



Federal Ministry for  
Family Affairs, Senior Citizens,  
Women and Youth

# Gender Equality Atlas for Germany



– Appraisal –



Gender Equality



## Editorial

Today, gender equality policy follows the principle of equity for women and men in all areas of society. In the working world, it takes in things like equal pay and career opportunities, and the prevention of poverty in old age. To ensure that equality becomes the norm, greater focus must first be placed on the causes of inequality.

The Gender Equality Atlas for Germany sets out the key indicators in such policy efforts. The product of the combined efforts of the Federal and state (Länder) governments, it is the first publication of its kind to use maps and tables to illustrate the progress made in achieving equal opportunities for women and men throughout the country. Using a mix of data and statistics as key equality indicators, the Atlas looks at things like the gender distribution of state parliament mandates, the number of university professorships held by women, the ratio of men who work part time, and the differences in the gender pay gap from region to region.

By providing valuable information on the successes achieved so far, the Atlas also highlights negative developments and pinpoints the need for further action. It presents both a challenge and an incentive for us to learn from best practice examples in Germany and other EU countries to ensure we achieve equal opportunities for women and men across all areas of life.



**Dr. Kristina Schröder**  
Federal Minister for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens,  
Women and Youth



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## Introduction

Gender equality should not be just a buzzword. Rather, it must be defined by indicators, figures and targets. To be sustainable, gender equality policy is reliant on this information.

The Conference of Gender Equality and Women's Affairs Ministers (GFMK) thus believes that reliable data can significantly support well-founded, target-oriented gender equality policy. The question is how and with what data social trends can be illustrated in the complex policy area of gender equality. The development of indicators has proven useful in other policy areas such as environment protection, demographic change and sustainable development. They can provide information on situations, which are not readily measurable, and they can highlight temporal changes and describe how complex structures come about.

This is why, on 31 May 2007, the 17th GFMK agreed the introduction of a standardised, cross-state indicator system to illustrate the current status of and trends in gender equality policy.

### From the Idea to the Indicator Catalogue

The first step was to identify suitable indicators for the policy area. The GFMK set up a cross-state working group for the purpose. The group was then requested to work with representatives from public statistics offices to develop gender indicators for the German states and municipalities. The working group was able to draw upon work already done in the state of Baden-Wuerttemberg. In cooperation with that state's statistical office and the ministerial department for gender mainstreaming, the Baden-Wuerttemberg State Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs used the Gender Data Report 2005, the EU Indicator Initiative<sup>1</sup>, the Hans Böckler Foundation's Gender Index feasibility study<sup>1</sup>, and examples taken from other European countries (e.g. Switzerland<sup>2</sup>, Austria<sup>3</sup> and Sweden<sup>4</sup>) to develop a working paper which provided the basis for discussions within the GFMK working group.

Because the indicators had to be comparable and identified using the same statistical basis in all German states public statistics were preferentially used as the basis for this work. With regard to labour market data, data from the Federal Employment Agency were used. Only for indicators 1.3, 1.4 and 1.5 were conducted inhouse surveys by the GFMK gender mainstreaming department.

Determining the data to be used limited selection of usable statistics, but guaranteed the availability and comparability of the data. The indicator catalogue produced by the working group contains 30 indicators which are divided into four categories:

1. Participation – 7 indicators
2. Education and vocational training – 12 indicators<sup>5</sup>
3. Employment and income – 9 indicators
4. Personal circumstances – 2 indicators

The indicator catalogue was presented and adopted on 23 October 2008 at the 18th GFMK.

1 [Http://www.boeckler.de/show\\_product\\_ff.html?productfile=HBS-003840.xml](http://www.boeckler.de/show_product_ff.html?productfile=HBS-003840.xml).

2 [Http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/de/index/regionen/gleichstellungsatlas.htm](http://www.bfs.admin.ch/bfs/portal/de/index/regionen/gleichstellungsatlas.htm).

3 [Http://www.frauen.steiermark.at/cms/dokumente/10258104\\_11706219/cd77fe01/Statistikbroschuere\\_\\_pdf](http://www.frauen.steiermark.at/cms/dokumente/10258104_11706219/cd77fe01/Statistikbroschuere__pdf).

4 [Http://www.h.scb.se/SCB/BOR/SCBBOJU/JAM\\_HTM\\_EN/index.asp](http://www.h.scb.se/SCB/BOR/SCBBOJU/JAM_HTM_EN/index.asp).

5 The 'career choice: healthcare professions' and 'career choice: technical apprenticeship occupations' indicators were not shown. Reference is made instead to the Comments and Outlook section.

## From the Indicator Catalogue to the first Gender Equality Atlas

The second step was to use the data to draw up a Gender Equality Atlas for Germany. This was also adopted on 23 October 2008 at the 18th GFMK.

The drafting of this first gender equality atlas was coordinated and implemented by the Baden Wuerttemberg State Ministry for Labour and Social Affairs in cooperation with the Baden-Wuerttemberg State Statistics Office. Specialist support was provided by a working group comprising representatives from the respective ministerial departments in the German states, the federal and state statistics offices, the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth, and the Federal Working Group of Municipal Equality Representatives (Bundesarbeitsgemeinschaft der kommunalen Gleichstellungsbeauftragten).

First, the indicator data was described and illustrated with maps and diagrams. Thanks to the selection of data used, all indicators are suited to visualisation using maps.

For the 'older people in singles households' and 'life expectancy' indicators in Category IV. Personal Circumstances, maps were not used because of there was little difference between the two. For all indicators, the states' data were also illustrated using bar charts.

The colours used for the maps represent the indicator type:

- | Red represents information relating to the percentage of women.
- | Blue represents information relating to the percentage of men.
- | Orange represents information relating to the difference between the percentages of women and men.

In the coloured sections of the maps showing women's and men's percentages (red and blue), the national average is used with deviations shown in a different colour. In the maps depicting the difference (orange) between the women's and men's percentages the graduation is shown with the men's percentage set at 100 and the higher women's percentage graduated. In general, five categories are used for the coloured graduations.

The GFMK would like to thank the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth for publishing this first Gender Equality Atlas.

The tables that go with the indicators can be viewed with figures and comments on specific data in the German states on the Internet at [www.sozialministerium-bw.de](http://www.sozialministerium-bw.de).

The GFMK regards this first Gender Equality Atlas as an initial appraisal and recognises the need to show trends over time. For this reason, the gender atlas working group was asked to come up with a proposal on further development of the equality atlas.

# I.

## Participation

One of the most frequent measures for gender equality used in public is the representation of women and men in management positions and decisionmaking functions. This applies to participation in decisionmaking processes at all levels of political, business, social and cultural life.

The EU speaks of wanting to achieve “balanced participation of women and men in decision-making processes”. It does not, however, define the word “balanced”. Nonetheless, it strives for parity in participation. Most EU countries see a 30 percent representation as the ‘critical mass’ for effective influence by women and men.<sup>6</sup>

This critical mass of 30 percent is achieved in state (Länder) parliaments only, with a national average of 32 percent women. In all other decision-making areas, women are in some instances significantly less well represented. The political arena plays a pioneer role in this regard. This can be seen as a sign of social trends, because appointments to government positions and mandates are decided by election.

Given the importance of the measure, some seven indicators were selected for this area. The following shows women’s representation in government leadership and decision-making positions, in administrations, in industry, and in research and education.

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<sup>6</sup> Report from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament and the Economic and Social Committee on the implementation of Council recommendation 96/694 of 2nd December 1996 on the balanced participation of women and men in the decision-making process COM/2000/0120 final.

