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Gender (in)Equality Act” and large Spanish Corporations

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RESUMEN (NON TECHNICAL SUMMARY)

La Ley de Igualdad de 2007 estableció en su artículo 75 la siguiente recomendación para las empresas cotizadas "... *procurarán incluir en su Consejo de Administración un número de mujeres que permita alcanzar una presencia equilibrada de mujeres y hombres en un plazo de ocho años a partir de la entrada en vigor de esta Ley*". Es decir, este año 2015 es el año donde se deben valorar los avances de dicha recomendación y decidir los pasos a seguir.

El objetivo de este artículo es doble. En la primera parte, hacemos un análisis descriptivo de la situación actual de las mujeres consejeras en España así como la evolución que han experimentado desde la entrada en vigor de la Ley de Igualdad. En la segunda parte, analizamos las distintas políticas relativas a las mujeres consejeras realizadas en el seno de la Unión Europea y vemos cual ha sido su impacto directo.

Según los últimos datos, de los 529 miembros en los consejos de administración del IBEX, tan solo 80 son mujeres (el 16,1%). La situación ha mejorado desde el año 2007 donde había tan solo 5,9% de todos los consejeros (i.e. 30 consejeras). Es decir, tal como mostramos queda aun un largo camino por recorrer para alcanzar la igualdad de género en los Consejos de Administración de las empresas cotizadas españolas. La representación femenina en los consejos es todavía inferior a la media de la UE-28 y lo más importante muy por debajo del objetivo del 40% fijado como objetivo por la Ley de Igualdad para el año 2015.

En el artículo mostramos también que la remuneración de las consejeras es en promedio inferior al de los consejeros (incluso cuando se comparan en el mismo puesto de trabajo y la misma empresa), y que son más jóvenes y más educadas que sus colegas masculinos. Por último, un análisis de la situación española y del contexto de la UE sugiere que la única manera de avanzar es la igualdad de género dentro de los Consejos es a través de una legislación vinculante (es decir, las cuotas de género, con sanciones por las empresas que no cumplan).

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Abstract

This policy paper presents an analysis of the current situation of female representation on the boards of Directors of the 35 largest publicly listed Spanish companies. Whenever possible, it compares the situation in 2013 to that of 2007, the year in which the “Gender Equality Act” was passed. The law stated that in 2015 it would assess progress and decide whether or not to introduce more drastic measures or implement further actions if necessary. The paper finds there is still a long way to go until gender equality is reached. Female representation on the boards is still below the EU-28 average and more importantly well below the 40% objective the Spanish Government set in 2007 to be met in 2015. Moreover, even though female board members are paid on average less than male board members (even when comparing in the same job position and the same company), they are younger and more educated than their male colleagues. An analysis of the Spanish situation and of the EU context suggests that the only way forward is through binding legislation (i.e. gender quotas with sanctions for non-complying companies).

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1. Introduction

The “Gender Equality Act” passed in Spain 2007 recommends companies with 250 or more employees to have at least 40% of each gender on their boards by 2015, including both executives and non-executives. The Act consists of merely acknowledging women’s right to be treated equal to men in all aspects of life and “that the companies that, by law, have to publish a complete Profit and Loss account should try to include on their board of Directors a certain number of women that enables them to achieve a balanced number of women and men in the eight years after this law is passed”.¹ The policy provides an incentive: the government announced that it would prioritise the handing out of its contracts to firms that achieve this objective.²

This is an issue of vital importance, since achieving equal representation of women and men in leadership positions in private companies seems to be a central concern to the Spanish people. In the Eurobarometer survey of 2011 90% of Spanish people totally agreed with the statement that “Given equal competence, women should be equally represented in positions of leadership in companies” and 30% of them believed that the best way to achieve a more balanced representation of men and women on company boards was through binding legal measures.³

Moreover, some authors have correctly identified the economic and social benefits of including women in top decision-making positions. Therefore, it is not only a matter of rights but also an economic issue.⁴ Women empowerment and gender equality can accelerate development, and it is a way to stimulate further development, starting a “virtuous cycle” (Profeta et al., 2014). Indeed, there is high and positive correlation between the level of economic development and gender equality in a country.

The aim of this paper is to shed some light on the current picture of female board members in the top 35 publicly listed Spanish firms trading on the stock exchange (*IBEX-35*). This is done by undertaking a deeper analysis of the current situation and of how far we’ve actually come to achieve the “balanced number of men and women” on boards of Directors. Our starting point is the gender situation in the year 2007, when the Gender Equality Act was approved by the Spanish Parliament, and compare it with the year 2013 (i.e. the last year information was available). Has there been a significant improvement? Or are further measures and quotas still necessary? Trying to answer these questions at this time is crucial because in 2015 we will have to evaluate the impact of the Act and decide if it is necessary to substitute the recommendations with binding legal measures.

¹ <http://www.boe.es/buscar/doc.php?id=BOE-A-2007-6115>

² See Walby (2013)

³ See European Commission, Special Eurobarometer 376 (2012).

⁴ For a detailed literature review on the importance of gender equality see Profeta, Paola, Amidani Aliberti, Livia, Casarico, Alessandra, D’Amico, Marilisa, and Puccio, Ana “Women Directors: The Italian Way and Beyond”, Chapter 3, 2014.

Despite the fact that the proportion of women on boards in Spain steadily risen by an average of one percent per year since 2003 (the year in which the proportion of women on boards of Directors was just over 5%) women still only represent 15% of board members of the 50 largest publicly listed companies in Spain. This proportion is below the EU-27 average (18.6%).⁵

However, women account for about 60% of tertiary level graduates⁶ and for approximately 45% of the people employed across the European Union.⁷ The fact that their level of representation declines in senior positions reveals that, in general, women's skills are not being used to their full potential and they are not having an equal opportunity of advancing their professional careers.

Although carrying out a normative analysis of the equality gender policies is not part of this paper's objective, it is worth reflecting on it. There are plenty of reasons to support gender diversity. The main arguments usually brought forward in favour of increasing the number of women in the boards of Directors are either ethical or economic (Campbell and Mínguez-Vera (2007)). The former argues that it is immoral for women to be excluded from boardrooms, while the latter stresses the beneficial impact of gender diversity on the companies' performance.⁸ Among the arguments in favour of gender quotas some authors (Baltrunaite et al. (2012)) have stressed that quotas improve the general selection process by increasing both the average quality of men and women participating, through increased competition ("allocation" argument).⁹ People who are against gender quotas often argue that they just produce negative externalities on women since they "make explicit that without this measure women would never reach a top position" (Profeta et al. (2014)) or argue that there is an efficiency/equity trade-off. The most prominent study on the negative impact of gender quotas in the case of Norway (which imposed a binding quota of 40% of female representation on the boards of Directors in 2003) is that of Ahern and Dittmar (2012), who find that the constraint imposed by the quota caused a drop in the stock price and in the firm's value, measured by Tobin's Q, of Norwegian firms. Another study on Norwegian firms by Bertrand, Black, Jensen and Lleras-Muney (2014) finds that, also in the case of Norway, while the reform improved the representation of female employees at the very top of the earnings distribution, there is no evidence that these gains were translated to women in business more generally (they find no obvious impact on women whose qualifications were similar to those of board members but who were not appointed to boards). Therefore, they find that the reform had very little impact on women in business beyond its direct effect on the newly appointed women in boards (Bertrand, Black, Jensen, Lleras-Muney, (2014)).

⁵ European Commission Gender Equality Data Set: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/database/business-finance/index_en.htm

⁶ European Commission (2014).

⁷ European Commission (2012).

⁸ See Campbell and Mínguez-Vera (2007) for a study on the impact of gender diversity on firm financial performance for Spain.

⁹ Profeta, Paola, Amidani Aliberti, Livia, Casarico, Alessandra, D'Amico, Marilisa, and Puccio, Ana "Women Directors: The Italian Way and Beyond", Chapter 3, 2014.

However, supporters of quotas usually argue that there exists no such trade-off, or that it is not binding, since quotas are not at odds with efficiency, but rather the opposite (Profeta et al. (2014)). It makes sense to think that the best boards will be those comprised of people with different abilities, experiences and skills.

The paper is organised as follows. Section 2 provides a descriptive analysis of the board of Directors of the Spanish 35 largest publicly listed Spanish companies by gender. Section 3 is devoted to the gender differences in remuneration. Section 4 analyses the different individual characteristics of female and male board members focusing on academic qualifications and professional experience, including their belonging to a political party or a past political position. Section 5 is devoted to describing the gender policy quotas in EU-28. The final section reports the conclusions and the policy recommendation.

2. Descriptive analysis by gender

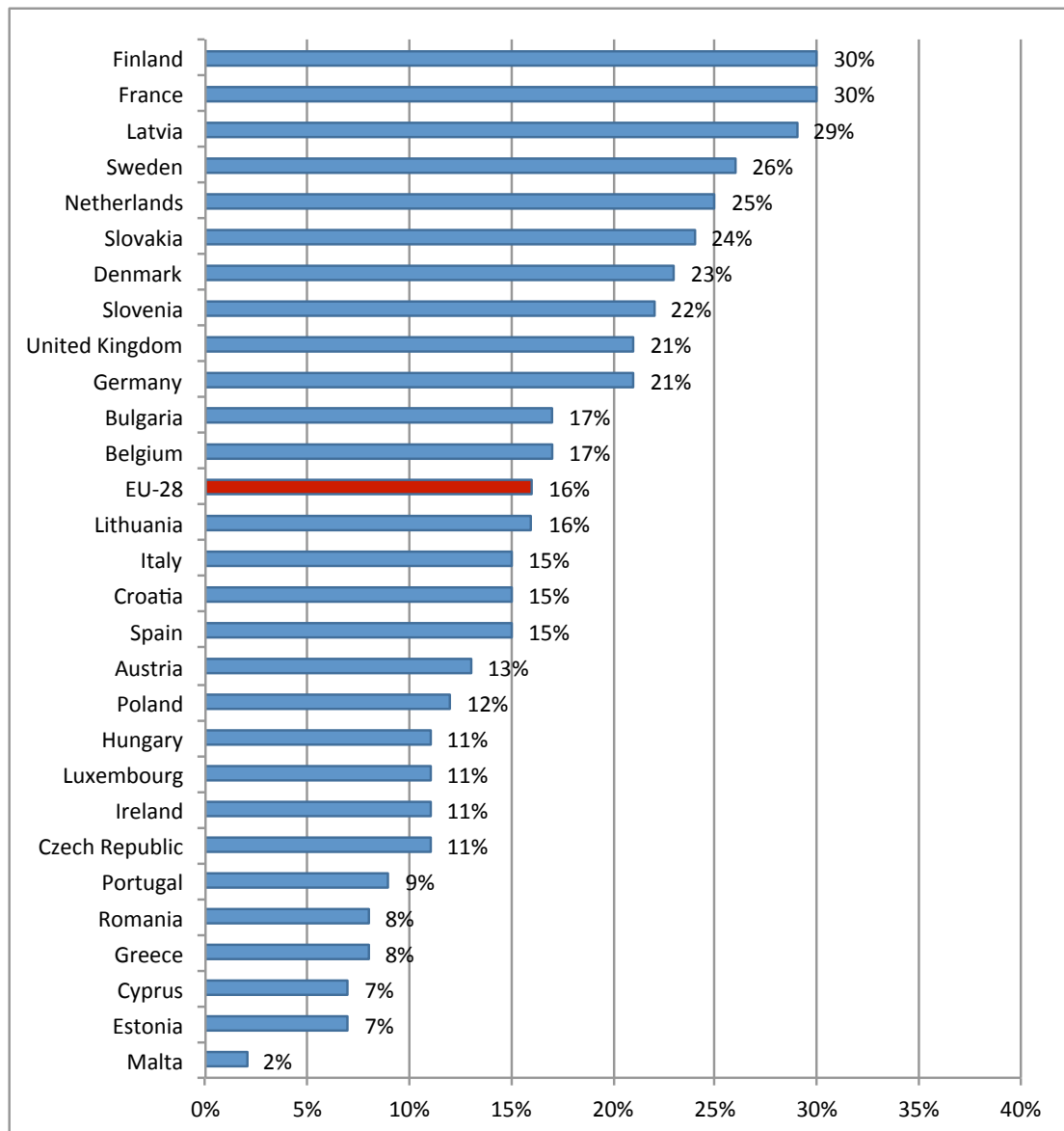
Of the 529 board members our dataset includes for 2013 in Spain, only 80 are female. Currently 84.9% of board members are still male. Even though this number has gone down from 94.1% in 2007, women still only comprise 15.1% (5.9% in 2007) of board positions in the top 35 traded Spanish firms.

