

# **EIRO-Comparative Studies**

Beitrag aus dem  
Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft Köln  
zum  
European Industrial Relations Observatory (EIRO)

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## **Gender and Career Development**

The case of Germany

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## 1. Background

Since the mid-1990s, there has been a growing consensus in the EU about the importance of equal opportunities and gender mainstreaming was officially introduced through the European Employment Strategy (EES). Member states are required to actively take into account the objective of equality between men and women when formulating and implementing laws, regulations, administrative provisions, policies and activities relating to employment, promotion and vocational training, as well as working conditions. However, the European Commission's Gender Equality Report 2005 shows that while gender gaps in employment are closing within the EU, sectoral and occupational segregation and the gender pay gap have remained almost unchanged. Recent EIRO reports on equal opportunities have investigated gender pay equity in Europe (2002), the adoption of gender equality plans at the workplace (2004) and gender mainstreaming in industrial relations (2005). This survey looks at the closely related topic of gender and careers.

The issues affecting gender differences in career choices and career patterns are many and complex. Sectoral and occupational segregation (both horizontal segregation – where women are excluded from senior positions and vertical segregation – where women are segregated into sex-stereotyped roles or functions) remain key problems. While research suggests that women now comprise equal numbers with men in many professions, such as law and medicine, and are very evident in junior to middle management, the top rungs of most professions and organisations remain heavily male dominated. Segregation also remains a problem in relation to apprenticeships and vocational training courses, as well as in relation to subjects studied by men and women at university.

In many organisations the traditional concept of a career with its hierarchical model of continuous service and regular promotion progress is gendered, making women's careers, which are generally 'broken' or 'interrupted' in order to have or care for children, incompatible. Evidence suggests that even in those professions where women have been able to take advantage of career breaks and flexible working hours, they have still effectively been blocked from the most senior positions. Many women have adapted to the predominant male model of success, making conscious choices either not to have children, to defer having them, or (where able) to organise their domestic life so as to be able to dedicate themselves to their careers. Part time working is also a crucial

factor in understanding how women's careers differ from men's. Part time work has been shown to be associated not only with less training (and therefore fewer opportunities for upward mobility) but also with lower pay and downward occupational mobility. Although legislation in many countries now provides for periods of longer maternity leave, research suggests that women who take longer maternity leave breaks or return to work part time after maternity leave are disadvantaged in terms of their career progression.

At EU level, gender equality is one of the most highly regulated areas of the labour market, yet in practice gender equality is still some way off for many countries. The study referred to above on gender equality plans at the workplace (2005), which provided a comprehensive overview of government regulation and policies regarding the equal treatment of men and women, suggested that one of the reasons for this might be the difficulties associated with translating EU legislation into actual practice in the work place and highlights both the importance and the difficulty of obtaining data on workplace practices of this kind.

The purpose of this study is to gather information on several key aspects of gender and careers. First we seek information on current sectoral and occupational distributions across the member countries. We are interested in both horizontal and vertical segregation, including information on the extent of upward mobility of women in organisations and whether the 'glass ceiling' effect is still evident.

Second we seek information on the qualifications held by men and women in employment. The Gender Perspectives Annual Update 2000 contains data from 1999 on the education level of the labour force and we would like to up-date this information and collect new data for the new EU countries. We also seek information on the amount of training provided by employers and the extent to which this differs depending upon part or full time employment.

Finally, and importantly, we also seek information on the views, opinions, policies and actions of the social partners on issues to do with gender and careers. It was noted above that one of the difficulties associated with improving equality in the workplace is translating EU legislation into actual practice. The data collected by the Gender Equality Work Plans study suggested that the Social Partners role was vital in this regard, but generally modest because of the strong emphasis on top-down legislation. They found that whilst most employers' organisations and trade unions at central level were in principle supportive of furthering measures that would secure greater gender equality many of these

policies involved only declarations of principle and that more far-reaching or concrete policies were called for. In addition, one of the outcomes of the 'Equal Opportunities and Collective Bargaining in the EU' project carried out by the Foundation was that equal opportunities issues were very low on the collective bargaining agenda because not enough women participated in the negotiation process, suggesting that more work needed to be done in relation to improving the social partners own equal opportunities situation.

