PROGRESS IN INCHES MILES TO GO

A Benchmarking Study of Women’s Leadership in Canada

Centre for women in politics and public leadership
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Carleton University’s Centre for Women in Politics and Public Leadership promotes women’s role in public leadership by providing leading edge research, education and training. The Centre works with a wide range of partners to integrate, strengthen and advance existing work and critical thinking that enhances women’s influence and leadership in public life in Canada and internationally.

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About the Authors

Dr. L. Pauline Rankin is Associate Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences at Carleton University and is appointed to the School of Canadian Studies. Her research focuses on several aspects of gender and politics, including the relationship between women’s movements and the state, state feminism and gender mainstreaming.

Dr. Jennifer Stewart is Associate Professor in the School of Public Policy and Administration at Carleton University. Her research focuses on the determinants of health for women and children.

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Preface

Women in Canada continue to be underrepresented in senior leadership across the private, public and nonprofit sectors. Because gender equality was enshrined constitutionally in 1985, a widespread assumption exists that Canadian women’s equality continues to improve steadily and therefore measures to advance women are no longer necessary. Cross-sectoral data, however, confirm persistent patterns of women’s underrepresentation in top leadership positions and, in fact, reveal that advancement results as well as the strategies used to address this gender gap have stalled in many fields.

Although significant research exists on the subject of Canadian women and senior leadership, such studies tend to examine barriers and evaluate best practices in single sectors. Inspired by The White House Project Report: Benchmarking Women’s Leadership (2009) in the U.S., this report revisits the issue of women’s leadership by offering a broad snapshot of Canadian women’s leadership across the private, public and nonprofit sectors. The study offers a scan of the existing literature, a comprehensive quantitative overview of women in senior leadership, and qualitative evidence from the public sector in which women have made progress in achieving leadership positions and the mining sector in which significantly less progress has been achieved.

Our findings reveal marked variations in women’s representation in senior leadership roles across sectors, the persistence in the workplace of gendered expectations about leadership and generational shifts in ideas about leadership and work/family integration. These results indicate a need for new, multi-pronged strategies to end women’s underrepresentation in senior leadership. The report also proposes an agenda for future research in the field.
Director’s message

Despite progress, women continue to be underrepresented in positions of senior leadership and decision-making in Canada. Given the proportion of women in Canada’s workforce, it might appear that women have reached parity with men. Our Benchmark study shows otherwise; women have not achieved parity, even when their labour force participation does not exceed that of men.

Numerous studies demonstrate the correlation between greater numbers of women in private sector institutions and better financial results. World Bank and UN studies confirm a clear link between a country’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and women’s participation level in all aspects of their economic and social institutions.

Challenges to achieving equitable representation are deeply rooted in cultural norms and expectations that do not necessarily reflect the reality of women’s lives today. Multi-faceted strategies are needed to address organizational processes as well as cultural norms and expectations. Strategies are more likely to succeed when they also include sector-wide initiatives that dispel the myth that full representation has been achieved and take concrete steps necessary to advance women’s leadership. Canada as a whole benefits from the full participation of all of its citizens.

This benchmark study, completed in collaboration with Deloitte Canada, adds to existing knowledge by looking at representation across the private, public and non-profit sectors, showing the uneven progress across and within sectors and examining the deeper challenges to achieving parity. Our recommendations show the way forward for organizations and sectors to advance women’s leadership.

I would like to thank all of the women and men who contributed to our research. I invite the private sector, governments, and the non-profit sector to collaborate in order to ensure that Canada is a leader in ensuring full participation of women at all levels of leadership.

Clare Beckton
Executive Director
Centre for Women in Politics and Public Leadership
Carleton University
Making a mark

The workplace of the future will transcend borders, gender and culture and be multi-generational. Each of these diverse groups will have different needs and expectations, which employers will need to meet if they are to harness the talent needed to succeed.

It should come as no surprise that there are still multiple variables that impact leadership positions for women in Canada. Traditional and pervasive definitions of “leadership” often conflict with the expectations of our top-performing women. These definitions also conflict with the expectations of our next generation of talent who don’t necessarily see a glass ceiling as a permanent obstacle to their futures. For these women, and the businesses they can – and will – have a tremendous impact on, this benchmark report is a call to action.

It is common knowledge that women bring a different perspective to management. We see this in the report, where participants noted increased collaboration, flexibility and accountability among some of the benefits of women’s leadership in industry. Although much value has been placed on these characteristics of solid leadership, the report indicates that organizational leaders have yet to adjust their management structure to create a path for women with these important skills for leadership positions.

The barriers to women’s leadership positions are consistent across many industries in Canada as indicated in this study. These barriers present an interesting challenge as many Canadian industries are facing critically low productivity levels. If we know that women in leadership roles change the way companies collaborate, build partnerships and engage employees, how can women’s leadership roles not contribute to amazing innovations in the future and improved levels of productivity? The connection is there, but we need to make targeted and consistent changes in our organizations to capitalize on this wealth of knowledge and opportunity.

The study suggests that there will be modest gains in the number of women in senior leadership roles in the next 25 years. Can we afford this slow and steady growth? We need to encourage our public, private and non-profit organizations to understand the impact women leaders can make on their organizations. A firm commitment and action plan is required by organizations to reform their organizations’ cultures and business practices, enabling progress and developing a stronger workforce as a result.

Frank Vettese
Managing Partner and Chief Executive
Deloitte
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Executive summary

Report highlights
Women’s absence from senior leadership is more than an issue of adequate supply. Women experience underrepresentation in senior leadership even in sectors in which they constitute a significant percentage of middle managers, specialized managers and dominate in terms of educational credentials.

Societal expectations and workplace culture still constitute significant barriers to women’s ascent into senior leadership positions. Despite significant advances in gender equality, many women still confront societal expectations of senior leaders as male and stereotypes about working motherhood and women’s role as caregivers. Such messaging pressures women to continue to assume a greater share of family responsibilities and leaves many women in middle management wary of undertaking leadership posts. Addressing women’s underrepresentation in senior leadership requires not just narrow structural and/or procedural changes to an organization’s processes, but also attention to transforming the organizational culture of workplaces into environments more conducive to women leaders.

There are emerging generational gaps in ideas about work and leadership that need to be addressed. Generation Y women and men (those born between 1978 and 1984) express increasing unwillingness to accept the norms and expectations associated with leadership models of their predecessors. Their views suggest that institutions across all sectors must rethink leadership pathways for women as well as men and the expectations that accompany senior leadership positions.

Definitions of good leadership have changed within many organizations; yet, women leaders continue to encounter gendered notions of leadership that reflects a traditional male model. Although public and private sector women and men alike agree that definitions of leadership have evolved to embrace “soft skills” such as the capacity to engage employees, reformulated ideas about leadership and leadership competencies haven’t resulted in significant changes in the expectations women leaders face. Women who ‘make it’ to the top regularly face expectations of extended work hours, 24/7 availability and ready mobility for travel. Leadership models that fail to take the realities of many women’s lives into account can negatively impact women’s experience in senior leadership positions and may affect the ability to retain women leaders.

Talking about women’s leadership doesn’t necessarily translate into action. Research shows that while many organizations recognize the multiple benefits of having women in senior leadership roles, few actually implement a coherent action plan to address the issue. Advancing women’s elite leadership demands a multi-faceted plan involving men and women, not just verbal commitments, single strategies or stand-alone programs targeting potential women leaders.

Key Findings

• In 2011, women held only 29% of senior management positions in Canada, although they constituted 47% of the labour force.
• Since 1987, the percent of senior management positions held by women increased at an annual rate of 1%. If this rate of change remains constant then we expect that 50% of senior management positions to be held by women by 2068.
• There is significant variation across industries in the percentage of senior management positions held by women. Public Administration and the Service Industry have above average levels at around 42% and 48%, respectively, while the Energy, Retail and Wholesale, and Manufacturing industries are at levels below 20%.
Focusing on gender in senior leadership is only one strand of building a diverse senior leadership team. In adopting a language of ‘gender diversity’ in relation to leadership issues, many institutions assume that moving women into senior leadership positions resolves the ‘diversity question’. Institutions must work towards increased understanding of, and sensitivity to, the particular challenges facing minority women’s access to senior leadership positions and develop specific plans to improve leadership diversity across a range of variables.

Women’s record of progress in assuming senior leadership positions is highly uneven across sectors and fluctuates over time. Although the insight that women’s representation in senior leadership has stalled is not new, our research reveals that this stalled progress is not uniform; significant variations exist across sectors and women’s progress in senior leadership is not linear but rather fluctuates over time.

Data gaps remain. Ascertaining what we don’t know about women’s leadership is as important as analyzing what we know. Just as there is significant cross-sectoral variation in the participation of women in leadership positions, there is also great variation in the data available. Broad industry statistics are readily available yet information on specific sectors or positions is more difficult to obtain. Recent information on the percentage of women partners in law firms, for example, was unavailable. While this report concentrates on gender differences, the research revealed data gaps around other axes of diversity such as race. Maintaining sound data collection and ensuring its availability is critical, particular with respect to diverse populations.

Recommendations
Advancing women’s representation in senior leadership requires organizations – private, public and nonprofit – to implement clear, multi-faceted action plans. Verbal commitments and single strategies are insufficient. Substantive, sustainable change will occur only through an array of best practices combined with ridding workplace cultures of more subtle forms of discrimination that may negatively impact women’s opportunities for advancement.

Changing the definition of good leadership isn’t enough. Management practices, discourses and institutional values together must reflect and support modern gender roles and the shared responsibility of women and men for all aspects of family-related care duties. This includes expectations about hours of work and availability of senior leaders.

Sectors can benefit by working together to address challenges and implement best practices for women’s leadership. Sector-wide initiatives to address women’s underrepresentation in the senior ranks will transform women’s leadership prospects much more effectively than relying on incremental changes within single organizations.

