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The profile of the Mexican employer: A sociocultural issue linked to gender?

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Abstract

This study aims to identify the individual characteristics and variables that influence the probability that the workers from Mexico will occupy leadership positions in the formal labor market. Based on 38,878 observations from the National Time Use Survey (ENUT) 2019, it was found that the profile of the employer is determined by the male gender with marital status of married, who works more than 57 hours per week, has a postgraduate level of education and is over 39 years of age. Therefore, people with these characteristics have greater opportunities to position themselves in senior management positions. The relationship between variables was analyzed with a logistic regression model where the dependent variable adopted the values of one if the individual had an employer position and zero if he does not. The results showed a negative sign for the gender variable, which means that women are less likely to hold employer positions. The dominance of males in leadership positions in Mexico is related to sociocultural issues that subject women to unpaid work, caregiving, or lower-ranking positions. Even women who achieve authority positions, dedicate a greater amount of time to domestic activities than men. The unequal distribution of housework negatively impacts the female professional development at country level. The results of this work contribute to the analysis of the differences in the distribution of positions of power at the workplace between men and women.

Keywords: Leadership position, Gender, Employer, Paid activities, Formal labor market.

1. Introduction

In the last 50 years, women have successfully entered the educational field and the labor market, however, in terms of leadership, men continue to outperform women. Especially in the formal labor market, men tend to occupy the highest positions. Whether in corporate boards, the public sector, universities, courts, religious institutions, or non-profit organizations; men are more likely than women to occupy high-level hierarchical positions (Hill, et. al., 2016; Stainback, Kleiner, and Skaggs, 2015; Gémesi, 2020).

The research carried out by Virginia Schein and Ruediger Mueller was a pioneer in the subject, since it found that the social prejudices of the time determined that successful leadership demanded particular and specific qualities of the male gender (Schein and Mueller, 1992). So leadership perceptions associated with masculinity such as aggressiveness, competitiveness and toughness, as well as gender role stereotypes have contributed to the creation of the glass ceiling, which has reduced the number of women reaching leadership positions (Bass and Riggio, 2005; Eagly and Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2001).

Despite the fact that in recent years female participation in the labor market has grown and that the gap in access to education has closed, there is no certainty that their insertion in the labor market will be equitable. The results of the 2021 Global Gender Gap Index published by the World Economic Forum (WEF), show that of 156 countries analyzed, Mexico ranks 122nd in the Opportunity and Economic Participation sub-index, since until 2021 it has only closed 59% of the gender gap in this element. Among the reasons that may explain the slow progress in this area is the persistently low participation of women in the labor force. According to the report, one reason Mexico ranked so low is because only 14.6% of companies have women in senior management positions. This dynamic widens the gender gap in earnings and wages by 50% (WEF, 2021). Although this situation has changed a lot since the 1970s, the culturally shared idea that household activities correspond to women persists, which reinforces the belief that the domain of the economic, political and social environment falls on the male gender.

The study of this phenomenon is relevant, since it occurs worldwide and it happens without discriminating between economic conditions, political ideas, social classes or cultural factors (Balgiu, 2013). However, currently leadership approaches are based on both transactional and transformational actions whose purpose is to establish collaborative relationships that are more akin to the female gender (Bass and Riggio, 2005). Although the vision of leaders as male entities in the exercise of power is increasingly distant, men continue to occupy the highest ranking positions within social organizations.

2. Literature review

Female labor activity experienced significant growth starting in the 1970s, and as society and the economy evolved, the number of women in leadership positions has increased both nationally and internationally (Gasparini and Marchionni, 2015). Data from the 1970 General Population Census and the National Employment Surveys (ENOE) prepared by the National Institute of Statistics and Geography of Mexico (INEGI) indicate that the participation rate of women in the Mexican labor market has experienced significant growth over the last five decades. In 1970, 17 out of every 100 women carried out paid activities (INEGI, 1970), while in 2020 the number was 60 out of 100. In terms of economic contribution to the household, a significant gap persists between men and women, since it has been a difference of 31.5%, which

means that it is men who support household expenses to a greater extent in Mexico. Similarly, the results of the Women and Men in Mexico 2020 project indicate that between 2005 and 2020, the rate of economic contribution of women has increased by 5%, and that of men fell from 80.3 to 76.4% in the same period (INEGI, 2021).