## **2. Changing concepts of careers**

Research suggests that current career patterns are still strongly influenced by traditional concepts of careers. Traditional concepts are often described as hierarchical models, with continuous service and regular promotion up through a series of levels within an organisation, or between organisations. However, new forms of employment are likely to lead to a greater diversification of career paths for both men and women.

### **a) Is the traditional career model appropriate to your country? How have women's careers complied with this traditional model?**

The traditional career model closely relates to its development in the early stages of industrialisation; during this period, the focus was on men's ability, firstly, to perform full-time work on a continuous basis and, secondly, to specialise in a certain task in a particular industry, such as mining or manufacturing. Since this type of organisational concept links the promotion of employees to their continuous service, women's chances of being promoted to a managerial position are lower compared to those of their male counterparts. Data, furthermore, indicate that women are, in general, less likely to work in such industries (see sections 3a and 3b).

Women represent a greater share of employees in the social work and health-care sectors. These sectors also provide more flexible working-time schemes. For these two reasons, women account for a higher share of the top management in these sectors. In 2004, 84% of employed women worked in the service sector (men: 60%), but only 14% of them worked in the manufacturing sector, which includes the construction industry (men: 37%). A study conducted by the Institute for Employment Research (Institut für Arbeitsmarkt- und Berufsforschung, IAB) shows that 37% of the top ranks in the health-care or social work sectors are assigned to women; in eastern Germany, this figure, at 48%, is even higher (see 3a and 3b).

**b) Please provide research evidence on whether the traditional concept of a career in your country is changing or whether it remains largely entrenched. Are traditional careers changing as new forms of employment are introduced? If there have been recent changes, what types of change are occurring?**

In Germany, the economic goal of full-time employment ensuring continued production led to the ideal of a workforce that was in stable employment, which, for individual workers, was often carried out predominantly within one establishment. Typical forms of employment usually include a certain amount of weekly working hours, monthly payments plus social security contributions and collective rights for the employees. Collective bargaining agreements regulate working-time issues and wages. In other words, they stipulate working standards, such as weekly working hours, which usually last from Monday to Friday, and fixed payments, including holiday payments etc. Furthermore, promotion was predominantly linked to seniority within the establishment rather than to output. Men's ability to work continuously and on a full-time basis over a number of years promoted them into work, in general, and into the top ranks of organisations, in particular.

This concept has been increasingly called into question since the middle of the 1970s. An increase in the number of the total workforce that has been accompanied by a persistently high rate of unemployment has undermined notions of stable, full-time employment for all employees. The importance of the typical 'male' industries, such as vehicle production and construction, has diminished and jobs in such industries have made way for workplaces in other industries; these new workplaces have arisen in the service sector (see 2a).

### **3. Data on segregation and mobility**

**a) Please provide details of employment for men and women by industrial sector and full- and part-time work for 2005 and also for men and women by socio-economic classification 2005.**

- 17 August 2006, Federal Statistical Office (destatis) published a preliminary figure of 38,726,000 (national concept) or 38,823,000 (domestic concept) for the number of those engaged in economic activities in 2005.
- Table 1 indicates, most employees worked in manufacturing; this sector accounted for 6,260,013 persons. Wholesale and retail

covered the second largest number of employees. The third largest group of employees worked in the area of real estate, renting and business activities.

- 2005, with regard to full-time employment, the sectors with the highest percentage of male employees were mining and quarrying (91.3%) and the construction industry (89.5%). The sector with the highest percentage of female employees working full-time, on the other hand, was the health-care and social-work sector (75.4%) followed by private households with employed persons (73.5%).