Putting this in the European Union context, women account for just 16.6% of board members of the largest publicly listed companies in the EU-27. The highest levels of female representation on boards are observed in Finland (29.1%), Latvia (29%), France (26.8%) and Sweden (26.5%). The Netherlands, Denmark, Germany and Slovenia are the only other EU Member States to have at least 20% women on boards. There are therefore still nineteen Member States where this percentage of female board members is below 20% and in six of these countries (Romania, Cyprus, Estonia, Greece, Portugal, and Malta) women hold less than one in ten positions.¹⁰

Overall, not one of the EU member states is close to the 40% objective and more than two thirds are not even halfway to meeting it (Figure 2).

¹⁰ European Commission - Directorate-General for Justice, “Women and men in leadership positions in the European Union”, 2013.

Figure 1. EU countries by percentage of female board members, 2013



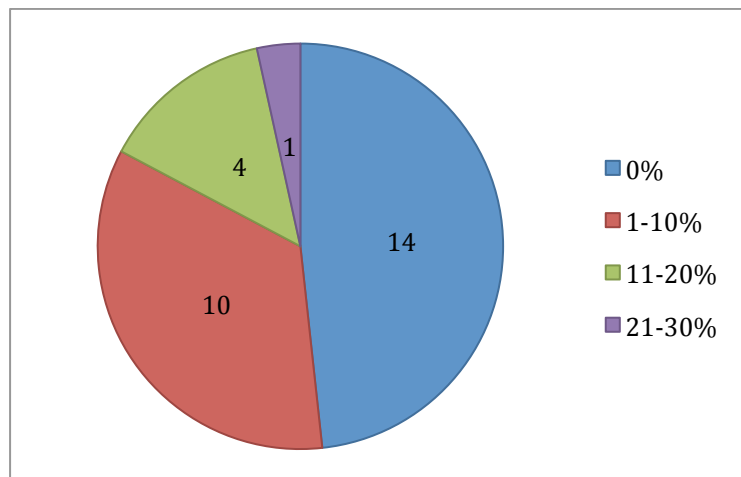
Source: own elaboration with data from the European Commission.

In fact, of all the countries covered by the Commission database (including also non-EU countries), the only two that have achieved gender-balanced boards are Norway and Iceland, both of which have adopted legislative quotas.

Looking deeper at the distribution of different positions within the boards of the largest companies in every member country, we find that the number of women who have the highest responsibility job within the board of Directors (that is, the Chair) is even smaller than the percentage of female members in the board of Directors. Figure 3 displays the number of countries by the percentage of Chairwomen in the boards of Directors of their largest firms. There are 14 countries out of the EU-28 (so, 50% of the EU countries) where there is no single female Chair in any of companies covered by the dataset. In 10 out of the 28 countries, there are female Chairs in only 1 to 10 per cent of the companies. In 4 of the 28 countries, 11 to 20 per cent of the companies have a female Chair and only in one country (Malta) there are 30% of companies that

have a Chairwoman. Therefore, once we focus just on the job that implies the highest decision-making responsibility, the picture is even grimmer than when we look at the overall number of women in the boards of Directors.

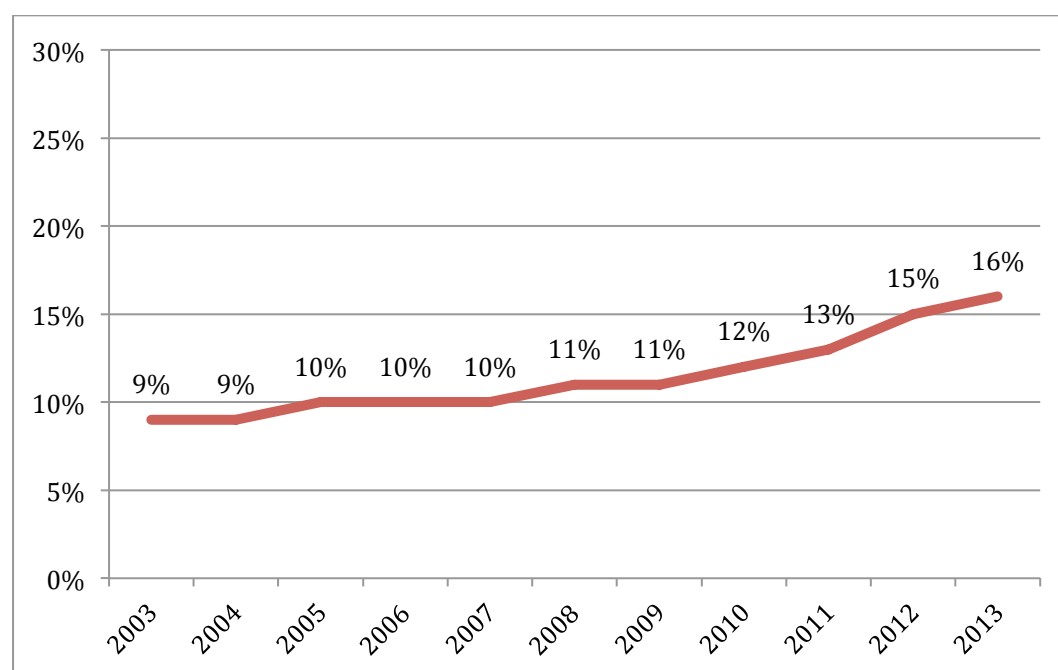
Figure 2. Number of countries by percentage of Chairwomen on the Board.



Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

Despite the daunting figures just presented, some progress has been made in the European Union during the last decade. In 2003 only 9%, on average, of board members were women in the EU-28 countries. This figure was kept roughly constant or increasing at a very slow pace until approximately the year 2010, in which we can observe that the figure reached 13% in 2011, 15% in 2012 and 16% in 2013 (Figure 4).

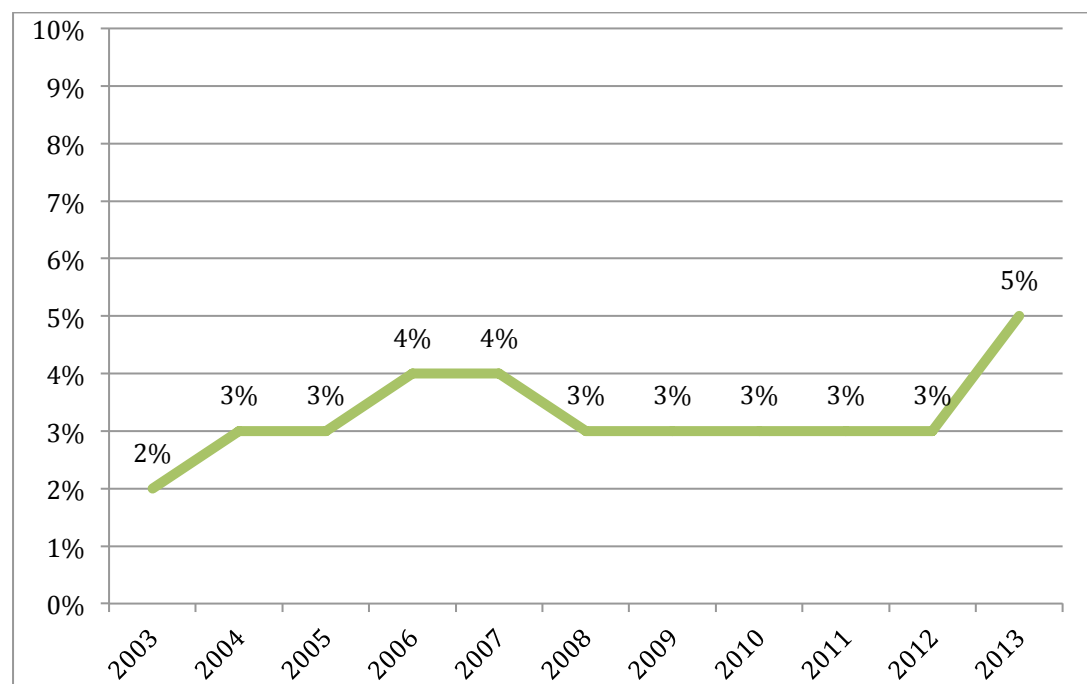
Figure 3. Evolution of the percentage of female board members, EU-28.



Source: own elaboration with data from the European Commission: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/index_en.htm.

When we focus on the number of women who held the post of Chair at their companies, the trend is less obvious (Figure 5). Therefore, even though the proportion of female board members has been increasing in the EU-28 countries, this has not necessarily translated into the top positions within the boards.