The phenomenon by which women contribute fewer resources to the household and do not usually occupy hierarchical positions in their work environment, can be explained by the life cycle challenges they face when they participate in the labor market. The research of Blanchard, Zigarmi and Zigarmi (1985), determined that the behavior of employees and employers depends on the particular situations in which they find themselves. For example, the work life cycle or women is marked in a first phase by their entry into the market, in a second phase by their return after having children, and in third place is progress in work, either assuming the role of employer or manager. The second stage presents significant challenges, and while balancing paid work and personal life is a challenging task for both men and women, studies show that the burden of housework leaves women with far less time to spend, develop economic activities or occupy leadership positions in their jobs (Perrone, Wright and Jackson, 2009; Finkel, 2014).

The reasons why women have historically adopted the role of household managers and of carrying out domestic and care tasks without financial remuneration, are associated with cultural factors that frame their functions in the domestic sphere. So, the cultural components that determine the phenomenon can be found in the family dynamics. According to Finkel (2014), cultural boundaries converge within families, such as the coexistence of two generations of parents and children; the configuration of relations based on gender that expand to the educational and labor spheres; as well as the social class and the educational level of the parents that define the future participation of the children in the labor market.

For both genders, decisions related to the work environment are influenced by the need to strike a balance between home care and time spent at work (Perrone, Wright, & Jackson, 2009). This situation is even more evident in countries such as Mexico, where a large gender gap persists in the time devoted by women to unpaid activities. In developing countries, families are larger, wages are low and insufficient, and cultural and working conditions mean that women spend more time on unpaid work, which contributes to their not fully participating in the market (Nieto, 2004), and therefore, fail to reach leadership positions.

Once the complications that women face when entering and remaining in the labor market have been explained, the next phase is to occupy leadership positions, either within the companies where they work or through their own ventures.

When it comes to career advancement, various investigations agree that there are job-relevant characteristics, both personal and educational (Connell, 2006; Eagly and Carli, 2007; Riccucci 2009) that are considered to reach high-ranking positions. Some examples are family characteristics (marital status, presence and age of children) that often influence promotion and job success. Although there are authors who consider that such characteristics should not be considered in leadership studies (Cotter, et. al, 2001), others point out that personal variables differentiate subjects according to their family or professional orientation since they affect productivity (Naff and Thomas, 1994).

The work of Shelley J. Correll (2013) concluded that married men obtain higher income and job growth opportunities than single men and women regardless of their marital status. The

opposite happens for women, since married ones tend to have part-time or informal jobs and lower incomes than men, which increases the chances for married men to have higher wages and job opportunities. The marital status that most favors women is singleness, since companies tend to hire more single women than married women (Arceo and Campos, 2013). So, it is logical that if it were necessary for married couples with children for one of them to dedicate fully to the home, the person with the least income would have to do so (Vela, 2017).

Another personal characteristic of those who occupy positions of higher hierarchy within companies is age, since it is directly related to life and work experience. The results of financial sector research conducted by De Sivatte et. al (2018), showed that the average age of directors, controllers and managers of companies and individuals with high net worth, was 42 years and that it was also a factor that positively determined their level of productivity. The researchers also found that the gender distribution of the positions described above consisted of 63% men and 37% women. Finally, they concluded that for positions that required greater labor leadership, the relationship between age and productivity was positive and significant.

The report Women and men in Mexico 2020 (INEGI, 2021), indicates that the greatest participation in the labor market is carried out by people between 25 and 54 years of age, and that 60.8% of women with greater labor participation have between 35 and 39 years of age. The widest difference between both genders is between the ages of 55 and 59, where 40.6% more men engage in paid activities.