**Table 1: Full-time and part-time employment in 2005**

Industrial Sector	Full-time			Part-time		
	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	179,153	66,930	246,083	6,553	13,068	19,621
Fishing	1,585	416	2,001	29	91	120
Mining and quarrying	93,754	8,923	102,677	362	1,240	1,602
Mining and quarrying of energy products materials	53,640	3,751	57,391	113	236	349
Mining and quarrying, except of energy producing material	40,114	5,172	45,286	249	1,004	1,253
Manufacturing	4,803,298	1,456,715	6,260,013	86,009	295,690	381,699
Manufacture of food prod-	3,393,42	265,699	605,041	6,536	56,304	62,840

ucts, beverages and tobacco						
Manufacture of textiles and textile products	60,427	64,046	124,473	1,016	12,924	13,940
Manufacture of leather and leather products	10,365	9,962	20,327	206	1,623	1,829
Manufacture of wood and wood products	108,214	19,597	127,811	995	4,100	5,095
Manufacture of pulp, paper and paper products; publishing and printing	277,748	134,694	412,442	10,766	36,430	47,196
Manufacture of coke, refined petroleum products and nuclear fuel	23,545	4,136	27,681	679	690	1,369
Manufacture of chemicals, chemical products and man-made fibre	295,005	113,980	408,985	10,006	26,009	36,015
Manufacture of rubber and	269,346	83,293	352,639	3,526	12,768	16,294

plastic products						
Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products	156,148	36,308	192,456	1,836	7,105	8,941
Manufacture of basic metals and fabricated metal products	855,669	149,821	1,005,490	8,383	28,023	36,406
Manufacture of machinery and equipment	826,409	136,652	963,061	11,115	29,368	40,483
Manufacture of electrical and optical equipment	676,756	282,502	959,258	17,149	50,962	68,111
Manufacture of transport equipment	734,695	101,385	836,080	11,799	19,230	31,029
Manufacture n.e.c.	169,629	54,640	224,269	1,997	10,154	12,151
Electricity, gas and water supply	182,583	47,153	229,736	6,836	13,173	20,009
Construction	1,260,629	148,214	1,408,843	14,497	42,527	57,024
Wholesale and retail trade, repair of motor vehicles, motorcycles and	1,843,547	1,273,134	3,116,681	80,877	758,683	839,560

personal and household goods						
Hotels and restaurants	267,707	309,833	577,540	42,998	98,340	141,338
Transport, storage and communication	998,954	304,543	1,303,497	59,967	116,237	176,204
Financial intermediation	429,614	415,522	845,136	18,673	154,449	173,122
Real estate, renting and business activities	1,632,395	1,099,668	2,732,063	110,874	402,195	513,069
Public administration and defence, compulsory social security	599,545	605,983	1,205,528	55,852	404,317	460,169
Education	274,076	358,393	632,469	65,889	298,948	364,837
Health and social work	527,390	1,619,083	2,146,473	82,328	910,154	992,482
Other community, social and personal service activities	442,729	478,166	920,895	47,263	206,442	253,705
Private households with employed per-	6,683	18,532	25,215	1,049	10,455	11,504

sons						
Extra-territorial organisations and bodies	18,018	8,319	26,337	570	2,546	3,116
Not reported	2,017	1,215	3,232	113	426	539

*Source: destatis; date: 31 December 2005.*

Generally speaking, the volume of part-time work is increasing. The IAB estimates that 32.4% of all employed persons worked part-time in 2005; this compares to only 15.7% in 1991.

As Table 1 further indicates, most part-timers (992,482 persons) were employed in the health-care and social work sector (men: 8.3%, women: 91.7%). The second largest number of part-time workers was to be found in the wholesale and retail trade. In this sector, 839,560 employees worked part-time (men: 9.6%; women: 90.4%). Another 513,069 persons held a part-time position in the area of real estate, renting and business activities (men: 21.6%, women: 78.4%). The data clearly confirm that, within the same industry, women are more likely to work on a part-time basis than their male colleagues.