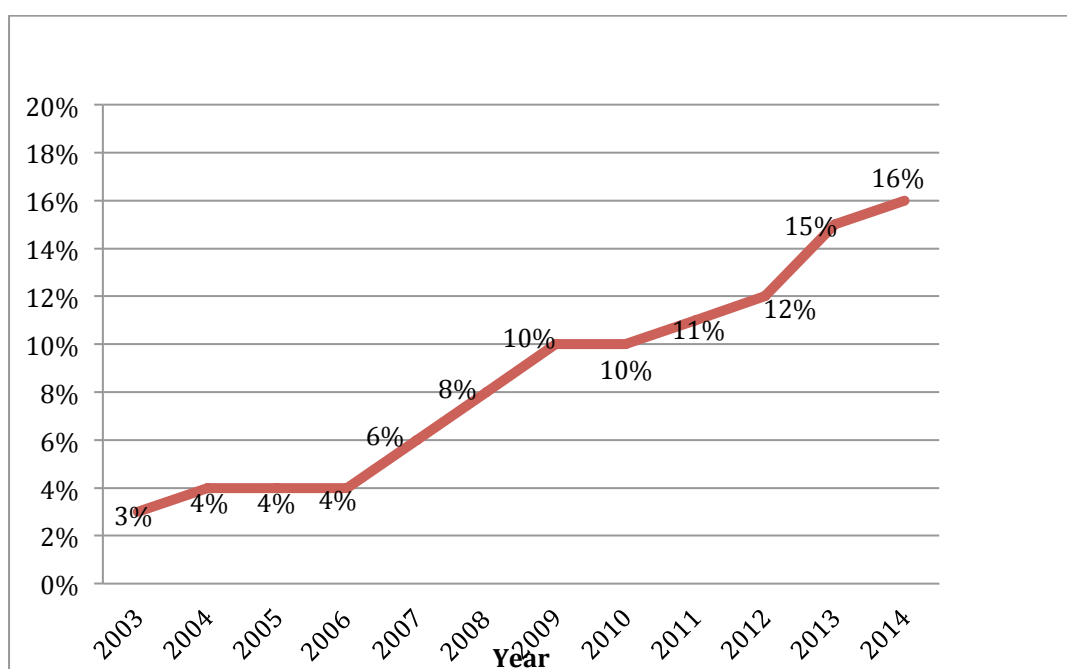
Figure 4. Evolution of the percentage of female Presidents in the board of Directors, EU-28.



Source: own elaboration with data from the European Commission: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/index_en.htm.

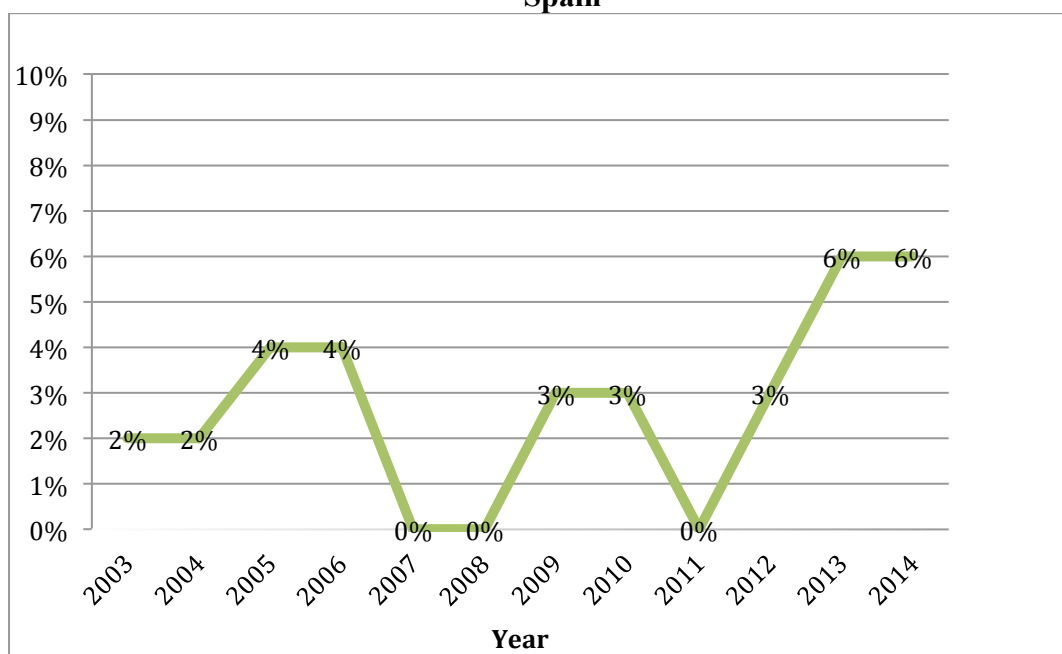
Despite the fact that the current level of women in important decision-making bodies is unequivocally low, some progress has been made in Spain during the last decade. As we can observe from Figure 18, the percentage of women in the board of Directors of Spanish firms was kept roughly constant at around 3-4%. Since 2007, year in which the new regulation promoting gender equality was passed, the percentage of female board members has steadily increased, although at a very slow pace, reaching 15% in 2013. Moreover, as Figure 19 depicts, there is no discernible pattern in the evolution of the percentage of females occupying the highest-responsibility position at the boards, that of the President. This suggests that, even though some progress is being made in the number of female board members, it is not sufficient for women to occupy the highest decision making jobs in the companies. As we saw in the case for the EU, the only way for real change is enforcement regulation, such as quotas including sanctions for non-complying companies.

Figure 5. Evolution of the percentage of female board members, Spain



Source: own elaboration with data from the European Commission: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/index_en.htm.

Figure 6. Evolution of the percentage of Chairwomen in the board of Directors, Spain



Source: own elaboration with data from the European Commission: http://ec.europa.eu/justice/gender-equality/gender-decision-making/index_en.htm.

Besides from the overall percentage of women as board members in the Spanish companies, it is useful to see a breakdown of the companies by the percentage of female board members in order to get a clearer picture. Out of the top 35 traded Spanish firms, there are still 11.4% of them (4 companies) that have no women on their boards (Endesa, Gas Natural Fenosa, Técnicas Reunidas, and Sacyr). This is nonetheless an improvement from 2007, when 37% of all companies (13 out of 35) had no female members on their boards of Directors. Moreover, only 2 companies had in 2007 at least 20% of women sitting on their board (Inditex and FCC), although their figures barely passed the 20% cut (22.2% and 22.7%). In 2013 26% of all companies (9 companies) have at least 20% of female representation on their board of Directors, which is a relevant increase relative to the figures in 2007. However, only one company (Jazztel) reaches the 40% target, while the other 8 companies have values of between 21% and 30% of female board members (except REE, which has 33% of female representation).

Table 1. Breakdown of companies by percentage of female board members

	2007		2013	
	Number	%	Number	%
Companies with 0% of women on the Board	13	37,1%	4	11,4%
Companies with 1-10% of women on the Board	16	45,7%	6	17,1%
Companies with 11-20% of women on the Board	4	11,4%	16	45,7%
Companies with 21-40% of women on the Board	2	5,7%	9	25,7%
Nº obs	35		35	

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

One of the many arguments brought forward to argue in favour of the presence of women in the board of Directors is that they provide a different perspective and “way of doing business” with respect to a board comprised just of men, and this has a positive impact on the company’s revenues and profitability (Robinson and Dechant, 1997). This argument would be especially true for the companies that operate in sectors in which consumers’ preferences are essential for the company’s profitability; for instance, a company that operates in the consumer goods sector as opposed to, for example, a company operating in the heavy industry sector (Fundación de Estudios Financieros, 2005). If this were the case then we would expect, under a scenario in which there are no gender quotas or whenever they are not binding, companies operating in these “consumer-focused” sectors to have more women on their Administration boards.

Table 2 below shows the decomposition of companies by sector and the percentage of women they have as board members. Indeed, the sectors that have the highest percentage of female board members are the consumer goods’ sector (both in 2007 and 2013), followed by Financial services and real estate in 2007 and Technology and telecommunications in 2013.

Table 2. Percentage of female board Members by type of industry

Industry sector	2007					2013				
	Nº of females	% of females	Nº of males	% of males	Total	Nº of females	% of females	Nº of males	% of males	Total
Basic Mat., Industry and Construction	7	4,8%	139	95,2%	146	20	13,2%	131	86,8%	151
Consumer goods	4	9,8%	37	90,2%	41	9	20,5%	35	79,5%	44
Consumer services	1	2,0%	49	98,0%	50	8	13,3%	52	86,7%	60
Financial services and real estate	13	8,5%	140	91,5%	153	22	15,2%	123	84,8%	145
Petrol and power	5	4,7%	101	95,3%	106	13	15,3%	72	84,7%	85
Technology and telecommunications	2	4,2%	46	95,8%	48	8	17,8%	37	82,2%	45
Nº obs	32		512			80		450		

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

Additionally, not all board members are equal, and there are different roles they can take on the board. It is therefore useful to see out of the total number of male/female board members, which percentage of them have high-ranking positions, that is, what percentage of them are Chairs, Vice-chairs and CEOs, by gender.

Table 3A shows out of the total number of female board members in the dataset, which percentage of them are Chairs, Vice-chairs and CEOs. And it does the same calculation for all male board members. At first this table might seem quite counter-intuitive, since percentages do not add up to 100%. However, due to the fact that there are considerably less female board members in the dataset (80 in total) as opposed to male board members (449), it is not accurate just to compare the number of female Chairs to male Chairs, since there are way more male board members, and we would therefore expect to see more male Chairs than female Chairs anyways.

Therefore, the percentage calculated in Table 3A takes into account the fact that there are fewer female board members by dividing the number of female Chairs by the total number of female board members, and the number of male Chairs by the total number of male board members (and repeating the same exercise for Vice-chairs and CEOs). Even controlling for this fact, only 1.3% of female board members hold the title of Chair as opposed to 7.7% of male board members. This pattern also holds for Vice-chair and CEO positions, controlling for the fact that there are fewer female board members in the companies.¹¹

¹¹ CEOs in our definition correspond to the Spanish “Consejeros Delegados”.

Table 3A. Position within the board, by gender

Role	2007				2013			
	Nº of females	% of females	Nº of males	% of males	Nº of females	% of females	Nº of males	% of males
Chairs	0	0.0%	35	7.1%	1	1.3%	34	7.7%
Vice-chairs	2	6.7%	50	10.1%	4	5.2%	48	10.8%
CEOs	0	0.0%	20	4.1%	1	1.3%	31	7.0%
Total	30		493		77		444	
Nº obs			523				521	

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

Out of the total number of chairpersons, only 1 is female (34 are male); FCC is the only company that has a chairwoman. Out of the 52 vice-chairs, 4 are female (48 are male) and, out of the 32 CEOs, only 1 is female (31 are male); Bankinter's CEO (Table 3B). Therefore, not only are there fewer women in absolute numbers but it also unlikely that they reach the top positions inside the board of Directors. In 2013 the percentage of Chairwomen (2.9%), female Vice-chairs (7.7%) and female CEOs (3.1%) is smaller than the percentage of female board members (15.1%).