In reference to paid and unpaid activities, in all age groups, Mexican men dedicate more time per week to paid work. The groups of 30 to 39 years old and 50 years old and over stand out, where men confer the greatest amount of time to this activity. On the contrary, in all age groups, women are more dedicated to unpaid household and care work compared to men. The gender gap (43.7 points) is widest for people between 30 and 39 years of age (INEGI, 2021). By having more time to devote to the labor market, the chances of men to move up in employment increase, while the chances of women decrease, since spending an extensive number of hours at home prevents them from constantly managing in the workplace.

Regarding the educational level, there is a balance for the female and male genders at all levels, even women are slightly superior, since of the people enrolled in higher level during the school cycle 2019-2020, 51.5% were women and 48.5% were men. And in terms of graduation and degrees, women are also the majority at 53.7% and 54.2% respectively (INEGI, 2021).

Given these facts, in higher education, which is more akin to positions of higher hierarchy and decision, women should have advantages over men. And even though in Mexico there are no significant differences in the educational level of men and women, the number of women with employer positions is 2.5% of all women who work in the formal market; while 6.4% of men are in management positions (INEGI, 2021). Although in practice the work environment functions differently, it is logical to assume that subjects with greater experience, knowledge, education and professional training should have greater probabilities of growing in their jobs (Hitt, et. al, 2001) independently of their gender. Consequently, the job positions with the highest hierarchy and decision-making power should fall to those with the greatest human capital, since, as Díaz-Fernández et al. (2017), such subjects have greater knowledge, experience and skills that are essential for the performance and growth of companies.

Because it is women who face the greatest challenges in harmonizing family and professional life, the creation of family-friendly policies in the formal labor market has been advocated

(Facer and Wadsworth 2008; Kim and Wiggins 2011; Lockwood 2003). However, the assumption that housework is the sole responsibility of women has no place in today's society. Therefore, the analysis of the subject is relevant in theory and in practice, as it is a recurring argument in many homes around the world.

3. Methods

The research was carried out with the information collected from the National Survey on Time Use (ENUT) for the year 2019 (the most recent year available). This survey is carried out by INEGI every 4 years and is representative at the national level. The information is collected with the purpose of measuring the time that people dedicate to paid and unpaid activities, as well as their personal characteristics and the time spent on leisure and well-being activities (INEGI, 2020). The analyzed data correspond to the economically active population, that is, individuals over 15 years of age of whom there were 38,878 observations. The distinctive features of the population in the positions of employers are considered, such as gender, marital status, educational level, age and working time in economic units. Likewise, the time dedicated to domestic activities and child care that lacks any remuneration is considered.

It is important to mention that some of the limitations of this research are the sources of information available to date, since the lack of more recent data prevents the phenomenon of time use from being analyzed more broadly. Despite the limitations, it was decided to use the ENUT 2019, since it is representative at the national level and allows identifying the dynamics of positioning in companies based on the personal characteristics of the respondents.

In order to find out to what extent certain sociodemographic factors influence the probability that a person reaches the position of employer, a logistic regression or logit model has been estimated. So, according to Rodríguez (2007), the variable y_i, is defined as follows:

$$y_i = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if the subject has the analyzed characteristic} \\ 0 \text{ if he does not} \end{cases}$$

The variable y_i is the representation of the fulfillment of the random variable y_i, which takes values between zero and one, where if $y_i = 1$, we obtain π_i and if $y_i = 0$, we obtain $1 - \pi_i$. The purpose of binary dependent variable models is to deduce the probability π_i given a set of independent variables or observable characteristics x_i. As a consequence, π_i is modeled as a linear function of: $\pi_i = x_i'\beta$ (1)

Where β is a vector of regression coefficients and x_i is the vector of explanatory variables. Since the values of π_i and $1 - \pi_i$, have a value between zero and one, a linear transformation of the variables is made. According to Rodríguez (2007), the first step is to convert the probability π_i to its risk coefficient or odd ratio, which allows quantifying the ratio of unfavorable to favorable cases.

$$odds_i = \frac{\pi_i}{1 - \pi_i} \quad (2)$$

Subsequently, the corresponding logarithms are obtained:

$$\eta_i = logit(\pi_i) = log\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i} \quad (3)$$

