: Making it Happen.” 2010, p. 6. McKinsey & Company. Accessible at <http://www.mckinsey.com/locations/paris/home/womenmatter.asp>.
5. Ray, Rebecca, Janet Gornick, and John Schmitt. 2010. “Who Cares? Assessing Generosity and Gender Equality in Parental Leave Policy Designs in 21 Countries.” Center for Economic and Policy Research. Available at <http://www.cepr.net/index.php/press-releases/press-releases/european-countries-offer-more-parental-leave>.
6. Ibid.
7. Ibid.
8. A few women did report positive associations, and a few men did report negative associations due to gender. However, both of those groups were minorities among survey respondents.
9. The data was taken from a National Science Foundation Report, information accessed from the Swiss Federal Department of Foreign Affairs, available at http://www.swissworld.org/en/people/families/home_and_work/
10. Ibid.



Assessing Workplace Practices for Gender Equality

In this section, we examine the background and context for the Swiss and American approaches to the issue of gender equality in the workplace.

SWITZERLAND

Measuring Gender Equality in the Swiss Workplace

Michelle Kelso

Key findings from Switzerland are:

- Gender equality is a Swiss woman's right, and the country is working toward salary parity. Although strides have been made, in 2010 Swiss women still made an average of 18.4% less than men. Contributing factors to gender discrimination include education, training, expertise, and the type of work performed by men and women.
- There are several Swiss initiatives to increase gender equality in employment. One method is the certification on gender equality of Swiss companies by experts in the field of gender.

Introduction

Switzerland, like its European Union counterparts, has legislated gender equality as a right, and is working toward achieving salary parity.¹ While strides have been made, equal pay for equal work remains an illusive goal with respect to gender. In 2010 women in Switzerland earned an average 18.4% less than men.² Contributing factors to gender discrimination include personal characteristics such as one's education, training and expertise, as well as the type of work that men and women do, which has an uneven gender distribution across categories of employment. Evaluation of equality has grown across Europe as a means of gauging how well companies are doing in respect to gender at the workplace. In 2010, the Austrian Institute for SME Research reported that 133 gender initiatives were underway in Europe that included assessing employers through labels, prizes/awards, rankings/indexes, and compendia of good practices.³ Switzerland has several public and private organizations that offer gender equality evaluations. Assessment of discrimination concerning wage parity can take two tracts: voluntary investigation of gender equality through evaluation tools, and court-mandated evaluations in wage discrimination cases. While a complete review of all gender equality initiatives in Switzerland is beyond the scope of this report, a few key programs will be addressed.

Swiss Initiatives

The University of Geneva's University Observatory for Employment (OUE) has played a leading role in developing gender wage equality assessment in Switzerland.⁴ In 1996, OUE's Dr. Yves Flückiger successfully adapted an econometric model to test for gender-based discrimination in a case that was being heard at the Supreme Court.⁵ Information employers used to set wages based on employee characteristics (education, experience, seniority, hours of work, hierarchical position, etc.) was examined using gender as a potential variant. The Supreme Court approved



the OUE's model as a valid tool to test for discrimination, and since then this assessment has been used as a basis to develop others. According to economist and team member Dr. Giovanni Ferro Luzzi, the OUE has continued to provide expertise in ten court cases, and has investigated ten more Swiss companies that voluntarily sought the assistance of OUE in determining their status as equal opportunity employers. The OUE also works closely with the Swiss Federal Office for Gender Equality (FOGE), which provides expertise on gender issues to policymakers and courts, as well as promotes professional information and ideas on equal rights at home and abroad.⁶

Several other Swiss initiatives have been designed to test the premise of equality in employment, some of which have developed through the auspices of FOGE, while others have been designed by for-profit and non-profit organizations. One such instrument that FOGE has made available to the general public through its website is the Logib Program, which was developed in 2006 after Dr. Flückiger's methodology. To assist Swiss companies in meeting their gender equality obligations nationally and internationally, FOGE asked Silvia Strub (Büro Bass) and Silvia Rothen to design Logib.⁷ The program uses free software as an equal pay self-assessment tool to discover whether a workplace has an equal pay policy.⁸ Step-by-step instructions assist users with data input that is then calculated to determine pay parity. Guidelines indicate the shortcomings of the program, such as it can only evaluate companies with more than 50 employees and only relatively broad categories of assessment can be used in this analysis. For more in-depth investigations of gender equality at the workplace, FOGE recommends some of its sponsored projects, such as ABAKABA and Equal-Salary initiatives. Created by psychologists Christof Baitsch and Cristian Katz, the ABAKABA method (Analytical Evaluation of Work According to Katz and Baitsch) measures workplace equality using a combination of psychological and statistical techniques in an attempt to move beyond a purely regression model analysis.⁹

Certification labels of equality are another means of assessing employer commitment to equal opportunity. Public authorities often support or initiate labels, with the certification process typically carried out by experts in the field of gender, such as non-government organizations or specialized consultants.¹⁰ Requirements for equality are tailored depending on the size of the enterprise and its public or private status, with larger companies having more strict requirements and public sector entities having slightly different requirements.¹¹ The certification process typically entails an external review of companies that incorporates statistical analysis of employment data as well as an audit of company policies and practices. Enterprises must apply for the certification label and be willing to undergo assessment by external reviewers. Certification can also lead to sustainable organizational change and continued improvement in gender policies. However, the certification process does have a cost and can be time consuming for the enterprise.¹² As gender equality changes over time, many certifications are only valid for a few years and companies are then asked to re-evaluate to ensure their continual support of gender parity.

One Swiss non-profit organization that provides the service of gender certification is Equal-Salary, which received sponsorship from FOGE. Created in 2005 by Véronique Goy Veenhuys, Equal-Salary provides a mixed methods approach to measure gender equality and works in close collaboration with OUE. According to Goy Veenhuys, the motivation for companies to obtain gender certification is to attract more women in to their workplace and to ensure a more productive work environment. Equal-Salary's formulation stipulates that companies must have at least 50 employees, ten of which need to be women, for its certification process to determine pay parity in the workplace. The Equal-Salary assessment is divided in two phases. The first part is a statistical analysis of the company's salary data and uses the company's salary policy to determine whether the wage policy is fair and equitable. The wage level of each employee can be statistically explained taking into account specific characteristics of the employee that are relevant in the company's salary policy such as education, experience,



seniority, and function, among other indicators.

The second phase consists of an on-site audit that focuses on the company's management system: a review of the management strategy on salary equality and its implementation into the human resources processes. Employees are interviewed both online and during the audit to evaluate their perception of the company salary policy. After phase one analysis is completed, if the difference between the salaries of men and women is smaller than five percent, the certification process proceeds with an audit. If not, Equal-Salary recommends that the company correct its salary policy and apply for certification at a later stage. After the audit, if the company meets the requirements, it will be awarded with an equal-salary certification label that is valid for three years. Companies certified by Equal-Salary include but are not limited to the World Economic Forum, Corum Deluxe Watches, the City of Fribourg, Water & Electricity of the Geneva Canton.

The Gender Equality Project (GEP), a Swiss foundation working with the World Economic Forum, has also developed a certification process. In January 2011, GEP co-founders Nicole Schwab and Aniela Ungureşan launched a global certification in gender equality. The GEP certification process is based on an examination of five areas within a company: equal pay for equal work, recruitment and promotion, training and mentoring, work-life balance, and company culture.¹³ The assessment provided is both qualitative and quantitative, and includes gathering company statistics and policies, administering a survey to and interviewing employees, and conducting a pay gap analysis. This approach, according to GEP, allows for a comparison of information from different sources at different levels of the organization, and for identification of gaps in that information.¹⁴ Multinational companies, including Alcatel-Lucent, BC Hydro in Canada, the Coca-Cola System in France (Coca-Cola France and Coca-Cola Entreprise), Ogilvy & Mather, L'Oréal, Pfizer Inc. and PwC Germany worked with GEP in a pilot phase to assess and streamline the certification methodology. Key metrics highlighted in the assessment methodology include the gender composition at different levels of the organization, the gender pay gap, and employees' satisfaction with their company's performance in offering men and women equal opportunities. Project founders believe that their certification will allow companies to proactively manage gender diversity and demonstrate a long-term commitment to improving gender equality in the workplace.

Conclusion

Switzerland, through legislation, strong leadership of public academics and civil society, and public offices such as the Federal Bureau for Gender Equality, has put in place mechanisms for promoting gender equality. As demonstrated with the above mentioned Swiss initiatives, measuring equal opportunity policy in the workplace is a process that can be done using either stand-alone statistical methods, or by combining them with an auditing process to incorporate company policies and employee self-assessment. Firms who undertake and receive assessment can benefit from recognition for the company (consumer appreciation of social responsibility, etc.), better internal relations (higher satisfaction among employees), better recruitment of key personnel (better reputations helps recruit candidates), innovation and creativity, improvement in human resource policies, and increased networking opportunities.¹⁵



UNITED STATES

Assessing Best Work Place Practices in the U.S.

Naomi Cahn and Lindsay Luken

Key findings from the United States are:

- The United States has strong laws against sex discrimination in employment, including laws that guarantee equal pay, protect against sexual harassment, allow men and women to work the same hours, and establish the same retirement age for men and women.
- Although the United States does not have an official government-sponsored certification program for gender equality, some private organizations recognize gender equality and family friendly workplaces through various means.
- For example, Working Mother magazine puts out an annual list of top family-friendly companies, based on a variety of factors including benefits, opportunity for flexible work time, parental leave, and the overall corporate culture.

Introduction

The United States has strong laws against sex discrimination in employment, it protects against sexual harassment, it allows men and women to work the same hours, and it establishes the same retirement age for men and women.¹⁶ The U.S. does not, however, have any official governmental agency that offers certificates or certification concerning the achievement of gender equity or family-friendly environments at companies. A model certification process would involve an external review of companies and would incorporate statistical analysis of employment data as well as an audit of company policies and practices on gender-related policies. The IFC and the Global Reporting Initiative (the Swiss government was one of the project's supporters) have, for example, developed a guide to help in reporting on gender issues.¹⁷

Moreover, some private organizations do recognize the achievement of gender equity and family friendly workplaces through various means. For example, Catalyst offers an award that honors several organizations each year based on their innovative approaches and results addressing the advancement of women.¹⁸ Some U.S. companies are already involved with the Gender Equality Project, which assesses not just policies for the recruitment and advancement of women, but also equal pay, work-life balancing policies, and the corporate culture.¹⁹ And, of course, companies that have family-friendly practices are generally more profitable than companies that don't have them (in part, because companies with these policies are already well-managed).²⁰

Working Mother magazine has developed one of the better-known measurements of family-friendly companies. Each year, it publishes a list of the 100 Best Companies in America. Unlike, for example, Fortune Magazine's "100 Best Companies To Work For, which focuses on paychecks, perks, and colleagues,"²¹ Working Mother compares the companies in a variety of areas relevant to women's advancement and work-family balance, such as benefits, opportunity for flexible work time, parental leave, and the overall corporate culture.²² Working Mother magazine, with a readership of 2.2 million people, explains that it is the only national magazine in the United States that focuses specifically on "career-committed mothers."²³ Companies were selected for the 2011 Working Mother list after submitting an application that included hundreds of questions concerning child care, paid leave, flexible policies, accountability of managers, and workforce demographics.²⁴



The Working Mother Top Ten

Among the Top 100, the magazine further selects a group of Top Ten companies.²⁵ In 2011, the firms earning this distinction were Bank of America, Deloitte, Discovery Communications, Ernst & Young, General Mills, KPMG, PricewaterhouseCoopers, Prudential Financial, TriHealth and WellStar (see Table 1).²⁶ The table below provides a glimpse into the Top Ten American companies' assistance programs and reveals some of the innovations that American companies have launched for their employees, and includes four main areas that the Top Ten companies have focused assistance efforts towards: flexibility in the workplace, health and wellness, child care, and extra benefits.

In addition to those characteristics outlined below in the table of the Top Ten companies, some of the creative and advanced flexible work arrangements offered by the other Working Mother 100 Best Companies include:

- Flex coupons that allow workers to take paid time off in short increments, such as two hour blocks, so that parents are not required to take off an entire day for their children's doctor's visits.
- The ability to shift start and stop times to accommodate non-work related responsibilities ranging from commuting to child-care to eldercare.
- Compressed work weeks so that workers have more flexibility and longer weekends for family activities and needs.
- Job sharing to facilitate job advancement and family time
- "On- and off-ramp" programs that let staffers take long breaks away from work to bond with a baby or go back to school while still maintaining professional connections, skills and even certifications for when they're ready to return
- Phasing-in programs so that new parents can transition back into work on a temporary part-time schedule
- The ability for employees to make the choice to speed or slow their advancement, without incurring any penalties, to help them better balance work and home responsibilities.²⁷

Policies in place that have resulted in the top-10 certification

Companies in the top 10% of the overall group of 100 have developed a variety of innovative practices in an effort to promote work-family balance. Their family-friendly benefits range from promoting employee health, fitness, and financial planning to offering back-up child care. The chart summarizes some of these policies.

Table 1 Practices by Top 100 Companies to Promote Work-Family Balance

Company Name	Flexibility in the Workplace	Health and Wellness	Child Care	Extra Benefits
BANK OF AMERICA Employees: 248,074 Women: 60% HQ: Charlotte, NC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Paid commuter expenses • Two paid hours off/wk to volunteer (13 days/yr) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family Health Insurance (avail. to employees working 20 hours/wk) • \$5,000 pretax health accounts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Paid dependent care expenses • Resource/referral service to locate: nannies, day cares, backup assistance, special-needs caregivers 	Education and Planning Center for: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • retirement planning • long-term financial planning
GENERAL MILLS Employees: 16,803 Women: 40% HQ: Minneapolis, MN	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flexible schedule • 26 job-guaranteed weeks off for birth or adoption (with \$10,000 in adoption aid) • 3 weeks of vacation in first year of employment 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • On-site center cares for infants ages 6 wks to 16 mos • Discounts at 63 near-site child-care facilities • May request backup-care subsidies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Programs to teach officers/directors how to inspire/motivate workers • Training courses • Mentoring circles • Town halls

GENDER EQUALITY IN EMPLOYMENT

Policies and Practices in Switzerland and the U.S.