Table 3B. Position within the board, by gender

Role	2007					2013				
	Nº of females	% of females	Nº of males	% of males	Total	Nº of females	% of females	Nº of males	% of males	Total
Chairs	0	0.0%	35	100.0%	35	1	2.9%	34	97.1%	35
Vice-chairs	2	3.8%	50	96.2%	52	4	7.7%	48	92.3%	52
CEOs	0	0.0%	20	100.0%	20	1	3.1%	31	96.9%	32
Nº obs					107					119

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

board members can also be classified according to whether they are executive¹², independent¹³ or proprietary directors.¹⁴ Executive directors are the ones in charge of informing the board on the running of the company and executing the agreements reached by the board. The independent directors' job is to provide their knowledge and expertise for the company as a whole, without favouring the executive or the proprietary directors. Lastly, the proprietary directors are the main shareholders of the company and, as such, defend their own interests.

Table 4A shows, out of the total number of board members by gender, which percentage of them are executive, which percentage of them are independent and which are proprietary members. Out of the total number of female board members for which we have data on (77), 71.4% of them are independent members (as opposed to 43.5% of male board members), 24.7% are proprietary members (37.4% in the case of men) and 3.9% are executive members (as opposed to 19.1% in the case of all male board members). In 2007 it was also the case that the lowest percentage of female board members was among the executive members. However, there has been an increase in the percentage of independent female board members and a decrease in the percentage of female proprietary board members. Therefore, since the percentage of

¹² Consejeros ejecutivos.

¹³ Consejeros independientes.

¹⁴ Consejeros dominicales.

executive female board members has been kept roughly constant and the percentage of proprietary female board members has decreased, the data suggests that the overall increase in the number of female board members has been concentrated among independent board members.

Table 4A. Type of board member, by gender

Role	2007				2013			
	Nº of females	% of females	Nº of males	% of males	Nº of females	% of females	Nº of males	% of males
Executive	1	3.3%	99	20.1%	3	3.9%	85	19.1%
Independent	18	60.0%	199	40.4%	55	71.4%	193	43.5%
Proprietary	11	36.7%	195	39.6%	19	24.7%	166	37.4%
Total	30		493		77		444	
Nº obs			523				521	

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

We can also calculate, out of the total number of executive, independent and proprietary board members, which percentage of them are males/females. Out of the 88 executive board members there are in total, 96.6% of them are males and 3.4% are females. Out of the 248 independent board members, 77.8% are males and 22.2% are females. Lastly, out of the 185 proprietary board members there are, 89.7% are males and 10.3% are females.

In this table we can once again appreciate the fact that the highest increase in the percentage of female board members since 2007 is concentrated among the independent board members (22.2% up from 8.3% in 2007).

Table 4B. Type of board member, by gender

Role	2007					2013				
	Nº of females	% of females	Nº of males	% of males	Total	Nº of females	% of females	Nº of males	% of males	Total
Executive	1	1.1%	93	98.9%	94	3	3.4%	85	96.6%	88
Independent	18	8.3%	199	91.7%	217	55	22.2%	193	77.8%	248
Proprietary	11	5.3%	195	94.7%	206	19	10.3%	166	89.7%	185
Nº obs					517					521

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

3. Gender Differences in Remuneration

3.1. Annual remuneration of board Members (averaging over 2012 and 2013).

The total remuneration for board members in Spanish companies was 265,512,403 million € (we use the average over 2012 and 2013 to reduce possible measurement errors and variance in remuneration, like bonuses paid one year but not the other, for example). If we take into account that male board members represent 84.9% of all board members, it would make sense to think that 84.9% of this total figure corresponded to male board members' remuneration (that would be 225 million €) and that the other 15.1% would have been earned by female board members, since they actually represent 15.1% of board members in the Spanish companies (40 million € thus going to female board members' remuneration).

However, this is not happening in practice. From the dataset we can see that male board members in the top 35 Spanish publicly listed companies earned a total of 248

million € and female board members a total of 17 million €. In percentage terms, men earned 93.6% of the total remuneration (despite them being only 84.9% of the board members) and women earned 6.4% of the total remuneration (despite them being 15.1% of the board members). However, this simple calculation does not control for the fact that board members may be of different types and each type earns differently. For instance, executive board members tend to earn more on average than the other two types of board members. And, it is also the case that most executive board members tend to be male. Even though this could in itself be interpreted as gender discrimination within boards of Directors (women not reaching executive positions), it is more rigorous to break down average remuneration by gender conditional on board member type. This is what Table 6A depicts.

Table 5A. Differences in average remuneration by gender, conditional on board member type

Executive board members			
	Females	Males	Total
Total average remuneration	€ 8,801,000	€ 174,974,000	€ 183,775,000
Remuneration per board member	€ 1,466,833	€ 1,988,341	€ 1,955,053
Remuneration percentage	4.8%	95.2%	100.0%
Gender percentage	6.4%	93.6%	100.0%
Number of board members	6	88	94

Independent board members			
	Females	Males	Total
Total average remuneration	€ 8,011,000	€ 36,743,000	€ 44,754,000
Remuneration per board member	€ 148,35	€ 197,54	€ 186,48
Remuneration percentage	17.9%	82.1%	100.0%
Gender percentage	22.5%	77.5%	100.0%
Number of board members	54	186	240

Proprietary board members			
	Females	Males	Total
Total average remuneration	€ 1,929,000	€ 19,013,000	€ 20,942,000
Remuneration per board member	€ 101,53	€ 114,54	€ 113,20
Remuneration percentage	9.2%	90.8%	100.0%
Gender percentage	10.3%	89.7%	100.0%
Number of board members	19	166	185

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

In this first comparative analysis we can observe that female board members earn less than male board members. For instance, as we can see on Table 6A, executive female board members represent 6.4% of all executive board members but earn just 4.8% of total remuneration for this category. Independent female board members represent 22.5% of all independent board members but earn just 17.9% of total remuneration aimed at paying independent board members. And, with regards to proprietary board members, they represent 10.3% and earn 9.2%. On Table 6B we can see that executive female board members earn 35.6% less than male board members of the

same category, independent female board members earn 33.2% less and proprietary female board members earn 12.8% less than proprietary male board members.

Table 5B. Percentage differences in remuneration per board member by gender, conditional on board member type.

Executive board members			
	Females	Males	Difference
Remuneration per board member	€ 1,466,833	€ 1,988,341	35.6%
Number of board members	6	88	94

Independent board members			
	Females	Males	Difference
Remuneration per board member	€ 148,352	€ 197,543	33.2%
Nº of board members	54	186	240

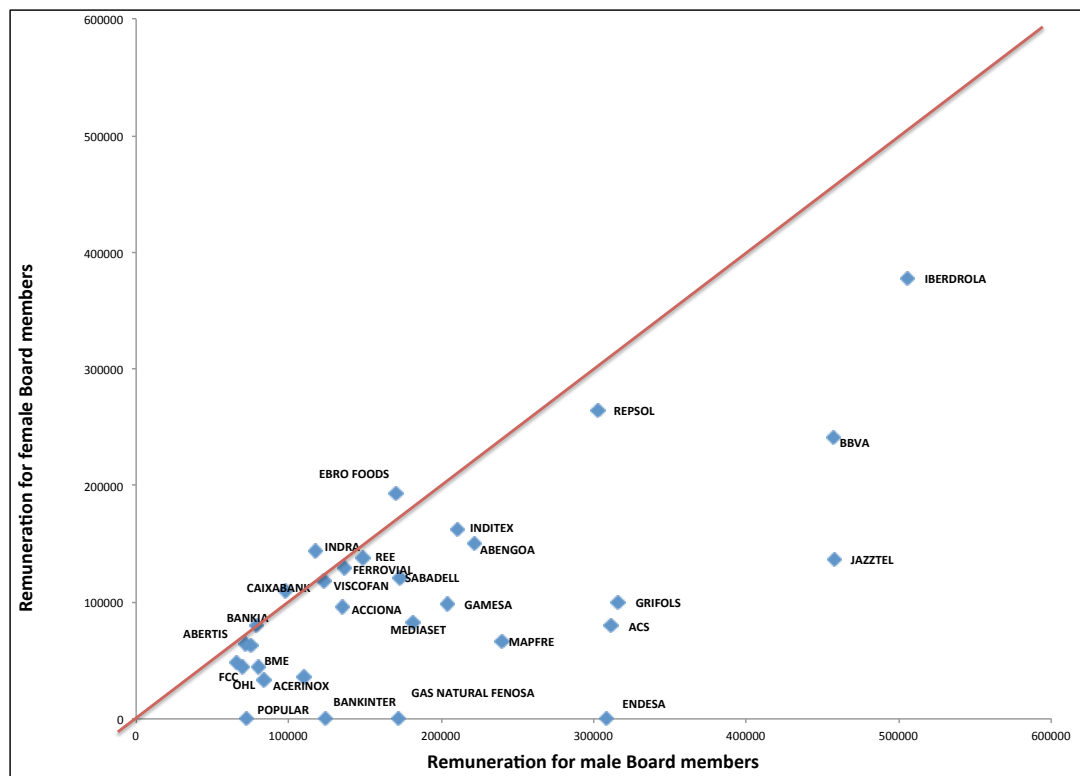
Proprietary board members			
	Females	Males	Difference
Remuneration per board member	€ 101,526	€ 114,536	12.8%
Number of board members	19	166	185

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

We could think that differences in remuneration are explained because of the fact that we are dealing with different firms, and some firms just pay more, on average, than others, and they happen to have more males among their board members. It could thus be that women are, in higher proportion, in boards of Directors of companies that pay less.

Removing Chairs, Vice-chairs and CEOs from our database (who are usually the highest earners in the board and, as we have seen, are usually men), we should find that all board members earn the same inside each company irrespective of gender. This is what we have plotted in Figure 8. The x-axis shows the average remuneration for male board members in each company and the y-axis the average remuneration for female board members in each company. The red line crosses the graph at 45°. Ideally, each company should be placed on the 45° line, meaning equal average remuneration for male and female board members inside the company once we remove Chairs, Vice-chairs and CEOs. However, this is clearly not the case. Most companies are located on the lower triangle on the graph, meaning that men earn more than women on average. Even conditional on company and on type of board member, women earn less on average than men in most of the companies.

Figure 7. Discrimination in remuneration inside each company¹⁵



Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

Nonetheless, it could be the case that these differences in remuneration are explained by the fact that women have fewer roles inside the board, that they belong to fewer commissions or that they have fewer responsibilities than male board members. In order to get an idea of the reason behind it, we will first analyse the breakdown of total remuneration into a fixed and a variable components.