## 1.1 State parliament mandates

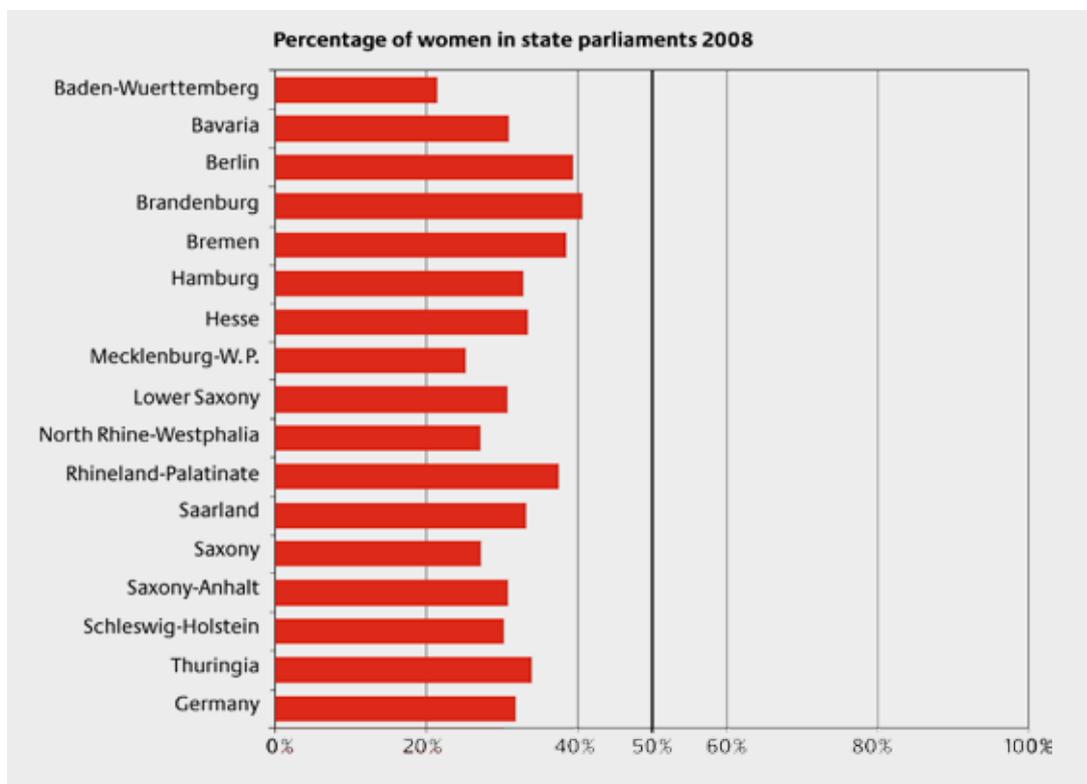
### Indicator description

**Definition:** Percentage of women in state parliaments.

**Methodological notes:** State parliaments are the parliaments found in the large German states and the Chambers of deputies and parliaments found in the smaller states. In Bremen this indicator refers exclusively to Bremen's Parliament, not to the Bremerhaven's City Council. It includes the representatives elected in the last election. No statistics were collected on replacement candidates.

**Source:** Official election statistics (as at November 2008)

This indicator stands for women's representation in state parliaments. It illustrates the trend towards more balanced involvement of women in state government opinion-building and decision-making processes.



At the time of analysis, the state parliaments presented 1,817 members of parliament. 581 of these were women. This represents an average of 32%, taken from a range between 23.7 and 40.9%.

## Percentage of women in state parliaments 2008

Women (%)

- Less than 27
- 27 and less than 30
- 30 and less than 33
- 33 and less than 36
- 36 or above

Average: 32 %



## 1.2 Mandates in administrative district and municipal councils

### Indicator description

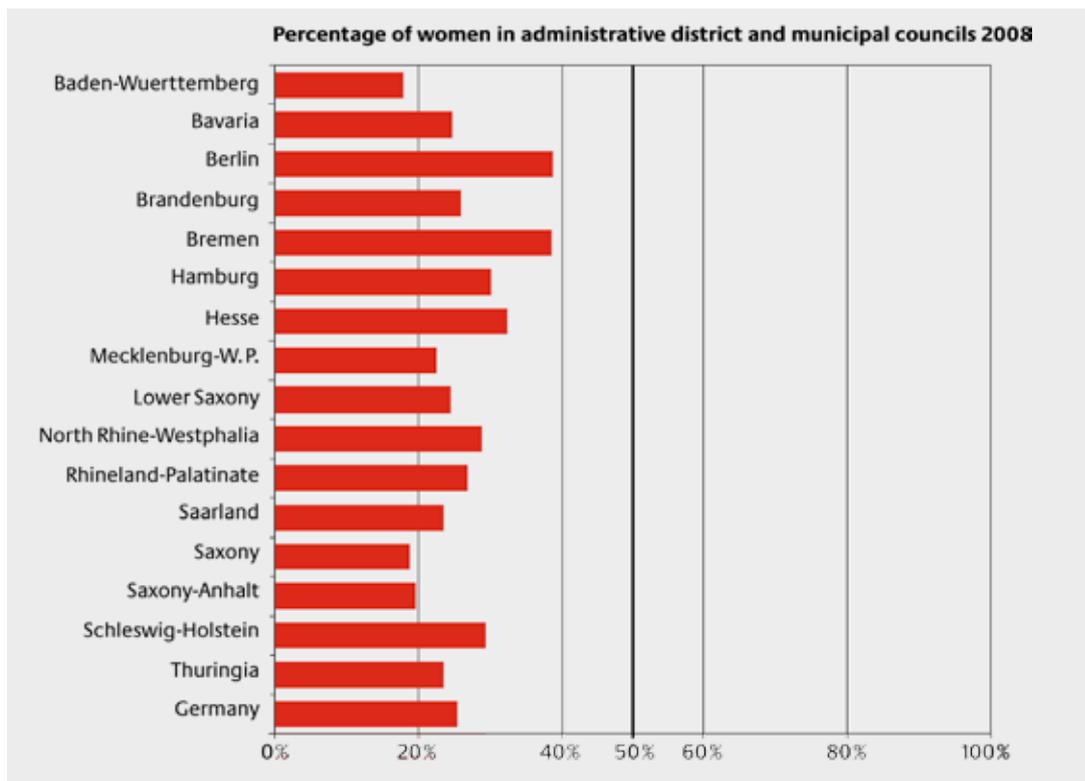
**Definition:** Percentage share of women among mandate holders in the respective municipal administrations.

**Methodological notes:** The survey took the total number of women mandate holders in the administrative district and municipal councils. For city and town councils, an additional indicator was used which covered the mandates in the district parliaments and the Bremen's Parliament and the Bremerhaven's City Council. Women representatives on local councils within administrative districts were not included. Representatives elected in the last election were taken into account. No statistics were collected on replacement candidates.

**Source:** Official election statistics (as at November 2008)

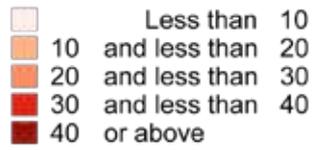
This indicator shows the extent to which women are represented in municipal administrations. It points to:

- | Trends in political and social culture.
- | Women's political influence at municipal level.
- | The composition of municipal councils.
- | How electoral lists are drawn up and the election method used.
- | The attitudes of the electorate.