Company Name	Flexibility in the Workplace	Health and Wellness	Child Care	Extra Benefits
DISCOVERY COMMUNICATIONS Employees: 3,094 Women: 54% HQ: Silver Spring, MD		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Office wellness clinics: free basic prescription drugs, acute care, and primary care to employees and children over 14 Exercise class or athletic activity reimbursement (50% of cost, up to \$50/mo.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Working Families Group (a parenting network) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Workshops on women's finances, home-buying and retirement
DELOITTE Employees: 40,984 Women: 43% HQ: New York, NY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Telecommuting Allows women to increase or decrease workloads Paid sabbaticals 5-year breaks with access to company resources Freelance work Gender-neutral parental leave policies after the birth or adoption of a child 8 fully paid weeks off to primary caregivers 3 fully paid weeks off to secondary caregivers 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pretax commuter, health-care, and dependent-care accounts 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Hundreds of training courses offered on-site Office mentors Mortgage Assistance Program \$10,000 in annual tuition aid
ERNST AND YOUNG Employees: 23,899 Women: 48% HQ: New York, NY			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Affinity groups for working moms, parents, and employees raising kids with special needs Employee assistance program for employees' teenage children going through tough times: arrange counseling, offer dedicated online support group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Firm has over 70 US professional women's networks that hosts: meetings discussion forums, book clubs, lecture, dinners, outings
KPMG Employees: 20,601 Women: 47% HQ: New York, NY Women earned half of all promotions to manager, senior manager and executive in 2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Telecommuting via virtual meetings Parents in the Know initiative: mentoring program regarding pregnancy, birth, adoption, and returning to work 		Seminars for raising children on the subjects of <ul style="list-style-type: none"> nutrition for young children how to help kids do well in school 	Working Parents Group (a parenting network) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> hosts social outings and informative lectures



Company Name	Flexibility in the Workplace	Health and Wellness	Child Care	Extra Benefits
PRUDENTIAL FINANCIAL Employees: 20,023 Women: 53% HQ: Newark, NJ Moms run 3 of the 3 highest-earning businesses Number of women promoted to senior management increased by 51% in 2010	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 9 partially paid weeks off after the birth of a child (working 20 hrs/wk) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Life-coaching program 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership forum in the retirement and life insurance divisions • Tuition assistance • Mentoring • Career-counseling
PWC Employees: 30,379 Women: 47% HQ: New York, NY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows schedule reductions (E.g., more than 1/10 of female client-service partners, directors and managers have cut hours and feel more committed to and supported by the firm) • Full benefits and consideration for top jobs (working 20 hrs/wk) 			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training sessions on <ul style="list-style-type: none"> o navigating the workplace o career advancement
TRIHEALTH Employees: 10,114 Women: 83% HQ: Cincinnati, OH	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flexible scheduling available 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee assistance program provides health coaching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Day-care center expansion in 2010: cares for 98 children, on-site gymnasium, swimming pool, babysitting, and yoga classes • Children confronting tough issues get special help: sessions on how to stay safe at home alone offered to children in grades 3-6; free retreat offered to older kids who've lost their parents • Employee assistance program to locate extra dependent care 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Mentoring initiatives • Leadership initiatives • Tuition assistance • Employee assistance program provides parenting coaching
WELLSTAR HEALTH SYSTEM Employees: 13,046 Women: 83% HQ: Marietta, GA Women earn 2/3 of the highest salaries and oversee most of the profit-and-loss decisions		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discounts on sports and entertainment activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inexpensive backup care available • Deals on respite and full-time care for elder relatives, offered at an on-site assisted- living facility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Executive mentoring (allows women to work on projects aligned with their employer's goals; tuition aid) • covers 100% of job- related college courses or degrees (up to \$4,500 annually)



Conclusion

Numerous companies in the United States have adopted family-friendly policies and are committed to gender equality. No comprehensive, government-supported standards, however, establish when companies have achieved various levels of gender equality, nor reward them for achieving family-friendly workplaces. Instead, numerous private organizations provide measurements of various gender-related workplace issues, and give celebratory awards.

ENDNOTES

1. The Swiss Constitution has guaranteed gender equality since 1981. In 1996, the Gender Equality Act was also passed.
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5. According to Dr. Ferro Luzzi, the first case OUE worked on was mandated by the Labor Relations Board of the Canton of Vaud, which reached the Federal Court (which is the equivalent to the U.S. Supreme Court). Email correspondences with author.
6. For more information, see <http://www.ebg.admin.ch>.
7. Email correspondence with Rahel Zimmermann of FÖGE, who provided me with this information.
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11. Heckel et al. p. 125.
12. Ibid.
13. Heckel et al., p. 19
14. For more information on the Gender Equality Project, see their website <http://www.genderequalityproject.com>.
15. See Gender Equality Project Press Release January 28, 2012.
16. Heckel et al., p. 18
17. See IFC and the World Bank, *Women, Business, and the Law: Creating Economic Opportunity for Women: United States (2012)*, <http://wbl.worldbank.org/data/exploreconomies/united-states/2011#getting-a-job>. The website has comprehensive information on other countries as well, including Switzerland.
18. IFC and Global Reporting Initiative, *Embedding Gender in Sustainability Reporting: A Practitioner's Guide (2009)*, available at http://www1.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/topics_ext_content/ifc_external_corporate_site/ifc+sustainability/publications/publications_report_genders_ustainabilityreporting_wci_1319577300362.
19. See Catalyst, "Apply for the Catalyst Award" (2011), available at <http://www.catalyst.org/page/71/apply-for-the-catalyst-award>. The 2012 winners are the Commonwealth Bank of Australia and Sodexo.
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The Role of Women and Part-Time Work

In this section we provide background and context for the Swiss and American cases of women who work part-time.

SWITZERLAND

Part-Time Employment in Switzerland

Irenka Krone-Germann¹

Key findings from Switzerland are:

- One out of every three workers is part time. Women are more likely to work part-time than are men; 57% of Swiss women work part-time compared to 13% of Swiss men. The majority of part-time workers choose their part-time status voluntarily, with half of female-employees working part-time for family reasons, including childcare.
- Because Swiss part-time workers are paid less than their full-time counterparts, deciding to work part-time also means decreased revenue.
- New working models such as job-sharing, top-sharing, functional flexibility, and project team rotations for part-time workers could improve their status.

Introduction

In recent labor market history, one of the most striking features has been the increase in part-time employment. In Switzerland, one person out of three works part-time. Fifty-seven percent of women work part-time compared to 13% of men. The progression of part-time activities among men and women has also been five times higher in the past years than the work progression for full-timers. This disparity between women and men is one of the highest worldwide. At the same time, differences in education level between genders are progressively disappearing. In an international comparison, Switzerland ranks second just after the Netherlands in terms of the highest percentage of female part-time employees worldwide. Given the magnitude of this phenomenon, new questions and challenges need to be addressed.

Main Determinants for Working Part-Time

For the majority of the active population, part-time work is a voluntarily chosen working schedule of activity and the wish of many women aged between 25-55 years. Labor market surveys show that half of female employees work part-time for family reasons, mainly taking care of their child/children or/and older relatives. The major motives of women working part-time seem therefore primarily related to family care while the main determinants for men to choose part-time seem statistically different, even contrary. Men tend to be part-timers if they have no children and their decision to apply for a flexible time schedule seems in most cases related to pursue some additional education or to some aging constraints (reduction of activity before retirement).

International rankings also show that differences between men and women with regard to highly qualified professions (director, senior partner, intellectual and scientific professions) are clearly higher in Switzerland than in the EU. When considering the amount of women at management board levels of major private companies, the average of female



executives remains particularly low in Switzerland where only 5% of women have a seat the management boards.

In general, the more that employees reduce their working schedules, the more they can expect a decrease in revenue per hour on a *ceteris paribus* basis. Almost 20% of total earning differences per hour between part-timers and full-timers remain unexplained and can therefore be attributed to lost opportunities for part-time workers. Data suggest that men working part-time, who are thus a minority in the working field, could even be more “discriminated” than women by their partial employment status.

Needs for Changes and Main Recommendations

These results lead to a reflection on the needs for solutions and changes in the Swiss labor market. The policies promoting full-time activities for female employees with children do not seem to be the best solution: the radical model of entirely outsourcing childcare to allow women to work full-time does not seem to respond to the personal wishes of many women/mothers in the labor market as shown by official Swiss statistics. The increasing part-time rates in the past years have demonstrated this tendency as well. Similarly, male employees tend to be more and more interested in working part-time. Bringing women back to full-time positions while their child/children are small should therefore be considered only as a second-best solution and not as a prime solution.

One way forward is through expansion of new partnership models and innovative flexible time arrangements that should be strongly promoted to improve the situation and to respond to the increasing needs of part-time workers. Given the high educational level of young women in Switzerland, measures should be undertaken by public and private sector employers to optimize this human capital potential. This would allow for an increase in the numbers of medium and highly qualified positions allowing part-time work.

New working models such as job-sharing, top-sharing, functional flexibility, and project team rotations for part-timers could clearly improve the status of part-time employees. This would lead to:

- An optimization of the existing capabilities and potential among part-timers and more specifically among female employees (increase of female human capital returns);
- An increase in the percentage of male part-time employees leading to a progressive gender balanced situation in the labor market;
- A decrease in the need of total outsourcing of childcare and an increase of parental presence by men and women in the educational process of their child/children;
- A reduction of negative externalities of physical and emotional work exhaustion such as the so-called burn-out syndrome which induces a heavy psychological and financial burden for families and society in general;
- A new trend towards more gender diversity and equity at medium and top hierarchical levels.

Several policies and tools should therefore be implemented to ensure the extension of these new flexible time arrangements and partnership models at all hierarchical levels. The following concrete policies should be introduced progressively by the human resource departments of SMEs and public entities:

- First, a strong policy of information explaining the concept of job-sharing and its prerequisites should be actively disseminated such as: team work capacity, instruments of exchanging information, meaning of co-responsibility, openness and trust in working collaboration, importance of social competences, ways of finding a working partner and main conditions for the success of a partnership team;
- Second, some tools for part-timers to find a professional partner should be provided.



- Pools of part-time employees (list of potential part-time employees interested in job-sharing models) should be available at each human resources department and within smaller companies; pools on the Internet should help interested external employees to find professional partners to apply for a new position;
- Third, a voluntary label on part-time equity or benchmarking of innovative companies should help identify the most progressive companies in this field. Such labels could then, on a voluntary basis, encourage companies to create more visibility on their practices and induce other SMEs to reproduce the same. Instead of introducing quotas, this form of policy would better correspond to the liberal attitude which characterizes the Swiss labor market;
- Fourth, functional flexibility through active part-time project team rotation should be actively promoted and supported at all levels of the hierarchy;
- Fifth, future generations should be better prepared to work in partnership models.
- Knowledge about team work and education skills in groups should be already intensified at the primary and secondary school levels;
- Finally, all social-economic measures progressively introduced and increasingly applied in Switzerland favoring the reintegration of mothers in the labor market such as day care possibilities, extra-schooling childcare, tele-commuting possibilities, father leaves should be developed in areas where they still do not exist, allowing therefore additional companies to apply flexible time arrangements more intensively. Specific fiscal incentives for mothers could even be introduced allowing mothers with low incomes to reintegrate on a part-time basis their work activity by reducing the amount of their reservation salary.

UNITED STATES

The Part-time Labor Market

Michael Peters

Key findings from the United States are:

- There are 17 million part-time female workers in the United States – a number that represents two-thirds of U.S. part time employees. Reasons for part-time work vary, but most workers undertake part-time work for non-economic reasons, including childcare, family obligations, or education.
- Part-time workers in the United States face a number of disadvantages when compared to their full-time counterparts. These disadvantages include a wage penalty, inequity in benefits, a lack of qualification under certain employment statutes that offer protection to full-time employees, and unpredictable work schedules.
- Interestingly, part-time status does not equate with lower socioeconomic status. In fact, nearly half of low-income families have at least one parent working full-time, year-round.

Introduction

Seventeen million women in the United States worked part-time in 2009.² This number represents two-thirds of people working part time in the U.S. and one quarter of employed women. Of U.S. employed men, on the other hand, only thirteen percent are employed part time.³ Those occupations with large shares of part-time workers are often dominated by female employees.⁴ These occupations include food preparation jobs (where 49% of employees are employed part-time and 56% of those employees are women) and personal care and service positions (where



43% of employees are employed part-time and 77% of employees are women).⁵ The number of part-time jobs has increased at least in part due to the transformation of U.S. full-time jobs (with benefits) into part-time and temporary jobs (without benefits).⁶ This transformation is likely the result of efforts to save labor costs.⁷

The benefits received by part-time workers are typically not comparable to those received by full-time employees; as this memo documents, for example, in private industry, paid vacations and paid sick leave are less available to part-time workers.⁸

Reasons for Part-Time Work

Among mothers who work, 62% would prefer to work part-time, and 37% would prefer to work full-time; among fathers who work, 20% would prefer to work part-time, while 79% prefer full-time.⁹ On the other hand, working mothers in dual-earner couples are much less likely to experience some or a lot of work-family conflict than are working fathers in dual-earner couples.¹⁰

People work part-time for numerous reasons. As the following chart shows, most part-time workers in both agricultural and non-agricultural industries choose to work so for noneconomic reasons, such as childcare issues, family or personal obligations, school or training, retirement or Social Security limits on earnings, and “other reasons.”¹¹ Economic reasons for part-time work include unfavorable business conditions, inability to find full-time work, or seasonal declines in demand.¹² (Numbers provided are from November 2011, the most recent date from which data is available.)

Table 1 Reasons for Part-Time Work (in thousands)

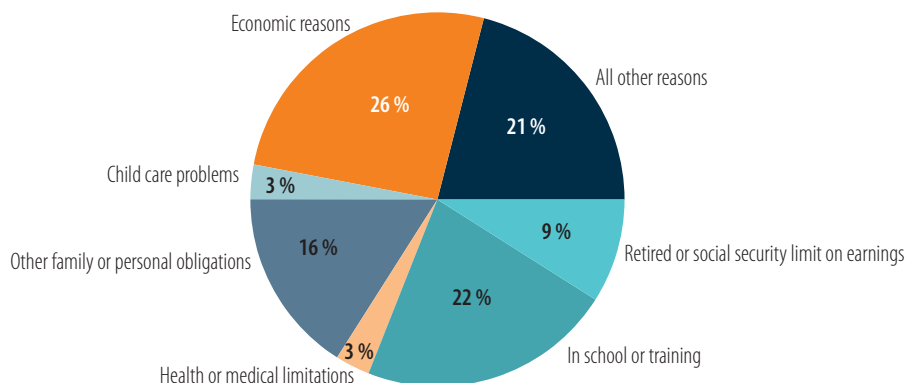
	All Industries	Non-Agricultural Industries
Economic Reasons	8,518	8,407
Noneconomic Reasons	18,356	17,926

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

There are also other reasons why individuals choose to work part time, ranging from economic factors to personal obligations.