**b) Please provide details of any survey evidence which shows the percentage of women in management and senior management positions (including the number of women who are Board Directors) by industrial sector.**

With regard to the topic of women in management positions, only limited data are available. In a press release, Federal Statistical Office (destatis) stated that women are still under-represented in management positions. Drawing upon data from the 2004 microcensus, destatis concluded that 47% of all employees were women, but that only 33% of them held management positions.

Further information is available from the IAB Establishment Panel dataset; this is conducted regularly by the IAB and covers 16,000 establishments in all economic sectors. This survey indicates that women occupy only around 30% of all management positions. As Table 2 shows, women are still under-represented in the top ranks of the construction industry (west: 10%, east: 8%), the sale of motor vehicles (west: 12%, east: 9%) and in the area of credit/insurance (west: 8%,

east: 18%). On the other hand, women are most likely to be encountered in management positions in health care and other private service activities (west: 37%, east: 48%).

<b>Industrial Sector</b>	<b>Top management (1. Level)</b>		<b>Upper management (2. Level)</b>		<b>Total of Employees</b>	
	West (%)	East (%)	West (%)	East (%)	West (%)	East (%)
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	18	21	39	52	32	31
Mining/ Energy	15	12	3	38	27	28
Manufacturing	14	16	21	30	32	32
Construction	10	8	20	13	17	12
Sale of motor vehicles/ repair	12	9	26	24	23	22
Wholesale and retail trade	30	39	52	60	54	57
Transport/ communication	24	30	38	28	32	29
Credit/ insurance	8	18	30	40	53	53
Service activities for establishments	17	24	40	44	48	42
Health care/ other private service activities	37	48	70	68	67	68
Total	23	28	42	41	46	43

*Source: IAB Establishment Panel, 2006.*

Representative data on the ratio of part-time to full-time employment and the coverage of men and women in management positions in different industrial sectors are not available.

#### 4. Data collection

The following data include information on average earnings, working times, employment and unemployment rates, trade union membership, part-time and temporary work and education levels.

##### Average earnings

Earnings rose constantly between 2000 and 2005. The gender gap between the income of men and that of women continued to exist, however. As Table 3 shows male employees receive higher salaries than their female counterparts. Men's average monthly earnings rose from EUR 2,407 in 2000 to EUR 2,630 in 2005. However, women's average monthly earnings only increased from EUR 1,778 to EUR 1,952 in 2005.

**Table 3: Average Monthly Earnings from 2000 to 2005 in EUR**

Year	Men			Women		
	Germany	West	East	Germany	West	East
2005	2,630	2,712	2,036	1,952	2,024	1,586
2004	2,596	2,681	1,994	1,925	1,997	1,555
2003	2,549	2,634	1,946	1,885	1,956	1,515
2002	2,484	2,568	1,902	1,837	1,903	1,481
2001	2,444	2,531	1,863	1,804	1,870	1,439
2000	2,407	2,500	1,822	1,778	1,844	1,411

*Notes: Data refer to the average monthly earnings of industrial workers only.*

*Source: destatis; date: 25 January 2006.*

##### Working time

Male employees worked longer hours than their female counterparts. In 2000, men worked an average of 38.3 hours per week. In that year, women worked, on average, 37.4 hours per week. In 2005, average

weekly working hours for men decreased to 37.9 hours per week; in that year, women worked, on average, 37.3 hours per week.

**Table 4: Average weekly working hours from 2000 to 2005**

Year	Men			Women		
	Germany	West	East	Germany	West	East
2005	37.9	37.7	39.9	37.3	36.9	39.6
2004	38.0	37.7	39.8	37.2	36.8	39.5
2003	38.0	37.8	39.6	37.3	36.9	39.3
2002	38.0	37.8	39.6	37.2	36.8	39.3
2001	38.2	37.9	39.9	37.3	36.9	39.4
2000	38.3	38.0	39.9	37.4	37.0	39.7

*Notes: Data refer to the average weekly working hours of industrial workers only.*

*Source: destatis; date: 25 January 2006.*

### **Unemployment and employment figures**

Unemployment figures rose from an average of 10.7% in 2000 to 13% in 2005. Whilst, in 2000, women were more likely to be unemployed (10.9%) than men (10.5%), since, 2002, this has no longer been the case. In 2005, women seeking employment represented a percentage of 12.7% of those in work; the figure for men was 13.4%.