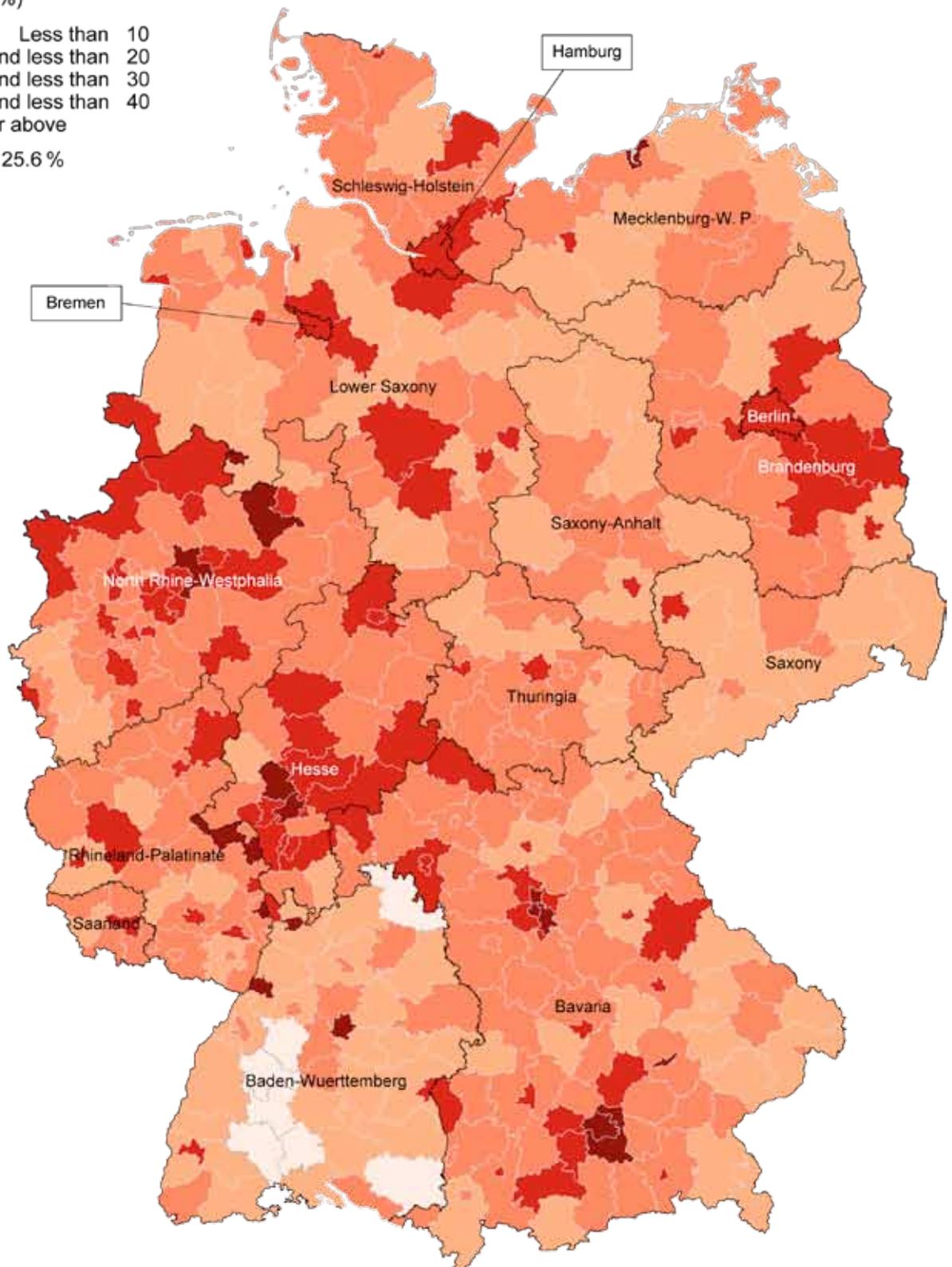


## Percentage of women in administrative district and municipal councils 2008

Women (%)



Average: 25.6 %



### 1.3 Ministers and senators in state governments

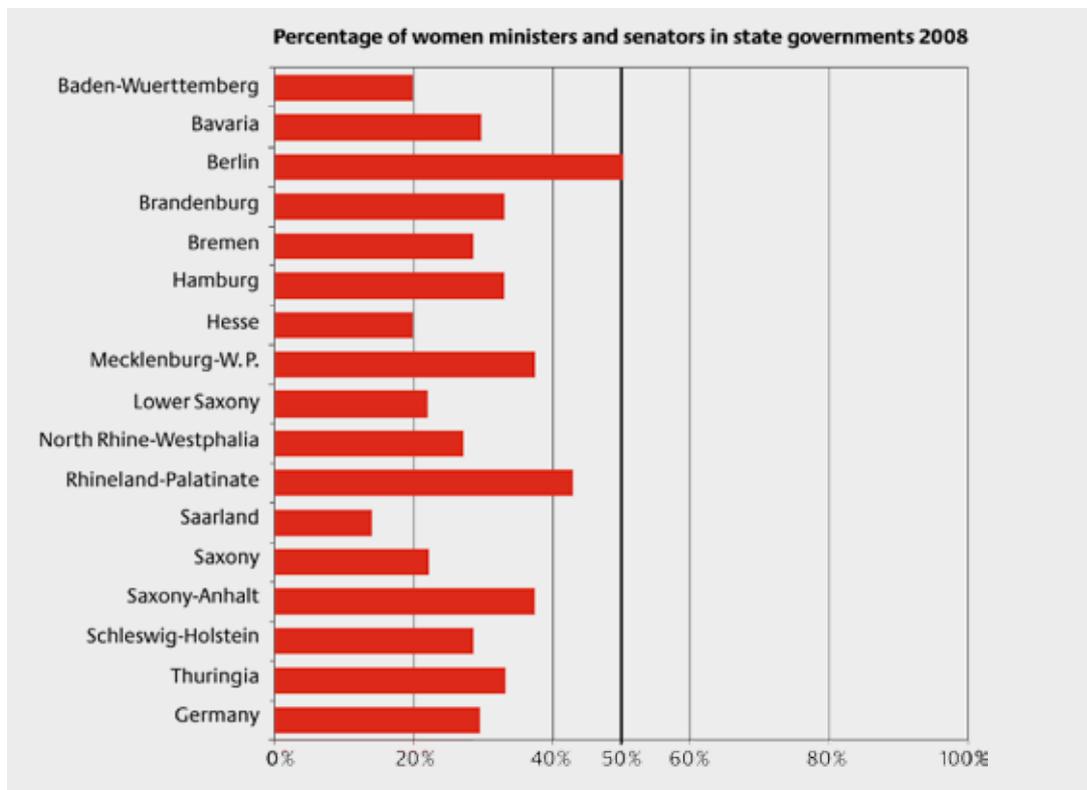
#### Indicator description

**Definition:** Ministers and senators in state governments.

**Methodological notes:** The survey took in the total number of ministers and senators in state governments, and the number of women in these positions. The indicator does not take in the heads of state governments (e.g. minister presidents, lord mayors of free cities) and state secretaries in state ministries. The same cut-off date was applied when collecting data from each of the states.

**Source:** GFMK survey (as at November 2008).

This indicator shows the extent to which top offices in state governments are held by women. It highlights the trend towards balanced representation of women in appointments to government office.



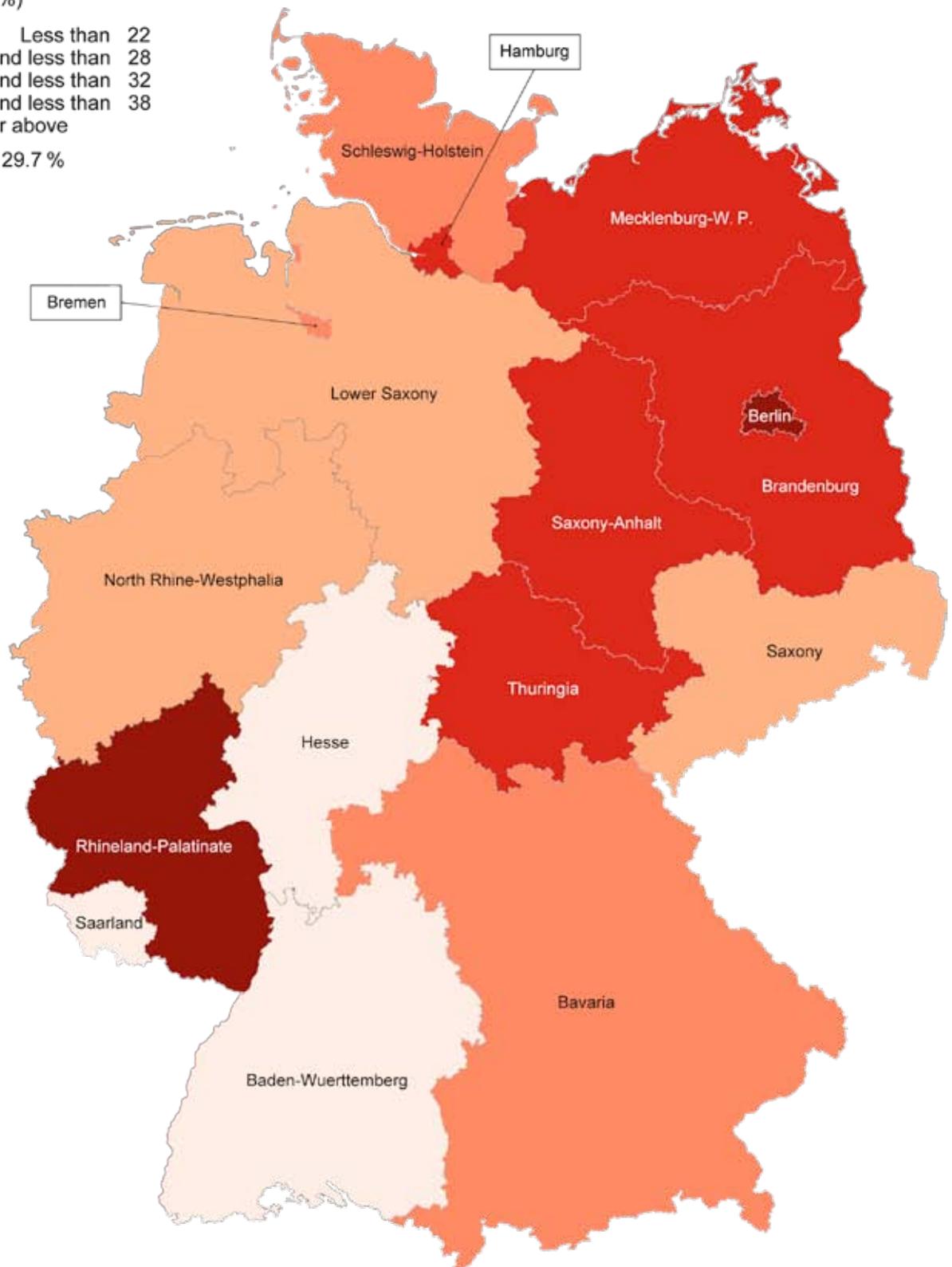
On the cut-off date, there were a total of 138 ministers and senators throughout the German states and free cities. Of these an average 30.4% were women. This average spans a range from 14.3% to equal representation with 50% women.