3.2. Breakdown of total remuneration: (variable versus fixed).

The dataset also allows us to break down total remuneration into a fixed component and a variable component. Therefore we can analyse the breakdown of total remuneration by gender. Once again, it is necessary to study the breakdown of remuneration by gender conditional on type of board member, since some types of board members may have, on average, a higher percentage of their salary as fixed remuneration and others as variable remuneration, and, as we've already seen, male and female board members are not distributed equally across board member types. Executive board members, as we can see on Table 6A tend to have a higher part of their remuneration defined as "variable", perhaps reliant on the company's performance, while independent board members should not have a variable component, in order to isolate their judgement from subjective decisions that might improve the company's performance in the short run but reduce it in the long run, for example.

¹⁵ This graph only includes companies which actually have female board members. The companies Santander and Telefónica have been excluded for graphing purposes.

What we see by gender is that executive female board members have, on average, a higher percentage of their remuneration as a fixed component, and a lower percentage of variable remuneration.¹⁶ Specifically, executive female board members have, on average, a fixed component of 54.7% and 23.7% of variable component. In the case of executive male board members the figures are 43.8% and 27.5%, respectively. Therefore, women tend to have a higher fixed component of remuneration and a lower variable component with respect to men. For independent and proprietary board members the variable component is close to 0% for both males and females. When it comes to the fixed component, it is once again higher for independent female board members than for male board members of the same category, although this pattern is reversed for proprietary board members, where women have, on average, a lower fixed component than men. This is due to the fact that a higher share of their total remuneration comes from what we've classified as "others": remuneration from other commissions, compensations, and what the CNMV classifies as "other concepts".

Table 6A. Percentage of annual remuneration that is fixed/variable, by gender, conditional on board member type

Executive board members			
	Females	Males	Total
% fixed	54.7%	43.8%	44.3%
% variable	23.7%	27.5%	27.3%
% others	21.6%	28.7%	28.4%
Nº of board members	4	85	89

Independent board members			
	Females	Males	Total
% fixed	57.2%	49.0%	50.8%
% variable	2.2%	0.7%	1.0%
% others	40.5%	50.4%	48.2%
Nº of board members	53	187	240

Proprietary board members			
	Females	Males	Total
% fixed	37.0%	47.7%	46.5%
% variable	0.0%	0.6%	0.5%
% others	63.0%	51.4%	52.6%
Nº of board members	18	152	170

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

¹⁶ Fixed remuneration is defined as "fixed remuneration" + "salary". Variable remuneration is defined as "variable remuneration in the short run" + "variable remuneration in the long run".

3.3. Stock and voting rights as a part of total remuneration

Additionally, we can divide male and female board members by the number of voting rights they have. Table 9A shows which percentage out of female and male board members has voting rights and which percentage doesn't. We can see that, on average, a higher percentage of male board members tend to have voting rights than of female board members. Out of all female board members, 73.8% don't have voting rights while 26.3% do. In the case of male board members, 65.7% don't have voting rights while 34.3% of them do. The amount of voting rights depends on the amount of stock that board members have.

Table 7A. Differences in voting rights, by gender.

	Females	Males	Total
No voting rights	59	295	354
Percentage	73.8%	65.7%	66.9%
Voting rights	21	154	175
Percentage	26.3%	34.3%	33.1%
Nº of board members	80	449	529

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

We can see that women have fewer voting rights than men for every board member type. Indeed, executive female board members only have 33.3% of voting rights as opposed to 55.6% of executive male board members. 21.8% of independent female board members have voting rights while 31.6% of male board members do. It is only among proprietary board members that females have, in greater proportion to men, voting rights; 36.8% against 25.9%.

Table 7B. Differences in voting rights, by gender, conditional on board member type

	Executive			Independent			Proprietary		
	Females	Males	Total	Females	Males	Total	Females	Males	Total
No voting rights	4	40	44	43	132	175	12	123	135
%	66.7%	44.4%	45.8%	78.2%	68.4%	70.6%	63.2%	74.1%	73.0%
Voting rights	2	50	52	12	61	73	7	43	50
%	33.3%	55.6%	54.2%	21.8%	31.6%	29.4%	36.8%	25.9%	27.0%
Nº of board members	6	90	96	55	193	248	19	166	185

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

3.4. Remuneration conditional on board member type and on belonging to other Commissions in the board of Directors

Lastly, controlling just for board member type may not be enough to disentangle gender discrimination in remuneration. Some board members, even those belonging to the same category, may have more responsibilities than others, and their differences in remuneration may come from this difference in responsibilities. We aim to control for this by dividing board members by type and by their belonging to other Commissions in the board of Directors, such as the Auditing Commission, Risk Commission, strategy Commission, etc.

As a general pattern, we can observe differences in remuneration on gender grounds for those board members who do not belong to any Commissions. However, these differences tend to disappear when board members are part of other Commissions (males as well as females). This points to gender discrimination in remuneration whenever board members are not part of any other Commission, but these differences are reduced whenever we compare male and female board members who do belong to other Commissions.

As we can see on Table 8 inside executive board members there is a big difference in average remuneration whenever by gender whenever members do not belong to any commission (1,227,309 € for men and 315,167 € for women). However, for executive board members who do belong to other commissions there is practically no difference in remuneration by gender. It is also worth pointing out that a greater proportion of male executive board members belong to commissions with regards to female board members (60% for the former as opposed to 40% for the latter). Therefore, men are given, on average, more responsibilities inside the board than women, even controlling for board member type.

In the case of independent board members males earn, in any case, a higher remuneration than women, whether they belong to commissions or not. The difference by gender is reduced but it is still quite large (women in commissions earn 164,971€ as opposed to 342,394€ that men in commissions earn on average). This difference is striking and even more so when we take into account that almost the same proportion of independent female board members as of independent male board members belongs to one or more commissions.

For proprietary board members, females earn a bit more than men when they do not belong to commissions (although the difference is very small) but men, once again, earn more on average than women even when both of them belong to commissions (almost 50,000 € more on average).

Table 8. Differences in remuneration by gender for executive board members according to whether they belong to one or more Commissions or not, and conditional on board member type

Executive			
	Females	Males	Total
Not belonging to other commissions	5	45	50
Percentage	62,5%	45,5%	46,7%
Average remuneration	€ 244.860	€ 1.065.161	€ 1.201.350
Belonging to one or more commissions	3	54	57
Percentage	37,5%	54,5%	53,3%
Average remuneration	€ 2.287.500	€ 2.272.094	€ 27.797
Remuneration from other commissions	€ 56.667	€ 26.658	€ 39.630
Nº of board members	8	99	107

Independent			
	Females	Males	Total
Not belonging to other commissions	16	54	70
Percentage	27,6%	26,1%	31,5%
Average remuneration	€ 68.090	€ 181.671	€ 155.710
Belonging to one or more commissions	42	153	152
Percentage	72,4%	73,9%	68,5%
Average remuneration	€ 164.971	€ 342.394	€ 343.301
Remuneration from other commissions	€ 40.353	€ 47.846	€ 46.109
Nº of board members	58	207	222

Proprietary			
	Females	Males	Total
Not belonging to other commissions	8	83	91
Percentage	42,1%	48,8%	48,1%
Average remuneration	€ 86.535	€ 81.829	€ 82.242
Belonging to one or more commissions	11	87	98
Percentage	57,9%	51,2%	51,9%
Average remuneration	€ 107.938	€ 156.936	€ 151.436
Remuneration from other commissions	€ 7.389	€ 21.353	€ 19.857
Nº of board members	19	170	189

Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV

In this section we have seen how, not only are women underrepresented on Boards of Directors, but they also receive less remuneration. It is important to point out that this gender differences persist even when we take into account board member type or level of responsibility within the Board.

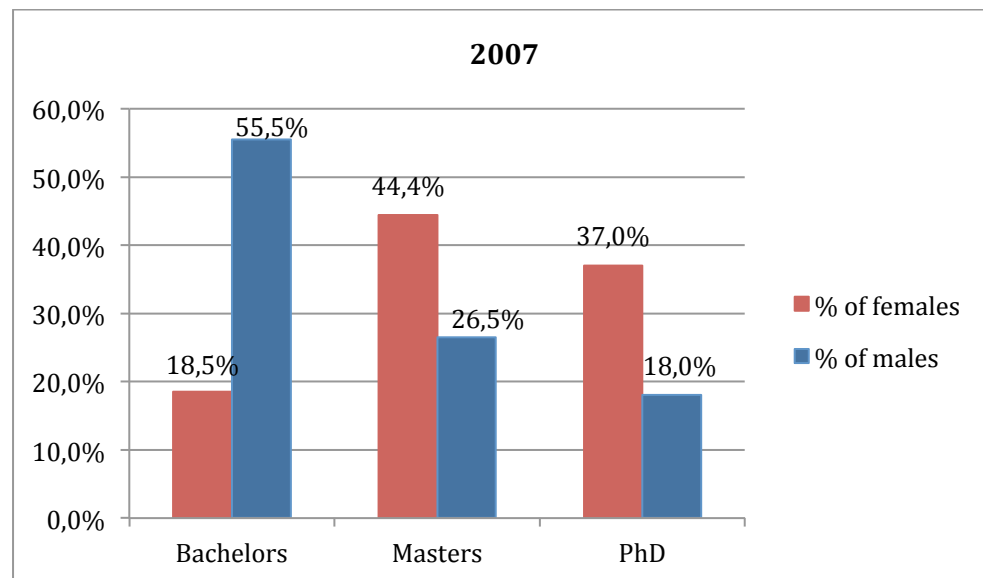
4. “Meritocracy”

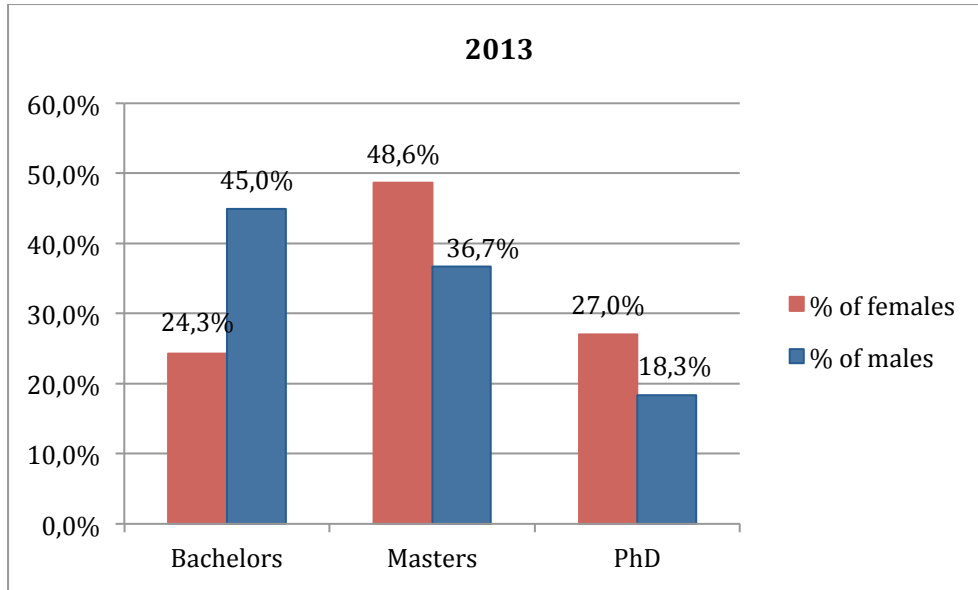
In this section we are going to analyse the different individual characteristics of female and male board members. In the first place we will analyse their academic qualifications and professional experience, including their belonging to a political party. We will then move on to analysing other characteristics such as age or number of children.