Private, public and nonprofit sectors alike must expand their approach to diversity in leadership to address not only gender inequalities, but also to recognize the full range of diverse identities that leadership positions must represent.
Introduction

For over three decades, academic institutions, governments, consulting firms and individual corporations alike have tracked the global underrepresentation of women in senior leadership across the public, private and nonprofit sectors. This body of research effectively makes the case for women in senior management, identifies the ongoing barriers blocking women from such positions, and offers best/better practices for improving women’s leadership opportunities. Despite such a wealth of research and analysis, however, gender equality in leadership worldwide remains an elusive goal. Although progress towards more equitable levels of women’s senior leadership is evident, Canada’s record continues to mirror international trends.

While significant research exists on the subject of Canadian women and senior leadership, such studies tend to examine barriers and evaluate best practices in single sectors. In contrast, this research reports on women’s leadership in Canada across a range of sectors. It surveys the existing literature on women and leadership, documents the uneven nature of Canadian women’s record in senior leadership and analyzes its somewhat stalled nature in certain fields.

The purpose of this report is to benchmark women’s representation in senior leadership across the private, public, and nonprofit sectors. It presents a quantitative overview of women’s representation in senior leadership posts over the past twenty-five years that reveals those sectors in which women’s advancement has been the most dramatic as well as those in which women’s progress has stalled. The quantitative data also illustrate that, contrary to popular belief, women are not making consistent, steady gains towards full leadership equality but instead experience fluctuations and plateaus over time with respect to their leadership presence.

Featured in the report are case studies of the Canadian mining sector and the federal public service that compare the experience of the public and private sector in advancing women into senior leadership positions. The federal public service boasts a very good record of promoting women into senior leadership positions while the mining industry continues to face significant challenges with respects to women’s underrepresentation in senior roles. Nevertheless, the comparison reveals similarities in terms of the lingering barriers to women’s representation in elite decision-making and reinforces the need to rethink strategic approaches to promoting and retaining women in senior leadership positions.

Research Methodology

Summary statistics describing the Canadian labour force were prepared using data provided by Statistics Canada. The main data source used was the Labour Force Survey. Data regarding specific sectors were available publicly through a variety of sources.

The case studies derive from available published material supplemented by focus groups and interviews with women and men in senior and middle management positions within two major mining companies and interviews with women and men in the Canadian federal public service. These insights are not generalizable to other sectors nor should the case studies be seen as exhaustive; rather, they are meant to encourage further cross-sectoral analyses of women’s underrepresentation in leadership with a view to providing new information about the issues that continue to impede gender equality in senior leadership in Canada.

The study makes four central contributions:

• it offers a quantitative snapshot of women’s senior leadership in Canada across the private, public, and nonprofit sectors and pinpoints the existing data gaps on this topic;
• it summarizes the current state of research in Canada and presents qualitative evidence based on men’s and women’s analysis of the gendered leadership gap in both a private and a public sector environment;
• it presents practical recommendations for improving women’s presence in senior leadership; and
• it outlines a research agenda for future scholarship in this area based on the study’s findings.

Our findings reveal marked variations in women’s representation in senior leadership roles across sectors, continued concern about the openness of organizational cultures to women leaders and generational shifts in ideas about leadership and work/family integration. These insights indicate a need for new, multi-pronged strategies to end women’s underrepresentation in senior leadership. We argue that although comprehensive, the existing Canadian literature on this topic demands additional research capable of generating conclusions that can substantively advance leadership opportunities for all women.
Women’s leadership matters

Empowering women and leveraging their talent and leadership fully in the global economy, politics and society are fundamental to maximizing a nation’s competitiveness. Today, economic performance and good governance are cited as key reasons for women in senior leadership positions. Deloitte’s *Women in the Boardroom: A Global Perspective* notes a trend towards “bottom line” arguments with women’s leadership now regarded as the “bright” not just the “right” thing for companies to pursue (2011: 2).

...diverse leadership is most likely to find innovative solutions to tackle the current economic challenges and to build equitable and sustainable growth.

World Economic Forum 2011: v
In fact, firms with a higher proportion of women in top management positions are leaders in terms of corporate financial performance including productivity, revenues, and profitability. Similarly, research shows that women’s presence in politics and public service brings new attention to issues such as poverty alleviation, human development, gender-based violence, parental leave and childcare, equal pay, pensions, electoral reform and the delivery of services.

**Accounting for women’s underrepresentation in senior leadership**

Explanations of women’s continued underrepresentation in leadership often still stress supply and demand arguments that view women’s absence from senior leadership as a consequence of a smaller talent pool. In the field of electoral politics, for example, this line of argument long characterized women as ‘apolitical’ and ‘uninterested’ in politics. Today, however, we recognize that multiple factors are responsible for women’s underrepresentation in politics, such as: the reluctance of political parties to support women candidates; structural inequities within electoral systems; cultural, attitudinal and financial barriers; and the challenge of reconciling the demands of political life with family responsibilities.

Such explanations about the unavailability of qualified women no longer are supported by evidence. In many parts of the developed world, including Canada, as well as in many emerging economies, women account for more than half of college and university graduates and their talent often remains seriously underutilized. In fact, we know that women’s absence from leadership positions stems from a range of causes. The World Economic Forum’s Corporate Gender Gap Report 2010 noted the key barriers to women’s rise to positions of leadership, as illustrated in the table below. None of the barriers relate to an inadequate supply of women for leadership positions, but instead point to a country’s general norms and cultural practices and masculine/patriarchal corporate cultures as two of the key barriers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Barriers to women’s rise to positions of leadership</th>
<th>Score</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General norms and cultural practices in your country</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine/patriarchal corporate culture</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of role models</td>
<td>3.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of flexible work solutions</td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of opportunities for critical work experience and responsibility</td>
<td>2.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of adequate work-life balance policies</td>
<td>2.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of networks and mentoring</td>
<td>2.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of company leadership commitment to diversity</td>
<td>2.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of target-setting for participation of women</td>
<td>2.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of acceptance of the use of diversity policies and practices</td>
<td>2.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of adequate “re-entry” opportunities</td>
<td>2.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of childcare facilities</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of monitoring of participation of women</td>
<td>2.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of adequate information about existing diversity policies and practices</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of adequate parental leave and benefits</td>
<td>1.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate labour laws &amp; regulations in your country</td>
<td>1.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This scale of 1 (least problematic) to 5 (most problematic) asked respondents to rate the following barriers to women’s rise to positions of senior leadership in their company.

Source: Zahidi and Barra, Corporate Gender Gap Report 2010 (2010: 10)
Retention problems associated with keeping talented, qualified women in middle management ranks who then become eligible for senior posts has been dubbed the "leaky pipeline" phenomenon (Keller 2012). In the U.S. context, researchers Barsh and Yee (2011) argue that American women decline advancement opportunities, seek jobs elsewhere or even leave Corporate America completely due to: structural obstacles (such as a lack of role models, exclusion from informal networks and not having a sponsor in upper management); lifestyle concerns about the expectations associated with executive positions; and institutional mindsets that perpetuate stereotypes about the executive ranks as a male bastion.\(^7\)

Although many public and private institutions have expended significant time and resources to adopt best practices designed to better integrate women into the leadership pipeline, the lingering effects of systemic biases against women as leaders continue to thwart women’s progress through the persistence of a **gendered culture of leadership**. Women leaders in Europe, for example, report that the greatest ongoing obstacles to their careers lie with prevailing myths about women’s inability to lead, men as the main breadwinners, motherhood norms and the masculine nature of leadership (McKinsey 2007b). Scholar Yvonne Due Billing argues that within the workplace, women are too often “victims of the phantom male norm” (2011: 298). Even within countries with a strong record of supporting gender equality, organizational management practices and discourses, institutional values and cultures haven’t kept pace with modern forms of gender identity for both men and women with normative expectations about leadership and family responsibilities deeply entrenched in many work settings. Our study found that despite significant advances in gender equality in many aspects of Canadian society, vestiges of traditional gender role expectations still permeate workplace environments and can impact women’s leadership in a variety of ways.

But there is also a generational shift occurring with respect to work and leadership that may level a significant impact on women’s leadership. Research conducted with **Generation Y** women workers (born between 1978 and 1984) documents how this age cohort wants a more holistic approach to work-life balance regardless of whether they have children (Business and Professional Women’s Foundation 2011). Gen Y respondents tend to rally around themes such as gender equality and diversity in addition to their desire to organize their work and personal lives differently than that of their predecessors. Their expectations about the need to dramatically rethink work culture and work/family balance may well precipitate major changes in future leadership models. No doubt it will be the changing values of younger women and men that will compel meaningful change in work and family integration.

**So how does Canada measure up?**

Across OECD countries, “women represent on average 45% of the labour force, [but] they only constitute around 30% of legislators, senior officials and managers” (OECD 2012: 92). By comparison, our research revealed that women held only 29% of senior management positions in Canada in 2011, although they accounted for 47% of the labour force.

A recent study of the world’s largest employers found that the average number of women holding CEO-level positions was slightly below 5% (Zahidi and Ibarra 2010: 5). Women currently account for 10% of the membership of boards of directors of the largest listed companies in the European Union and 3% of their CEOs.\(^8\) In Canada, women hold 14.5% of Directorships on Canada’s 500 largest company boards (Catalyst 2012a). In the nonprofit sector, women hold 39% of the CEO-level positions of the 100 largest charities and hold 29% of seats on Boards (Table 5).

With respect to public sphere participation, women’s worldwide representation in national parliaments stood at 20.2% in October 2012. With women holding 24.7% of the seats in the elected House of Commons and 37.9% of the appointed Canadian Senate, Canada ranks 46th in the world.\(^9\) Estimates suggest that countries with ‘first past the post’ electoral systems and no quota arrangements such as Canada, however, will not reach 40% women in national elected office until near the end of the 21st century.\(^10\) Women occupy approximately 20% of all Cabinet positions worldwide (World Bank 2012: 20) but still tend to be allocated to ministerial portfolios deemed more ‘feminine’ and with lower levels of influence (Krook and O’Brien 2011:3). Women ministers, for example, are twice as likely to hold a social portfolio than an economic one (World Bank 2012: 177). At the federal level, Canadian women account for 21% of cabinet ministers. A Canadian woman has never held the post of Minister of Finance. Province by province, however, women fare better
and in September 2012 held 38.5% of premierships, including in British Columbia, Alberta, Nunavut, Newfoundland and Labrador and Quebec. In terms of public sector employment, women constitute about 58% of the total public sector workforce within OECD member states (OECD 2009). EU data report that women occupy 30% of the highest-level non-political administrative positions and 39% of second-level administrative positions in civil services. Women occupy 33% of the highest-level positions in socio-cultural ministries within the European Union but only 22% in the ministries with economic and strategic key functions. In Canada, women make up 55.3% of the total federal public service and have fared particularly well in the Executive categories of the federal civil service, now accounting for 44.9% (Privy Council 2012).