## Percentage of women ministers and senators in state governments 2008

Women (%)

	Less than 22
	22 and less than 28
	28 and less than 32
	32 and less than 38
	38 or above

Average: 29.7 %



## 1.4 Top positions in district and municipal administrations in large German states and in district administrations in city states

### Indicator description

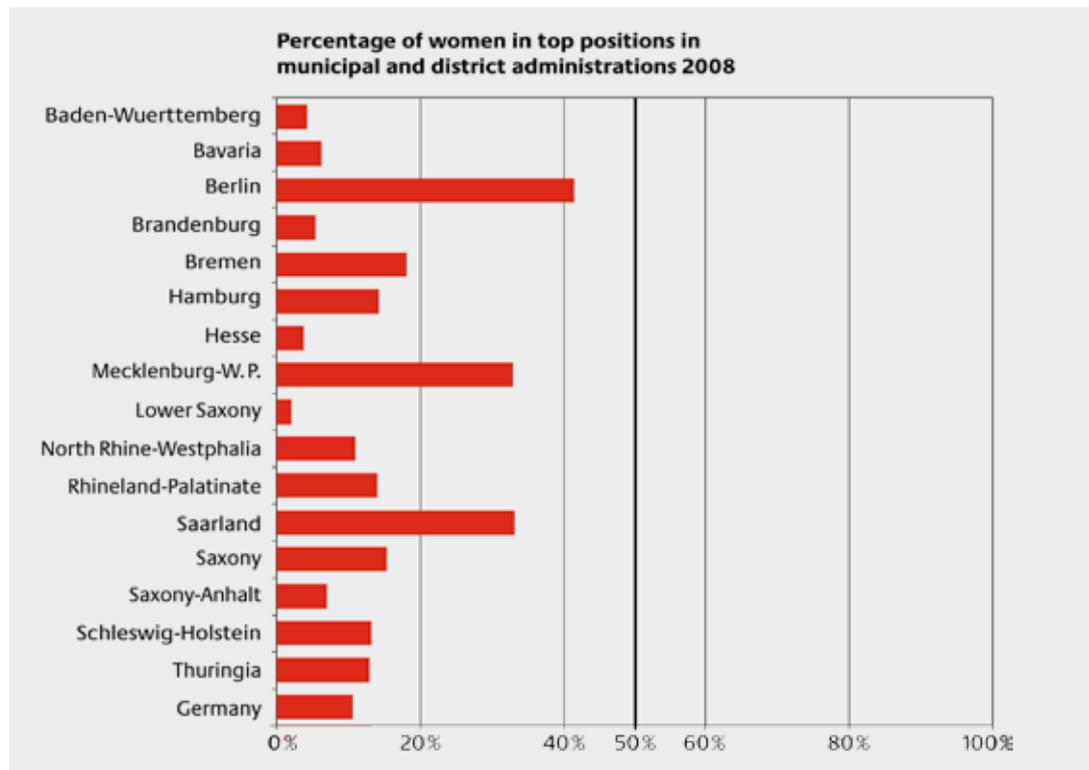
**Definition:** Percentage of women in top administrative positions in municipal and district administrations in large German states and district administrations in city states.

**Methodological notes:** The survey took in the number of top administrative positions in district and municipal administrations in large German states, and in district administrations in city states, and the number of women in such positions. The top administrative positions include lord mayor and regional administrator. Mayors of municipalities belonging to administrative districts were not taken into account, even if they are described as lord mayor. In the city states, only top administrative positions in the respective districts were covered in the survey; in Berlin and Hamburg, the head of district council. The municipal level in Bremerhaven was not included.

**Source:** GFMK survey (as at November 2008).

The indicator stands for women's representation in top administrative jobs in district and municipal administrations.

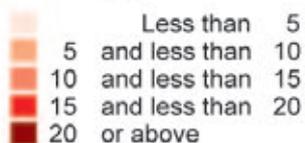
- Women's representation in top positions within municipal bodies.
- Social recognition of women's municipal leadership and management skills by the electorate and by election officials.
- Willingness of women to apply for such positions.



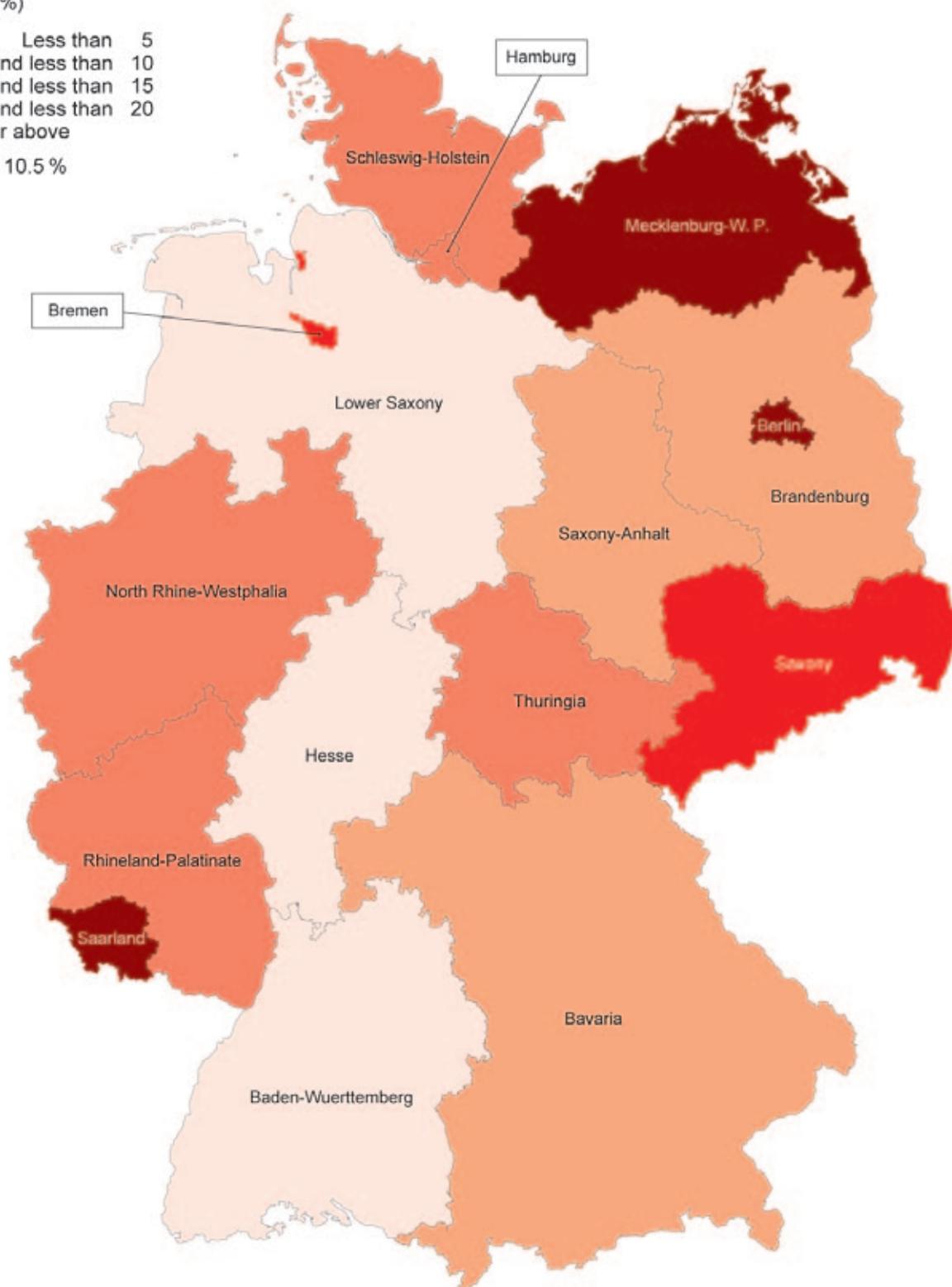
As of November 2008, of the 439 top administrative positions as described above, 10.5% or 46 positions were held by women. Representation spans a range starting at 2.2% and ending at 41.7%.