Figure 12.1 A Breakdown of Motivations for Part-time Work

Reasons for part-time work (percentage)



Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics



Inequities In Part-Time Verses Full-Time Work

The Wage Penalty

Across occupations, part-time workers earn hourly wages below those of full-time workers.¹³ For example, in an average sales position, a part-time worker earns 58% that of a full-time worker.¹⁴ In computer and mathematical occupations a part-time worker earns 63% that of a full-time worker.¹⁵ Due to the percentage of women working part-time jobs, this contributes to the wage gap between men and women in the United States.¹⁶ This is exacerbated by the fact that women spend more time working part-time than men.¹⁷

Inequity in Benefits

This wage penalty, however, understates the true difference in total compensation between full-time and part-time workers. In addition to receiving lower wages, part-time workers often receive significantly fewer benefits than their full-time counterparts.¹⁸ The tables below track these differences across a variety of benefit forms. Benefits explored are: (1) retirement benefits; (2) medical care benefits; (3) life insurance benefits; (4) selected paid leave benefits. For retirement benefits, medical care benefits, and life insurance benefits, access to each benefit, employee participation in each benefit, and take-up rate (the percentage of employees that actually take advantage of the benefit) are noted. For selected paid leave benefits only access data is available, and paid leave benefits will be further broken down into sick leave, vacation and personal leave benefits. The tables are broken down into sectors of U.S. employment including civilian (i.e. farmers), private industry, and government (state and local) employment for both full-time and part-time employees. Medical care benefits are further broken down into medical plan premium information (amount paid by employer and employee) for single and family coverage. As noted above, the difference in benefits viewed in connection with the difference in pay reveals the disadvantage that part-time workers face. The tables reveal drastic differences between part-time and full-time workers in the area of benefits. It is worth noting that when medical care benefits are provided the premium amounts paid by employer / employee are similar.

Table 2 A Break down of Retirement Benefits Between Full and Part-time Workers (all numbers reflect percentages)

	Civilian			Private			State and Local Government		
	Access	Participation	Take up rate	Access	Participation	Take up rate	Access	Participation	Take up rate
Full time	78	65	84	73	59	80	99	94	95
Part time	38	22	58	37	20	54	41	37	91

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Table 3 Medical Care Benefits (all numbers reflect percentages)

	Civilian			Private			State and Local Government		
	Access	Participation	Take up rate	Access	Participation	Take up rate	Access	Participation	Take up rate
Full time	88	67	77	85	64	75	99	82	93
Part time	24	14	58	23	13	57	26	18	69

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

GENDER EQUALITY IN EMPLOYMENT

Policies and Practices in Switzerland and the U.S.



Table 4 Medical Plans: Single Coverage - Share of Premiums (all numbers reflect percentages)

	Civilian		Private		State and Local Government	
	Employer	Employee	Employer	Employee	Employer	Employee
Full time	82	18	80	20	88	12
Part time	78	22	77	23	84	16

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Table 5 Medical Plans: Family Coverage - Share of Premiums (all numbers reflect percentages)

	Civilian		Private		State and Local Government	
	Employer	Employee	Employer	Employee	Employer	Employee
Full time	70	30	69	31	71	29
Part time	70	30	70	30	71	29

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Table 6 Life Insurance Benefits (all numbers reflect percentages)

	Civilian			Private			State and Local Government		
	Access	Participation	Take up rate	Access	Participation	Take up rate	Access	Participation	Take up rate
Full time	76	74	97	73	71	97	90	88	98
Part time	15	14	91	14	13	91	23	21	94

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Table 7 Selected Paid Leave Benefits (all numbers reflect percentages)

	Civilian			Private			State and Local Government		
	Sick	Vacation	Personal leave	Sick	Vacation	Personal leave	Sick	Vacation	Personal leave
Full time	79	87	48	75	91	45	98	67	64
Part time	28	35	20	27	37	19	41	21	29

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

It is additionally worth noting that although the Family and Medical Leave Act of 1993 (FMLA) mandates 12 weeks of unpaid leave to care for a new child, sick relative, or to recover from a worker’s own illness, many part-time workers do not meet the requirements for FMLA coverage.¹⁹ Specifically, employees must meet a minimum employment length requirement (one-year) and an hour requirement (1,250 hours per year, an average of 25 hours per week).²⁰ Many part-time workers fall below these thresholds.²¹ Even if a part-time worker meets these requirements, they may still be denied access to FMLA’s benefits if their employer does not meet FMLA’s other requirement: that an employer have 50 or more employees before they will be covered by FMLA.²² Because part-time employees lack paid sick days and family / medical leave, when an employee needs extended time off they often get fired, quit, or send their children to school sick.²³



Despite the general lack of benefits for part-time workers, some companies in the United States do offer benefits to part-time workers. The chart below contains examples of benefits offered by various companies. Many of these companies appear on more than one best part-time employer list.²⁴

Table 8 Examples of part-time work benefits by some companies

Name	Business Description	Benefits Offered to Part-Time Workers
Barnes & Noble ²⁵	Booksellers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Medical and dental coverage - Flexible spending account - Disability and life insurance - 401k - 30% discount on books
JCPenney ²⁶	Retail store	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Medical, dental and vision coverage - Life insurance - Disability insurance
Lands' End ²⁷	Apparel, home product, luggage and seasonal gift retailer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Dental and vision coverage - Life insurance - Retirement plans - On-site medical clinic at Wisconsin headquarters - Discount at Lands End and Sears
Lowes ²⁸	Home improvement retailer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Health, vision, and dental coverage - Disability insurance - Life insurance - Vacation accrual - 401(k) - Paid holidays
REI ²⁹	Outdoor apparel and gear retailer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Health and dental coverage - Life insurance - Disability Insurance - Incentive pay - Retirement plans - Profit sharing plans
Starbucks ³⁰	Coffee retailer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Medical, dental and vision coverage - Life insurance - Disability insurance - Sick pay - Tuition reimbursement - Stock investment plan - Free pound of coffee per week
Target ³¹	Department store	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Medical and dental coverage - Employee discount can be used for prescriptions filled in-store - Company-provided life resources hotline for confidential counseling and support
Trader Joe's ³²	Grocery store	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Medical, dental and vision coverage - Paid time off - Retirement plans - Employee discount



Name	Business Description	Benefits Offered to Part-Time Workers
UPS ³³	Package delivery company	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Full benefits to part-time employees, including: - Medical, dental and vision coverage - Life insurance - Child / eldercare spending accounts - Cancer insurance - Work-life balance programs - Tuition assistance

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics

Unpredictable Schedules

An additional concern faced by part-time workers is that their jobs are much more likely than full-time jobs to have nonstandard schedules. This is particularly troublesome for those dual-earning parents that attempt to address their childcare needs by working part-time. For example, an employer using “just-in-time scheduling” bases their staff schedule on the number of customers that were in the store during the same hours the week prior.³⁴ Under this system, and many of the other part-time scheduling systems used in the United States, many part-time employees will receive only a few days notice of what hours they will be required to work during the following week.³⁵ This lack of notice, combined with the lack of sick days, means that a part-time worker, when faced with a work schedule that does not fit with a school or childcare schedule, is forced to quit.³⁶

Flexibility Stigma

Interestingly, even full-time professionals may be faced with issues at work when they seek flexibility through reduced hours and flexible work arrangements. These individuals may be seen as “time deviants” and may face what has been deemed the “flexibility” stigma.³⁷ Under this stigma, promotions vanish, and employees find themselves left-in-the-dust of those able to continue working full-time.³⁸ This stigma exists for men as well as women.³⁹ Men taking even a short absence due to a family problem are recommended for fewer rewards and receive lower performance rankings.⁴⁰

Lack of Coverage Under the 1938 Fair Labor Standards Act (FLSA)

One of the foundations of U.S. regulation of employment is the Fair Labor Standards Act. Among other things, the FLSA sets a minimum wage, overtime thresholds, defines the regular workweek as 40 hours a week, and requires that workers covered by the act be paid 150% of their usual hourly wage for hours worked above 40.⁴¹ However, because the FLSA was not aimed at underwork, it does not address part-time work issues such as the sufficiency of hours or scheduling. This leaves part-time workers without protection under FLSA.

Part-Time Work and Socioeconomic Class

Although, as noted above, part-time workers are paid less and receive fewer benefits than their full-time counterparts, part-time status does not equate with lower socioeconomic status. In fact, in 2009 nearly half of low-income families have at least one parent working full-time, year-round.⁴² This number, however, may be decreasing in light of the recent economic downturn. Between 2009 and 2010, the number of working families decreased by 800,000 as workers lost their jobs or left the labor force.⁴³ Additionally, many middle-class families have fallen below the low-income threshold because of pay cuts, reductions in work hours, or involuntary moves to part-time employment.⁴⁴



Note that the low-income threshold in 2010 for a family of four with two children was \$44,470.⁴⁵

Conclusion

The 17 million female part-time workers in the United States are at a disadvantage in terms of wage, benefits, scheduling predictability and flexibility, and statutory protection. This is of particular concern given that the majority of part-time workers work part-time for noneconomic reasons. For those working part-time to care for children, lack of medical coverage, life insurance and other benefits may impact not only the worker but their family as well. Some companies are willing however, to offer benefits to their part-time workers, as the outline above shows.

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The Effect of Quotas: Women in Management

Naomi Cahn, Althea Koburger, and Lindsay Luken

This briefing paper provides background and context for the Swiss and American approaches to the possibility of quotas for women in management.

Key findings are:

- The Swiss corporate landscape remains male-dominated, with women constituting only 11% of board members and 7% of senior executives.
- Switzerland currently has no gender quota and no plans to introduce one.
- In the U.S., women hold 20.8% of board seats, but advancement towards equality is slower than in many European countries with an increase of just 3.3% since 2004.
- Like Switzerland, the U. S. currently has no quotas for women on corporate boards or in senior management positions, and has no plans to institute quotas.
- The United States Securities and Exchange Commission's requirement that corporations publicly disclose whether and how diversity is considered in nomination for director positions is a step in the right direction, but minimal in comparison to efforts by European countries.

Introduction

In 2010, American women held 14.4% of executive officer positions in Fortune 500 companies, and they held 15.7% of board seats at these companies, numbers that show an upward trend from past years.¹ In Switzerland, women constituted approximately 4% of executive managers, and approximately 8.3% of company boards, numbers that have remained fairly consistent for the past decade.² Despite significant advances in educational, political, and business participation, women across the globe continue to lack corporate management positions. As a result of women's continuing dearth of management representation, many nations' policy-makers have introduced gender quotas in politics and more policy-makers now demonstrate an interest in mandating gender quotas for corporate management positions and boards.³ This section will explore the creation and status of gender quotas in management positions across the globe and in the United States.

Corporate Quotas: A Global Perspective

The subject of corporate boardroom diversity is a long-standing topic. Globally, numerous countries have introduced a variety of methods designed to increase diversity in corporate boards. For example, over the last decade such methods include voluntary initiatives, "comply and complain" initiatives aligned with local corporate governance codes, requirements of disclosure about diversity policies, and legal requirements with specific quotas.⁴ Indeed, gender quotas are a new arrival to the business world.⁵

In 2003 Norway became the first country to pass mandatory quotas for gender diversity in company boardrooms of publicly traded firms.⁶ After failing to achieve results from voluntary measures, the firms were given a deadline of January 1, 2008 to meet quota requirements, and from 2003 to the January 2008 deadline the percentage of women on boards of publicly listed companies went from 9% to over 40%; the highest proportion in the world.⁷ While many



argued against the legislation, citing fears of being required to hire less qualified or inexperienced women just to meet the quota, and arguments from women worrying about loss of credibility, others felt that the quota was necessary to address an inequality that was not aligned with Norway's otherwise strong stance on social progressiveness.

Norway has a history of promoting gender equality. Women's suffrage was achieved in 1913 and had their first female Prime Minister elected in 1981 (whose cabinet had 8 women out of 18 members, a ratio that has continued to hold).⁸ In addition to the history of promoting gender equality, Norway also has experience in using national legislation and quotas to achieve more gender equitable representation in their society. Their use of quotas in this manner has allowed them to achieve dramatic increases in the percentage of women in the public sector far above the minimal increases seen elsewhere.

The success of the quota system in achieving greater gender distribution did not stop with Norway. Adopting similar systems, legislated board quotas have since been introduced in Spain (2007), France, Iceland, and the Netherlands (2010).⁹ Germany and the UK, while not having any plans to implement a quota at this time, are considering enacting some form of legislation.¹⁰

However, these countries' compliance with the quota target date is much lower than Norway's compliance: Spain has set 2015 as the target date for compliance, while France instituted a schedule with two deadlines (20% target to be reached in 2013 and 40% target to be reached in 2016) with plans to nullify all board appointments in violation of the quota.¹¹ The Netherlands has yet set a target date for compliance and only requires noncompliance to be explained in a company's annual report.¹² Furthermore, Belgium, Canada, and Italy currently are considering instituting quotas for public limited companies and quota laws are pending at different statuses in their respective ratification process.¹³ Globally, the percentage of board seats held by women has grown from 10.4% in 2004 to 13.8% in 2011, most of which is attributed to the driving forces of these changes taking place in Europe.¹⁴

A growing literature assesses the impact of women in senior levels of management and on corporate boards.¹⁵ As George Washington University Law Professor Lisa Fairfax recently concluded, "There exists at least some - albeit tentative - empirical support that board diversity may lead to increased firm value or improved corporate governance under some conditions."¹⁶

On the other hand, in a publication of the Conference Board, she notes that, notwithstanding the increased attention to board diversity along with the economic justification, these have not yet resulted in substantial gains in board diversity; instead, she notes the importance of emphasizing the moral and social justifications for moving ahead.¹⁷ While the area of research is relatively new, studies indicate that companies with greater gender diversity at the board level have advantages, such as greater profitability and variety of competitive advantages, over those without.¹⁸ Additionally, women have made significant advances in educational, political, and business participation across the globe. The question then remains, what are the barriers that continue to keep women from reaching the top of the corporate hierarchy, and are quotas the best way to achieve greater balance of gender representation in the boardroom?

SWITZERLAND

While four out of seven Federal council members are women (data published in October 2011), in Switzerland the corporate landscape is still very male-dominated. Only 11% of board members and 7% of senior executives are women, and among Swiss Market Index (SMI) companies, only 11% of board members are women, compared



with the European average of about 12%.¹⁹ However, the female-to-male tertiary education ratio is 1.01.²⁰ Like in the U.S., there is no gender quota in Switzerland, and no plans to introduce one.

Like in the U.S. and in the U.K., women in Switzerland tend to report higher job satisfaction despite receiving on average lower salaries for equivalent work. One study from the *Journal of Popular Economics* considered the possibility that norms regarding what is appropriate in terms of wages and career tracks for women have not kept pace with women's achievement of equal educational achievements and career goals.²¹ Thus, like in the U.S., it seems the issue has become more about addressing lagging corporate social norms than proving the capability of women.