Although recent worldwide surveys such as the Global Attitudes Report 2010 find significant improvement in the acceptance of women’s equality and roles as leaders, in Canada this acceptance has not translated necessarily into substantive and systematic approaches to addressing the underrepresentation issue:

- Mercer’s Women’s Leadership Development Survey (2010) found that while Canada pays lip service to a diverse workforce, Canada ranks below the global average in terms of organizations offering activities or programs to advance women to senior leadership. Eighty-two percent of the 290 organizations surveyed lacked a clearly defined strategy or vision for developing women leaders.
- The 6th Annual Rosenzweig study (2011) concludes that Canadian companies with success in moving women into middle management positions may tend to see the issue of gender equality as generally resolved and therefore exhibit less concern about women’s absence from the very top positions of power.

And what about diversity and women’s leadership?

Addressing fully the range of issues related to women in senior leadership also requires analysis of which women successfully gain access to leadership cadres and who remains sidelined. In The Value of Diverse Leadership, the Conference Board of Canada (2008) championed the case for diversity in ethnic and racial backgrounds and gender on senior management teams, illustrating the particularly challenging situations faced by racialized populations in reaching senior leadership positions. Unfortunately, the trend in corporate diversity reports is to aggregate gender and visible minority groups. Given that the record of women in leadership is better in both the public and private sectors than that of visible minority populations, lumping gender together with other “diversity populations” may present a more positive picture of overall “diversity in leadership” achievements than is the case when gender and race are reported separately.

A recent study by Canadian researchers Konrad and Yap found the persistence of multiple axes of discrimination in the workplace:

The results indicate that even after controlling for an extensive list of supply-side, demand-side, and control variables, white females, minority males, and minority females were all less likely to receive promotions than white males. White females were 4.5% less likely to be promoted than comparable white males, and minority males 7.9% less likely. Minority females experience the largest disadvantage as they were 16% less likely than similar white males to receive promotions. (2010: 605)

Demographic trends suggest that persons of colour will account for about 20% of Canada’s population by 2017 and Canada’s Indigenous populations are growing at twice the rate of the general population. Questions of minority women’s paths to leadership, therefore, must be integral to any dialogue about women’s underrepresentation in senior leadership.

Employers tend to … disproportionately promote people they feel ‘comfortable’ with or who they think would ‘fit in’… unless unconscious biases are acknowledged, the monochromatic composition of organisations will persist and, despite all the diversity talk, highly qualified women and minorities will continue to face biases and barriers that inhibit advancement.

Dr. Malinda Smith, Vice-President, Canadian Federation for the Humanities and Social Sciences (2011)
In 2011, women accounted for 47% of the Canadian labour force, nearing equal representation with men. While women’s labour force participation rate was close to men’s participation rate, their representation in senior management was not. In fact, they constituted only 29% of senior management in Canada in 2011.13
This part of the report summarizes the current representation of women in leadership positions in Canada and, when available, supplies information on changes over time. The leadership positions are divided into three sectors – private industry, the public sector, and the nonprofit sector. Within each of these broad sectors, information on sub-sectors is included. The section on the private sector includes a breakdown into eight industries, a summary of the leadership in the Financial Post 500, representation of women on boards, and representation of women on union executives. The section on the public sector includes information on women’s representation in elected offices, public administration, the judiciary, education, and the military. For the nonprofit sector, we furnish an overview of the sector along with information for five sub-sectors – education, health, welfare, religion, and other. Information on the percent of middle managers who are female and the educational choices is also included to offer insights into why women are not in senior management.
Using the Labour Force Survey (LFS), the percentage of senior management who are female in private industry and for eight industry classifications was estimated for the years 1987 to 2011. As shown in Table 1 and Figures 1 and 2, the trend has been an increasing representation of women in senior management – rising from 15.1% in 1987 to 26.1% in 2011. This change of eleven percentage points is a result of an average annual increase of 2.3% in the proportion of senior management positions held by women over the past 25 years. If this rate of change remains constant, that is, if the 2.3% increase continues annually, we would expect women to account for 50% of senior management positions in the private sector by 2040.

Table 1: Percent who are Female in Private Sector by Industry, comparison of 1987 and 2011

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>65.6</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>61.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail and Wholesale</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical and Scientific</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>45.0</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism and Transport</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>44.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real Estate</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>65.0</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>70.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>15.1</strong></td>
<td><strong>40.8</strong></td>
<td><strong>26.1</strong></td>
<td><strong>43.4</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Labour Force Survey, calculations by author

Figure 1 presents the timelines for industries above the percentage for the entire labour force in 2011; Figure 2 presents the timelines for the industries below the percentage for the entire labour force in 2011. The industries in Figure 1 are Technical and Scientific, Tourism and Transport, Services, and Financial; Figure 2 reports on Energy, Retail, Manufacturing, and Real Estate.

Decomposing the trend by industry reveals four groups of industries. Services saw a significant increase between 1987 and 1995 in the percentage of women senior management (34% to 48%) and then no significant change over the last fifteen years. The Technical and Scientific, and Financial industries saw increases from 1987 to 1995 followed by a period of little change. Retail and Wholesale and Energy saw little change in the 25-year period.

**Key Findings**

- In 2011, women held only 26% of senior management positions in Canada, although they were 43% of the labour force.
- The percentage of senior management positions held by women has increased from 15% in 1987.
- There is large variation across industries in the percentage of senior management positions held by women.
- Men are more likely to be in senior management even after accounting for the gender composition of the labour force.
and Tourism and Transport industries saw a recent increase in the representation of women in senior management beginning around 2002 and ending with women holding 34% and 26% of senior management positions, respectively. The Financial industry recorded a consistent increase in the percentage of women holding senior management positions. Starting at 11% in 1987 and increasing to 20% in 2011, this industry increased female representation by 82%. Finally, the remaining four industries – Energy, Retail, Manufacturing, and Real Estate – did not experience any significant increases.

In addition to examining the trends in the representation of women at the senior management level, it is important to place that percentage in the context of the percentage of women working in the industry. If the gender composition of senior management reflects the gender composition of the labour force in the industry, the ratio of the percent of senior management who are women to the percent of the labour force that are women would be one. Using the percentages in Table 1, this ratio can be calculated.

Although the Financial industry consistently increased the percentage of senior management who are women, considering the percentage of women in its labour force, it falls behind the other industries with a ratio of 0.16 in 1987 and 0.33 in 2011. Most industries saw an increase in this ratio between 1987 and 2011 with the exception of Real Estate (although due to the small sample sizes it is best not to draw conclusions). None of the industries have a ratio equal to or greater than one, which indicates that the representation of women in senior management in most industries is not representative of the composition of the industry’s labour force.

It is also possible to adjust for the gender composition of the industry’s labour force by comparing the likelihood that a man is in senior management to the likelihood that a woman is in senior management. Figure 3 presents this ratio across the eight industries for two years – 1987 and 2011 – the first and last years in our data. In all industries, the ratio is greater than one indicating that men are more likely to be in senior management than women even conditional on the gender composition of the labour force. For most industries there has been a decrease in this ratio between 1987 and 2011, which indicates that the likelihood for women is approaching the likelihood for men, although a substantial difference still remains. For the total labour force, that ratio was 2.07 in 1987, which means that men were more than twice as likely as women to be in senior management. In 2011, this ratio was down to 1.68 indicating that men were now 70% more likely to be in senior management than women. The differences across industries are, again, substantial. The Financial industry had the highest ratio at 6.70 while the Technical and Scientific industry recorded the lowest ratio at 1.43.
Sources of information that measure the senior management positions held by women in the private sector other than the LFS are available. Beginning in 1998 Catalyst Inc. has conducted a census of the Corporate Officers and the Boards of Directors of the Financial Post 500 list (FP500) in alternate years. These census results provide a look at the role of women in the top 500 firms in Canada and are presented in Figure 4.20

The composition of the Boards of Directors and the Corporate Officers of the FP500 reveals increasing trends in the inclusion of women since 1998. The percentage of board seats held by women grew from 9.8% in 2001 to 14.0% in 2009. The percentage of board seats of Crown Corporations held by women has been higher than the FP500 and increased from 21.4% in 1998 to 29.1% in 2009. The percentage of FP500 companies that have no women on their Board of Directors fell from 51.4% in 2001 to 41.9% in 2009.

The percentage of the FP500 corporate officers who are women increased from 12% in 1999 to 17.7% in 2010. The percentage of FP500 firms with at least one woman in a corporate officer position increased from 56.4% in 1999 to 69.7% in 2010. The percentage of FP500 firms that have female heads, that is, CEO or President, increased from 2.8% in 2002 to 6.0% in 2008.

Although these series all exhibit an improvement in the representation of women in the ranks of Directors and Corporate Officers, there is still significant underrepresentation considering the composition of the labour force (43% of private sector employees were women in 2011) or even the composition of senior management (26% were women in 2011).

The Canadian Board Diversity Council surveyed the board members of the 500 largest Canadian firms over the last decade and found that women have made gains in board representation. In the Utilities industry, there has been a 44% increase in the percent of board seats held by women. In the Finance and Insurance Industry there has been a 25% increase, a 34% increase for Retail Trade, a 52% increase for Manufacturing and a 61% for the Mining, Quarrying, Oil and Gas industry. These seem like substantial increases; however, when placed in context, the representation of women on corporate boards remains below 25%.
Organized labour plays an important role in the Canadian labour force with over 29% of working Canadians covered by a collective agreement in 2010 (Uppal 2010). Unions may negotiate job security, workplace practices, wages, and influence macroeconomics conditions. The types of issues placed on the agenda by a union can be influenced by the composition of its executive. If the executive of the union is not representative of the employees then the union may be less effective in addressing the concerns of employees.