4.1. Education level, by gender

In this section we present an analysis of the average level of education of the board members and the maximum level of education attained, by gender. On the graphs below (Figure 9) the maximum level of education attained by a board member is divided in Bachelor, Masters or PhD, and separated by gender for the years 2007 and 2013. We can observe that in 2007 56% of male board members had, at most, a bachelor degree, while only 19% of female board members had only a bachelor degree. 44% of female board members had a Masters’ level of education as opposed to 27% of male board members. Following this pattern, 37% of female board members hold a PhD in 2007, as opposed to just 18% of male board members. This pattern where females are more educated than male board members also holds for 2013. Therefore, female board members are, on average, more educated than male board members.

Figure 8. Average level of education, by gender





Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV. Number of observations: 2007 (465) and 2013 (472).

On the tables below we can see the maximum level of education attained, on average, by board members depending on their type and gender. Female board members are more educated on average than male board members, as we previously pointed out. But within gender, independent board members tend to be more educated than executive and proprietary board members in 2007. This pattern holds both for males and females and for the years 2007 and 2013.

Table 9. Average level of education, by gender and by type of board member, 2007 and 2013

2007						
	Females			Males		
	Executive	Independent	Proprietary	Executive	Independent	Proprietary
Bachelors	0%	6%	43%	62%	51%	56%
Masters	100%	39%	57%	27%	27%	26%
PhD	0%	56%	0%	10%	22%	18%
Nº of board members	1	18	7	81	169	164

2013						
	Females			Males		
	Executive	Independent	Proprietary	Executive	Independent	Proprietary
Bachelors	17%	21%	40%	46%	40%	54%
Masters	67%	48%	53%	39%	39%	30%
PhD	17%	31%	7%	16%	21%	15%
Nº of board members	6	52	15	83	180	134

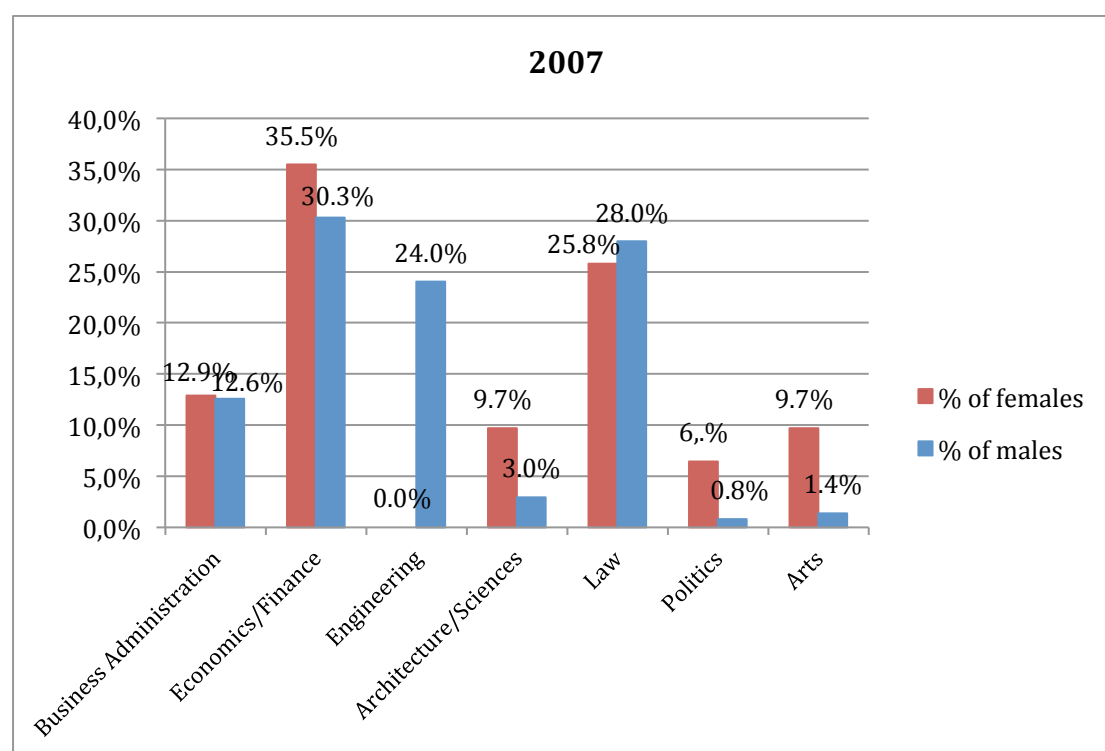
Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

4.2. Fields of education

The figures below (Figure 10) shows the fields of education in which the board members (by gender) specialised in during their Bachelors' degree. We can observe

that, in 2007, women specialised more in Economics and Finance (36%), Law (26%), and Business Administration (22%), while men tend to have studied Economics and Finance (30.3%), Law (28%), and Engineering (24%). The biggest differences are observed for degrees in Engineering (24% of the male board members studied some type of Engineering degree as opposed to 0% of female board members) and for Arts degrees; 10% of female board members had in 2007 an Arts degree as opposed to 1% of male board members.

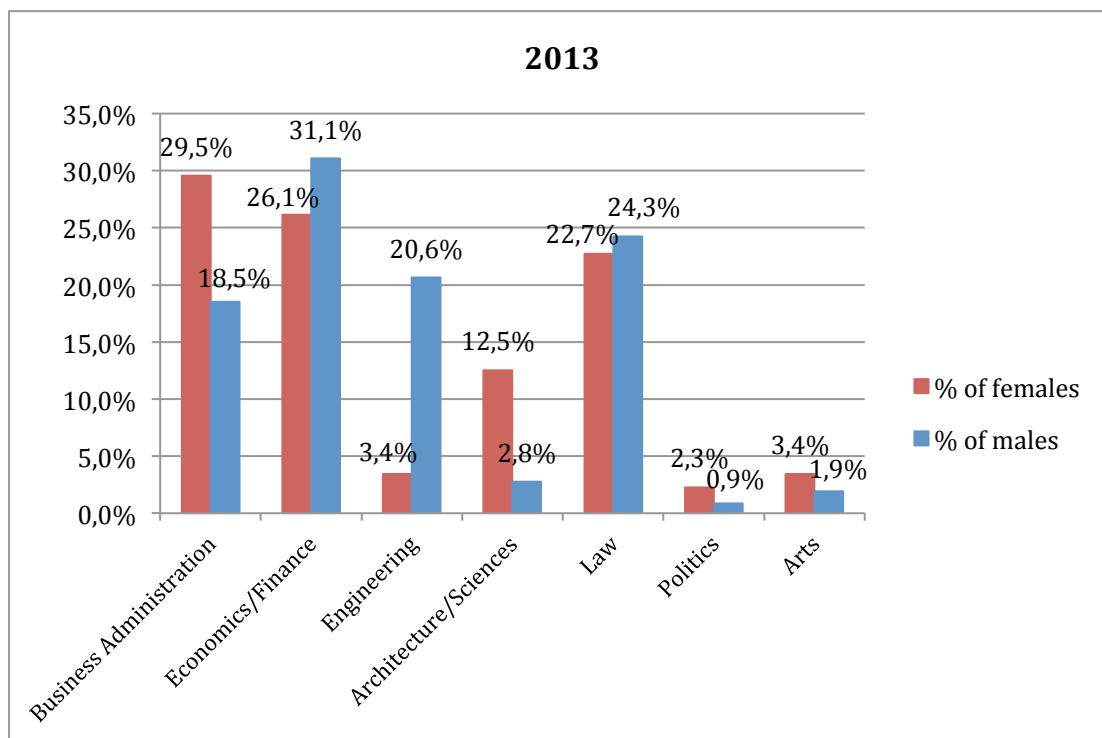
Figure 9A. Fields of education, by gender, 2007



Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

In 2013, women specialised in the same areas but the order is reversed. Female board members studied Business Administration (30%), Economics and Finance (26%), and Law (23%), and male board members Economics and Finance (31%), Law (24%), and Engineering (21%), as in 2007. The biggest differences are once again observed for degrees in Engineering, although the difference is smaller now (21% of the male board members studied some type of Engineering degree as opposed to 3% of female board members) and for Architecture/Science degrees; 13% of female board members have an Arts degree as opposed to 3% of male board members.

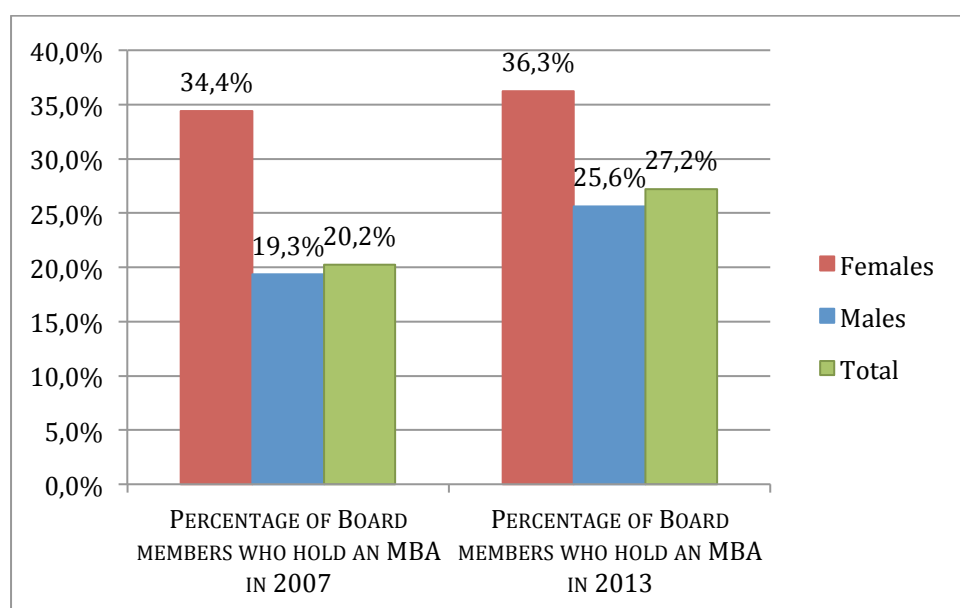
Figure 9B. Fields of education, by gender, 2013



Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

Lastly, not only are women more educated than men on average, but a higher percentage of them (36% as opposed to 26% of men) hold a Master in Business Administration degree, probably the most relevant degree for a board member. This percentage has gone up since 2007 (34% for women) but the gap with respect to men has decreased (19% of male board members had an MBA in 2007 as opposed to 26% of them in 2013).