**Table 5: Ratio of unemployment from 2000 to 2005**

Year	Total	Men			Women		
		Germany	West	East	Germany	West	East
2005	13.0	13.4	11.3	21.3	12.7	10.7	19.7
2004	11.7	12.5	10.3	20.6	10.8	8.4	19.5
2003	11.6	12.4	10.2	20.6	10.8	8.3	19.6

2002	10.8	11.3	9.1	19.5	10.3	7.8	18.9
2001	10.3	10.4	8.3	18.5	10.2	7.7	19.0
2000	10.7	10.5	8.5	17.8	10.9	8.3	19.3

*\* Unemployed persons as a percentage of employees (Employees paying social contributions and minor employees, civil servants, unemployed persons).*

*Source: Federal Employment Agency (Bundesagentur für Arbeit, BA).*

Table 6 indicates that women represented 45.6% of all employed persons.

**Table 6: Employment figures from 2000 to 2005**

	<b>Employees</b>	<b>Men</b>	<b>Women</b>
2005*	26,205,969	14,250,909	11,955,060
2004*	26,381,842	14,364,197	12,017,645
2003*	26,746,384	14,605,519	12,140,865
2002	27,360,497	14,963,382	12,397,115
2001	27,864,091	15,359,152	12,504,939
2000	27,979,593	15,539,844	12,439,749

*\* Preliminary figures*

*Source: BA; all figures refer to the annual December calculations. Figures are based on the total of all employees paying social security contributions.*

### **Trade union membership**

The following data refer to the membership of the Confederation of German Trade Unions (Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund, DGB). As Table 7 shows, as a share of total union membership women only accounted for 30.5% in 2000 and 31.8% in 2005.

**Table 7: Membership data of the DGB from 2000 to 2005**

Year	Total	Men	Women	Women (%)
2005	6,778,429	4,620,365	2,158,064	31.8
2004	7,013,037	4,775,371	2,237,666	31.9
2003	7,363,147	4,983,250	2,342,246	31.8
2002	7,699,903	5,252,617	2,447,286	31.8
2001	7,899,009	5,395,899	2,503,110	31.7
2000	7,772,795	5,403,235	2,369,560	30.5

Source: figures from DGB; percentages are based on own calculations.

### Part-Time Work

As shown in Table 1, women represent a larger proportion of part-time workers in all economic sectors. Table 8 summarizes the proportion of women working part-time by their actual working hours. Most employed women work between 15 to 20 hours per week.

Employees/Working Hours	2003	2004*	2005**
<b>Below 15 hours</b>	2,742,000	2,814,000	3,101,000
Women	2,142,000	2,198,000	2,410,000
<b>15 – 20 hours</b>	2,970,000	2,849,000	3,105,000
Women	2,540,000	2,428,000	2,579,000
<b>21 – 35 hours</b>	5,015,000	4,829,000	5,150,000
Women	3,057,000	3,062,000	3,328,000
<b>36- 40 hours</b>	20,777,000	19,838,000	19,370,000
Women	7,458,000	7,122,000	6,847,000
<b>Above 41 hours</b>	4,668,000	5,329,000	5,840,000

Women	980,000	1,168,000	1,267,000
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\* Figures for 2003 and 2004 are results of the 2003 and 2004 microcensus.

\*\* Figures for 2005 refer to the annual average for 2005.

Source: destatis. Date: 6 June 2006.

### Educational Level

In 2005, 50.6% of 35,305,000 persons receiving a degree as apprentice were female. Another 4,505,000 persons received a university degree in the same year. Women accounted for 45.4% of the alumni in 2005. Data for 2005 should be handled with caution. Federal Statistical Office (Destatis) used new measurements procedures for its 2005 census, therefore, comparability with previous years can not be ensured.