The gender composition of the executives of the affiliates of the Canadian Labour Congress was calculated as of June 2012. The percentage of union presidents who were female was 29.7%; the percentage of vice-presidents and treasurers who were female was 24.7%, while the percentage of unionized employees who were female was 52.4%. These numbers are based on the larger organizations of the locals and so may not reflect the presence at negotiations around the country; however, they are suggestive that females are not proportionately represented on the union executive.

In summary, many of the statistics presented in this section on the private sector indicate that women’s participation in leadership positions has been increasing over time. The average percentage of women in senior management positions across the economy has risen, as has the percentage of Corporate Officers who are women or board seats held by women in the FP500. Despite this trend, however, women remain underrepresented in leadership positions. There is also significant variation across sectors in the economy. The service industry is approaching equal representation, but other industries have made no progress. In no sector are women as likely as men to hold a senior management position. Overall, while progress has occurred in some sectors of the economy, there is more yet to be achieved particularly in industries such as energy and finance.

### Table 2: Percentage of Board Seats held by Women

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2007</th>
<th>2009</th>
<th>2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Utilities</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>21.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance &amp; Insurance</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>19.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail Trade</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining, Quarrying, Oil &amp; Gas</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Canadian Board Diversity Council
The public sector is diverse and assumes many roles in the Canadian economy. Elected officials, the judiciary, the education sector and the military are all important components of the public sector and in this section we examine the role women play in the leadership of those sectors. We begin with a sectoral overview.

The trend between 1987 and 2011 in the percentage of senior management who are female is captured in Figure 5. Even in 1987, Public Administration had close to 35% female senior managers and in 2011 the percentage was 43%, both percentages well above the percentage in the private sector of 26%. Women also comprise a greater proportion of the labour force in Public Administration than the private sector and this difference in participation may explain the higher percentage of women in senior management in Public Administration. Comparing the percentage of men in Senior Management to the percentage of women in Senior Management can account for the difference in participation rates. In 1987, men were 34% more likely than women to be in Senior Management and in 2011 men were 44% more likely than women to be in senior management. Over the past 25 years, there has not been a significant change in the representation of women in senior management in Public Administration.

Key Findings

- In 2011, women held 43% of senior management positions in Public Administration.
- The percentage of senior management positions held by women has increased slightly since 1987 from 35%.
- A greater percentage of elected positions are held by women, but in most cases not at or above 30%.
- A third of judges are female.
- In the education sector, there are fewer women in senior roles as the level of education provided by the institution increases and as the seniority of the role increases.
- The military has low participation of females and correspondingly low representation of women in senior positions.
Figure 6 shows the percentage of Senior Management, Specialist Management, and total labour force that is female for all levels of government. It is striking that the three lines for the entire public administration sector are so close to each other. The percentage of the labour force working in Public Administration that is female is close to the percentage for senior managers and specialist managers. The ratio of the percent of senior management that is female to the percent of the labour force that is female is around 0.85 indicating that representation of women at the senior management level is close to reflecting the gender composition of the sector’s labour force. Further, there does not seem to be any indication of a glass ceiling – the percentage of senior and specialist managers that is female is also very similar; women are represented throughout the hierarchy.

There has been an increase in the percent of each group that is female. The female percentage of the labour force has risen from 42% to 48%; the percentage of women specialist managers has risen from 37% to 49% and the female percentage of senior managers has risen from 35% to 42%. The Public Administration sector has also been above the average for the labour force in all three measured percentages.

Arguably, the most prominent and high profile positions in the public sector are those held by elected officials. The number of female candidates in federal elections and the percentage of seats in the House of Commons are plotted in Figure 7. The number of women candidates in a federal election reached a peak in the 1993 election, but then declined. Since the 2006 election, there has been an increase in numbers of women candidates, although there were also more candidates chasing more seats compared to the 1993 election. Figure 7 also shows that the percentage of seats held by women in the House of Commons has been increasing since the 1984 election when women won 9.6% of the seats. In the 2011 election, women won 24.7% of the seats.

Canada is not yet at the 30% representational threshold usually described as a critical mass, but each election seems to be getting closer. The last two elections showed an increase in the seats held by women of 6.3% and 11.8%, respectively. If the number of seats won by women in each federal election continues to increase by 11.8% then we would expect that in two more elections women would hold more than 30% of the seats in the House of Commons. With an increase of 6.3% each election, it would take four more elections to reach this milestone.
Figure 8 shows the percentage of seats held by women in the provincial and territorial legislatures as of February 2010. Only Manitoba has women holding more than 30% of seats. The percentage of cabinet posts held by women has exceeded 30% for several provinces – Manitoba, Quebec, Ontario, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland.

The judiciary plays a prominent role in the public sector. Figure 9 presents the percentage of women judges between 1987 and 2012. The trend shows an increase from 6.35% in 1987 to 32.3% in 2012. Now nearly a third of judges are women.

Although law firms are not necessarily part of the public sector, the career pathway to a judgeship often involves making partner in a law firm and so the percentage of women partners provides useful information on the role women play in the judiciary. Information on the gender composition of partners of law firms is limited and out of date.27

Table 3: Partners at Law Firms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>% of Males who are Partners</th>
<th>% of Females who are Partners</th>
<th>% of Partners who are Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Law Society of Upper Canada</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990</td>
<td>33.2</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Law Society of Alberta</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>18.0</td>
<td>29.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Gender Composition of Senior Management in Education 2012

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>% Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Primary and Secondary</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Principal (2005)</td>
<td>52.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chair of School Board</td>
<td>44.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superintendent of School Board</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Post-Secondary</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Colleges</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deans</td>
<td>42.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Presidents</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presidents</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deans</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Presidents</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presidents</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Statistics Canada 2006 Census  
b. School board websites  
c. For some school boards, usually rural, the Superintendent is the principal.  
d. Institution websites  
e. List of Institutions from CAUT Almanac of Post-Secondary Education in Canada 2011-2012  
f. Missing much information – unreliable  
g. Includes CFOs  
h. Missing French language institutions

Table 4 presents the proportion of senior management who are female in the education sector using data gathered from a variety of sources. Two general trends emerge. First, as the level of education increases, female representation at the senior management level falls. Second, within each level of education, the more senior positions have less female representation.

In 1988, the Canadian Human Rights Tribunal ordered the Canadian Forces to implement several policies, one of which was to devise a plan to achieve full integration of women in the Canadian Forces. Despite this ruling, it was over a decade later, in 2001, when women were allowed to serve on submarines and all positions in the Armed Forces finally were opened to women.

As of May 2009, women comprised 15.1% of the Canadian Forces (regular and reserves), but only 4% of flag officers and 10.4% of senior officers (Figure 10). The army is the branch of the Canadian Forces with the lowest percentage of females at about all levels. Compared to other parts of the public sector, the military has the lowest female participation rate and a similarly low representation of women in senior management positions.

Much like the private sector, the public sector has seen an increase in women’s participation in leadership positions. This increase has occurred for those employed in public administration and in elected positions. Equal representation is not yet achieved, although the rates of participation are higher than in much of the private sector. Other roles in the public sector, such as judges, education and the military, have also had increases, but are still not at equal representation.
Nonprofit Sector

The third sector examined is the nonprofit sector that encompasses a wide variety of organizations performing an even wider variety of roles. For example, hospitals, universities and colleges account for a significant proportion of the economic activity in this sector, while it also contains small foundations and charities. The economic output generated by this sector accounted for 7.1% of GDP in 2010.\(^\text{28}\)

In 39% of the largest 100 charities, excluding universities and hospitals,\(^\text{29}\) a woman holds the senior executive position. This percentage is over double the 17.7% of corporate officer positions\(^\text{30}\) held by women in the private sector and is closer to the 45% of positions in the Executive occupation group in the public sector.

Table 5: Summary of Female Leadership of Large Charities in 2012\(^\text{31}\)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percent of CEOs who are female</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent of Board Chairs who are female</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average of Board Seats held by women</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author’s calculations

These large charities also have more female representation on boards than exists in the private sector. On average, women held 29% of large charity board seats in 2012,\(^\text{32}\) which is similar to the 29% of Crown Corporation board seats held by women in 2010 and higher than the private sector in which women held 14% of board seats in 2010. Despite holding 29% of board seats, women are Chairs of the Board for only 19% of large charities.

Table 6: Summary of Average Percent of Listed Officers of the Largest 100 Charities who are Female in the Nonprofit Sector by Category, 2010

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welfare</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Registered Charity Information Return (T3010), author’s calculations

Key Findings

- Women hold 40% of CEO positions in the nonprofit and charitable sector
- 40% of listed officers are women
- Nonprofit organizations in the religion category have a lower representation at 27%
Using reports submitted to the Canada Revenue Agency (CRA) in 2011, leadership in the charitable sector can be summarized by five categories – health, education, religion, welfare, and other. Table 6 summarizes the percentage of listed officers who were female for the largest 100 organizations by revenue in each category. The individuals listed in the report submitted to the CRA are usually the board members of the organization, although not all board members may be listed.

For most categories, roughly 40% of listed officers are women, similar to the percent of women CEOs in the nonprofit sector reported in Table 5. The religion category is an exception with 27% of the listed officers being female, which is closer to the 26% of women in senior management within the private sector.

Representation of women in leadership in the nonprofit sector is higher than in the private sector and similar to the public sector. As was found for the private and public sectors, there is variation across the nonprofit sector in that charities in the Religion category have a much lower representation of women in the leadership positions.
4 Important explanations

Why are women not represented at the senior leadership level? Some evidence may be available from examining the percentage of specialist managers who are female and graduation rates by field of study.

Specialist managers carry out management duties in a specialized field such as human resources or finance. For example, a Director of Accounting would be considered a specialist manager. It is likely that senior managers are drawn from the specialist manager group. A large discrepancy between the percentage of senior management who are women and the same percentage for specialist managers might suggest that women are hitting a glass ceiling, while similar percentages suggest that the problem lies earlier in the career progression.