When the probability is close to zero, the value of the odd approaches zero and the logit approaches $-\infty$, while if the probability approaches one, the odd approaches $+\infty$ and the logit also approaches $+\infty$. In this way, the dependent variable oscillates in values in a range between $-\infty$ and $+\infty$. In logit models, the dependent variable is assumed to have a binomial distribution $Y_i \sim B(n_i, \pi_i)$ with probability π_i which is a linear function of the predictors. The logit regression is estimated using the maximum likelihood technique. Thus, the coefficient β_j indicates the probability that an event occurs given the change of one unit in the $j-th$ predictor, while the rest of the predictors remain constant. By powering the equation $\pi_i = x_i'\beta$, the probabilities for the $i-th$ unit would be determined by:

$$\frac{\pi_i}{1-\pi_i} = exp\{x_i'\beta\} \quad (4)$$

With the resulting expression, a model is obtained and the results can be translated into multiplicative effects of the probabilities of an event occurring, which, in the present study, are the probabilities that the economically active population can occupy the position of employer given a set of personal and work characteristics; such as gender, marital status, educational level, age, and time spent on paid activities.

The logit model was made with the Stata 15 software. As mentioned above, the dependent variables have a binary response, that is, they can adopt the values of one and zero if the individual has the desired characteristics or 0 if he does not. By having the desired characteristics, it is understood to be the individuals who occupy the position of employers. The dependent variable Y_i is defined as follows: $Y_i = 1$, the individual is an employer and $Y_i = 0$, the individual is not an employer.

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(\text{employer} = 1) \\ &= F(\beta_0 + \beta_1 Gender + \beta_2 Educational\ level + \beta_3 Marital\ status \\ &+ \beta_4 Paid\ activities + \beta_5 Age) \quad (5)\end{aligned}$$

The data was extracted for the entire country of Mexico and, in particular, from sections IV and V of personal and labor indicators. Before developing the model, a correlation analysis was performed to determine which variables had a stronger relationship with the dependent variable. Subsequently, different combinations of variables were tested in logistic regressions, and the model with the highest goodness of fit and explanatory power was chosen.

The variables used in the model are the following:

1. **Employer:** Employer position within the workplace. Dependent variable that classifies with 0 if the individual does not hold a managerial position and 1 if he does hold it.
2. **Gender:** gender of the employer. It was classified as 0 if the employer is male and 1 if the employer is female.

3. **Educational level:** last educational level reached by the respondents. Classified as None (0), Basic Education (1), Secondary Education (2), Technical Studies with High School Completed (3), High School (4), Technical Studies with High School Completed (5), Bachelor's or Engineering (6), Master's Degree and/or doctorate (7).
4. **Marital status:** marital status of the respondents. It was classified as 1 if the person was married and 0 if he was not.
5. **Paid activities:** number of hours worked and paid per week in formal businesses by the survey participants. They were classified as less than 40 to 40 hours (1), 41 to 48 hours (2), 49 to 57 hours (3), and more than 57 hours (4).
6. **Age:** years of life of the respondents. Observations were classified in ranges from 17 to 29 years (1), 30 to 39 (2), 40 to 49 (3), 50 to 59 (4), and from 60 and over (5).

The goodness-of-fit test used in the model was the Hosmer-Lemeshow criterion with ten quantiles to pool data. The result of the test was 3.28 (Prob > chi2 = 0.9156), which indicates that the model with the variables used has a robust goodness of fit and also indicates that the model is efficient and its results are reliable.

4. Results

Table 1 shows the descriptive values of the variables studied in this research, where 58.7% of the respondents were men and the remaining 41.3% were women. The fact that on average men dedicate 10 more hours to paid work per week than their female counterparts stands out, although the percentage of women with higher education and postgraduate studies is 7% higher than that of men. Likewise, the percentage of men occupying managerial positions is 38% higher than that of women.