## Percentage of women in top positions in municipal and district administrations in large German states and district administrations in city states 2008

Women (%)



Average: 10.5 %



## 1.5 Management positions in upper-level state agencies

### Indicator description

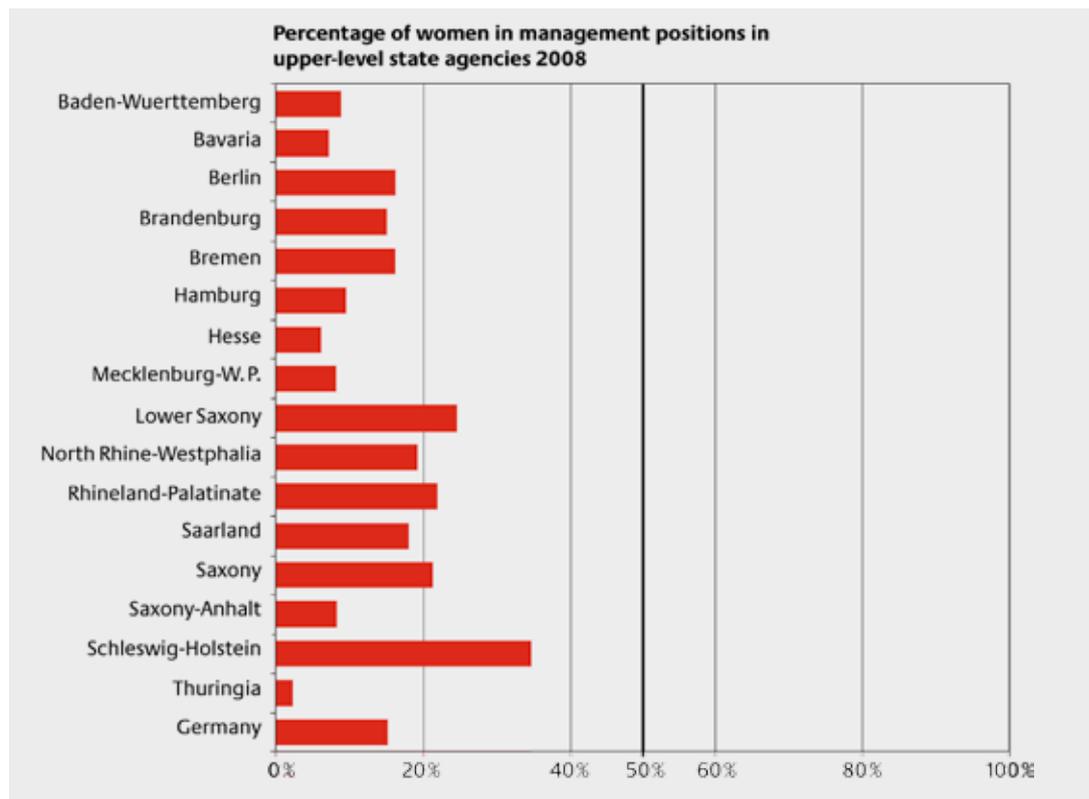
**Definition:** Percentage of women in departmental head positions in upper-level state agencies.

**Methodological notes:** The upper-level state agencies included in the survey were decided upon according to state law. These include public prosecution offices, state ministries, departmental ministries and senates, and also the state audit offices. Of these, only the department head positions listed in the respective organigrams were taken up in the survey. It did not include operational levels such as section heads, working group heads, and heads of staff positions. For Hamburg, the head of administration level was depicted.

**Source:** GFMK survey (as at November 2008).

The indicator stands for women's representation in selected leadership and management positions in state ministries and senate administrations. It points to women's representation at the described management level:

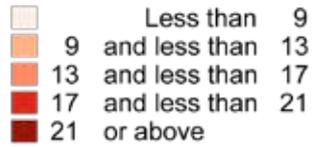
- I Human resources planning and development in the lower hierarchical levels which target a balanced number of women and men in managerial positions.
- I An administration culture which allows women to be promoted into top positions.
- I The potential for women to be appointed to committees.



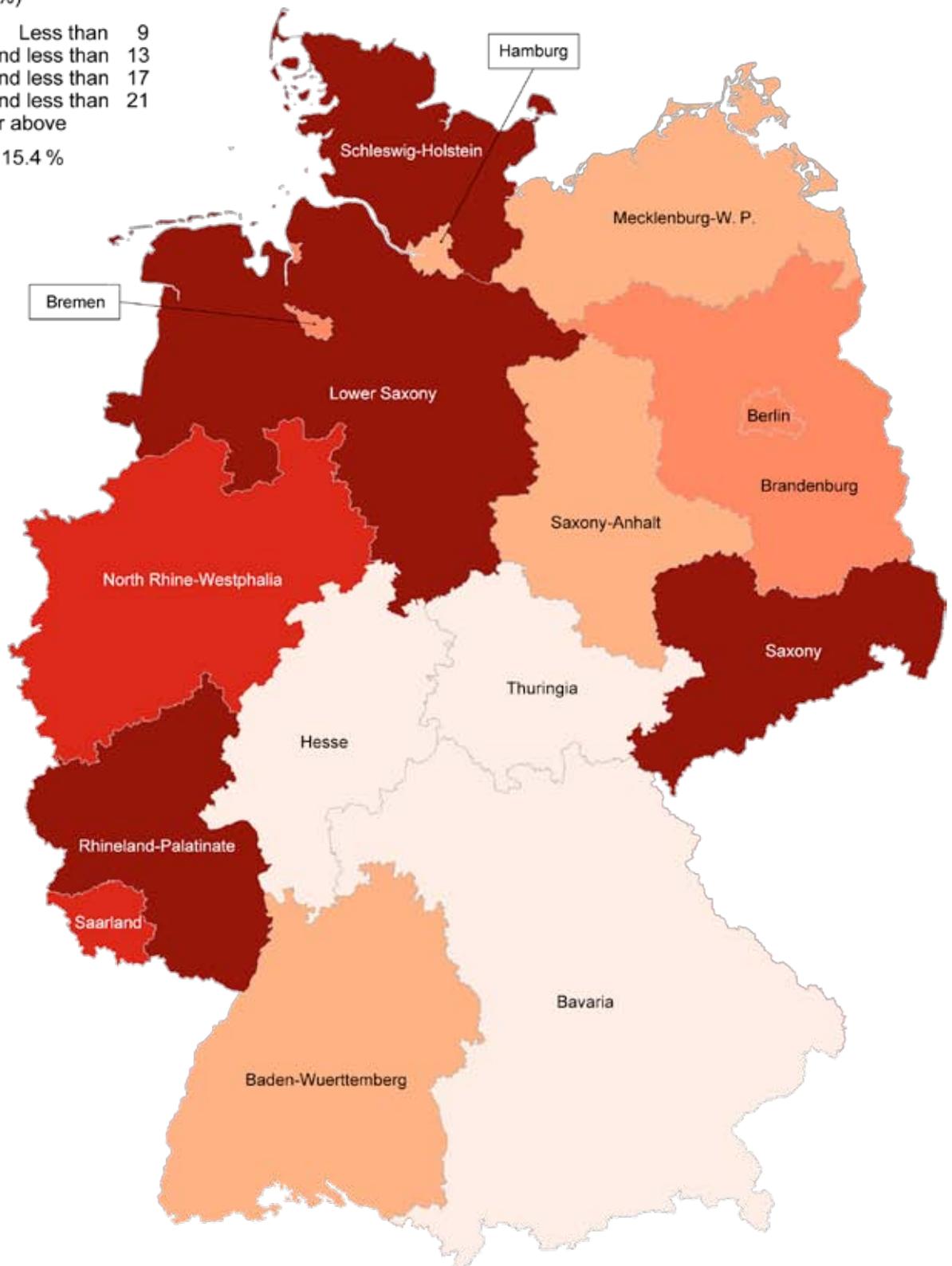
In November 2008, of the 831 departments within the upper-level state agencies, 128 were headed by women and 703 by men. In a comparison between the German states, the range spans from 2.4% to 34.8%.