Figure 11 shows the trend in percentage of women specialist managers for the Technical and Scientific, Tourism and Transport, Services, and Public Administration sectors. The Service industry has more than 50% of specialist managers who are female for most of the time period. For Public Administration, the numbers are very similar to the percentage of senior management although they show an increasing trend since 2000. The Tourism and Transport and Technical and Scientific industries do not record much of a trend or even a recent increase for specialist managers as they did for senior management.

Figure 12 shows the trends for the Financial, Energy, Retail and Wholesale, Manufacturing and Real Estate sectors. Again, the Financial industry stands out as unique. While the percent of senior management who were female showed a steady increase since 1987, it remained below the average. For the Financial industry, the percentage of women specialist managers has been well above the average since 1987, always above 44%. For the Retail and Wholesale, Energy, and Manufacturing industries there has not been much movement, same as for percentage of senior management.

Key Findings

- Women hold a greater percentage of specialized manager positions than of senior management positions
- As with the senior management positions, there is much variation across industries
- The percentage of university graduates from undergraduate degrees who are women has been constant at 57% since 2000 and the percentage from graduate degrees has increased from 45% in 1993 to 49% in 2009.
- There is much variation across field of study including a decline since 2000 in the percent of graduates who are females in architecture, engineering and related technologies.
Figures 13 and 14 show the percentage of women university graduates by field of study and level of degree from 1993 to 2010. Both figures contain the trends for the total graduates. The percentage of women graduates has been level since 1992/1993 at between 57% and 60%.

Figure 13 shows the trend for the five fields with the highest percentage of women. These fields are: education; visual and performing arts, and communications technology; humanities; social sciences; and health, parks, recreation and fitness. All of these fields generally show an increase in the percentage female since 1992/1993.

Figure 14 tracks the trend for the five fields with the lowest percentage of females. These fields are: business, management and public administration; physical and life sciences and technologies; mathematics, computer and information sciences; architecture, engineering and related technologies; and agriculture, natural resources, and conservation. Three of these fields – business, management and public administration; physical and life sciences and technologies; and agriculture, natural resources, and conservation – have had a general increase and now graduates from those fields are as likely to be female as male. The two remaining fields – mathematics, computer and information sciences, and architecture, engineering and related technologies – have not approached a level of 50% female. Indeed, since 2000, the percent of women graduates in architecture, engineering and related technologies has declined.

These two sets of figures provide information on the route to attaining a leadership position. The variation across industries also is evident in the percentage of women specialist managers. A greater percentage of specialist managers are female than senior managers and for some industries there is equality of representation, while that is not true for other industries. Significant differences also can be seen across the field of study at universities. While the majority of university graduates are women, there is significant variation across fields of study with mathematics, computer and information science and architecture, engineering and related technologies registering a decrease in the percentage of graduates who are female. Differences in field of study by gender may be the beginning of the gender differences evident in senior management positions.
The Gender Gap in Leadership within Canada’s Mining Industry

Canada is a major player in the global mining industry, producing more than 60 minerals and metals (Explore for More 2012). The Canadian mining industry is a key sector of the Canadian economy, accounting for 4% of GDP in 2010 and approximately 20% of Canadian exports in 2008. As illustrated below, the Canadian mining industry predicts that it will require 26,233 and 50,155 people by 2015 and 2020 to address an impending labour shortage.
Despite the significant opportunities currently available, women remain seriously underrepresented both in the industry at large and particularly within senior leadership positions. Overall, the percentage of women in the mining industry’s labour force has been relatively stable over the past two and a half decades, increasing from approximately 14% in 1988 to around 19% in 2010 (compared to an increase from 44% to 47% for the entire labour force for the same time period).

The estimated percentage of women in senior management mining positions varied between 1987 and 2011. In 1999, it fell to under 1%, rising to over 20% by 2008, but the percentage of women in senior management positions over the past twenty years shows little change (hovering around 15% in both 1987 and 2011). Women’s representation in mining’s senior leadership always has been below the average for the labour force, which stood at 28% and 30% respectively for the same years.

Interestingly, the estimated percentage of female specialist managers ranged from a high of 34% in 1987 to a low of 17% in 2003. By 2011, however, the percentage again stood at roughly the same level as in the late 1980s. In some years, this percentage for the mining industry was close to the percentage for the labour force, but usually was below it.
Women in the mining industry remain concentrated in clerical and support-related occupations, and administration and corporate services. Women are underrepresented in operational positions (e.g. mine supervisors, heavy equipment/crane operators, truck drivers, and labourers) as well as in science-related professions. Industry forecasts however, estimate that the trade and technical occupations will constitute approximately 70% of the total labour needs of the mining industry by 2015 and 2020, respectively (Mining Industry Human Resources Council: 2010).

Those women who do occupy senior leadership posts tend to be on the corporate side, often in human resources and financial roles. There are few women role models in operational management and the number of women on boards of mining companies is particularly low. Catalyst’s Women in Gas, Mining, and Oil in Australia, Canada & the US (2012b:3) reported in 2011 that women constituted only 1.4% of CEOs, 5.9% of Board of Directors, and 12.3% of senior officers in mining companies.

Our focus groups and interviews with both male and female senior mining officials probed issues related to the situation of women leaders in the mining industry, the reasons for the continued underrepresentation of women in senior leadership, possible strategies for addressing this gap and the changing nature of leadership in the industry more generally.

Participants agreed that the issue of women’s underrepresentation across the mining sector and specifically in leadership positions is not a new issue. One executive recalled serving on a task force looking at the issue of women in mining over 20 years ago and admitted that little has changed since then. The consensus that emerged from our study, however, is that the value of women’s contribution to mining as leaders is now widely acknowledged. Both male and female respondents cited numerous benefits of women’s leadership in mining, including the positive influence women exert on issues such as equipment design, maintenance and safety practices and their contribution to making remote mine sites healthier and even less violent work environments.

Perhaps most importantly, the majority of participants reported that ideas within the mining sector about what constitutes good leadership have changed substantially with leadership models now stressing collaboration, flexibility, accountability, engaging employees, building partnerships, and greater emotional intelligence, rather than solely operational and technical experience.

Figure 16: Proportion of Women in Select Mining Occupations, Canada

Both men and women noted, however, that the organizational routes to elite leadership in the mining industry haven’t kept pace with this new emphasis on values and management’s stated commitment to increasing women’s presence in senior leadership roles. Leadership competencies that determine promotions to senior leadership positions still prioritize technical knowledge and experience gained on the operational side of the industry. Those women who do hold senior positions tend to be clustered on the corporate rather than the operations side of the industry; consequently, the pool of women regarded as appropriate for promotion to the highest ranks of senior management positions is much smaller, regardless of the fact that the majority of our interviewees agreed that women are more likely to exhibit traits consistent with desirable leadership qualities.

Many of the discussions zeroed in on the urgent need to change the general culture of mining to make it both a more desirable career choice for women and, in turn, facilitate women’s move into senior positions. One male Vice-President stated that the industry “is its own worst enemy” in terms of its negative public profile. Women may choose not to enter the industry because of publicity over human rights abuses abroad, concerns about stereotypes about mining as “dirty work,” and stories about mine sites as sexist environments openly hostile to women’s participation in any capacity. Women in Mining Canada’s Ramp-Up: A Study on the Status of Women in Canada’s Mining and Exploration Sector (2010: 17), for example, found that more than one-fourth of interviewed female students—who were enrolled in a post-secondary mining and exploration-related program—consider the mining industry unattractive due to apprehensions about the work environment and the male-dominated and discriminatory culture.

One male executive at a mine site noted that some miners still refuse to work with women because of lingering superstitions about women underground as back luck. Women engineers shared their experience of mine sites as “masculine environments” where even though women engineers increasingly are more common, they still rarely rise to supervisory positions. Another woman senior executive described the alienating “cowboy mentality” she encountered in some companies that drove projects from discovery to development. A male mine manager noted that there is still significant resistance on the part of many older miners to having a woman boss, although several interviews stressed that a generational shift is evident with younger miners more accepting of women in senior leadership roles.

Women in senior leadership roles are forced to behave either like the bad witch of the West or as one of the guys. They haven’t got a lot of room to maneuver and it’s tough.

Male Vice-President
So what needs to change?
Across the board, women engineers and women corporate executives agree that company policies related to supporting the integration of women and family life are insufficient and that companies offer relatively few policies and practices to increase the percentage of women in senior leadership positions and address work culture problems despite verbal commitments from senior management. One woman HR executive spoke about the retention problems that stem from women “stepping back” from potential leadership positions due to their recognition that performance expectations, particularly expectations of travel, mobility and 24-hour availability aren’t easily reconcilable with family obligations. Most Canadian fly-in-fly-out organizations have dense working schedules: employees are usually expected to work between 4 to 14 consecutive days, consisting of approximately 12 hours of work per day, which is often followed by “long periods of time off, depending on the number of days they stay on site” (Costa, Silva, and Hui 2006: 2).

Another frequently voiced concern was that individual mine managers exert significant influence over the policies at their mines and, consequently, the extent to which work/family issues are accommodated falls to the discretion of the individual manager. Other women reported facing subtle pressure not to take their full maternity leaves; a group of male managers confirmed this issue, stating that taking parental leave would be “career suicide” for them. Finally, women and men, including one male Vice-President, admitted that women often needed to work harder than men to prove their worthiness for senior positions because their performance tended to be judged more harshly.

The interviews produced a myriad of suggestions for substantive changes to address the gender gap in leadership. Respondents called for the industry to be more proactive in developing larger talent pools by encouraging young women to enter geology and engineering through scholarships and other incentives. Among university graduates in 2007, the proportion of female graduates were less than their male counterparts in the areas of architecture, engineering and related technologies (24%), mathematics, computer and information sciences (30%), and personal, protective and transportation services (48%).