Table 1: Description of the values of the variables of the logit model classifier by gender of the interviewees

	Women		Men		Total	
Number of respondents	16,044 (41.3%)		22,834 (58.7%)		38,878 (100%)	
Time dedicated to paid work (hours per week)	37.28		47.35		43.21	
Average age	38.44		39.09		38.82	
Marital status	Married	Single	Married	Single	Married	Single
	5,558 (34.6%)	10,487 (65.4%)	9,893 (43.3%)	12,941 (56.7%)	15,451 (39.7%)	23,427 (60.3%)
Position in employment	Employee	Employer	Employee	Employer	Employee	Employer
	15,836 (98.7%)	208 (1.3%)	22,283 (97.6%)	551 (2.4%)	38,119 (98%)	759 (2%)
Educational level	Employee	Employer	Employee	Employer	Employee	Employer
1. None	470 (2.93%)	7 (0.04%)	761 (3.33%)	14 (0.06%)	1,231 (3.17%)	21 (0.05%)
2. Basic education	7,435 (46.34%)	69 (0.43%)	11,932 (52.26%)	217 (0.95%)	19,367 (49.8%)	286 (0.74%)
3. Upper secondary education	3,692 (23%)	48 (0.30%)	5,235 (22.93%)	112 (0.49%)	8,927 (22.96%)	160 (0.41%)
4. Higher Education	3,867 (24.1%)	71 (0.44%)	4,013 (17.57%)	179 (0.78%)	7,880 (20.27%)	250 (0.64%)
5. Postgraduate	372 (2.32%)	13 (0.08%)	342 (1.5%)	29 (0.13%)	714 (1.84%)	42 (0.11%)

Source*: own elaboration based on ENUT, 2019.*

Table 2 shows that the average time dedicated to paid work by women in high-ranking positions is 10 hours greater than that dedicated by those who are employees, and male employers dedicate 6 hours more than subordinate workers. Even in similar positions, men tend to spend a greater amount of time on professional activities. Contrary to this phenomenon, is the fact that regardless of the position occupied in the labor sphere, women are the main responsible for unpaid domestic activities. On average, the female gender spends 2.6 times more time caring for children, 4.2 times more time preparing food, and 3 times more time cleaning.

Table 2: Average time spent on different paid and unpaid activities by gender and job position (hours per week)

	Employees		Employers Mean		Women mean	Men mean	Population mean
	Women	Men	Women	Men			
Time dedicated to paid work	37.22	47.17	46.96	53.22	37.28	47.35	43.21
Time spent caring for children	14.89	5.65	14.53	7.11	14.88	5.68	9.48
Time spent preparing food	11.65	2.75	11.36	2.99	11.65	2.76	6.43
Time spent cleaning the home	13.34	3.33	12.36	4.36	13.33	4.53	8.17

Source:own elaboration based on ENUT, 2019.

The results of the logit model in Table 3, shows that the Educational level variable, classified according to the last educational degree reached, obtained the highest odds ratios, since people with superior education got greater likelihoods of being employers. According to the model, it is 2.6 times more likely that a person with a technical education occupies a leadership position than someone who does not have that level, while someone who has a bachelor's degree is 3.8 more likely to be an employer. The probabilities grow if they have a master's degree or a doctorate, that is, they are 5.5 times more prone to occupy higher positions in the labor market.

The Age variable had important results, since people over 60 are 5.4 times more likely to be employers than their younger counterparts. The odds ratios for this variable express that the older the subject, the greater the probability of positioning in areas of strategic management. Those between 30 and 39 years of age have 2.3 more opportunities to be employers than those under 30, those between 40 and 49 have 3.1 grater chances of assuming leadership positions, and if they are 50 to 59 years old, they are 3.2 times more likely to occupy higher positions.

The variable Paid activities shows that people who dedicate a greater number of hours to paid activities have better opportunities to occupy employer positions. The coefficient for the category from 41 to 48 hours was not significant, while the one from 49 to 57 hours of work per week was significant and had an odd ratio of 1.45, and those who worked more than 57 hours per week, reached an odd ratio of 2.65, so they are 2.7 times more likely to be employers.

The variable Marital status, indicates that a married person is 1.6 times more likely to obtain an employer position than their counterparts with a different status. The Gender variable obtained a significant odd ratio below 1, which means that for the male gender the probability of occupying an employer position at work is 1.5 times greater than the probability that a woman is. Similarly, the signs of the coefficients produced by the model were as expected: negative for the gender variable and positive for educational level, for marital status (in favor of married people), for the time dedicated to paid activities and for the age variable.