The Swiss authorities have issued a set of "good practices," or voluntary measures to encourage greater representation of women in boardrooms, but looking back at the case of Norway, prior to implementation of national law voluntary measures had been tried and found to be ineffective.²²

One representative from the State Secretariat for Economic Affairs commented that there are two main reasons that women in Switzerland continue to be underrepresented in the corporate upper echelons. First, the Swiss are still creating a framework that balances work and family life for women with families (women only began receiving maternity benefits in 2005). The second is that there is still a glass ceiling in the sense that other issues play an important role besides professional experience, such as networking, and that men continue to mutually recommend each other to high positions.²³

Despite recognition of the benefits of a gender diverse team, the issue of instituting a quota has supporters and opponents. Supporters note that voluntary measures are not achieving meaningful gains, while opponents argue that forcing firms to change instead of changing out of their own conviction will be less sustainable. While quotas have been in the debate since Norway imposed the 2008 deadline, all attempts to bring quotas to the parliamentary table in Switzerland have so far failed.

THE UNITED STATES

Unlike some European countries, the United States currently has no quotas for women on corporate boards or in senior management positions and has no plans to institute any type of quotas.²⁴ According to Corporate Women Directors International, the U.S. holds a strong position with gender equity of board membership, with women holding about 20.8% of board seats.²⁵ However, the rate of advancement towards equality, which is considerably slower than many European countries, has only seen an increase of 3.3% from 2004.²⁶ Furthermore, there has even been a decline in the percentage of women on corporate boards of S&P 500 companies, dropping from 16.6% to 16% in 2010.²⁷ For instance, two large media companies Discovery Communications Inc., which is the co-owner of Oprah Winfrey's cable channel (OWN) and Facebook, are two examples of firms with all-male boards.²⁸ In a country where tertiary education is at a ratio of 1.40 (women-to-men) it seems unlikely that there is a dearth of qualified women to take on high-level positions.²⁹ However, the U.S. has 29 publicly traded companies with no women on their boards or among their top executives at all.³⁰

In 2011, Catalyst published *The Catalyst Pyramid: U.S. Women in Business*, and the report provides statistics of women's participation in corporate America, including the percentages of American women in specific workplace categories:



Table 1 Women in Workplace Categories

Category	Percentage
U.S. labor force	46.7
Management, professional, and related occupations	51.5
Fortune 500 Executive Officers	14.4
Fortune 500 Board Seats	15.7
Fortune 500 Top Earners	7.6
Fortune 500 CEOs	3.2 ³¹

Source: The Catalyst Pyramid: U.S. Women in Business

The most prominent initiative adopted in the United States to increase boardroom diversity is the United States Securities and Exchange Commission’s (SEC) diversity disclosure rule, which became effective on February 28, 2010.³² The SEC diversity disclosure rule simply requires that corporations disclose whether, and if so how, a board nominating committee or the board considers diversity in selecting candidates for nomination for a director position.³³ There is no requirement that the committee or board consider diversity, nor is there any standard definition of what constitutes diversity. If, however, there is a diversity policy, then the SEC rule further requires corporations to disclose how this policy is implemented and how the effectiveness of the policy is evaluated.³⁴ In 2010, another publication focusing on this issue, Corporate Board Diversity Disclosure Scorecard, published by Calvert Asset Management Company evaluated how American companies have responded to the diversity rule by disclosing board diversity in accordance with the new SEC rule.³⁵ Calvert’s scorecard uses a grading key with three levels explaining whether each company’s disclosure actions (1) “Exceed Expectations,” (2) are “Neutral,” or (3) are “Below expectations.”³⁶ Of the almost 70 companies included, under 20% “exceeded expectations,” and almost one-third were “below expectations.”³⁷

American corporations are currently more inclusive of women than in the past, but much more can be done so that women can break through glass ceilings and further their advancement in corporate America. While the United States has no official, governmentally-imposed quotas for women in management, senior management, or board positions, American companies are now subject to the SEC’s diversity disclosure rule, which requires information about decision-making with respect to board nominees if a company has a diversity policy. Many in the U.S. applaud the quota system, having seen that the concerns about appointing women on the basis of gender and the possibility of unqualified board members based on such practices turned out to be unfounded. Concerns that investors would flee or that competence of boards would decrease have not manifested; rather, the quota system has been successful and the companies implementing them are doing well. The head of Norway’s Center for Corporate Diversity, Marit Hoel, commented that, “the women who have been appointed to the boards are more highly educated, more international and younger than their male counterparts, which creates a new dynamic.”³⁸

However, the U.S. has clearly not taken that realization into practical application. In addition to the slow and even back-sliding trends in gender representation on U.S. boards, there is no plan for any regulation regarding legal quotas in America. When compared to many European countries, America’s steps to increase women’s participation in the boardroom and management are minimal. This stems both from cultural reluctance to discuss diversity and



quotas and also involves changing corporate cultures (not just rhetoric) in a more fundamental way.³⁹

Corporate Quotas - The Conflict

A Catalyst report from 2007 looking at the Fortune 500 companies found a strong link between corporate performance and the presence of women board members. In looking at return on equity, return on sales and return on invested capital, those companies in the top quartile for female representation outperformed the bottom quartile in all three categories.⁴⁰ With such strong findings in support of greater diversification, it would seem that data were backing up other arguments in favor of gender diversity, such as access to a broader skill set, less same-mindedness and a greater mix of experience and background. However, some studies have indicated that those very factors that should be a benefit in the boardroom may be those blocking integration of women into high-powered positions.

Stereotypical attitudes on gender are one hurdle that needs to be overcome. For instance, one woman who now sits on the boards of Walmart and Union Bank recalled a teacher's comment about her being female and inquisitive: she was told that she "thinks like a man."⁴¹ Such attitudes reflect one reason why women are not more strongly represented. Some scholars argue that changing gender composition may have consequences for organizational design. More diverse boards may lead to more disagreement and conflict; homogeneous top management teams cooperate more, since similarity breeds trust.⁴² While cooperation among rich, white, male executives may or may not provide optimal outcomes, it creates a working environment that many may find loath to sacrifice.

Conclusions

With women making up almost 50% of the world's population and almost 40% of the workforce, the fact that they hold only 1% of the world's wealth is a clear sign that corporate culture is lagging behind the rest of the world in gender equality.⁴³ Since the number of women achieving higher education and tertiary degrees has reached the same level as men, there seems no logic to the fact that of the 31 new companies added to the Fortune Global 200 during 2011, 16 companies have no women directors at all.⁴⁴ Authors like A.H. Eagly and L.L. Carli (professors of psychology, both) discuss the barriers standing between women and the upper echelons of business in new terms. They see the issues as having evolved from the old metaphor of the glass ceiling (which due to hiring laws and regulations they no longer view as a good fit) to the metaphor of the labyrinth.⁴⁵ Women who want to achieve high position are no longer blocked by straight-forward solid barriers of rejection, but are instead faced with a convoluted path that requires a particular set of skills, such as entering social networking arenas traditionally used by men; the mentoring, golf games and other social bonding that takes place between high-powered executives and rising stars that continues to be male-dominated. Navigating the complex route to success requires more than capability, as seen by the fact that there are women more than capable of serving on boards who are not given the chance to prove it.

While women's concerns about the quota system marginalizing their achievements may have some validity, the fact is that without a legislative "push" gender equality in the boardroom could be up to 100 years away.⁴⁶ As shown by the example of Norway (and now countries like Spain, France and the Netherlands) the implementation of a quota can achieve dramatic results within a half of a decade. While using legislation to achieve what should be occurring naturally in the marketplace may seem like a heavy-handed tactic, women's representation in the workforce has implications for politics and society at large that go beyond the corporate structure, and legally mandated quotas have shown to be effective in achieving what some societies already have: equal opportunity for men and women to achieve their potential.



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Parental Leave Policies

Naomi Cahn, Lindsay Luken, Scott Grethers, and Matthew Leduc

This briefing paper provides background and context for the American approach to parental leave, and briefly touches upon Swiss policies as well.

Key findings are:

- In the U.S., the Pregnancy Discrimination Act, the Family and Medical Leave Act, and various state statutes provide some protection to employee parents who need leave. However, these statutes have their limits. For example, approximately 40% of employees are not covered by FMLA due to its employer-size and employment-time requirements, and FMLA leave, while available to both men and women, is unpaid.
- “Best Practices” in the U.S. include (1) generous paid leave that is not entirely the responsibility of the individual employer; (2) non-transferable leave quotas that each parent must take; (3) minimal restrictions on employee eligibility; and (4) flexibility in scheduling full or part-time leave.
- In Switzerland, maternity leave is up to 14 weeks. Currently, fathers are not granted parental leave.

Introduction

Working parents generally confront a similar struggle, regardless of where they live: trying to balance employment responsibilities and family obligations. In fact, due to shifting demographics in American society, it is almost certain that employees will confront some conflict between work and family.¹ In 58.1 percent of two-parent families with children, both parents were employed outside the home in 2010.² Increasingly, more children are now being raised by single parents, mainly women: the proportion of children under eighteen in sole-parent households rose from 23 percent in 1980 to over 40 percent in 2009.³ Moreover, according to a World Bank 2012 Report, the United States was only 1 of 3 countries that did not guarantee some form of paid maternity leave (along with Lesotho and Papua New Guinea).⁴

On the other hand, in the United States, unlike in Switzerland, leave is available for fathers. And, while Switzerland prevents women from working within 8 weeks of giving birth,⁵ the United States allows women to choose when to return to work. Notably, in the U.S., there is currently no federal law explicitly prohibiting discrimination on the basis of family responsibilities.⁶

This briefing paper will address what programs the federal government, state governments, and private employers are implementing with respect to maternity and paternity leave for working parents in America, and provide some comparative data.

Applicable legal protections

The Pregnancy Discrimination Act

Passed in 1978, the Pregnancy Discrimination Act (PDA) was the first law to protect new parents.⁷ Congress passed the law due to findings that employers were continually firing female employees as soon as their pregnancies became visible.⁸ The PDA makes clear that it is illegal for employers to fire, refuse to hire, or deny a woman a promotion because she is pregnant.⁹ The PDA also states that an employer must treat a pregnant employee the



same way the employer would treat any other employee who becomes ill or temporarily disabled.¹⁰ For example, if the employer offers benefits such as paid sick days or disability leave for other medical conditions, then the employer must cover pregnancy.¹¹ However, the PDA only guarantees that a pregnant employee is treated the same as any other employee with a medical condition; the act does not guarantee that pregnant employees' jobs will be protected nor does it provide any extra benefits or accommodations to pregnant workers.

The Family and Medical Leave Act

The Family and Medical Leave Act ("FMLA") is the primary federal law affecting family-work conflicts in America. Congress enacted the FMLA in 1993; it requires that larger employers provide up to twelve weeks of unpaid leave annually for eligible employees who give birth to or adopt a child, or who are sick or need to care for sick family members.¹² Both men and women are eligible for FMLA leave. Since the FMLA was enacted, over 50 million Americans have used the Act to take time off from work: more than 25% of FMLA-users have been new parents.¹³

While the FMLA has made tremendous differences in the lives and financial security of working parents, the law has serious shortcomings. First, leaves under the FMLA are unpaid, although employers must continue to provide health insurance coverage, and workers can be required to use any accrued sick leave or vacation time before taking FMLA leave.¹⁴ Furthermore, many workers who are eligible for FMLA coverage simply cannot afford to take time off from work without pay, particularly single mothers or working class women whose wages are an essential part of the family income.¹⁵ Second, FMLA coverage is limited. It does not protect employees at small businesses (those that employ less than fifty people within seventy-five miles of the work site) and, even employees in FMLA-covered companies must have worked at least 1,250 hours during the previous twelve months to become eligible.¹⁶ Moreover, while job reinstatement in the same or an equivalent position is guaranteed for most employees, certain "key" employees do not receive the same guarantee.¹⁷ Because of the FMLA's limitations, it is estimated that more than 40 percent of employees are not eligible for the job-protected leave the FMLA provides.¹⁸

Switzerland has also passed federal laws protecting the rights of women during and after pregnancy. These laws stipulate that women do not have to inform their employer about their pregnancy, are eligible for 14 weeks of paid maternity leave, are forbidden to work in the eight weeks following the birth of their child, and are provided 80 percent of their annual income for financial assistance.¹⁹ In order to be eligible for maternity leave, women must be currently employed, contribute to the Old Age and Survivor's Insurance, and have worked for a minimum of five months during the nine months preceding birth.²⁰

State/Canton Governments and Parental Leave

Numerous state legislators have passed state parental leave laws that are more expansive than the federal FMLA, or that intersect or complement the FMLA to provide private and state employees with additional benefits and/or job protection.²¹ Currently, 15 states and the District of Columbia offer benefits of some dimension.

Typically, state parental leave laws expand eligibility by covering smaller companies or relaxing the time-employed requirements; four states and the District of Columbia also provide for slightly longer unpaid leave periods (between thirteen and seventeen weeks).²² Currently, three states offer paid leave, and California was the first to do so.²³ California's parental leave law provides partial pay for up to six weeks of leave for an employee to care for a newborn child, adopted or foster child, or for a seriously ill parent, child, spouse, or registered domestic partner (replacement pay is available).²⁴



Although California's program is broader than the FMLA because it includes part-time workers and those working in relatively small firms, it does not guarantee job protection (unless the employee is also covered by the FMLA).²⁵

In Switzerland, additional benefits for women on maternity leave may be offered at the canton level, ranging from extending time off from work to assisting with the costs of post-childbirth care (e.g., hiring a nanny). Similar benefits, however, are not extended to men.

Parental Leave in the Private Sector

While many Americans are not covered by the FMLA or similar state laws, paid parental leave programs are similarly scarce in the private sector. Even the companies listed in *Working Mother* magazine as being the best employers in America for working mothers do not always offer the solutions families need regarding parental leave²⁶:

- 47% offer at least seven weeks of paid leave for mothers, and 95% provide at least one week of paid leave;
- 5% offer at least seven weeks of paid leave for fathers, although 76% offer at least one week of paid leave; and
- 19% offer paid adoption leave of at least seven weeks, and 79% offer at least one week of paid leave.

In general, Swiss companies offer more generous parental leave. According to the Corporate Gender Gap Report, 64 percent of companies surveyed offer between 15 and 30 weeks of paid leave for mothers.²⁷

Public Support for Stronger Parental Leave Policies

Recent surveys suggest that Americans wish to spend more time with their families, and less time at work, and that a significant percentage of Americans support paid parental or family and medical leave programs:

- Eighty-four percent of adults support expanding disability or unemployment insurance as a means of providing paid family and medical leave.²⁸
- Eighty-one percent of working women say that paid leave to care for a family member is somewhat or very important, yet only 42% of working women report that they have some type of paid leave to care for family members²⁹ and "raising happy, successful children" (85%).³⁰
- Eighty-two percent of employees age 18 to 34 support expanding the FMLA to provide paid leave.³¹
- Younger Americans, women and men, are more likely to place the same priority on their job and family, rather than placing a higher priority on work over family.³²

In Switzerland, a major challenge for parents is paying for daycare services upon returning from parental leave. Many daycare facilities are either too expensive for single parents to pay for or do not offer sufficient hours to care for the children while their parents work. Statistics indicate that women are more likely than their male partners to reduce the number of hours they work or to leave their jobs in order to care for children.³³ As a result, families find it increasingly difficult to afford childcare, and many women in particular cannot adequately balance their careers and parental roles.