Since academic careers for women have become commonplace only within the last decades, it is quite likely that the percentage of women with an academic degree in the younger generations is higher compared to the average percentage given above. In 2005, destatis stated that out of 1,602,000 women, who had completed an academic degree, 172,000 were aged 25 to 30 years, 229,000 belonged to the generation aged 30 to 35 years, 257,000 were 35 to 40 years old and another 260,000 women were aged 40 to 45 years. The number of women with an academic degree decreases slowly as they reach seniority, i.e. only 135,000 women aged 55 to 60 years had completed a degree at a university.

	<b>2003*</b>	<b>2004*</b>	<b>2005*</b>	<b>% of women (2005)</b>
Without vocational degree	18,423,000	18,498,000	21,574,000	60.1
Degree as apprentice***	33,639,000	32,921,000	35,305,000	50.6
Degree of vocational schools****	4,015,000	4,078,000	4,492,000	33.7

Degree of vocational schools in eastern Germany	977,000	971,000	860,000	62.6
Degree of a university of applied sciences*****	2,868,000	3,025,000	3,062,000	33.6
University degree	3,758,000	3,909,000	4,505,000	45.4
Ph.D.	853,000	815,000	648,000	29.2
Not reported	1,042,000	968,000	538,000	54.1
Total**	65,575,000	65,185,000	70,984,000	51.5

*\* Figures for 2003 and 2004 are based on the 2003 and 2004 microcensus respectively; figures for 2005 refer to the annual average for 2005. Figures refer to all persons above the age of 15 years.*

*\*\* Data for persons aged 51 or above were reported on a voluntary basis.*

*\*\*\* Including vocational internships.*

*\*\*\*\* Including degrees as a master craftsman or as part of a technical apprenticeship.*

*\*\*\*\*\* Including degrees from universities of applied sciences for administration or engineering.*

*Source: destatis; date: 29 June 2006.*

The fifth survey on continuous training by the Cologne Institute for Economic Research (Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft Köln, IW) shows that 84% of all those companies surveyed offered continuous training in 2004. Apart from this data, no information is available with regard to the ratio of training provided by employers for men and women by part-time and full-time work in 2005.

## **5. The social partners and gender and careers**

a) What are the views and opinions of the social partners in your country with regard to:

i) gender segregation;

- ii) training and qualifications to promote equal career opportunities amongst men and women;
- iii) tackling gender discrimination in careers; and
- iv) encouraging the adoption of policies on gender and careers at company level?

The Confederation of German Employers' Associations (Bundesvereinigung der Deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände, BDA) published its proposal 'Chances for women in the economy'. The BDA holds that the traditional female role model has changed considerably. Women today are well educated and they are just as likely as men to seek employment.

Generally speaking, the BDA supports women's ambitions in their careers. It states that technological and demographic developments are the prime reasons for the changed economic environment to which establishments have to adapt. A better integration of women into the establishments' production is one possible strategy for firms to remain competitive in globalised markets. Therefore, the BDA promotes the fostering of women's careers by a bundle of policies. All the policies are centred on the principles of equal opportunities for both sexes and a family-friendly business culture. These principles have, firstly, to be embedded in a reasonable human resource policy of single establishments ensuring gender equality in the areas of personnel recruitment and human resource development. Secondly, gender equality has to be promoted to all employees at all levels of the establishment so that gender discrimination can be avoided.

At the beginning of their careers, women should be encouraged to consider a wider choice of possible future occupations. Women would have better career opportunities, if they either opted for a technical profession or worked in the field of the natural sciences more frequently. After their recruitment, women should be supported by a family-friendly business culture, which could include, for example, flexible working hours, and kindergartens. Moreover, they should take part in continuous training, especially during periods of leave so that they can stay in touch with the most recent developments in their professions. The BDA further states that management training seminars etc. should be used to foster women's promotion to the top ranks. Furthermore, establishments could evaluate whether or not management positions could be offered on a part-time basis so that they would be more appealing to women.