## Percentage of women in department head positions in upper-level state agencies 2008

Women (%)



Average: 15.4 %



## 1.6 University professors

### Indicator description

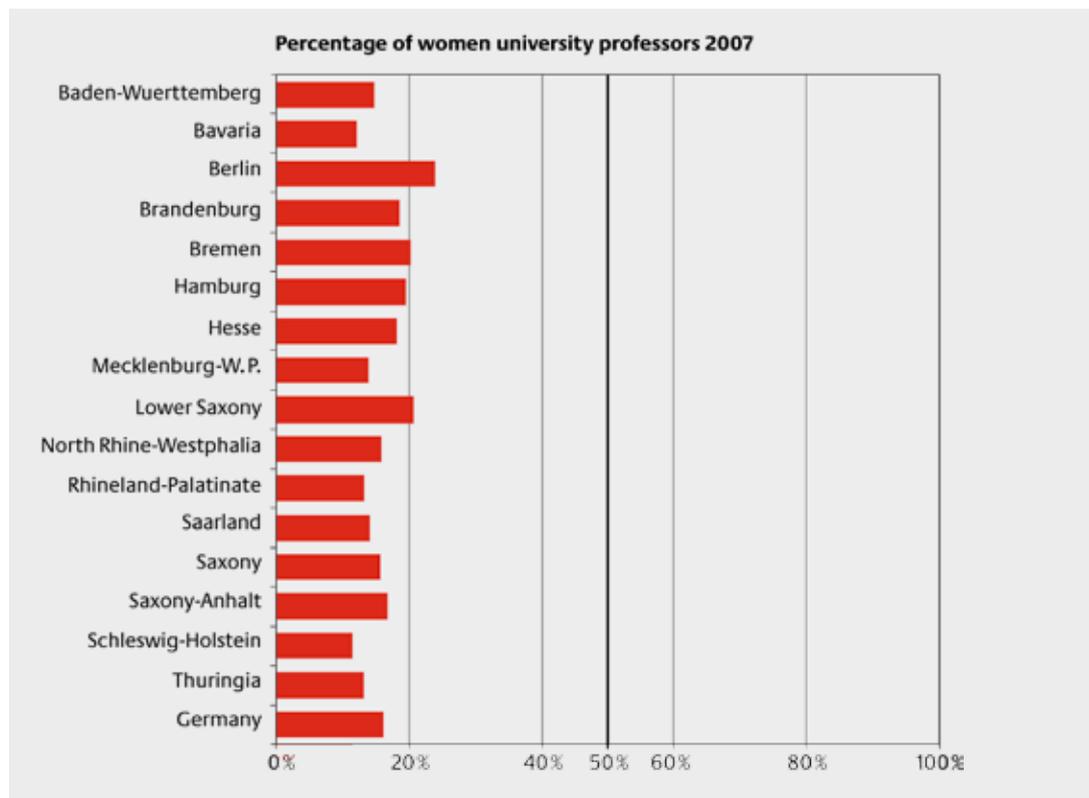
**Definition:** Number of women university professors.

**Methodological notes:** The number of university professors in total and the number of women with university professorships. This takes in pay groups C4, W3, C3, W2, C2 and W1. Junior professors (pay group W1) are included. However, to indicate the potential for women to take over an (ordinary) professorship by acquiring academic credentials as an equivalent to a postdoctoral thesis, junior professors are separately described and illustrated using indicator 2.10.

**Source:** University statistics 2007

This indicator represents the number of women university professors and indicates:

- I The number of women professors in universities.
- I The willingness of universities to allow women to take part in structural and decision-making processes in research and teaching.
- I Structural barriers in science and research that make it difficult for women to have an academic career and gain access to top positions in research and education.



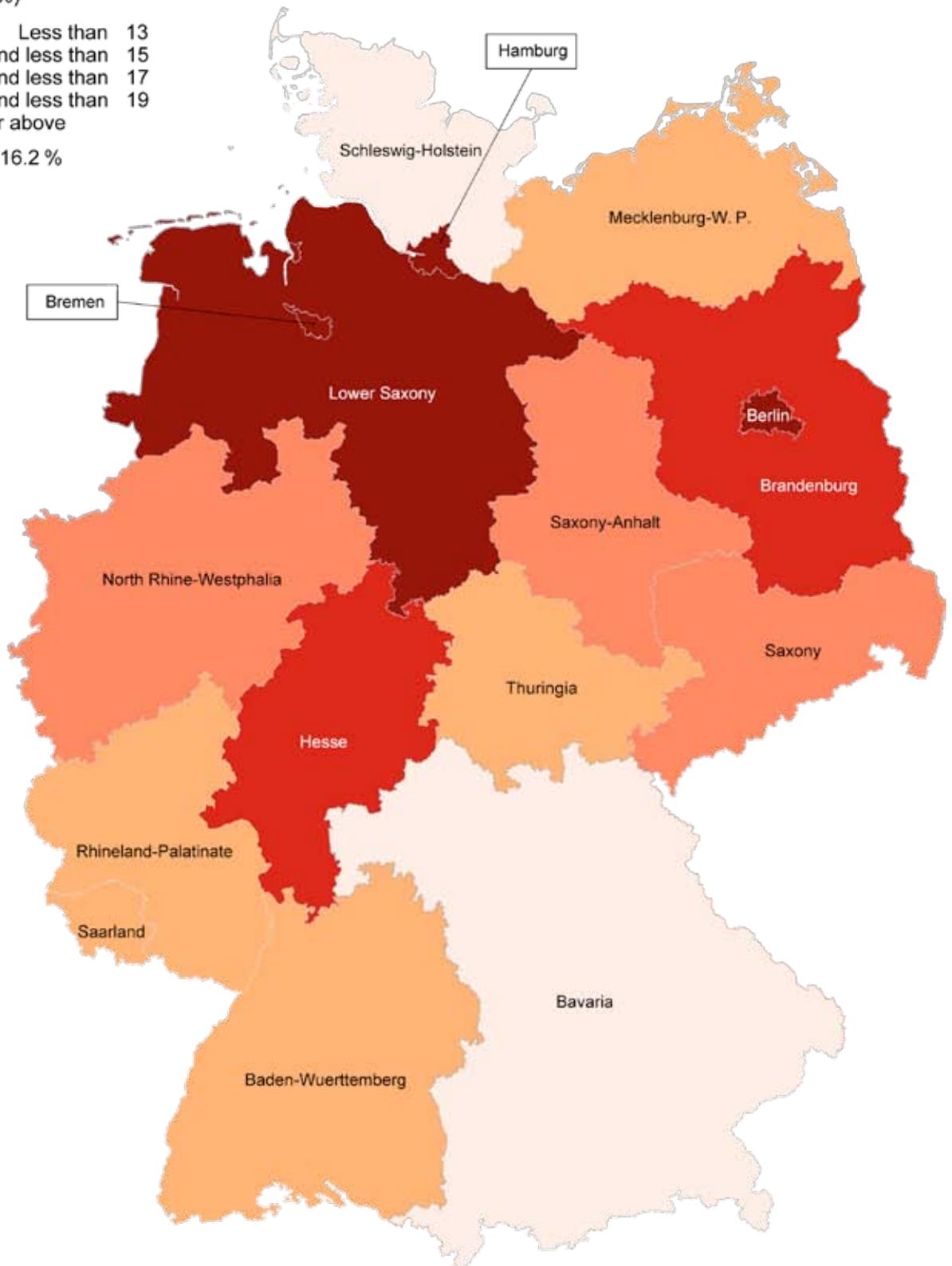
Of the 38,020 professors at German universities in 2007, 6,173 were women. This represents a national average of 16.2%. In a state comparison, the range stretches from 11.1% to 23.9%. The German states aim to achieve 30% women in professorships.

## Percentage of women university professors 2007

Women (%)

- Less than 13
- 13 and less than 15
- 15 and less than 17
- 17 and less than 19
- 19 or above

Average: 16.2 %



## 1.7 Management positions in private industry

The percentage of women in management positions in private industry is a key indication of equality between women and men in industry. In 2006, the national average was 31% and was thus five percentage points higher than in 2001.<sup>7</sup>

This indicator is designed to illustrate the involvement of women in selected management and leadership positions in private industry, and thus point to gender equitable human resources and organisational development planning.

The original plan was to use the 2007 Microcensus as the basis for a state-specific chart and a district-specific map. In the Microcensus, management positions are defined as ‘a position in a company’ and refer to employees with comprehensive management responsibilities and decision-making authority (e.g. directors, managing directors, medical consultants, and agents with powers of attorney). They do not include civil service positions.

However, the microcensus, which is based on random selection, produced no results for extrapolated findings from below 5,000 due to the low statistical significance. For the ‘management positions in private industry’ indicator, statistically usable figures are only available for eight German states. The 19th GMFK thus decided to refrain from using a diagram and a map in this first Equality Atlas.