Best Practices

The most generous and gender egalitarian policies are typified by the following best practices: (1) generous paid leave that is not entirely the responsibility of the individual employer; (2) non-transferable leave quotas that each parent



must take; 3) minimal restrictions on employee eligibility; and (4) flexibility in scheduling full or part-time leave.³⁴

First, many countries support parental leave through payroll taxes, albeit with variation as to the rate of taxation and the share taken from employers and employees. It is not, then, the responsibility of the individual employer so the costs and risks of the leaves are pooled.³⁵ While the employer must still generally provide job protection, the potential financial strains are shared. And some governments provide supplemental contributions to ensure adequate funds. Countries vary as to the length of time that is subsidized and the level of subsidy, but best practice policies have high rates of both. Moreover, while not all countries cover the adoption of a child, best practices recognize that the parents' needs (aside from physical recovery from birth) are the same.

Second, in most countries, either parent can take parental leave, but some countries have developed innovative systems that have a "use it or lose it" for each parent. In 1995, Sweden introduced "daddy-only leave," so that families lost one month of their paid leave entitlement if the father did not stay home. The rate of paternity leave increased dramatically, and 80% of men took paternity leave. When Sweden added a second month of daddy-only leave in 2002, while there was just a small uptick in the number of men who took leave, the amount of their leave time increased by more than 200%.³⁶ Germany adopted a system in which fathers must take two months of the allotted paid 14 month parental leave or the leave will be lost, resulting in a large increase in the number of men taking leave; nonetheless, women still lag behind men in the workplace, and companies are adopting other policies as well.³⁷ Switzerland does not have federal laws granting paternity leave for men. Such decisions are typically made at the cantonment level or between the employee and employer. Some companies have granted fathers one to three days paid leave after the birth of their child.

Third, many countries have broad employee eligibility, so that most workplaces, regardless of size or type, are covered. Countries vary as to when employees qualify for eligibility, with some requiring that workers have been employed by the same entity for at least a year. New parents who do not qualify for the full set of leave benefits may nonetheless be eligible for more limited benefits, as they are in Norway. And in Sweden, even those without recent employment qualify for some minimal benefits.³⁸

Finally, some countries allow for various forms of scheduling flexibility with respect to when the leave must be taken, or whether it can be taken part-time. This can make the transition from home to work easier by allowing for a full-time schedule to be phased in. Sweden and Norway each allow for part-time leave, and Finland allows parents to take leave at any point before their child turns three.³⁹

Conclusion

Although the federal government does not mandate paid leave, some states have adopted statutes that expand what is available under the FMLA.⁴⁰ While the PDA and FMLA help alleviate the struggle, both federal laws have substantial shortcomings: the PDA does not provide job protection to pregnant employees or new parents and the FMLA covers only a certain percentages of workers, millions of which cannot afford to take the unpaid leave available to them. Similarly, state lawmakers and private employers deny parental leave benefits to many American families by declining to provide parental leave. Thus, a significant percentage of American working parents bear the financial burdens of caring for their children with no help from their employers, state government, or federal government. While Switzerland provides more generous coverage, its system too could use some revision in light of these best practices.



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Child Care and School Policies

The two papers on this section provide background and context for the Swiss and American approaches to child-care and school policies.

SWITZERLAND

Education in Switzerland: Balancing Families and Careers

Michael Peters

Key findings from Switzerland are:

- Switzerland has a decentralized education system, with most decisions occurring at the cantonal level. The Swiss education system has three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary, and compulsory education is generally nine years in length (although this varies by canton).
- The Swiss school day does not cover the schedule of a full-time Swiss worker. Additionally, a two-hour lunch break during which Swiss children go home to eat creates a mid-day supervision gap that Swiss parents must find a way to cover.
- Swiss parents desiring extra-familial childcare, such as childcare centers, encounter a relatively undeveloped system.

Introduction

Switzerland has a decentralized education system, which means that most decisions occur at the cantonal level.¹ Cantons are responsible for managing public schools and their staff and also bear the main financial burden of education.² Each of the 26 cantons has a head of education, and those individuals come together to coordinate educational efforts at the national level in the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (the EDK).³ Legally binding, inter-cantonal agreements (concordats) form the foundation of the work performed by the EDK.⁴

The EDK also enforces these concordats.⁵ In addition, the EDK represents cantons at the federal level in the area of education and participates in international cooperation.⁶

The Swiss education system has three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary.⁷ While the number of years in any given level or of total compulsory education differs by canton, traditionally, compulsory education in Switzerland is nine years in length, with six years in the primary school level and three years in the secondary school level.⁸ In more than half of the cantons, compulsory pre-school education is also either in place or planned.⁹ The Harmonisation of Compulsory Education Concordat (HarmoS), which came into effect in August 2009, mandates compulsory preschool education for 2 years in signatory cantons.¹⁰ The minimum pre-school enrollment age varies between cantons.¹² Enrollment is generally possible from the age of four, but some cantons set the minimum age at five.¹³ For example, in the canton Basel, children attend two years of mandatory kindergarten starting in August of the year in which they will turn five years old.¹⁴

The School Day

As with the rest of the Swiss Education system, school hours are determined by the cantons. To further complicate matters, within the same canton school hours are not synchronized.¹⁵ As a result, children in the same family may have



staggered starting and ending times.¹⁶ The Swiss school day is shorter than a full-time working day, which also occurs in the United States.¹⁷ In some areas, there is a two-hour break during lunchtime when children must leave the school to eat, and are brought home to do so.¹⁸ As a result, Swiss parents face multiple school-work hour gaps throughout the day requiring supervision, and a dilemma on how best to cover that care period.¹⁹ The solution is often that many Swiss mothers become stay-at-home moms, or work part-time in order to accommodate school schedules.²⁰

For example, consider the schedule of just one school day experienced by a parent-journalist in Switzerland:²¹

- One child started school at 7:30 am; the other at 8:20 am
- One child came home at 11 am; the other at 12:00 pm
- One child went back to school at 2 pm; the other was home for the day.

In this parent’s experience, no two days were the same.²² This same journalist related the experience of a close friend, with three kids, who was unable to secure any job – due to the differing school schedules of her three children, she was unable to be out of the house for more than 43 minutes at a time.²³

School-Hour Gap: The Dilemma of Dual-Earner Families

As in many countries, it is increasingly rare today for a single salary to meet the financial needs of a Swiss family.²⁴ As a result, it is often a financial necessity for both partners to be employed.²⁵ However, when children are introduced into a family, dual-employment within a couple, as we have seen, can become an issue – in part due to the structure of the school schedules. The following chart outlines the percentage of different family models based on the age of the child living within the family home.²⁶ In the most common model, regardless of child age, the father works full-time and the mother part-time.²⁷ The second most common model is one in which the father works full-time and the mother is unemployed.²⁸ The percentage of unemployed mothers, however, decreases as the child ages.²⁹

Table 1 Common Swiss Family Employment Models – Based on Child Age

Child Age	Both full time	Both part time	Full time father, part time mother	Full time father, unemployed mother	Both unemployed
Under 7	9 %	4 %	49 %	33 %	1 %
7 - 14	11 %	4 %	56 %	22 %	1 %
Over 14	14 %	3 %	53 %	19 %	3 %

Source: Swiss Federal Statistical Office

Contrast this with the number of hours spent on domestic work and childcare by men and women. The following chart provides the average number of hours per week spent on domestic work and childcare by men and women at five point-years spanning 1997 to 2010.³⁰ It is interesting to note that, overall, women across the thirteen-year span decreased the amount of hours they contributed to household chores and taking care of children.³¹ In 1997, women reported spending 31.4 hours on domestic labor and childcare, which was more than double the time that men reported.³² By 2010, women reported the time spent on these tasks had decreased by almost four hours, while male contribution increased only by 0.5 hours from the previous decade.³³

**Table 2** Hours Spent Weekly on Domestic Labor and Childcare by Gender – 1997 – 2010

	1997	2000	2004	2007	2010
Women	31.4	30.4	30.2	30.0	27.6
Men	15.7	16.5	17.2	18.1	16.2

Source: Swiss Federal Statistical Office

The disparate amount of domestic work undertaken by Swiss women helps account for the high levels of part-time and unemployment in this group.

Childcare Options

As a result of the Swiss school schedule, parents are either forced to cover the work-school hour gaps themselves, leave their children alone or find other sources of childcare. As with education, any government provision or regulation of childcare in Switzerland is left to the discretion of the cantons.³⁴ Childcare is normally not part of the cantons' public education system.³⁵ As a result, childcare provision and facilities vary greatly among cantons.³⁶ In general, extra-familial childcare during the day is not very developed, and day care facilities are particularly limited in the countryside and in small towns.³⁷ The need is so great that the Swiss government started an incentive program for start-up financing of childcare centers.³⁸ The program's main purpose was to free up the labor supply of mothers.³⁹

A 2009 study investigated the demand of childcare centers by Swiss parents.⁴⁰ Some 612 Swiss families were asked what their preferred form of childcare would be if given options.⁴¹ Respondents could choose between the following options 1) a child care center, with care provided by a professional staff; 2) a family day care home, where a parent with children of their own care for the children of others in their private residence; 3) a nanny in the home; and 4) private care, which included all other options – including care by the parents, relatives and friends.⁴² The study also asked the families to report their then current childcare arrangements.⁴³

The findings were that when comparing actual choice with hypothetical choice, there was a considerable demand for childcare centers and family day care homes.⁴⁴ Of additional note, the study sought to determine what characteristics (e.g., price, distance from home, and number of children per staff member) were most influential in the decision.⁴⁵ The findings indicated that price was the most important characteristic.⁴⁶

Swiss Society

This demand for, and yet lack of, childcare in Switzerland may be partially explained by a history in which family and family life were considered part of the private life in which state intervention was not welcome.⁴⁷ The unfulfilled demand may also be explained, however, by the simple fact that childcare is relatively underdeveloped in Switzerland at this time.⁴⁸

Additionally, other data suggest that women simply prefer a part-time employment arrangement in which they can care for their own children.⁴⁹ Consider the following data, obtained from an opinion poll, which revealed that the majority of women polled, 51%, preferred to have children and work part-time.⁵⁰ Notice that a relatively small percentage, 5%, reported a preference for having children and working full-time.⁵¹



Table 3 Poll of Swiss Women – Preferred Employment Model

Arrangement Form	Percentage
Women Preferring No Children	25 %
Women Preferring Children and a Part-Time Job	51 %
Women Preferring Children and a Full-Time Job	5 %
Women Preferring Children and No Job	16 %
Women Preferring Children and Independent Job	3 %

Source: Michel Oris (2011). “Population, Family and Society.”

Conclusion

The Swiss school schedule does not cover the schedule of a full-time worker. In fact, the Swiss schedule, with a two-hour break at lunch, poses a particularly challenging situation for working parents. With a rise in the number of dual-earner Swiss families, Swiss parents must find childcare for their children to cover these gaps or leave their children unattended. It appears that Swiss mothers prefer, given the current situation, to work part-time and provide this childcare on their own. For those unable to do so, extra-familial childcare in Switzerland remains underdeveloped.

UNITED STATES

The Gap between Work and School Schedules: School Extension and Child Care

Michael Peters

Key findings from the United States are:

- School hours that do not cover the workday, school holidays and vacations, and child illness create hour-gaps in which working parents must find supervision.
- The supervision gap that parents experience is a combination of school and employment schedules.
- Parental concern over finding supervision for their children may lead to job disruption such as distraction, lack of energy and on-the-job errors as well as parental stress.

Introduction

Work hours and school days march to entirely different schedules. Parents have developed numerous creative ways to deal with these gaps, to celebrate summer vacations and spring breaks with their children. Nonetheless, the mismatch between work and school schedules has also resulted in proposals to lengthen the school day or year and in the development of private employer programs.



The “Supervision Gap”

In the United States, in 2008, 71% of mothers of children under the age of 18 participated in the workforce,⁵² and an even higher percentage of fathers with children under 18 work. For those parents working full-time, a typical school day covers only 64% of their standard work schedule.⁵³ School dismissal in the United States typically occurs between 2:00 pm and 3:00 pm.⁵⁴ Most full-time parent-employees leave work between 5:00 pm and 7:00 pm.⁵⁵ This leaves a gap between typical school and work schedules of fifteen to twenty-five hours a week.⁵⁶ Large commutes to and from work may lengthen that gap. Gaps also exist during holidays, vacations, weekends, teacher professional days and summer break as well as during unpredictable events, such as child illness.⁵⁷ In total, most states require a minimum of 180 school days, leaving at least 185 days during which children are not attending school.⁵⁸ Of these days, at least 81 are typically weekdays.⁵⁹

Parents cobble together different arrangements to manage the gap between work and school schedules. The number of children in kindergarten through eighth grade left alone after school rose from 14.3 million in 2004 to 15.1 million in 2009, and children are more likely to be left alone as they age.⁶⁰ For those not left alone, the most commonly used after-school arrangements were center / school-based care (20 percent of kindergarten through eighth graders) and care by a relative (15 percent of this group).⁶¹ Public schools provide the majority of center / school-based care (55 percent) while the remainder is provided by private schools and care centers.⁶² The number of children participating in after-school programs has risen from 6.5 million in 2004 to 8.4 million in 2009.⁶³ However, serious barriers prevent access to these programs. These barriers include availability, program costs and age-appropriateness.⁶⁴

Impact of the Supervision Gap

Job Disruption

The gaps in supervision left unfilled by the school day may have a detrimental effect on parental job performance. A study of 936 full-time employed dual-earner couples with school-aged children found that parents’ concerns about their children’s after-school arrangements were associated with job disruption.⁶⁵ Forms of disruption included distraction, lack of energy, on-the-job errors, turning down requests for overtime or travel and missing deadlines or meetings.⁶⁶

Another study found that employers cite child-care issues as causing more problems than any other family-related issue in the workplace.⁶⁷ Financially, employee absence resulting from child-care breakdown costs businesses in the United States billions of dollars.⁶⁸

Parental Stress

A study by The Community, Families and Work Program at Brandeis University focused on the effect of the work-school hour gap on parent’s mental well-being.⁶⁹ The study found that parents with greater concerns about their children’s after-school arrangements reported significantly lower psychological well-being.⁷⁰ In fact, these parents were four and a half times more likely to report low levels of psychological well-being when compared to those with lower after-school arrangement concerns.⁷¹ The study found that parents at highest-risk for stress were those with inflexible jobs and those with children that spent more time unsupervised after school.⁷² The study found that there were certain circumstances in which parents were more likely to be at risk, specifically parents with (1)



inflexible jobs and long commutes or (2) young children spending high amounts of time unsupervised each week.