Within companies, appointment processes need to be updated to reflect new thinking about leadership competencies. Women in higher-ranking jobs need to be more visible in recruiting campaigns. More robust and transparent systems of mentoring and coaching are required. Women An Unmined Resource: A Report on Female Participation within BC’s Mineral Exploration and Mining Industry (2011:43) found that more than half of the female respondents surveyed had mentors during their career; however, only 9% of these were formal mentorships with 42% of respondents having found their mentors through informal networks.
Other women expressed serious concern about pay gaps. Research by Women in Mining Canada demonstrated that women in the mining industry earned on average approximately 32% less than their male counterparts, which was 11% higher than the average gender pay gap observed nationally (2010: 9). Although there was near unanimity among women and men with respect to a rejection of quotas as a method of increasing women’s senior leadership presence, several participants suggested that fast-tracking talented women on the operations side would be one way of expanding women’s leadership profile and raising the profile of talented women by involving them in special projects so that they can be spotlighted within organizations. A woman HR executive noted women themselves need to network more aggressively and leverage these networks more effectively while a male HR executive noted that men too need to be encouraged to see work/family integration as positive for them as well and not just a “woman’s problem.” Additional ideas included educational programs about diversity to senior management, more creative solutions to inflexible working conditions, including flexible rosters, job sharing and part-time work options as well as substantive and sustained attention to issues of workplace harassment.

Finally, a few senior managers noted the particular challenges associated with encouraging the promotion of Indigenous and other minority women into the mining industry. According to the 2006 Census, Aboriginal people comprise only 6.75% of the workforce in the mining industry, while immigrants constitute 8.75% of the mining sector’s labour force (Mining Industry Human Resources Council 2010). In the case of immigrant workers, the lack of credential recognition, skill sets, Canadian experience, limited language abilities in French and English and other cultural barriers often create obstacles for immigrants’ participation in the mining industry (BC Mineral Exploration and Mining Labour Shortage Task Force (2008: 22).

Given the location of many mines, working effectively to include Aboriginal women in the labour force is particularly pressing. Work hours are a challenge to hiring and employing Aboriginal female workers, as it does not allow them to fulfill their traditional responsibilities related to their communities. Regular long shifts or long working weeks often restrain the supply of potential workers to only those without family or cultural/religious commitments. The Mining Industry Human Resources Council advocates flexibility for Aboriginal workers to fulfill their traditional economic, social, and cultural practices such as hunting, harvesting, sharing, and cultural gatherings (2010: 12). Awareness-raising programs about Aboriginal culture have also been proposed as an effective strategy to encourage Aboriginal people’s recruitment, retention, and promotion within the mining industry (Ibid.). These suggestions notwithstanding, the issues of offering work settings that are conducive to all women and fostering women’s rise to senior leadership positions remain a significant and complex challenge to the mining industry.

For a more detailed study see The Pathway Forward: Creating Gender Inclusive Leadership in Mining available at www.carleton.ca/cwppl.

Instead of always focusing on what women need to do to increase their leadership chances, mining companies should concentrating on preparing men to work more effectively with women on the operations side of the industry.

Senior woman executive
The record of women gaining access to senior positions within the Federal Public Service (FPS) is markedly different than in the mining industry and, indeed, the public sector more broadly offers several instructive lessons for narrowing the gap within the private sector. Despite impressive numbers within its senior ranks, however, our research found that some lingering challenges remain even within a sector that over the past thirty years has addressed the issue of women’s underrepresentation in leadership quite successfully.
By 2010, the Ottawa Citizen described women as “flocking to [the] executive ranks” of the Canadian FPS (May 2010b). Certainly, the situation today differs dramatically from 1969 when Kathleen Archibald released Sex and the Public Service, the first study to analyze the situation of Canadian women public servants during a time when, as Archibald herself described, the Civil Service Commission “perceived its problem not as one of keeping women down—that was taken for granted—but as one of keeping down the number of women in the civil service” (as quoted in Thomas 2011: 12). By 2011, women indeed were well represented in the senior ranks of Canada’s FPS. Women currently account for 55.2% of all Federal Public Service employees and 44.9% of its Executive ranks, 14.9 percentage points above the representation level in 2001.

Figure 17. Percentage of Employment Equity Designated Categories in Executive Ranks

Both the EX04 and EX05 cadres have increased the percentage of women since 2000. For the EX04 cadre, the increase has been from 28% to 43% and, for the EX05 cadre the increase was from 14% to 34%; however, the gap between the percentage of women within the EX category and their labour force availability increases from EX04 to EX05.

Within the most senior ranks of the FPS, women comprise 34.5% of Deputy Ministers, positions appointed directly by the Prime Minister. To date, however, only one woman, Jocelyne Bourgon (1994-1999), has held the title of Clerk of the Privy Council, Canada’s highest-ranking federal public servant who also serves as Secretary to Cabinet and Head of the Public Service.
How do we account for women’s leadership success within the FPS?

Globally, women account for the majority of civil servants. Public sector employment tends to provide “attractive employment conditions, relatively stable jobs, flexible working hours and good pay and benefit packages” (OECD 2012: 101). Additionally, horizontal occupational segregation and gender pay gaps also tend to be lower in the public sector (Ibid. 213) so such positions are desirable for women employees. In Canada, the increase in women’s rise to senior leadership positions was facilitated by the larger supply of women’s labour in the pipeline due to such favourable working conditions supported by effective public sector bargaining. As Dean Stephenson’s observation argues, the federal government “walked the talk” on women’s leadership in various ways, including through amendment of the Employment Equity Act in 1996 to cover the Federal Public Service. The Act originally worked to identify and eliminate workplace barriers to the participation of women, Aboriginal Peoples, visible minorities and persons with disabilities and later was expanded to include the implementation of positive measures to promote a more representative public service.

In 2008, the significant number of women within the FPS’s Executive ranks led former Public Service Commission President Maria Barrados to recommend to the Senate Finance Committee a reconsideration of whether women should still be protected as a designated equity group under the Employment Equity Act. Barrados acknowledged, however, that removing women as an equity group would impact negatively on visible minority women who still face difficulties in reaching senior management positions (May 2010). This comment was an important admission that the gains made by women into the EX categories weren’t necessarily enjoyed equally by all women and pointed to the need to consider the impact of gender in tandem with other variables such as race when evaluating women’s record of holding senior leadership appointments.

So what’s left to change?

Although our interview participants acknowledged the enviable record of women in the FPS senior leadership as compared to other sectors, concerns were expressed about the lingering gendered nature of leadership and the assumption that women’s gains in senior leadership can’t be reversed.

Similar to our respondents in the mining industry, some FPS leaders noted that the culture of senior executives requires a 24/7 commitment to the job and expectations of constant availability that make attending to family responsibilities or even maintaining a life outside of work quite difficult. One woman registered her concern that the myth of the “ideal civil servant” still hadn’t fundamentally changed and that expectations still rested on a traditional assumption that “someone else was at home looking after everything.” The issue of how that culture might shift elicited an interesting response from one participant, a retired women executive who reflected: “I don’t know if those of us who ‘made it’ really made a difference. If we didn’t challenge the culture and expectations of what it meant to be a woman senior leader, then what was the point?” The view expressed here suggests that for meaningful change to take hold, women in senior roles need to challenge workplace expectations rather than struggle to fit into pre-conceived ideas about how they should fulfill their responsibilities.

Our participants noted a range of strategic initiatives that improved women’s opportunities to move into senior management beyond just employment equity targets, including leadership development and mentoring programs, and, in particular, work-family balance policies including generous parental leave. As one male participant summarized, “The pipeline didn’t really leak as much as in the private sphere because the jobs were good and there were a variety of supports in place to keep women here and available to move up through the system.”

Interviewees cited the positive impact of champions for women in senior roles, both men and women, who ‘broke ground’ in terms of supporting women throughout their career trajectory while others pointed to the adoption of sound human resource management practices that improved the equity of job competitions as responsible for women’s advancement.

They worked at it. There is no magic to this. They focused on it and walked the talk.

Carol Stephenson, Dean, Richard Ivey School of Business, University of Western Ontario (May 2010b)

Well, I think it’s true that the public service has shown leadership in this area...we’ve always been ahead of the curve in terms of trying to be an example for the country of what gender equality might look like.

Senior male public servant
Another theme related to the unevenness of women within senior leadership. Just as our data on the private sector reveal significant progress in some industries as opposed to others, respondents also noted uneven patterns of progress across the federal government, suggesting that certain departments may still have workplace cultures or other barriers to women’s senior leadership that require attention. International data similarly confirm that senior women public servants are much more likely to head departments in portfolios related to human resources and communications rather than budgets (OECD 2012: 213).

The issue of a generational shift also surfaced in our research with the FPS. Senior women and men felt that the FPS needed to pay attention to changing attitudes towards careers and the relationship between work and home life that many of their younger colleagues, both men and women, increasingly expressed. This didn’t imply less interest in career success or job commitment on the part of younger employees; rather, that the new generation of potential leaders shows interest in embracing workplace strategies that will prioritize health and wellbeing concerns differently than the previous generation. Participants agreed that such generational trends ultimately could affect the exercise of FPS leadership by both women and men in a myriad of ways.

On the issue of diversity, a woman of colour cautioned against measuring equality gains solely on the issue of numbers of women in senior leadership. Her position was that “checking two of the employment equity boxes” didn’t translate necessarily into a culture in which diversity challenges in senior leadership were fully met or even understood: “There are complicated, often subtle (but sometimes not so subtle) issues that still arise which demand ongoing education and attention. Making the targets is only part one.”

Finally, an interesting question of whether women had “arrived permanently” in the senior ranks of the public service also surfaced. One woman cautioned against thinking that steady progress towards gender equality in the senior ranks was inevitable and argued that in a context of downsizing, one in which the need for gender rebalancing under Employment Equity was now under discussion and the general public might well see women’s equality as “yesterday’s issue,” it might become harder in the future to retain the leadership gains made by women in the FPS. This comment was an important reminder that addressing women’s underrepresentation in senior leadership is a complex and ongoing project that involves safeguarding hard-won achievements and understanding that progress towards equality can’t be taken for granted.

Sure, a woman can get into the Executive ranks, but you better have either a nanny or a stay-at-home partner.

Senior woman civil servant

I don’t know if the generation behind me, both women and men, will accept what it takes to be in the EX ranks. I think they want different things out of life.