Should a later edition of the atlas be produced, this indicator will be depicted using a data source that supplies usable data for all sixteen German states.

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<sup>7</sup> Führungskräfte-Monitor 2001–2006 (Research Volume 7 published by the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth, BMFSFJ).

## II.

### Education and Vocational Education and Training

As our industrialised society rapidly becomes a knowledge society, education plays an ever greater role. This applies both to society's chances of securing competitive and innovation ability and social cohesion, and also to individual opportunities on the job market, earning opportunities, and participation in society.

Given the importance of school-leaving qualifications, five indicators were selected. For educational qualifications, gender differences are increasingly apparent. More young women than young men have higher education qualifications.

For university studies, the following indicators were used: 'engineering studies' and 'primary teacher training'. Against the backdrop of demographic change and the associated drop in the number of employable people, a lack of skilled employees is evident which is likely to worsen. With the growing need for workers in the natural sciences and technology sectors, interest has long been focused on recruiting young women to work in these fields. There is, however, no comparable approach to recruiting young men to take up the social work, childcare and educational professions.

## 2.1 School leavers leaving secondary schools without any qualifications

### Indicator description

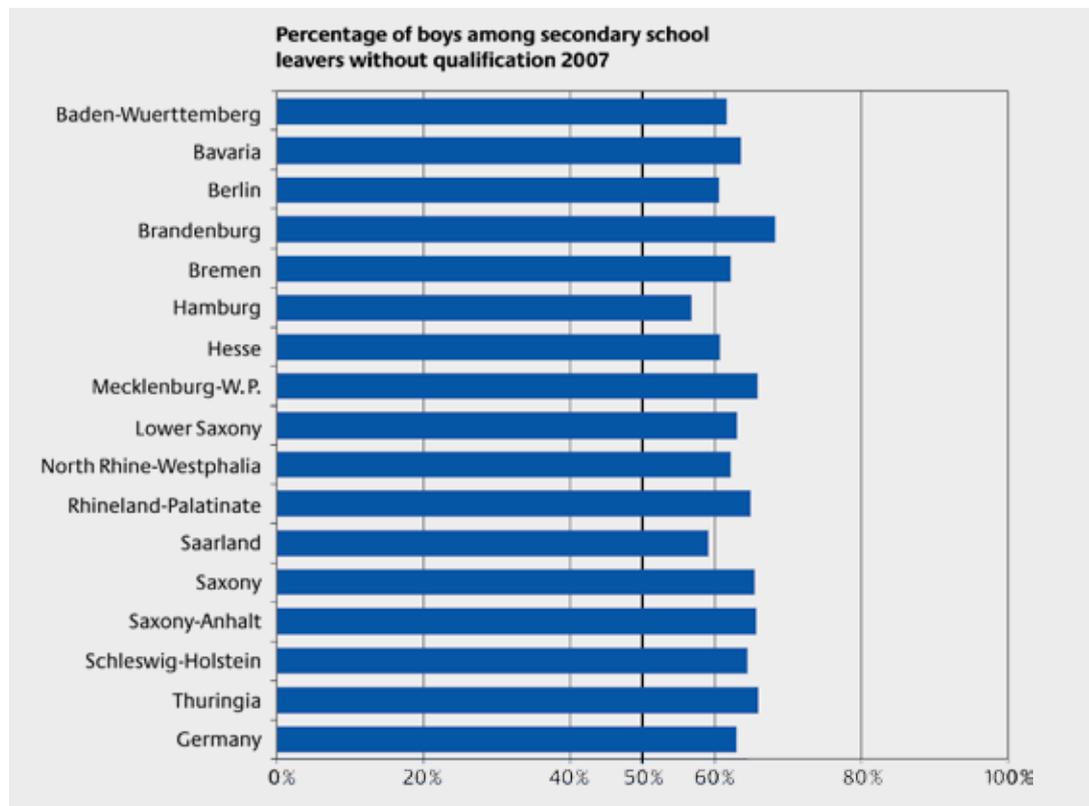
**Definition:** Percentage of boys among school leavers from secondary schools who leave without qualification.

**Methodological notes:** The figures include public and private secondary schools.

**Source:** Statistics for secondary schools and vocational schools/colleges (school year 2006/2007)

This indicator shows the percentage of boys among school leavers who leave without qualification. It points to:

- | Gender-specific educational differences.
- | The presence of a gender equitable school environment.
- | The extent to which gender-specific teaching concepts have been implemented.
- | Gender competence in everyday school life.

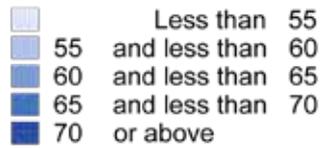


Of 75,897 school leavers who left secondary school without qualification in school year 2006/2007, 47,857 were boys. This represented a national average of 61.3%.

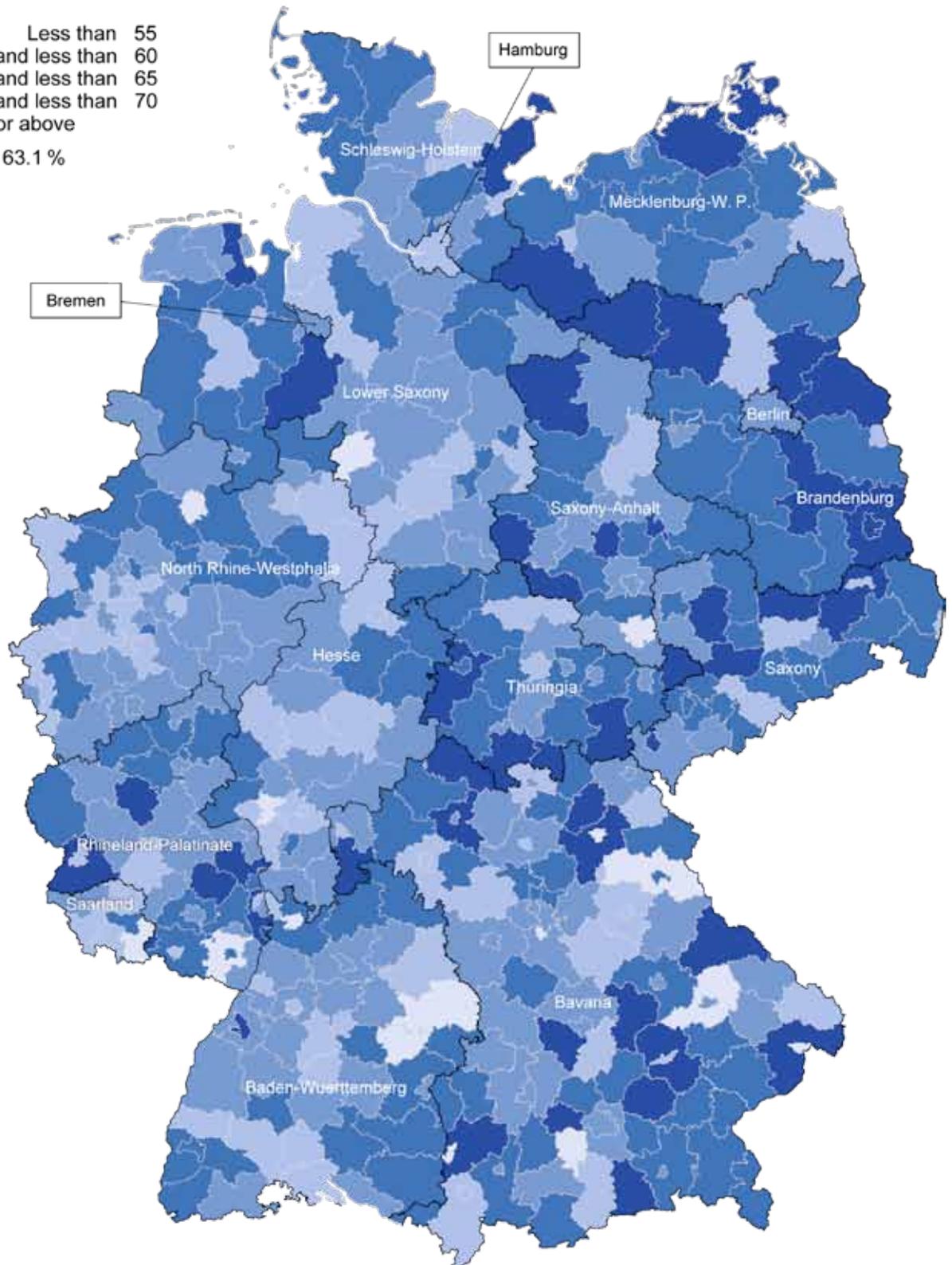
In a state comparison, the lowest quota lies at 56.8% and the highest at 68.2%.