Parent-Child Relationship

Parents stuck at work after their kids are finished for the school day spend less quality time than they otherwise might with their children. This lack of parental involvement could affect the parent-child relationship.⁷³ Not surprisingly, parents who work longer hours spend less time with their children.⁷⁴ A 2010 study found that this decrease in parent-child time resulted in lower parent-child relationship quality.⁷⁵ Additionally, even when parents are spending time with their children, it matters how that time is spent.⁷⁶ Parent-child time that is less focused on the child because parents are preoccupied with or interrupted by work results in lower parent-child relationship quality.⁷⁷

Moving forward

There have been various proposals to manage the gap between school and work schedules. This section examines two potential solutions to this supervision gap – extension of school hours and employer-provided childcare.

The idea of extending the school day in the United States is not novel. States have been considering the idea since the 1980s.⁷⁸ Current concern was likely fueled by international comparisons showing that students in other industrialized countries have higher achievement test scores than those in the United States.⁷⁹ Students in countries outperforming U.S. students often spend more time in school.⁸⁰

Benefits and drawbacks

The idea of extending the school day or year is attractive for many reasons, including:⁸¹

- Coverage of supervision gaps – possibly leading to lower child care costs for working parents as well as easier scheduling and transportation
- More time for learning for students and instruction for teachers – this includes more time for repetition, deeper coverage of the curriculum and more opportunities for experiential learning
- Increased learning opportunities for disadvantaged students, including focused hour and year extensions for those performing below expectations

However, potential negatives include:⁸²

- Cost – particularly in light of the current economic climate and budget struggles faced by many U.S. schools
- Wasted time – in the event increased school time does not translate into increased instruction time
- Increased fatigue and boredom, as well as decreased effort
- Less time for informal learning, extracurricular activities, student employment and free time
- Greater number of work hours for teachers and potential burnout
- Potential lack of parental support –of 3,500 adults recently polled, only 11% percent suggested lengthening school hours or the school year to address gaps in supervision; 51% suggested more flexible workplaces.⁸³

Efforts to change school hours and their impact

In addition to filling the work-school hour gap, school hour extensions might have an effect on children's academic success. The following case studies demonstrate the effect of an extended school day or year, using various



examples from throughout the United States:

*The Massachusetts Learning Time (ELT) Initiative*⁸⁴

- **Description** – Participating schools were required to expand learning time by 300 hours a year. Schools did so by expanding the number of hours in each school day or by adding additional days in the school year.
- **Effect** – After 2 years of implementation, ELT had a positive and educationally meaningful effect on 5th grade achievement scores in science, but no statistically significant effect on scores in other academic areas. ELT had a very small (.05%) negative effect on school attendance rates and teachers in the second year of ELT were more likely to consider transferring to another district as compared to Massachusetts' teachers not at ELT schools. ELT students were less likely to report participation in non-academic clubs at school than their non-ELT counterparts, but variation in other participation in out-of-school activities was not significant.

*Boston Middle School Program*⁸⁵

- **Description** – School day extended to 7.5 hours.
- **Effect** – Drastic improvement in student outcomes. Percentage of students passing state basic skills test in reading increased from 77% to 90% in three years.

*California Study*⁸⁶

- **Description** – Correlational study investigating link between length of school day in 1,030 California schools and reading, writing and mathematics test performance among 6th grade students.
- **Effect** – Length of school day significantly predicted school-level achievement test scores – with longer days predicting higher scores. However, positive association did not exist across all increases in school hours. Rather, the association was curvilinear, with the positive association not holding up at the extremes.

*Missouri Extended "Plus" Program*⁸⁷

- **Description** – Extended school year combined with teachers specifically selected for the program, extended professional development for teachers and research-based programs on student academic achievement. Program implemented at four elementary schools with low test scores and lack of progress toward improvement. The effect of the program was assessed using the Communication Arts Missouri Assessment Program (MAP) taken during the 3rd grade and the Mathematics MAP taken during the 4th grade. **Effects** were assessed over the course of 5 years.
- **Effect** – Significant impact on 3rd grade achievement on the Communication Arts MAP during the last year of the study only. No impact on the 4th grade Mathematics MAP.

*Brown Study*⁸⁸

- **Description** – Extension of school year by 5 weeks for kindergarteners academically at risk. Participants were students with prereading scores of less than 60%. At-risk students were matched with a control group based on prereading scores, sex and ethnicity.
- **Effect** – Findings suggested that those involved in program demonstrated significant improvement in reading and mathematics at the end of the 5 week extension (based on teacher assessments). Females and African American students demonstrated greater improvement compared to males and Caucasian



students. However, through the first two quarters of first grade those involved in the program did not show significantly greater teacher-reported academic progress compared to control students.

Possible Solution: Employer Childcare Programs

Another solution to the supervision gap is employer-provided childcare programs. The provision of childcare benefits is attractive because it can improve employee morale, reduce turnover and absenteeism, and increase productivity.⁸⁹ Additionally, a cost-benefit study performed at a bank in Pasadena, California, showed that the bank’s on-site day-care program saved it between \$138,000 to \$232,000 in annual operating costs.⁹⁰ The savings were due to reductions in both turnover and absenteeism.⁹¹ One study has shown that a majority of workers are willing to pay between \$125 and \$225 per year to subsidize on-site day care.⁹² Even those without young children are willing to pay, believing the provision of such services would help raise morale and increase productivity.⁹³

The following table summarizes a variety of childcare solutions employers might consider, developed by The Pennsylvania State University:⁹⁴

Table 4 Forms of Employer-Sponsored Childcare Programs

Form	Description
Parent Seminars	Programs designed to provide information and resources to parents and/or assess the family support and child care needs of working parents in the company. Can be used to provide supplemental information on other child care options.
Resource and Referral Services	Help parents locate and select child care during all work shifts. Aim to improve the quality and supply of child care. Employers can contract with resource and referral agencies to provide specific services for employees.
Alternative Work Schedules	Employees able to adjust their arrival and departure times to meet their individual needs.
Parental Leave Policies	Providing extended leave for parents for predetermined family reasons, including birth of child or adoption. Providing periodic short-term leave to parents enabling them to care for their children, including taking a child to the doctor or attending parent- teacher conferences.
Dependent Care Assistance Plan	Three Primary Forms: - Voluntary salary reduction plan up to \$5,000/year of pre-tax earnings, placed in flexible spending account to pay for eligible child care expenses. - Employers place money into individual accounts for employees to offset costs of child care – in addition to current salary and benefits. - Combination of the above.
Voucher or Reimbursement Program	Voucher – employers contract with child care providers or centers in community for services for their employees; parents given vouchers for all or part of their child care costs, and the providers or centers redeem the vouchers for payment through the employer. Reimbursement – employees choose the child care arrangement and then receive reimbursement from the company for some portion of the costs.



Form	Description
Purchase of Space / Discount Program	<p>Purchase of Space – employer arranges to own a specific number of spaces in local child care program and typically covers all or a portion of the cost of the unused spaces to keep those spaces open; employee- parents cover most or all of the cost of any spaces used.</p> <p>Discount Program – employer arranges for employees to have reduced fees, usually through a financial contribution to the program by the employer.</p>
School-Age Care	Supervised care for children between age of 5 and 14 during times when school is not in session (before-school, after-school, holidays, vacations, etc.).
Sick-Child Care	<p>Child care for ill or recovering children.</p> <p>Programs vary depending on the illnesses or symptoms they will admit or exclude.</p>
Consortiums	<p>Employers pool resources to conduct joint child care projects.</p> <p>Employers share start-up costs and receive priority enrollment for their employees’ children.</p>
On-Site or Off- Site Child Care Center	<p>On-site or off-site center sponsored by employer or union at the work site or at another location.</p> <p>Center can be operated by the employer or by a child care provider.</p> <p>Employers usually pay all start-up costs, operating losses that occur before the center is fully enrolled, and some portion of the ongoing operational expense.</p> <p>Parent fees cover the balance of operating expenses.</p>

Source: The Pennsylvania State University, College of Agricultural Sciences

Conclusion

The typical school day covers less than two-thirds of a full-time employee’s schedule. This fact combined with various other breaks leaves a large amount of time during which school-aged children require supervision. Extending the school day or year to cover these gaps is a suggestion that has garnered attention in the United States for decades. There are a number of potential advantages and disadvantages to this approach. The multitude of research on the effectiveness of school day or year extension generally reveals that, at worst, the programs probably have no effect on achievement and that, at best, a positive relationship exists between academic achievement and hour or year extension. Based on evidence currently available, the true effect remains difficult to determine, but certainly depends on how an extension is implemented. On the other hand, employer-provided childcare is an attractive alternative.

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The Role of Mentoring

Naomi Cahn

This briefing paper on mentoring provides background and context for the American approach to mentoring.

Key findings are:

- Mentoring has been shown effective, leading to increased job satisfaction and higher pay and increased promotions for the mentee. Women with a mentor are much more likely to get their first post-MBA job at mid-management or above.
- Mentoring can take many shapes, and can be used to enhance interaction between lower-level employees and upper management, help ensure advocacy at upper levels, train and coach employees, and foster the promotion of employees.

Introduction

Mentoring describes a variety of possible relationships between two people that typically focus on further development of the participants or their careers. The most standard form involves a more senior and experienced person who provides advice, role modeling, and support to a more junior person.¹ Mentoring can be either formal or informal.² Informal mentoring arrangements generally arise when a mentor chooses to work with a mentee based on the mentor's judgment that the protégée shows potential for further development. By contrast, formal mentoring occurs within an institutionalized program that provides more structure to the relationship. Because formal mentoring programs do not depend on cultivating personal relationships, they can be more accessible and egalitarian.³

Effectiveness

Mentoring is effective, leading to increased job satisfaction as well as higher pay and more promotions for the mentee.⁴ In their survey of 4000 people who earned their MBAs between 1996-2007 on three continents, Catalyst found that "mentors have an impact on high potentials' career advancement from day one and continue to have an impact as careers progress-but that men reaped greater benefits from mentoring than women."⁵

Women with a mentor were 56% more likely than women without a mentor to get their first post-MBA job at mid-management or above. Mentees whose mentors were at the highest levels experienced higher levels of growth in their compensation than did those with more junior mentors; the mentor's seniority affected the mentee's success.⁶

Mentoring that takes the form of sponsorship - a powerful advocate who will use clout to promote the mentee - is the most effective method for career advancement.⁷ A sponsor can provide access to a business network, champion the mentee to others in the organization to increase her visibility, and protect the mentee. In addition to its positive outcomes for both mentor and mentee, mentorship benefits the organizations themselves by, for example, reducing turnover and enhancing recruitment.⁸



Moving Forward

Successful mentoring requires a few key elements. First, senior management levels must be supportive and engaged by funding the program, offering to serve as mentors, and then reinforcing their commitments to the project. Involvement by senior management fosters a culture of accountability and responsibility for the advancement of female managers and executives.⁹ Second, the program must be clearly structured and integrated with the rest of the company; mentoring without work/family balance initiatives or with a masculine leadership culture is less likely to be successful. Accordingly, a commitment to promoting women involves larger, company-wide changes to support and facilitate this process. Many companies have developed multiple ways to encourage women's leadership and to facilitate balancing career and family, as the charts at the end of this memo show.

Third, open lines of communication are critical so that women have easy access to support and advice to help in fostering the mentoring relationship and in establishing clear goals within each mentorship and for the program more generally.¹⁰ Finally, mentoring programs need monitoring and evaluation to ensure that they are effective and improved as a result of lessons learned from both inside and outside of the company.¹¹

Numerous tools exist to help in the monitoring process.

Models

Formal mentoring programs offer examples of best practices to ensure women's career advancement. Catalyst has been a leader in developing mentoring programs, and the organization has numerous useful tools to help companies move towards improved mentoring. Listed below are examples of some mentoring programs and the forms they take.

a. Mentorship:

At Deutsche Bank, for example, internal research revealed that female managing directors who left the firm to work for competitors were not doing so to improve their work/life balance. Rather, they'd been offered bigger jobs externally, ones they weren't considered for internally. Deutsche Bank responded by creating a sponsorship program aimed at assigning more women to critical posts. It paired mentees with executive committee members to increase the female talent pool's exposure to the committee and ensure that the women had influential advocates for promotion. Now, one-third of the participants are in larger roles than they were in a year ago, and another third are deemed ready by senior management and HR to take on broader responsibilities.¹²

b. Sponsorship:

Deloitte has developed an award-winning Initiative for the Retention and Advancement of Women's (WIN), based on a commitment to attracting and advancing women. Its tax division has also implemented a Leading to Win program, an eighteen-month program that is focused on female partners, principals, and directors near promotion in that division. The program provides training, coaching, and sponsorship to help them increase their representation in Deloitte's top tier. Participants draw up a Leadership Action Plan, outlining what they need to do to advance. They receive guidance from private sessions with an executive coach, meet with their own sponsors (who are typically senior members of the firm), and attend special conferences, at which they talk



with other participants and learn from executive speakers.¹³ Deloitte tracks the number of women in senior management as well as the gender turnover gap.¹⁴

Table 1 Selected Advancement Programs at 10 Best Companies for Women's Advancement

Types of support for careers	Mentoring, sponsorship programs, Career counseling, management training, affinity groups, executive coaching
Manager accountability	Compensation related to helping women advance; training on work-life issues involving employees; trained on flexible work arrangements

Source: Working Mother Magazine¹⁵

Table 2 Selected programs from the top 10 companies for Women's Advancement

Company	Programs and achievements
GE ¹⁶ 150 chapters in 43 countries of the Women's Network	Goals of The Women's Network: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Enhance women's professional growth by providing information on coaching career paths, flexibility, and role models - Develop new and existing commercial talent - Foster the retention and promotion of women in technology and engineering - Improve GE's ability to attract, develop and retain diverse women - Cultivate the leadership competencies that reflect GE's focus on growth.
KPMG ¹⁷	Women's Advisory Board (WAB) created in 2003 to create a more compelling work environment and enhance career opportunities for women across the firm by driving national and local initiatives that support, advance, retain, and reward them. Under the auspices of the WAB, KPMG's Network of Women (KNOW) fosters women's networking, mentoring, and leadership opportunity. Women were: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - 18.8% of the firm's partners in 2010, up from 12.9 % in 2003 - 24% of the firm's 2010 new partner class - 41% of all 2010 promotions into senior manager, director, and managing director positions.
Ernst & Young ¹⁸	Offers a variety of programs: 1) the Career Watch program helps women become partners by outlining the steps for their advancement; 2) the Inclusiveness Leadership program, which provides mentoring from external coaches and executive board members; 3) Work Smart program, designed to help balance work-family issues.