The Confederation of German Trade Unions (Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund, DGB) announced that, in their professional careers, men and women should enjoy the same rights and opportunities. The DGB holds that works councils should play an active role in establishing a gender policy within their establishment. Employers and works councils have to decide how to organise their personnel management and how to incorporate a gender approach. The evaluation of existing personnel management policies is the first step towards planning human resources needs. Women should be considered for management positions or assigned to 'typical male' tasks more often. Furthermore, action should be taken to undermine existing stereotypes and prejudices regarding the professional abilities of men and women. The DGB stresses that industries with a high ratio of female employees, in general, pay lower wages than other industries. In this regard, fair wages for both sexes should be secured by industry-wide collective agreements. Finally, with regard to working conditions, establishments should offer more flexible working-time schemes (especially to provide better opportunities for their employees to combine their private and professional lives).

**b) What policies have the social partners developed to promote career opportunities for women within their own organisations (internal)?**

There is no information available about the strategies of the social partners with regard to the promotion of women's career opportunities within their own ranks.

**c) What policies have the social partners, either individually or jointly developed to promote career opportunities for women in other organisations (external), with regard to:**

i) gender segregation;

See 5a.

ii) training and qualifications to promote equal career opportunities amongst men and women;

See 5a.

iii) tackling gender discrimination in careers; and

See 5a.

iv) encouraging the adoption of policies on gender and careers at company level (for example, EQUAL)?

See 5a.

d) Are there any other examples of social partner activities directed at improving career opportunities for women, generally or specifically (for example, EQUAL)?

The Federal Ministry of Family, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (Bundesministerium für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend, BMFSFJ), the Federal Ministry of Education and Research (Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung, BMBF) supports the association 'Total E-Quality'. The association seeks to establish equal opportunities for women and men in business, science, politics and administration as well as to change the personnel policies of employers.

The Federal Ministry of Social Security, Generations and Consumer Protection (Bundesministerium für soziale Sicherheit, Generationen und Konsumentenschutz, BMSGK) hosts the initiative 'Audit Family & Professional Career'; this promotes the use of an auditing method. The audit helps employers to analyse their human resources needs. On the basis of the outcome of the analysis, the establishment is encouraged to develop a (more) family-friendly business culture.

Both aforementioned initiatives are supported by the BDA. The DGB and BMFSFJ support another initiative called 'ChanGE' that similarly supports the establishment of equal rights and opportunities for both sexes at work.

## **6. National Centre view**

Please provide a commentary on key developments in gender and careers in your country, In particular please give your assessment of the impact of legislation on promoting gender equality in careers and outline the biggest barriers to promoting gender equality in careers.

Generally speaking, the Federal Government is aware of the problems that still exist in the area of gender and career. To tackle these problems, it concluded a mutual agreement with the employers' associations in 2001. The BDA guidelines described under section 5a are based on this mutual agreement and incorporate the main priorities held by the Federal Government.

To supplement the Federal Government's efforts, the BMFSFJ supports a wide range of associations as mentioned under section 5d. Furthermore, in 2004, it adopted new provisions for parental leaves. In the opinion of the BFSFJ, parents should be encouraged to share their

family responsibilities more evenly. Fathers and mothers are entitled to exactly the same rights. In other words, they receive the same amount in parental payments and are able to take leave from work for the same length of time.

However, the BMFSFJ recently published the evaluation of the effects of the above-mentioned provisions. The study shows that in 60.1 % of the households in which both parents had the right to apply for the government support only the mother applied for full-time parental leave in the first two years after the birth of the child. The corresponding figure for fathers was only 0.2%. As the data quite clearly indicate, child-rearing responsibilities, the typical division of labour in families and the hierarchical working models in certain industries still represent obstacles to women in their pursuit of a successful career.

(Sandra Vogel, Cologne Institute for Economic Research, IW Köln)

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