Senior male executive

Our jobs are very complex, very responsible, and women have permeated the senior ranks, but that doesn’t mean things are equal across the Public Service. Just look at the record of certain departments on women’s leadership and you can see the remaining bastions of male power pretty easily.

Senior woman public servant
CONCLUSIONS
&
RECOMMENDATIONS
Our hope is that this benchmarking study provides a useful starting point for recalibrating the topic of women’s underrepresentation in senior leadership. Our data overview and case studies reinforce some of the accepted findings in the field while advancing new insights about unevenness of progress across and within sectors, societal expectations, generational differences and diversity. We see our choice of a comparative approach across sectors as having the potential to reshape our understanding of women and senior leadership and contribute to new conversations and fresh strategic approaches.

We offer the following recommendations for action:

- **Develop organizational strategies for supporting women in leadership positions.** Advancing women’s representation in senior leadership requires organizations – private, public and nonprofit – to implement clear, multi-faceted action plans that address the systemic barriers that exist within organizations. Verbal commitments and single strategies are insufficient. Substantive, sustainable change will occur only through explicit changes to an organization’s talent management practices, organization and workplace design, risk management as well as quality assurance strategies. Only then will organizations and sectors address the more subtle forms of discrimination that negatively impact women’s opportunities for advancement.

- **Shift expectations of organizational leaders by reforming workplace cultures.** Changing the definition of good leadership isn’t enough. Management practices, discourses and institutional values together must reflect and support modern gender roles and the shared responsibility of women and men for all aspects of family-related care duties. This includes rethinking expectations about hours of work, the availability of senior leaders and adopting approaches to meaningful work/life integration that will engage and support the next generation of leaders.

- **Initiate collaborative approaches to increasing women’s leadership that can generate sector-wide change.** Working together across organizations and, eventually, sectors to implement best practices for women’s leadership should become the new norm. Undertaking industry-wide initiatives to end women’s underrepresentation in the senior ranks will enhance women’s leadership prospects much more quickly and effectively than relying on incremental changes within single settings. This will demand creativity and engagement on the part of a number of actors, including human resource professionals, industry associations and, most importantly, existing senior leaders who are prepared to champion bold strategies in order to transform women’s elite-level representation.

- **Commit to inclusive leadership.** Organizations require smart leadership that addresses not only gender inequalities but also responds to the full range of intersecting identities that private, public and nonprofit sectors alike must represent. Given our changing demographic profile, the impact of globalization and Canada’s public commitments to equality, prioritizing leadership competencies that stress inclusion and strive to increase and maintain diversity in senior leadership are imperative in every sector.
FUTURE DIRECTIONS
A Research Agenda for Women and Senior Leadership in Canada

- **Additional comparative research** is required both across and within sectors as well as comparative studies with other countries. This report has identified significant variation in the leadership roles played by women across industries. Research studies investigating why women fare better in particular industries rather than others would be instructive. For example, why do women hold leadership roles in the Service industry, but not in the Retail and Wholesale industry? Further comparative research is required to probe these differences and to explore the uneven pace of change. Cross-national research may also reveal whether there are sector-specific issues related to women’s leadership that demand attention.

- Building on the work of Pesonen, Tienari and Vanhala (2011) and Myrden, Mills and Mills (2011), **more research is required on how gender is ‘done’ in workplaces.** Despite the implementation of many ‘best practices,’ further study of the impact of language and communication in the work environment, the subtle reinforcement of traditional male and female roles and how such practices can thwart progress on equality and anti-discriminatory goals remains warranted.

- Leadership across the nonprofit sector remains seriously under researched and particularly **women’s leadership role in the nonprofit sector needs further quantitative and qualitative investigation.** How do we account for the higher levels of senior leadership by women in this sector? Our research discovered that Canadian charities have a significant percentage of their leadership roles held by women, especially in contrast with women in senior leadership across the private sector. Why is this the case? What lessons can be drawn from the experiences of women leaders in this sector that may be instructive for private industry? To what extent is board leadership in a smaller nonprofit a ladder to leadership for women in larger nonprofits, or on corporate boards?

- Konrad and Yap’s study of (2010) found that women of visible minority status were more disadvantaged in the workplace than women or men of visible minority status. Our research confirms this finding and indicates the need to further explore **the multiple axes of discrimination that minority women face in obtaining senior leadership positions across sectors.** Research on women and senior leadership must avoid focusing solely on “gender diversity” in leadership analyses. Instead, research on women and senior leadership must explore the intersectional challenges of gender, race, class, sexual orientation, disability etc. and ways to counter these barriers in order to diversify senior leadership substantively.
Appendix A: Description of the Labour Force Survey

The LFS is a monthly survey conducted by Statistics Canada. Responding households are asked about their activity in the labour market and demographic characteristics. The survey has a six-month rotation design, that is, 1/6th of the sample are in their last month of cycle and 1/6th are in the first month of the cycle. Each month approximately 100,000 individuals are surveyed and 54,000 households.

The sampling frame for the survey includes Canadians (over the age of 15 residing in one of the ten provinces) who are not members of the regular armed forces, not living on a reserve or other aboriginal settlement, and not institutionalized. Statistics Canada estimates that only 2% of the Canadian population is excluded by these restrictions.

Statistics Canada uses a stratified sampling scheme to identify households for the survey. Sampling weights are provided by Statistics Canada to adjust results to account for the stratified sampling procedure. All estimates from the LFS included in this report have been adjusted using the provided weights.

The percentages presented in this report are a three-year moving average. Once restricted to senior management, the sample size in the LFS is small and the small sample size produces wide fluctuations in the point estimate of the percentage. The three-year moving average is used to create a smoother presentation of the levels and trends over time.

Description of the Variables


Nine industry categories were created by combining categories of the NAICS. The nine categories created were financial, retail, energy, manufacturing, technology and science, services, public administration, tourism and transport, and real estate. The second column in table A1 shows which sub-categories available in the LFS were combined to create the nine industry categories. The third column of table A1 provides more detail as to the occupations included in each category.

Table A1: Definition of Industry Categories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>LFS Categories</th>
<th>Detailed categories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>• Monetary Authorities - Central Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insurance</td>
<td>• Credit Intermediation and Related Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carriers/Funds</td>
<td>• Securities, Commodity Contracts, and Other Financial Investment and Related Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Insurance Carriers and Related Activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Funds and Other Financial Vehicles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forestry and Logging</td>
<td>• Crop Production</td>
<td>• Fishing, Hunting and Trapping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fishing/Hunting/Trap</td>
<td>• Animal Production</td>
<td>• Support Activities for Agriculture and Forestry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mining/Oil/Gas Extract</td>
<td>• Oil and Gas Extraction</td>
<td>• Support Activities for Mining and Oil and Gas Extraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utilities</td>
<td>• Electric Power Generation, Transmission and Distribution</td>
<td>• Natural Gas Distribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Water, Sewage and Other Systems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petro/Coal Products</td>
<td>• Petroleum and Coal Product Manufacturing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale Trade</td>
<td>• Farm Product Wholesaler-Distributors</td>
<td>• Building Material and Supplies Wholesaler-Distributors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Petroleum Product Wholesaler-Distributors</td>
<td>• Machinery, Equipment and Supplies Wholesaler-Distributors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Food, Beverage and Tobacco Wholesaler-Distributors</td>
<td>• Miscellaneous Wholesaler-Distributors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Personal and Household Goods Wholesaler-Distributors</td>
<td>• Wholesale Electronic Markets, and Agents and Brokers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Motor Vehicle and Parts Wholesaler-Distributor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Retail and Wholesale</td>
<td>• Motor Vehicle and Parts Dealers</td>
<td>• Gasoline Stations</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Furniture and Home Furnishings Stores</td>
<td>• Clothing and Clothing Accessories Stores</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>• Electronics and Appliance Stores</td>
<td>• Sporting Goods, Hobby, Book and Music Stores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Building Material and Garden Equipment and Supplies Dealers</td>
<td>• General Merchandise Stores</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Food and Beverage Stores</td>
<td>• Miscellaneous Store Retailers</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• Health and Personal Care Stores</td>
<td>• Non-Store Retailers</td>
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<td>LFS Categories</td>
<td>Detailed categories</td>
</tr>
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<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>Technical and Scientific</td>
<td>Professional/Scientific/Technology</td>
<td>• Legal Services&lt;br&gt;• Accounting, Tax Preparation, Bookkeeping and Payroll Services&lt;br&gt;• Architectural, Engineering and Related Services&lt;br&gt;• Specialized Design Services&lt;br&gt;• Computer Systems Design and Related Services&lt;br&gt;• Management, Scientific and Technical Consulting Services&lt;br&gt;• Scientific Research and Development Services&lt;br&gt;• Advertising, Public Relations, and Related Services&lt;br&gt;• Other Professional, Scientific and Technical Services</td>
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<td>Information/Culture/Recreation</td>
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<td>• Publishing Industries (except Internet)&lt;br&gt;• Motion Picture and Sound Recording Industries&lt;br&gt;• Broadcasting (except Internet)&lt;br&gt;• Telecommunications&lt;br&gt;• Data Processing, Hosting, and Related Services&lt;br&gt;• Performing Arts, Spectator Sports and Related Industries&lt;br&gt;• Heritage Institutions&lt;br&gt;• Amusement, Gambling and Recreation Industries</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transportation</td>
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<td>• Air Transportation&lt;br&gt;• Rail Transportation&lt;br&gt;• Water Transportation&lt;br&gt;• Truck Transportation&lt;br&gt;• Transit and Ground Passenger Transportation&lt;br&gt;• Pipeline Transportation&lt;br&gt;• Scenic and Sightseeing Transportation&lt;br&gt;• Support Activities for Transportation&lt;br&gt;• Postal Service&lt;br&gt;• Couriers and Messengers</td>
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<td>Manufacturing</td>
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<td>Management &amp; Administration &amp; Other Services</td>
<td>• Administrative and Support Services&lt;br&gt;• Waste Management and Remediation Services</td>
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<td>Federal Government/Public Administration</td>
<td>• Defence Services&lt;br&gt;• Federal Protective Services&lt;br&gt;• Federal Labour, Employment and Immigration Services&lt;br&gt;• Foreign Affairs and International Assistance&lt;br&gt;• Other Federal Government Public Administration</td>
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<td>Provincial/Territorial Public Administration</td>
<td>• Provincial Protective Services&lt;br&gt;• Provincial Labour and Employment Services&lt;br&gt;• Other Provincial and Territorial Public Administration</td>
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<td>Local/Municipal/Regional Public Administration</td>
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<td>Aboriginal Public Administration</td>
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<td></td>
<td>International and Other Extra-Territorial Public Administration</td>
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<td>Real Estate</td>
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<td>Rental and Leasing</td>
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Appendix B: Additional Tables and Figures