Source: Working Mother Magazine

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15. "10 Best Companies for Women's Advancement: Executive Summary 2011." 2011. Working Mother. Available at http://www.wmmsurveys.com/Executive_Summary_Best_Companies_for_Advancement.pdf
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17. "Women's Initiatives." 2012. KPMG. Available at <http://www.kpmg.com/US/EN/WHOWEARE/DIVERSITY/Pages/Womens-Initiatives.aspx>; "Women's Advisory Board." 2012. KPMG. Available at http://www.kpmgcareers.com/whykpmg/wi_wab.shtml.
18. "Ensuring We Are Inclusive." Ernst & Young. Retrieved February 19, 2012 (www.ey.com/UK/en/About-us/Our-people/About-EY---Diversity-and-inclusiveness---Ensuring-inclusive).



Contributors

Several wonderful individuals contributed to this report. We thank them for their time and expertise in assisting us with this endeavor.

Sophia Dini is currently in charge of the Economic Promotion of the City of Sion in Switzerland. She received her Ph.D in Labor Economics from the Economics Department of the University of Geneva (Switzerland) in 2010. Sophia was a visiting scholar at the Institute for Research on Labor and Employment (IRLE) at the University of California, Berkeley in 2007-2008. Her research focuses on discrimination, occupational segregation and the gender wage gap. Sophia's dissertation was entitled: "The Impact of Wage Policy and Employment Segregation on the Gender Wage Gap: An Empirical Analysis for Switzerland." Prior of writing a thesis, she worked at the Labour Market and Social Policy Department of the State Secretary for Economic Affairs (Seco) from 2001 until 2003.

Scott Grether is a second master student in Sociology CCAS. He holds a B.A. in History and Sociology.

Iulia Haşdeu received her Ph.D. in anthropology at the University of Neuchâtel in 2007. She conducted fieldwork and wrote about gender and ethnicity within the Roma/Gypsies communities and/or migrants. As lecturer at University of Geneva, Gender Studies Institute (Sociology Department), she currently teaches academic courses on related topics.

Antwan Jones received his Ph.D. in sociology (2010) from Bowling Green State University, where he researched the role that socioeconomic status has in determining childhood overweight and childhood functional limitation over time. As an urban sociologist, he is particularly concerned about how socio-environmental processes (e.g., segregation and neighborhood change) affect health and well-being during various stages of the life course.

Althea Koburger is a second year master's student in international affairs at George Washington University. She has worked on trans-Atlantic technology transfer on water-related issues, and has an interest in global international cooperation.

Irenka Krone-Germann is the author of the book *Part-time Employment in Switzerland, Relevance, Impact and Challenges* (2011) and of several economic and political articles. She received her Ph.D from the Economics Department of the University of Geneva (Switzerland) in 2010. Irenka has also a master degree in history and political science from the Graduate Institute of International Studies in Geneva and a Diploma in business administration from UC Berkeley. From 1995 to 1999 she was a Swiss negotiator and delegate at the World Trade Organization (WTO) and then worked as Head of publication at the Swiss Promotion Agency Location: Switzerland. Irenka is currently Program Manager at the Trade and Development Section of the State Secretariat for Economic Affairs (SECO) in Berne.

Matthew LeDuc holds a B.A. in anthropology from the University of Michigan and a M.A. in anthropology with a concentration in international development from the George Washington University. Matthew recently spent a year in the south Indian city of Hampi studying the effects of a UNESCO World Heritage site on marginalized and poor people.

Lindsay Luken is a second year law student at George Washington University Law School who graduated from Tulane University in 2010.

Michael Peters is a third-year law student at George Washington University Law School. Michael is from Northumberland, Pennsylvania and is a 2007 graduate of The Pennsylvania State University where he double-majored in Psychology and Political Science.



Appendix A: GW Building Bridges Survey on Gender Equality in Switzerland

Do you think that gender is a factor in career advancement in Switzerland? [Yes / No]

Do you believe that there are barriers to women progressing to top levels of management in Switzerland? [Yes / No]

Should Switzerland implement a quota system for women to be on company boards? [Yes / No]

Do you believe women and men receive equal pay for equal work? [Yes / No]

Do you believe that women's careers are negatively affected by having children? [Yes / No]

Do you believe that men's careers are negatively affected by having children? [Yes / No]

Do you think that maternity leave policy should be expanded beyond 14 weeks? [Yes / No]

Should paternity leave be granted to fathers? [Yes / No]

In your opinion, raising children is the primary responsibility of:

- Mothers
- Fathers
- Both parents equally
- Other family member
- Other (please specify) [blank]

In your opinion, economic support for the family is the primary responsibility of:

- Man
- Woman
- Both

Should school schedules be altered to accommodate working families? [Yes / No]

Would you be more inclined to work for a company that is certified as providing equal opportunities for men and women to advance? [Yes / No]

Have you had a mentor in your career? [Yes / No]

If yes, follow up with:



How do you think that you would benefit from having a mentor? [blank]

Please share your experiences with us if your gender or parental status has affected your work: [blank]

How old are you? (Please check one)

- 15-19
- 20-25
- 26-35
- 36-45
- 46-55
- 56-65
- 65+

Gender: (Please check one) [Female / Male]

Please indicate your household composition:

- Single
- Single with children
- Married
- Married with children
- Partnered
- Partnered with children
- Widowed
- Other [blank]

What language do you speak at home?

- German
- French
- Italian
- Romansh
- Bilingual (please specify) [blank]
- Other (please specify) [blank]

What is your highest level of education completed?

- Primary school
- Middle School
- High School
- Two-year college certification program
- University
- Master program or beyond

What is your parental status?

- Children under 6 years
- Children 6-13



- Children 14-18
- Children over 18
- No children

Are you currently in the paid work force? [Yes / No]

If yes: What is your occupation? [blank]

In which sector do you work:

- Government
- Business/private
- Small business
- Self-employed
- Not-for-profit/community
- Other [blank]

What type of employment contract do you have?

- A casual basis (hourly work)
- Permanent part-time
- Permanent full-time
- Fixed term contract
- Don't know

If part time is checked: Do you believe that working part time negatively affected your career advancement? [Yes / No]

Do you have suggestions to make part time employment more career friendly?

If respondent answered no on currently being employed: Please indicate the reason, up to two, that you are not in the paid work force:

- I don't need to work
- I am a student
- I have a disability
- Caring responsibilities – children
- Caring responsibilities – elder care
- I am retired
- Health reasons
- Other



Appendix B: Distribution List

The Survey was sent to the following institutions/organizations below with the request to distribute it to their member circles, contacts, friends, family members and beyond.

- The Swiss American Chamber of Commerce (Swiss Members/Friends), Darlene Hart (US tax online)
- British Association of Women Entrepreneurs (Swiss Members)
- www.frauenunternehmen.ch
- www.swonet.ch
- www.alliancef.ch
- www.bfm-agf.ch
- www.bpw.ch
- www.femdat.ch
- www.swissengineering.ch
- www.foka.ch
- www.nefu.ch
- www.slic.ch
- www.vchu.ch
- www.frauenunternehmen.ch
- www.wirtschaftsfrauen.ch
- CSS (Center for Security Studies) www.css.ethz.ch (Swiss Employees)
- wiisnetwork.ning.com/ (Group Switzerland)
- The Swiss Heart Foundation (www.swissheart.ch)
- The Swiss Red Cross
- The University of Applied Sciences and Arts Northwestern Switzerland
- The University of Zurich
- The University of Geneva
- The University of Lausanne



Appendix C: Excerpts from Corporate Gender Gap Report 2010

Reprinted with permission from the World Economic Forum.

Switzerland

KEY COUNTRY INDICATORS

	Rank (out of 134)	Score (0 = inequality, 1 = equality)
Gender Gap Index 2009	13	0.74

Gender Gap Subindexes

	Rank	Score
Economic Participation and Opportunity	48	0.69
Educational Attainment	88	0.98
Health and Survival	59	0.98
Political Empowerment	12	0.33

Economic Participation and Opportunity Indicators

	Rank	Score
Labour force participation	39	0.86
Estimated earned income (PPP US\$)	30	0.66
Legislators, senior officials, and managers	56	0.43
Professional and technical workers	75	0.87

Additional Indicators

Fertility rate (births per woman)	1.40
Maternity leave benefits (% of wages paid)	80%
Provider of maternity coverage	Social security
Length of paid maternity leave	98 days

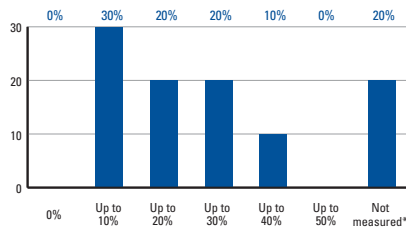
SURVEY RESULTS

Representation of Women in Business

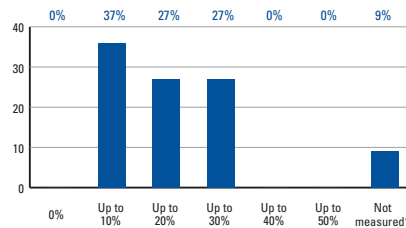
Approximate percentage of women employees (overall) **39.55%**

Percentage of female CEOs

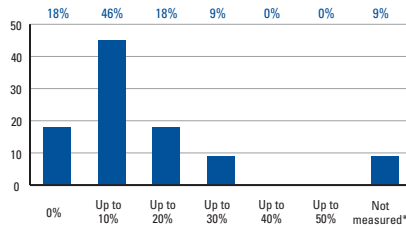
Please indicate the appropriate percentage of entry-level management positions in your company that are held by women:



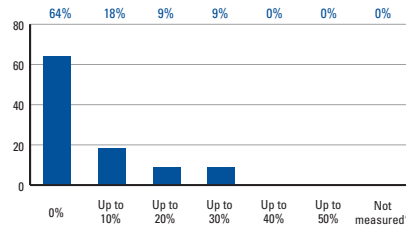
Please indicate the approximate percentage of middle management positions in your company that are held by women:



Please indicate the approximate percentage of senior management positions in your company that are held by women:



Please indicate the percentage of women among the Board of Directors of your company:



* "Not measured" means respondent answered "My company does not measure this information"



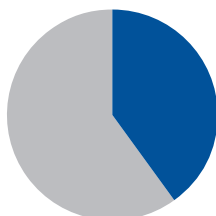
Switzerland

SURVEY RESULTS (Cont'd.)

Measurement and Target Setting

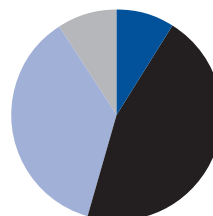
Does your company have specified targets, quotas, or other affirmative policies to increase the percentage of women in senior management or executive positions?

- Yes (40%)
- No (60%)



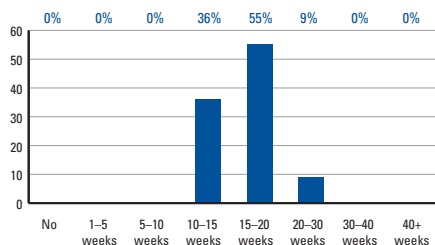
Does your company monitor and track salary differences between male and female employees holding similar positions?

- Yes, my company tracks salary gaps between women and men (9%)
- Yes, my company tracks salary gaps between women and men and implements corrective measures (46%)
- No, there are generally no gaps between male and female employees' salaries (36%)
- No, it is not currently part of our company policy to track salary gaps (9%)

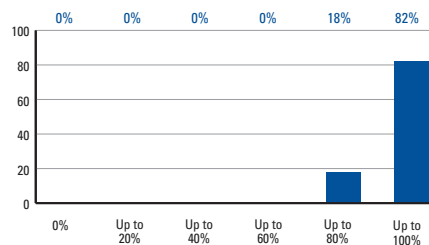


Work-Life Balance Practices

Does your company offer maternity leave?

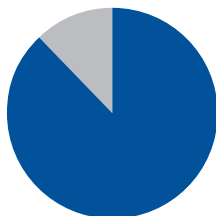


What is the approximate percentage of salary paid during this period?

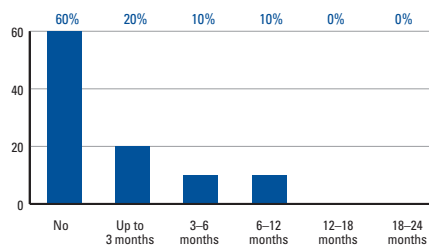


Does your company offer the option of parental leave, i.e., post-pregnancy leave that can be taken by mothers or fathers?

- Yes (70%)
- No (30%)



Does your company have longer-term leave programmes and/or allow career breaks for parents and/or caregivers?





Switzerland

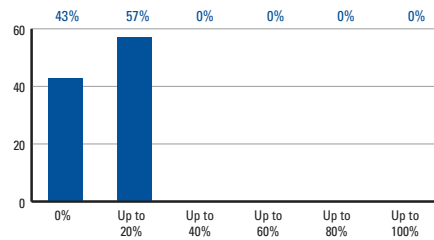
SURVEY RESULTS (Cont'd.)

Work-Life Balance Practices (Cont'd.)

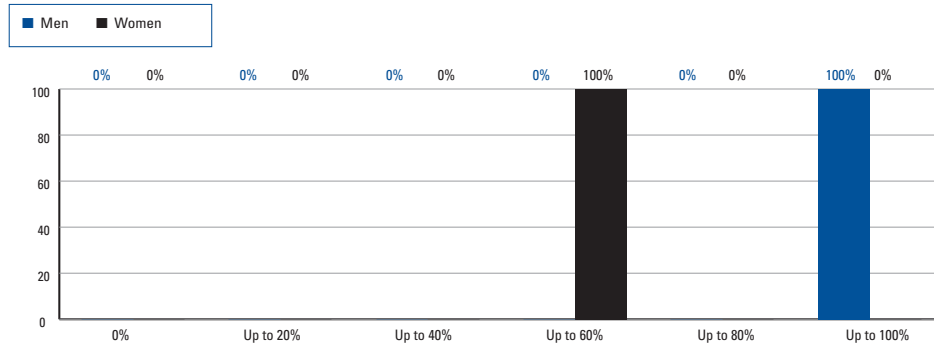
If your company offers long-term programmes and/or career breaks, do you also have "re-entry" programmes that help those employees stay connected while they are away and facilitate their return to the workplace?



If your company offers longer-term leave programmes and/or career breaks for parents and/or caregivers, what percentage of those taking this leave are men?



Of the total number within each gender that takes this leave, what percentage return to the same position or one with higher responsibility after taking their leave?