Figure 10. Board members who hold an MBA degree, by gender



Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

Finally, in the table below we show the percentage of board members who held a public (or political) position in the past, by gender and by board member type. As we can see, a lower percentage of women than men held political posts. By board member type, independent board members are the ones who, on a higher percentage, held public posts, followed by executive and then proprietary (in the case of males). On aggregate, 14.5% of males had a political position in the past, while only 11.4% of women had.

Table 10. Percentage of board members who hold public posts, by type and gender

	Females			Males		
	Executive	Independent	Proprietary	Executive	Independent	Proprietary
% held a political post	0%	18%	0%	15%	21%	8%
% did not hold a political post	100%	82%	100%	85%	79%	92%
Nº of board members	4	50	17	78	164	120

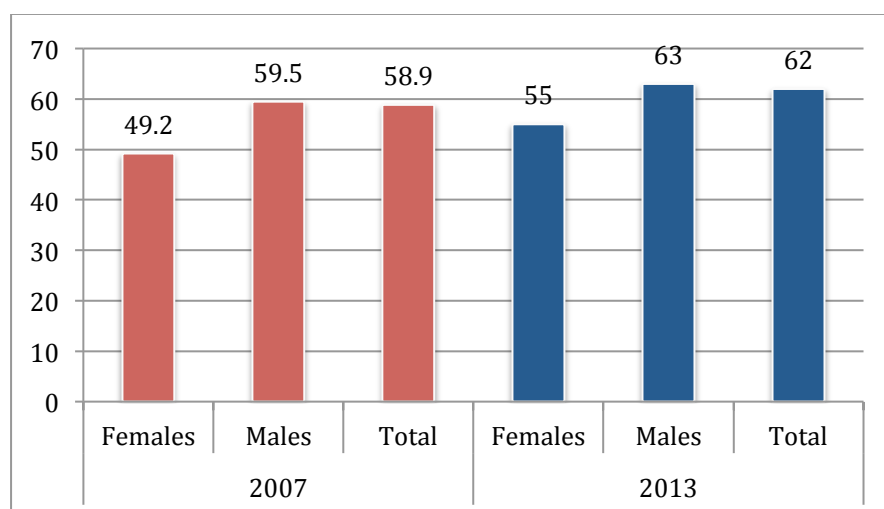
Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

4.3. Average age of board members by gender.

Figure 14 shows the average age of male board members and female board members in 2013 and 2007. The first are, on average, 62 years old, in 2013 while the latter are 7 years younger on average, 55 years old. The average age for all board members is 62 years old. In 2007 men were on average 59.5 years old and women were more than 10 years younger, on average, 49.2. Therefore, the gap between them has been

reduced but board members are now older than they used to be in 2007. Women are still, on average, considerably younger than men.¹⁷

Figure 11. Average age of board members, by gender in 2007 and 2013



Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

Table 11. Average age, by gender and by type of board member, 2007 and 2013

2007						
	Females			Males		
	Executive	Independent	Proprietary	Executive	Independent	Proprietary
Average age	47	53	42	58	62	58
Nº of board members	1	13	6	81	124	155

2013						
	Females			Males		
	Executive	Independent	Proprietary	Executive	Independent	Proprietary
Average age	55	57	50	60	66	61
Nº of board members	5	44	11	78	167	118

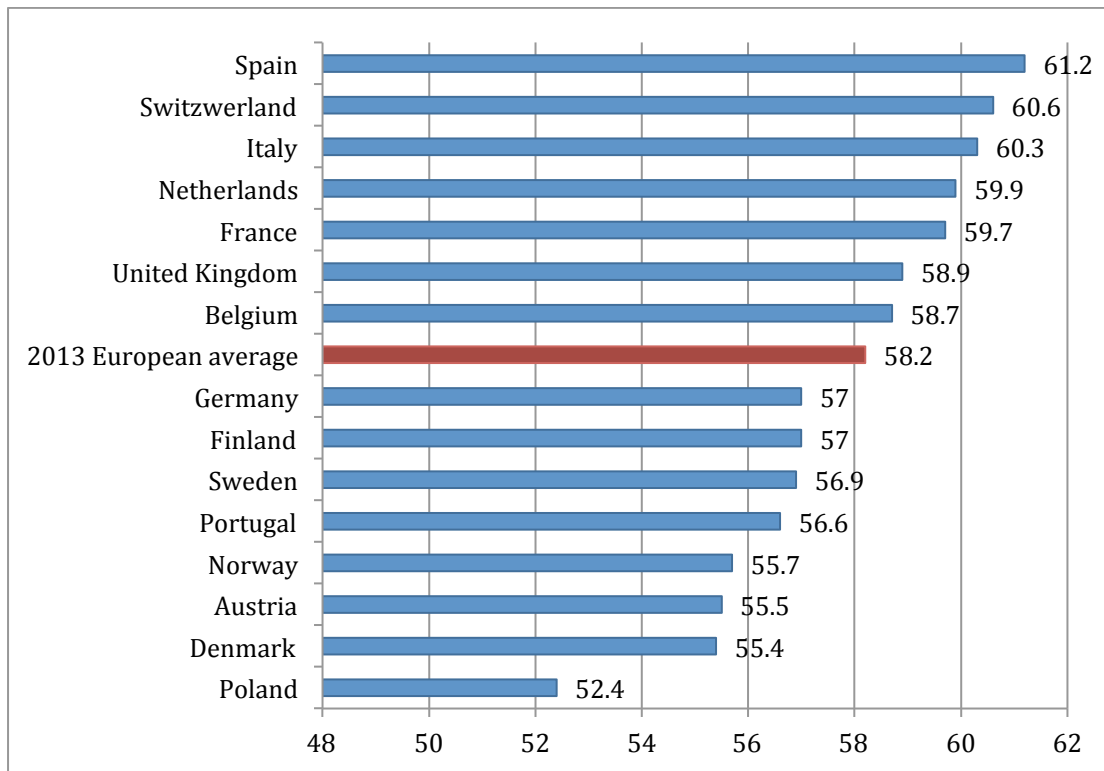
Source: own elaboration with data from CNMV.

In order to study the Spanish case in the European context, we've turned to Heidrick and Struggle's report on European governance, where they look at the average age of the board of Directors across fifteen European countries for the biggest publicly listed companies.¹⁸ They find that the European average age is 58.2 years old. Of the countries they have data for the one with the highest average is Spain, where board members are, on average, 61.2 years old. This is in line with the average age of 62 years old that we find with our database (Figure 15).

¹⁷ Results stay practically the same when we take the median instead of the average.

¹⁸ For more information see Heidrick and Struggles, "Towards Dynamic Governance 2014, European Corporate Governance Report", Methodology section, page 44.

Figure 12. Average age of board members, by country



Source: Heidrick and Struggles, “Towards dynamic governance 2014”, Figure 8, page 24.

They also perform a breakdown of the age profile of the board members, and find that in Spain almost 40% of board members are 61 to 70 years old, as opposed to 24% of the European average, and 15% are over 70 in Spain, as opposed to 7% of the European average. The figures for Spain stand in sharp contrast to those of countries such as Finland or Denmark, where only 1-2% of board members are aged over 70. In the case of Spain, one in every six board members is over 70 (Table 11).

Table 12. Age profile of board directors, by country.

	Up to 50	51 to 60	61 to 70	Over 70
European average	21.1%	38.8%	33.8%	7.4%
Austria	30.5%	37.8%	28%	3.6%
Belgium	20.1%	36.8%	35.9%	7.3%
Denmark	29.1%	45.7%	23.5%	1.7%
Finland	18.9%	36.9%	34.1%	1.2%
France	14.9%	44.9%	38%	10.2%
Germany	23.5%	27%	25.7%	5.8%
Italy	21.1%	32.7%	34.7%	17.2%
Netherlands	13.6%	32.7%	47.1%	6.6%
Norway	25.2%	48.3%	24.5%	2%
Poland	48.6%	32.6%	16.6%	2.3%
Portugal	24.3%	43.7%	23.6%	8.5%
Spain	12.9%	32.6%	39.6%	14.9%
Sweden	18.6%	49.8%	27.7%	4%
Switzerland	10%	34.1%	52.1%	3.8%
United Kingdom	13.6%	32.7%	47.1%	6.6%

Source: own elaboration with data from Heidrick and Struggles, “Towards dynamic governance 2014”, Figure 10, page 25.

Chairmen in the EU are, on average, 63.5 years old. In the case of the top 50 publicly listed companies in Spain they are, on average 64 years old. In general, board members in the EU are 58.2 years old on average, while they are almost 3 years older on average in Spain (61 years old).

4.4. Number of children, by gender.

We’ve tried to collect information on the number of children board members have. Unfortunately, we have not been able to get this information for all board members. We were able to get information on the number of children for 105 board members in 2007, out of 544 board members (19.3%) and 158 board members in 2013, out of 529 (29.8%). Even though the information gathered on number of children is incomplete and any result should be taken with caution, we can say that the average number of children board members had in 2007 was 3.4. This figure reflects those we know have children and that we could get information on. For male board members the number was 3.5 and for female board members it was lower, 2.93. The figures have gone down slightly in 2013, board members have on average 3.18 children, out of which female board members have 3.0 and male board members 3.3. Males continue to have more children than women, on average, but this gap has been reduced since 2007.

Table 13. Average number of children by gender.

	2007			2013		
	Females	Males	Total	Females	Males	Total
Average n° of children	2,93	3,45	3,36	2,97	3,25	3,18
N° of board members	14	91	105	36	122	158

Source: own elaboration.

5. Gender quotas in Europe

As we had seen women are misrepresented of boards of directors in all European countries. We are not going to enter into discussing whether or not a gender quota is an adequate policy to close this gap or not, but is it true that different countries have chosen to tackle this issue in different ways. We have chosen to divide their approaches in three: binding legislative measures (quotas with sanctions), non-binding legislative measures (quotas with no sanctions or simply recommendations) and self-regulation approaches (no legislative regulation). Table 14 below shows the EU-27 countries according to this classification.

Table 14. Legislative measures by country

Binding legislative measures (with sanctions)	Austria: targets of 25% (by 2013) and 35% (by 2018) for supervisory boards of state-owned companies.
	Belgium (2011): one third quota in boards of state-owned and listed companies by 2012 (state companies), 2017 (listed companies) or 2019 (listed SMEs).
	France: ensure that members of each sex occupy at least 20 % of boardroom seats within three years (i.e. by 2014) and 40 % within six years from the entry into force of the law (i.e. by 2017).
	Italy: at least one-third representation of each sex among members of the management board and the supervisory board by 2015.
Non-binding legislative measures (no sanctions)	Spain: Law on gender equality of 2007 encourages large companies to alter the membership of their boards gradually until each sex makes up at least 40 % by 2015.