Figure B1: Distribution of Women Across Industries

Source: Labour Force Survey, author’s calculations

Figure B2: Distribution of Men Across Industries

Source: Labour Force Survey, author’s calculations

Table B1: Gender composition of Executive Occupational Group in the Federal Public Service and the Total Federal Public Service

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>% of Executive Occupational Group</th>
<th>% of EX04</th>
<th>% of EX05</th>
<th>% of Total Federal Public Service</th>
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<tr>
<td>2011-2012</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>42.8</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<tr>
<td>2010-2011</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>54.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>2009-2010</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>54.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>2008-2009</td>
<td>43.0</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>54.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>2007-2008</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>54.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>2006-2007</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>53.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>2005-2006</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>N/A</td>
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<td>2004-2005</td>
<td>37.2</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>53.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003-2004</td>
<td>34.9</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>53.1</td>
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<td>2002-2003</td>
<td>33.8</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>52.8</td>
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<td>32.0</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>52.5</td>
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<td>28.0</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>52.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999-2000</td>
<td>28.4</td>
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<td></td>
<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998-1999</td>
<td></td>
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Source: Treasury Board of Canada Secretariat
Table B2: Representation of Women in the Canadian Forces (Regular and Reserve) May 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>% Female</th>
<th>% Female Flag Officers</th>
<th>% Female Senior Officers</th>
<th>% Female Junior Officers</th>
<th>% Female NCO</th>
<th>% Female below NCO</th>
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<tr>
<td>Army</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11.2</td>
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<td>17.5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>19</td>
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<tr>
<td>Navy</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reserves</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>15.1</strong></td>
<td><strong>4</strong></td>
<td><strong>10.4</strong></td>
<td><strong>19</strong></td>
<td><strong>12</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Canadian Forces (2009)

Figure B3 shows the variation in female representation as Chairs of School Boards and Superintendents by province. There is a great deal of variation across the provinces, although it should be noted that the smaller provinces have a small number of school boards.
Notes

1. Recent contributions on this subject include: Conference Board of Canada, Women in Senior Management: Where Are They?: Catalyst, Mentoring: Necessary but Insufficient for Advancement; Catalyst, Advancing Women Leaders: The Connection Between Women Board Directors and Women Corporate Officers; and Catalyst, The Bottom Line: Corporate Performance and Women’s Representation on Boards.

2. For an introduction to the literature on this topic, three excellent starting points are Acker, “Hierarchies, Jobs and Bodies”; Eagly and Carli, “The female leadership advantage: an evaluation of the evidence”; and Jogulu and Wood, “The role of leadership theory in raising the profile of women in management”.

3. See Appendix A for a description of the Labour Force Survey and detailed definitions of the categories created using this survey.

4. On this point, consult Credit Suisse, Gender Diversity and Corporate Performance; Orser, Creating High-Performance Organizations: Leveraging Women’s Leadership; Anastasopoulos, Brown, and Brown, Women on Boards: Not Just the Right Thing … but the ‘Bright’ Thing; and McKinsey & Company, Women Matter: Gender Diversity, A Corporate Performance Driver.

5. On the question of how women’s presence influences politics and public policy, see Inter-Parliamentary Union, Equality in Politics: A Survey of Women and Men in Parliaments and UNIFEM, Who Answers to Women? Gender and Accountability.

6. Accounting for women’s underrepresentation in electoral politics has spawned extensive international research. For Canadian perspectives on this topic, consult Tremblay and Trimble (eds.), Women in Electoral Politics in Canada and Trimble and Arscott, Still Counting: Women and Politics Across Canada.

7. Contributions such as Stone, Opting Out: Why Women Really Quit Careers and Head Home and Hewlett, Off-Ramps and On-Ramps: Keeping Talented Women on the Road to Success explore how women are forced out of high-powered positions because of narrow, outdated visions of working motherhood and career paths to success, as well as by workplace models that superficially address concerns of working families.

8. On this point, see also Sealy and Vinnicombe, The Female FTSE Board Report 2012: Milestone or Millstone?


10. Estimates suggest that at current rates of increase it will take approximately 20 years for developed countries and 40 years for all other countries to reach a parity zone of between 40-60% in which neither sex holds more than 60% of seats (United Nations Development Fund for Women, Progress of the World’s Women 2008-2009, 21-22).


12. These estimates derive from Statistics Canada, Canadian Demographics at a Glance and Indian Affairs and Northern Development Canada, Aboriginal Demography: Population, Household and Family Projections.

13. Results from the Labour Force Survey, author’s calculations.

14. See Appendix A for description of survey and detailed definition of variables used in the analysis.

15. The percentage presented in the figures is a three-year moving average. Only about 8% of individuals surveyed by the LFS are in senior management, which varies by industry, so despite the large size of the LFS, the sample size analyzed here is relatively small. It is necessary to use caution when interpreting these figures because the small sample size makes the confidence intervals of these estimated percentages large. Only statistically significant differences will be discussed below. The three-year moving average is used to create a more reasonable presentation of the levels and trends over time.

16. Note that the Real Estate Industry has a small sample size that makes its estimates imprecise.

17. See Figures B1 and B2 for summaries of the industries in which men and women tend to work.

18. For the collection of the data in Figure 3, corporate officers are defined as “the executive officers of the company; all board elected officers; officers listed in annual reports and proxy statements; positions that warrant regulation under the Securities Act (Ontario); positions specified in company by-laws or designated by the board of directors as “corporate officer;” executives that report directly to the CEO; and business unit heads of subsidiaries” (Catalyst 2003).

19. Crown corporations are included in the FP500 so the line between private sector and public sector is slightly blurred in this data.

20. These results will differ from those in Figures 1 and 2 for at least two reasons. First, the LFS is based on a sample of the entire Canadian labour force and is not limited to the top 500 firms. For example, the LFS includes management in the public administration. Second, the definition of senior management used in Figures 1 and 2 is broader than the definition of corporate officer – see Appendix A for details of definition.
21. The criteria for a company to be considered part of the FP500 changed in 2001. The series that are available that year were calculated using both the old and new criteria. The series are presented as two distinct lines.

22. Lemieux (1993) estimates that 40% of the difference in wage inequality between Canada and the US can be explained by the greater unionization rates in Canada.

23. The Canadian Labour Congress has Canadian and international unions as affiliates who represent over 3 million Canadian workers – or over 71% of the unionized employees in Canada. The gender of the union President, Vice-President(s), and Treasurer was determined from each affiliate’s website (or by phone call if necessary) as of June 2012. Regional vice-presidents were not included in the total.

24. The trend between 2009 and 2010 for unionization rates between men and women has been diverging with a greater proportion of women covered by a collective agreement. If this trend has continued, then by 2012 an even greater proportion of unionized employees are females (Uppal 2010).

25. Critical mass theory argues that women’s impact on legislative outcomes requires them to form at least a minority of all legislators rather than just a few token members. Childs and Krook explain that critical mass theory argues: “only as their numbers increase will women be able to work more effectively together to promote women-friendly policy change and to influence their male colleagues to accept and approve legislation promoting women’s concerns” (2008: 725). Dahlberg (1988) first suggested the figure of 30% as the critical mass threshold based on her research on Scandinavian women politicians. This benchmark also is used by the Inter-Parliamentary Union and the United Nations.

26. The judges included in the total sit on the Supreme Court of Canada and each province, Federal Court, Court of Appeal and Queen’s Bench of each province, Tax Court of Canada, County Court of British Columbia, Ontario, and Nova Scotia, High Court of Ontario, Superior Court of Quebec, and Trial Division of Newfoundland and Nova Scotia.

27. The Law Societies of each province do not collect information on their members’ positions in the firm, although they do collect information on the gender and time since called to the Bar. Two exceptions to this lack of information are reports commissioned by the Law Society of Upper Canada in 2002 and the Law Society of Alberta in 2003. These reports are based on surveys sent to all members of each Law Society, but there is no guarantee that the sample of respondents is representative of the members of each Law Society.


29. This distinction is used by MoneySense (www.moneysense.ca) in its description of the largest 100 Canadian charities. The Canadian Diversity Board Council makes a similar distinction.

30. Corporate Officer positions would include the senior executive position, but would include other positions such as Vice-President. It is likely that the percentage of senior executive positions held by women in the nonprofit sector is even higher than 39%.

31. As of August 2012.

32. The Canadian Board Diversity Council reports that women held 40% of charity board seats in 2011. It is not certain what explains the difference in estimated percentage. The Canadian Board Diversity Council may have been using the data available from the CRA while in this report the website of each charity was checked. While the two sources of data are similar, all board members listed on the website are not always listed in the CRA data.

33. The CRA data include information for nonprofit organizations with charitable status; it does not include nonprofit organizations without charitable status.

34. Specialist Managers are defined as employees carrying out management duties in a specialized area. See Appendix A for a detailed description of the Specialist Manager category.


36. Statistics Canada, Education Indicators in Canada: Fact Sheets.

37. Attention to this issue is more advanced within the Australian mining industry. This analysis is drawn from Costa, Silva, and Hui, What are the Opportunities and Challenges for Women in Fly-in-fly-out (FIFO) Mining in Canada?
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Contacts

**Clare Beckton**  
Executive Director, Centre for Women in Politics and Public Leadership  
613-795-5026  
clare_beckton@carleton.ca

**Jane Allen**  
Partner  
416-874-3136  
janallen@deloitte.ca

**Kate Morican**  
Partner  
613-786-7598  
kmorican@deloitte.ca