Table 3: Results of the logistic regression model

Variables	Coefficient	Standard error	Odds Ratio	Standard error	p-value
Gender	-0.4162128	0.086248	0.659539	0.056884	0.000*
Education level					
Basic Education (1)	0.3566892	0.241497	1.428592	0.345000	0.140
Secondary education (2)	0.0182629	1.036618	1.018431	1.055724	0.986
Technical studies with secondary school completed (3)	0.8063859	0.339835	2.239798	0.761161	0.018**
High School (4)	0.76873	0.245979	2.157025	0.530582	0.002*
Technical studies with high school diploma (5)	0.9436626	0.321968	2.569375	0.827257	0.003*
Bachelor's degree or Engineering (6)	1.34804	0.238524	3.849872	0.918287	0.000*
Master's or Doctorate (7)	1.712432	0.277445	5.542422	1.537719	0.000*
Marital status	0.4654907	0.079625	1.592796	0.126842	0.000*
Paid activities					
From 41 to 48 hours (2)	0.1552519	0.1134678	1.167952	0.132525	0.171
From 49 to 57 hours (3)	0.3742175	0.1189575	1.453853	0.172947	0.002*
More than 57 hours (4)	0.9770512	0.095175	2.656611	0.252843	0.000*
Age					
30-39	0.8496445	0.1394987	2.338815	0.326262	0.000*
40-49	1.123996	0.1402275	3.077125	0.431498	0.000*
50-59	1.162412	0.1476116	3.197637	0.472008	0.000*
60+	1.692938	0.1554394	5.435425	0.844879	0.000*
Constant	-7.065643	0.3035739	0.000854	0.000259	0.000*
Loglikelihood	-3463.9201				
Pseudo R2[1]	0.0740				
Observations	38,878				
Hosmer-Lemeshow chi2	3.28 (0.9156)				
* Significant at 1% ** Significant at 5%					

Source: own elaboration.

5. Discussion

The results of the logit model indicate that the probabilities of occupying leadership positions are negatively determined by gender, that is, the male gender is favored; and positively by educational level, age, time spent in paid work, and marital status. Thus, married men with a high educational level, more work experience and older have greater opportunities to position themselves in the top management of the companies where they work.

In this sense, it is interesting that the older the people surveyed, the greater the probability of positioning themselves as employers, since the data provided by the report Women and Men in Mexico 2020 (INEGI, 2021) expresses that men in the age range of 30 to 39 year olds spend more hours per week in paid work than any other group, so individuals in this range would be expected to be the most likely to hold employer positions. However, the model yielded results

[1] Low values of R2 are usually found in cross-sectional data with a large number of observations (38,878). Although R2 is apparently low, it is statistically significant or different from zero, the regressors have the expected signs and the coefficients are also statistically significant.

that do not agree with this assumption, since it is the subjects older than that age range who are more likely to hold managerial positions. This may be related to the fact that women retire earlier than men from the labor market, in fact the largest difference between men and women in terms of economic participation is between the ages of 55 and 59, where there is a 40.6% more men who work and in ages over 60 the gap is 32.1% in favor of men. Thus, since there are fewer women working and, therefore, less competition, the opportunities to assume higher-ranking positions are for the male gender.

Similarly, economic participation by men is more constant throughout their professional career, because unlike women, they do not withdraw from the labor market or interrupt their work due to reproductive factors or unpaid care, which that in a long term increases the accumulation of experience and knowledge that are valued by the labor market. When women have children, they are induced to reduce their working hours, either because they need to spend more time with their children, because of inadequate support from their partners, or because of few childcare options. This situation explains the slowdown in female working activity, and the fact that becoming a mother limits the probability of assuming positions of authority. In contrast, men are not affected by fatherhood, even the tendency to be in supervisory positions continues after they become fathers (Stojmenovska and England, 2021).