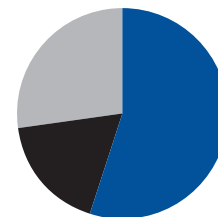
Percentage of companies that offer any form of childcare facilities..... **64%**

If yes, please specify the type of childcare facilities (select all that apply)

Percentage of companies that support employees in their effort to balance work and personal responsibilities through the following policies:

	Yes (%)	No (%)
Flextime/flexible working hours	90	10
Remote/distance working	70	30
Part-time work	100	0

- Permanent on-site facility: 55%
- Occasional or part-time childcare services: 18%
- Financial support towards childcare: 0%
- Other: 27% (please specify)





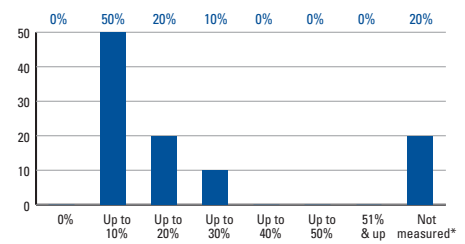
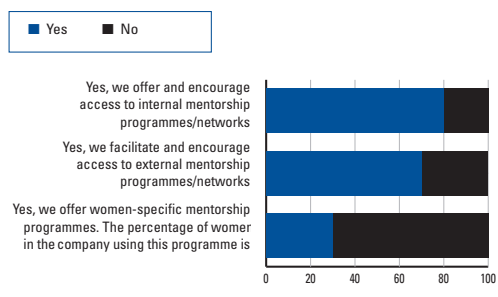
Switzerland

SURVEY RESULTS (Cont'd.)

Mentorship and Training

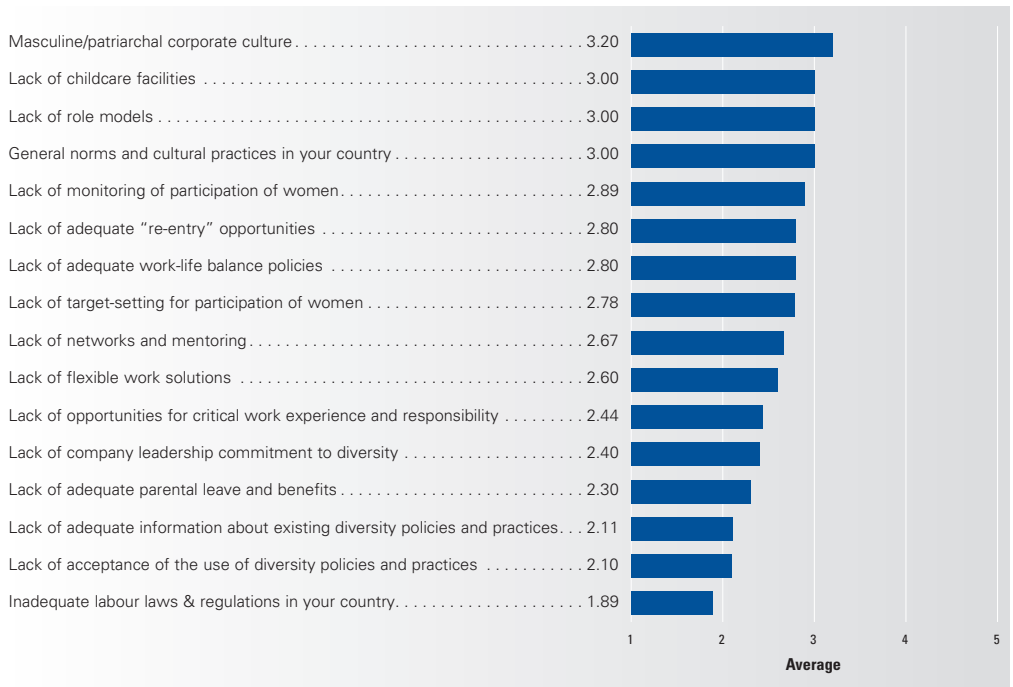
Does your company offer access to mentorship and networking programmes? Select all that apply and indicate percentage of women users if you have this information.

Among the assignments that you consider to be business critical/important, what percentage, in your opinion, are currently held by women? (Consider, for example: key startups, turnarounds, and line roles in key business units or markets).



Barriers to Leadership

From the following list, please use a scale of 1 (least problematic) to 5 (most problematic) to rate the following barriers to women's rise to positions of senior leadership in your company. Select N/A if the option is not a barrier.





United States

KEY COUNTRY INDICATORS

Gender Gap Index 2009 **31** **0.72**
Rank (out of 134) Score (0 = inequality, 1 = equality)

Gender Gap Subindexes	Rank	Score	Economic Participation and Opportunity Indicators	Rank	Score
Economic Participation and Opportunity	17	0.75	Labour force participation	41	0.85
Educational Attainment	1	1.00	Estimated earned income (PPP US\$).....	37	0.64
Health and Survival	40	0.98	Legislators, senior officials, and managers	10	0.74
Political Empowerment	61	0.14	Professional and technical workers.....	1	1.00

Additional Indicators

Fertility rate (births per woman).....2.10
 Maternity leave benefits (% of wages paid)No national program. Cash benefits may be provided at the state level.
 Provider of maternity coverage

Length of paid maternity leave12 weeks

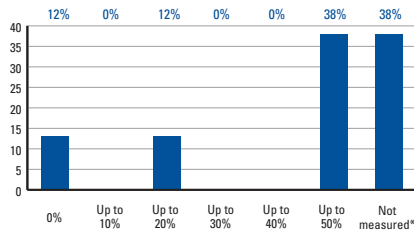
SURVEY RESULTS

Representation of Women in Business

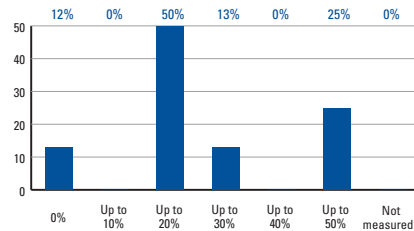
Approximate percentage of women employees (overall)**52.22%**

Percentage of female CEOs**0%**

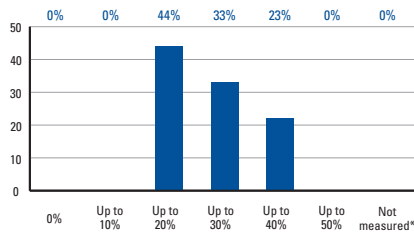
Please indicate the appropriate percentage of entry-level management positions in your company that are held by women:



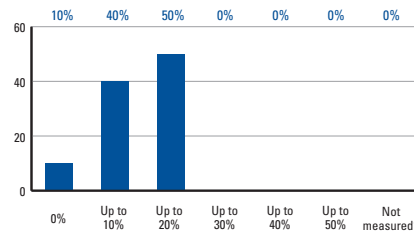
Please indicate the approximate percentage of middle management positions in your company that are held by women:



Please indicate the approximate percentage of senior management positions in your company that are held by women:



Please indicate the percentage of women among the Board of Directors of your company:



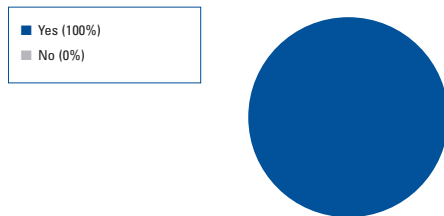
* "Not measured" means respondent answered "My company does not measure this information"

United States

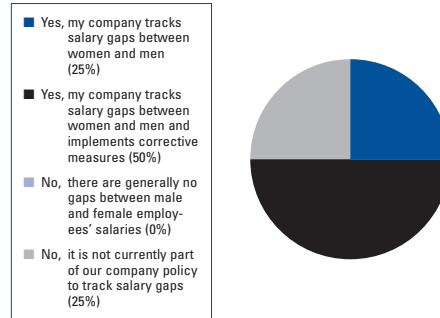
SURVEY RESULTS (Cont'd.)

Measurement and Target Setting

Does your company have specified targets, quotas, or other affirmative policies to increase the percentage of women in senior management or executive positions?

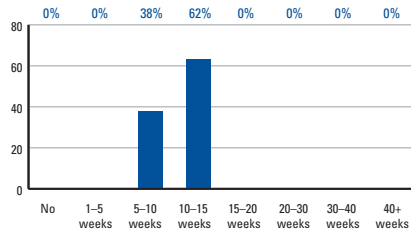


Does your company monitor and track salary differences between male and female employees holding similar positions?

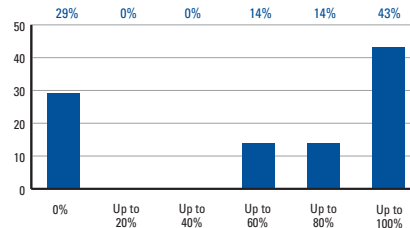


Work-Life Balance Practices

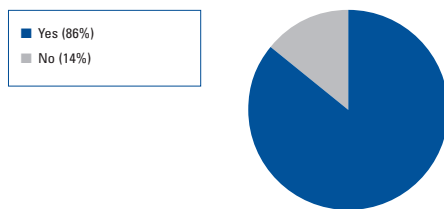
Does your company offer maternity leave?



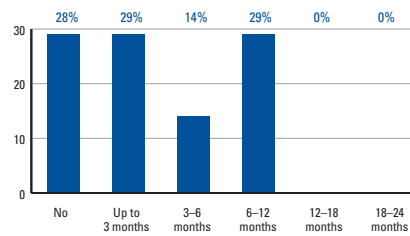
What is the approximate percentage of salary paid during this period?



Does your company offer the option of parental leave, i.e., post-pregnancy leave that can be taken by mothers or fathers?



Does your company have longer-term leave programmes and/or allow career breaks for parents and/or caregivers?



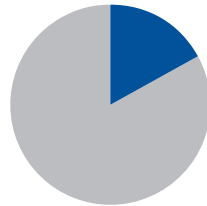
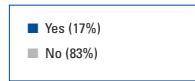


United States

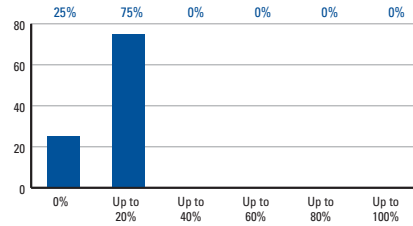
SURVEY RESULTS (Cont'd.)

Work-Life Balance Practices (Cont'd.)

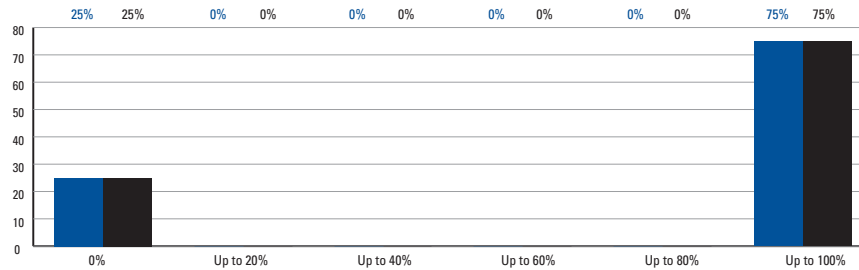
If your company offers long-term programmes and/or career breaks, do you also have "re-entry" programmes that help those employees stay connected while they are away and facilitate their return to the workplace?



If your company offers longer-term leave programmes and/or career breaks for parents and/or caregivers, what percentage of those taking this leave are men?



Of the total number within each gender that takes this leave, what percentage return to the same position or one with higher responsibility after taking their leave?



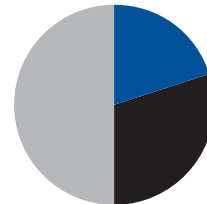
Percentage of companies that offer any form of childcare facilities.....50%

If yes, please specify the type of childcare facilities (select all that apply)

Percentage of companies that support employees in their effort to balance work and personal responsibilities through the following policies:

	Yes (%)	No (%)
Flextime/flexible working hours	100	0
Remote/distance working	100	0
Part-time work	100	0

- Permanent on-site facility: 20%
- Occasional or part-time childcare services: 30%
- Financial support towards childcare: 0%
- Other: 50% (please specify)

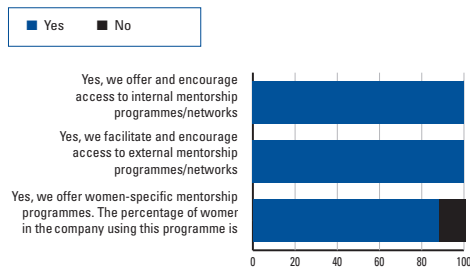


United States

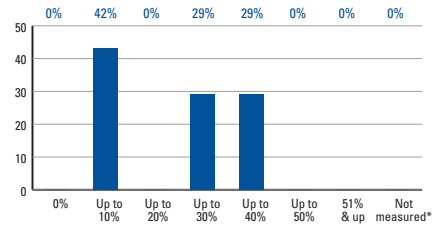
SURVEY RESULTS (Cont'd.)

Mentorship and Training

Does your company offer access to mentorship and networking programmes? Select all that apply and indicate percentage of women users if you have this information.

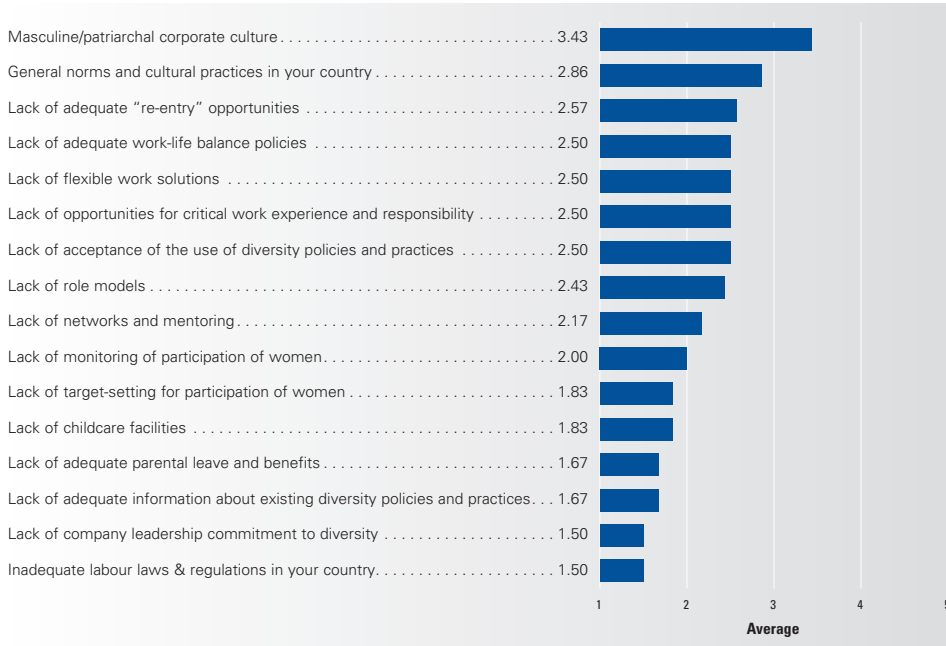


Among the assignments that you consider to be business critical/important, what percentage, in your opinion, are currently held by women? (Consider, for example: key startups, turnarounds, and line roles in key business units or markets).



Barriers to Leadership

From the following list, please use a scale of 1 (least problematic) to 5 (most problematic) to rate the following barriers to women's rise to positions of senior leadership in your company. Select N/A if the option is not a barrier.



GENDER EQUALITY IN EMPLOYMENT

Policies and Practices in Switzerland and the U.S.







THE GEORGE
WASHINGTON
UNIVERSITY
WASHINGTON DC