Netherlands: Civil Code now obliges public limited companies and private limited companies to strive for a balanced representation of members of each sex on the company's management board and on the supervisory board.

Denmark: boards in state-owned companies should, 'as far as possible', have an equal gender balance.

Finland: if a company in which the Government is the majority shareholder the board of directors must comprise an equitable proportion of both women and men, unless there are special reasons to the contrary.

Slovenia: 40% representation of each sex in public enterprises and 53 other entities of public law.

Greece: one third of state appointees to boards of legal persons must be from each sex.

Portugal: obliging state-owned companies to adopt gender equality plans aiming at promoting gender balance in management and executive positions

**Self-regulation, Corporate
Givernance Codes (no
legislative measures)**

Bulgaria

Cyprus

Czech Republic

Estonia

Germany: Corporate Governance Code of 2011.

Hungary

Ireland

Latvia

Lithuania

Luxembourg: Corporate Code of 2009.

Malta

Poland: Corporate Code of 2010.

Romania

Slovakia

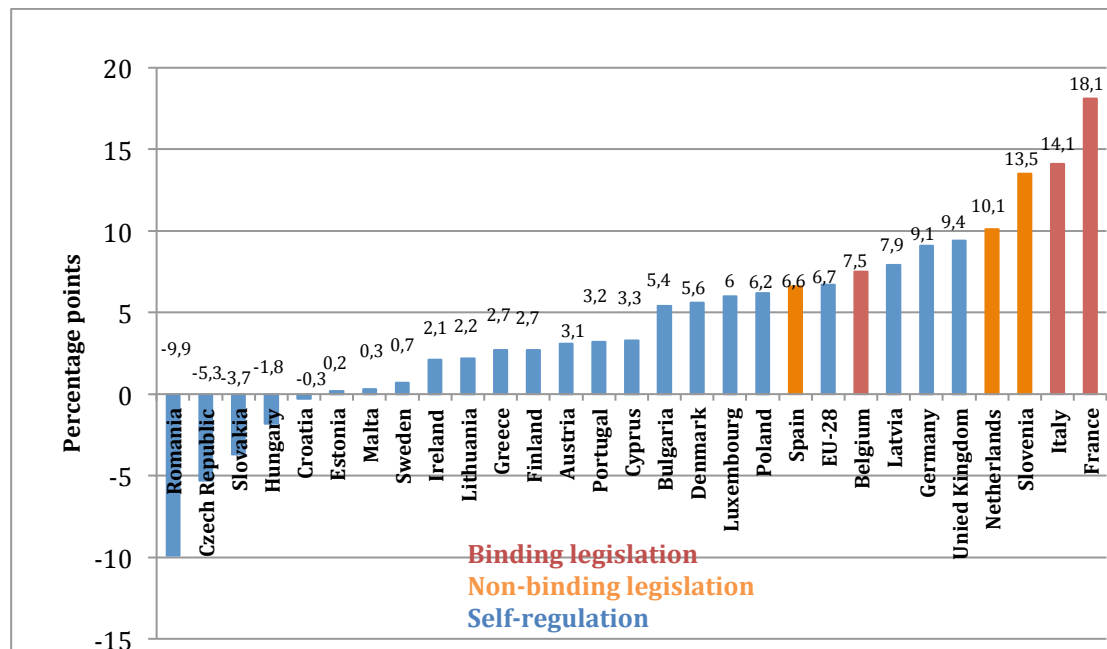
Sweden: self-regulation.

United Kingdom: Corporate Governance Code of 2012.

Source: own elaboration with data from European Commission, “Gender equality in the Member States”, Women on boards – Factsheet 2, pages 4-6.

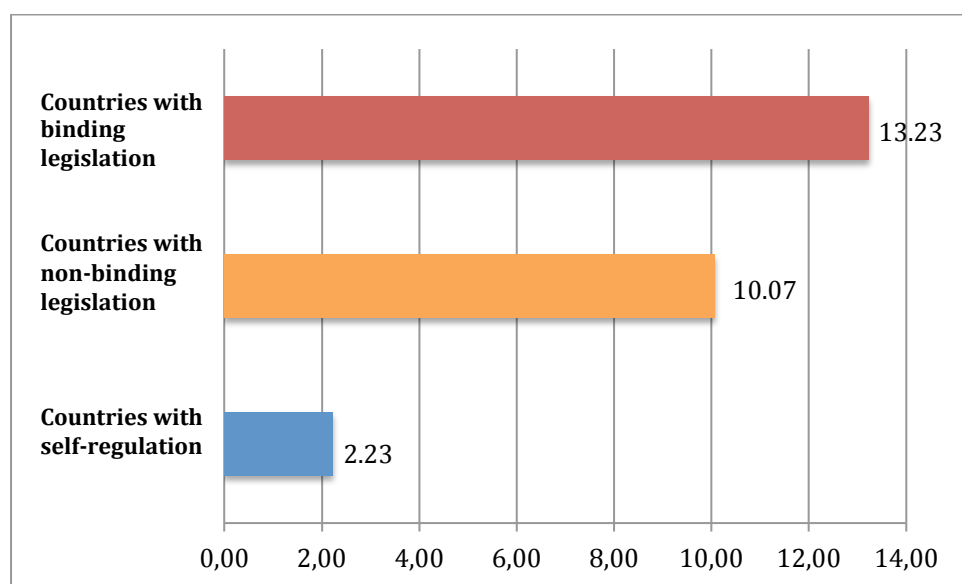
On the graph below we have plotted the cumulative change (in percentage points) from October 2010 to April 2014 of women representation on corporate boards in the EU-28 countries. Binding quotas affecting private firms are plotted in red, non-binding quotas affecting private firms are plotted in orange and, lastly, binding and non-binding legislative measures affecting only public enterprises stay in blue, since a change in women representation on state-owned companies would not be reflected on this graph (the colours follow the criteria set in [Table 1](#)). As we can see, the countries in which more progress has been made in terms of women representation are Italy and France, both of which have adopted legislative measures including sanctions. The next two countries in terms of improvement are Slovenia and the Netherlands, which adopted non-binding legislative measures. These are the four countries where progress has been the greatest, followed by the United Kingdom and Germany, where there has been an intense public debate on gender balance.

Figure 13. Change in the share of women on boards by country, October 2010 – April 2014.



Source: own elaboration with data from European Commission, Database on women and men in decision-making, taken from European Commission, “Gender Balance in Corporate boards”, September 2014.

Figure 14. Cumulative change in the share of women on boards by gender quota policy, October 2010 – April 2014



6. Conclusions and policy recommendation.

The object of this paper is evaluate the “Gender Equality Act” passed in Spain 2007 that recommends companies with 250 or more employees to have at least 40% of each gender on their boards by 2015.

The main results that we have found are the following. First, even though the representation of women in the boards of Directors of the main Spanish firms has increased since 2007, the number of female board members is still very low (15.1%) and very far away from the 40% target set by the Government of Spain in 2007. Second, female board members are on average younger, have spent less time on the board and are more educated than male board members. Third, female board members earn less than male board members even after removing Chairs and Vice-chairs from the dataset and comparing board members of the same type, with the same responsibilities and same position inside the same company.

In the second part of the paper we compare the gender legislative measures for company boards introduced in EU countries. We have seen that significant change in the number of female board members in a country has only happened whenever binding legislation has been introduced (quotas with sanctions, for instance).

In particular, the most significant developments over recent years have largely occurred in countries where binding legislation has already been adopted, such as France, the Netherlands and Italy, or where there has been an extensive public and media debate, such as Germany and the UK. According to the European Commission, if we were to exclude these five countries the change between October 2010 and April 2013 would be just half of that observed for the EU as a whole (2.4 percentage points

instead of 4.8 percentage points).¹⁹

As we can appreciate in Figure 20 in most of the countries where there has not been legislation including enforcement measures or sanctions, progress has been limited and in some the percentage change has been negative. Italy and France are the two countries where the presence of female board members has increased the most (18.1 percentage points in France and 14.1 percentage points in Italy). In we said in both countries binding legislative measures have been adopted. Progress in countries like Spain, which passed a law in 2007 promoting female participation but included no sanctions for non-compliance with the law, has been very limited. In fact, the overall percentage change in Spain from October 2010 to April 2014 has been below the EU-28 average.

From a theoretical standpoint there are both reasons and arguments for and against gender quotas.²⁰ Independently of these arguments, what we find empirically is that relevant progress is only made in countries that have adopted effective gender quotas. The main argument in favour of gender quotas is thus that they are the only effective way of moving forward and achieving gender balanced boards, at least in the European countries. It would be unrealistic to expect an equal representation of women in top positions just by “letting time pass” and without the introduction of binding legislation.

Therefore, we advocate for the introduction of real binding quotas for female participation in high-ranked job positions, since, as the experience within Spain and across the whole EU demonstrates, quotas are the only way for significant progress to be made in the area of female participation.

¹⁹ European Commission - Directorate-General for Justice, “Women and men in leadership positions in the European Union”, 2013.

²⁰ For a detailed review see Profeta, Paola, Amidani Aliberti, Livia, Casarico, Alessandra, D’Amico, Marilisa, and Puccio, Ana (2014).

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Description of the Dataset

The study will make use of a database that contains data on the main socio-demographic information of the members of the Board of Directors for the 37 publicly listed Spanish companies that trade in the IBEX-35, dating July 2013. The Comisión Nacional del Mercado de Valores (hereinafter CNMV) publishes the following information for every company: name of the company, sector it operates in, subsector, name and surname of each member of the Board of Directors/represented company, role, date he/she began on the Administrative Body, date he/she left, and annual remuneration, of which: salary, fixed remuneration, variable remuneration (short term), variable remuneration (long term), per diem payments (“dietas”) and what we have classified as “others”, including equity, remuneration for being in other committee’s of the same Group, etc. Additional information on other aspects of the Board members was collected by conducting further research and using alternative sources, such as newspaper articles or the companies’ official websites. The dataset counts with information on 549 Board members.

The complete dataset includes the following variables:

- Name of the company
- Sector
- Subsector
- Administrative Body
- Surname
- Name
- Represented company
- Place of residence
- Place of birth
- Gender
- Role
- Age
- Level of education (1)
- University
- Field of education (1)
- Level of education (2)
- Field of education (2)
- Previous professional experience
- Time on the Board
- Number of children
- Annual remuneration in 2012
- Annual remuneration in 2013
- Salary
- Fixed remuneration
- Variable remuneration (short term)
- Variable remuneration (long term)
- Per diem payments
- Other types of remuneration