In the Educational level variable, it was found that people with a postgraduate degree are 5.5 times more likely to be promoted to decision-making positions, which corroborates the assumption that people with higher educational levels are more linked to managerial positions, and although an advantage for women, it is men who in the Gender variable are 1.5 times more likely to be employers. In relative terms, 3.1% of women have postgraduate studies, while only 1.6% of men have these. So the results add to the arguments that indicate that the differences in performance in the confines of the hierarchical positions are related to the gender stereotypes that grant social roles to women that limit their functions to the care of the home and children.

The results of the variable Paid Activities indicate that the greater the dedication to the work environment, the greater the opportunities to position themselves as employers, even working weeks of more than 57 hours are the ones that most favor those who are promoted professionally. Thus, this information agrees with the assumption that the institutional context favors those who prioritize work over other activities, and in this case it is men. In consequence, the working and non-working life of women can be much more affected by the lower participation in paid tasks (Stojmenovska, 2023), since it is culturally assumed that women bear the main responsibility for housework and care activities, which translates into a greater dedication of time to unpaid chores (Hagqvist 2018). On the other hand, leadership positions imply extensive labor demands that require the commitment of a large number of hours to the labor market, which could reduce the availability and energy of men to carry out housework and care for children (Gasser, 2015).

In addition to the fact that Mexico is one of the countries that demands one of the longest working hours from its workers, since they usually work more than 48 hours a week, when the recommendation of the International Labor Organization (ILO) is not to exceed that limit weekly hours (ILO, 2021). Therefore, a long working day is the norm and those who are above this amount of time would have some advantage over the rest of the competitors due to hierarchical positions within their work centers. Although excessive time spent at work is not a national phenomenon but extends worldwide, there are no legal rights to reduce the amount or time spent at work, and this generates reduced motivation on the part of the authorities to

balance family life with the labor market (Gasser, 2015), which affects women to a greater extent, since they are subjected to a double working day at home and in their workplaces.

For the marital status variable, it was found that the positive sign of the coefficient and the odd ratio favored by 1.6 the probabilities of married people over single people of occupying leadership positions in the labor market. The association of these results with the variables Gender and Paid Activities shows that the work environment favors married men when assigning hierarchical positions. There is also evidence of the stereotype that married men have more time available because they have someone who takes care of their home and, in some cases, of their children. Just as it presupposes a greater demand for professional development related to the best salary and status linked to leadership positions, the gender stereotype points to the obligation of men to satisfy the needs of their family, which does not fit to reality and affects both genders.

6. Conclusions

This analysis explored the influence of personal factors on the probability of occupying employer positions in Mexico with a gender perspective. The analysis was limited to Mexican men and women who work in private sector companies or in public sector institutions that operate in the formal labor market. Specifically, the role of gender, educational level, marital status, time dedicated to performing paid activities and age on the probability of being appointed to a position of authority were analyzed.

The literature on the subject suggests that women are less likely than men to be appointed as organizational leaders. Although there are various explanations for this phenomenon, in this paper we analyzed the role that personal characteristics and the performance of paid activities play in the probability that women will be successfully incorporated into hierarchical positions in the labor market.

When inquiring about the profile of the employer in Mexico, it was concluded that women have characteristics that the labor market compensates with better remuneration such as having high educational levels, however, when compared to the male gender that has similar characteristics, it has been found that they tend to occupy higher positions and, consequently, to be better paid. The profile of those who occupy high positions within companies is determined by specific characteristics that benefit men, people with marital status of married and older; while the literature on the subject indicates that women who access this type of position are single and younger, and in both genders the relevance of having a high educational level and dedicating a large amount of time to paid work converge with professional growth. A possible solution would be to balance domestic activities between men and women from childhood, and not assign a greater amount to girls, since this would only perpetuate the social construct that associates women with the private sphere of the housework and men with the public work space of the labor market.

It would be relevant to investigate in further research whether these differences are related to glass ceilings, stereotypes that reinforce the double workload that unpaid household activities represent, and whether reproductive tasks and the lack of efficient public policies to balance the family life and labor demands, have some role in the professional and economic development of the female gender, since it is limited in the possibility of reaching higher positions in the labor market.

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