## Percentage of boys among secondary school leavers without qualifications 2007, by administrative district/municipality

Boys (%)



Average: 63.1 %



## 2.2 School leavers leaving secondary schools with Hauptschulabschluss qualifications

### Indicator description

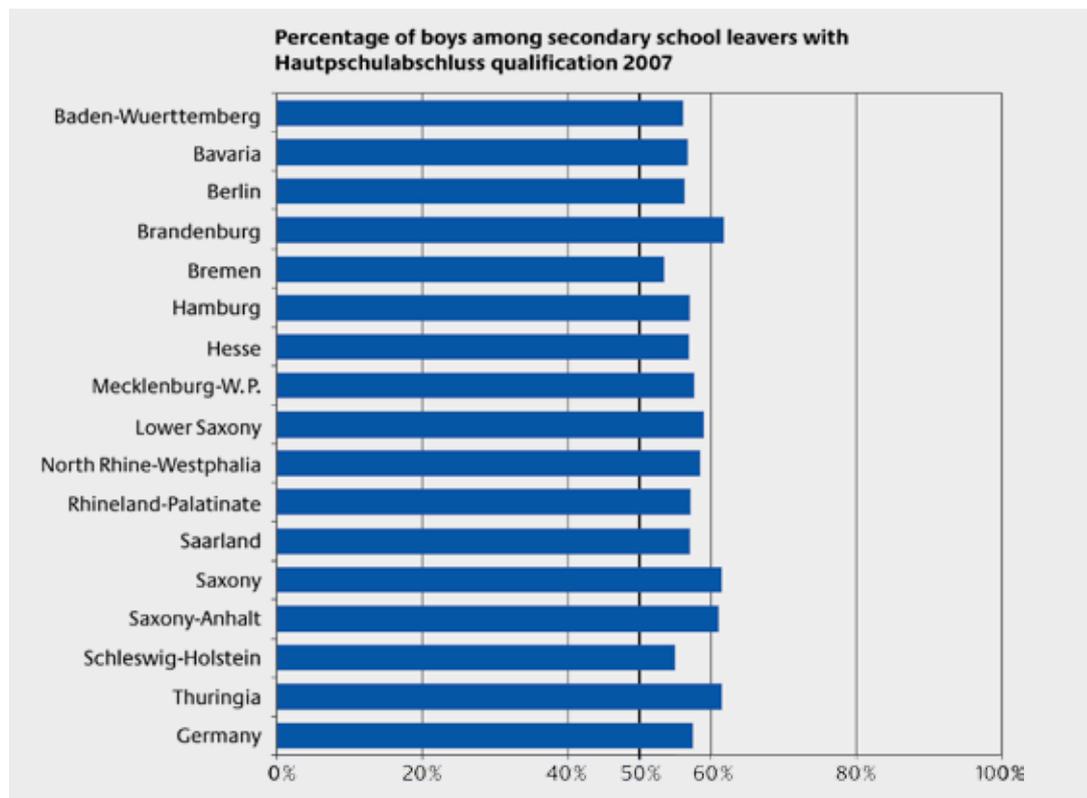
**Definition:** Percentage of boys among school leavers who leave secondary schools with a Hauptschulabschluss.

**Methodological notes:** The figures include public and private secondary schools. The comparability among individual states' results is limited to an extent due to differing state-specific regulations and structures (e.g. courses at vocational schools and colleges). A Hauptschulabschluss can in some instances be obtained at vocational schools and colleges. This option tends to be taken up by more boys than girls. This is not illustrated by this indicator.

**Source:** Statistics for secondary schools and vocational schools and colleges (school year 2006/2007).

The indicator points to:

- | Gender-specific educational differences.
- | The presence of a gender-equitable school environment.
- | The level at which gender-specific teaching concepts have been implemented.
- | Gender competence in everyday school life.

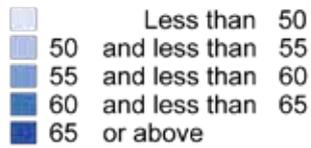


Of 231,083 school leavers who left secondary school in school year 2006/2007 with a Hauptschulabschluss certificate, 133,036 were male. This makes for a national average of 57.6%.

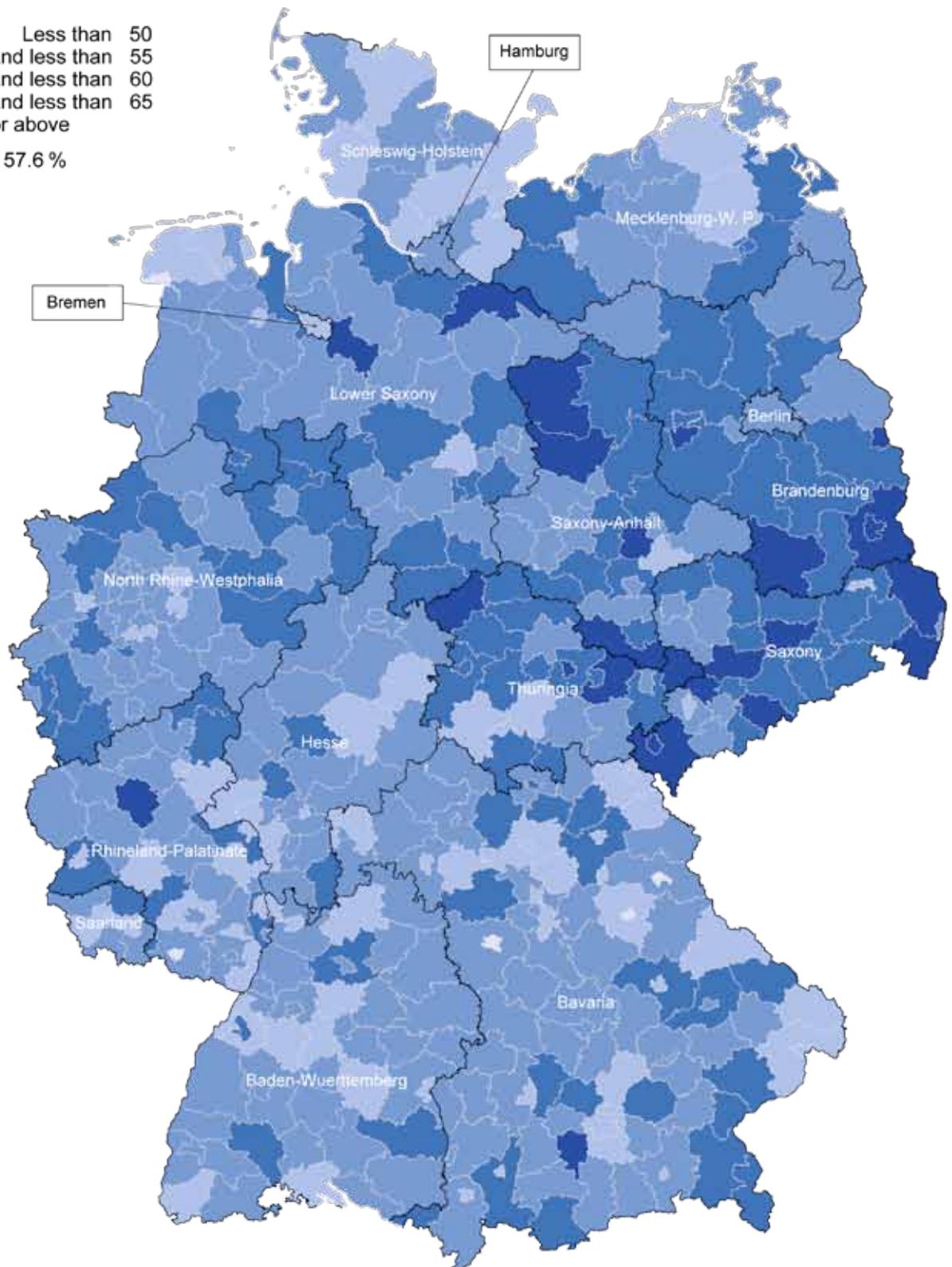
In a state comparison, the lowest quota was 53.6% and the highest 61.7%.

## Percentage of boys among secondary school leavers with Hauptschulabschluss qualification 2007, by administrative district/municipality

Boys (%)



Average: 57.6 %



## 2.3 School leavers leaving secondary school with Realschulabschluss qualifications

### Indicator description

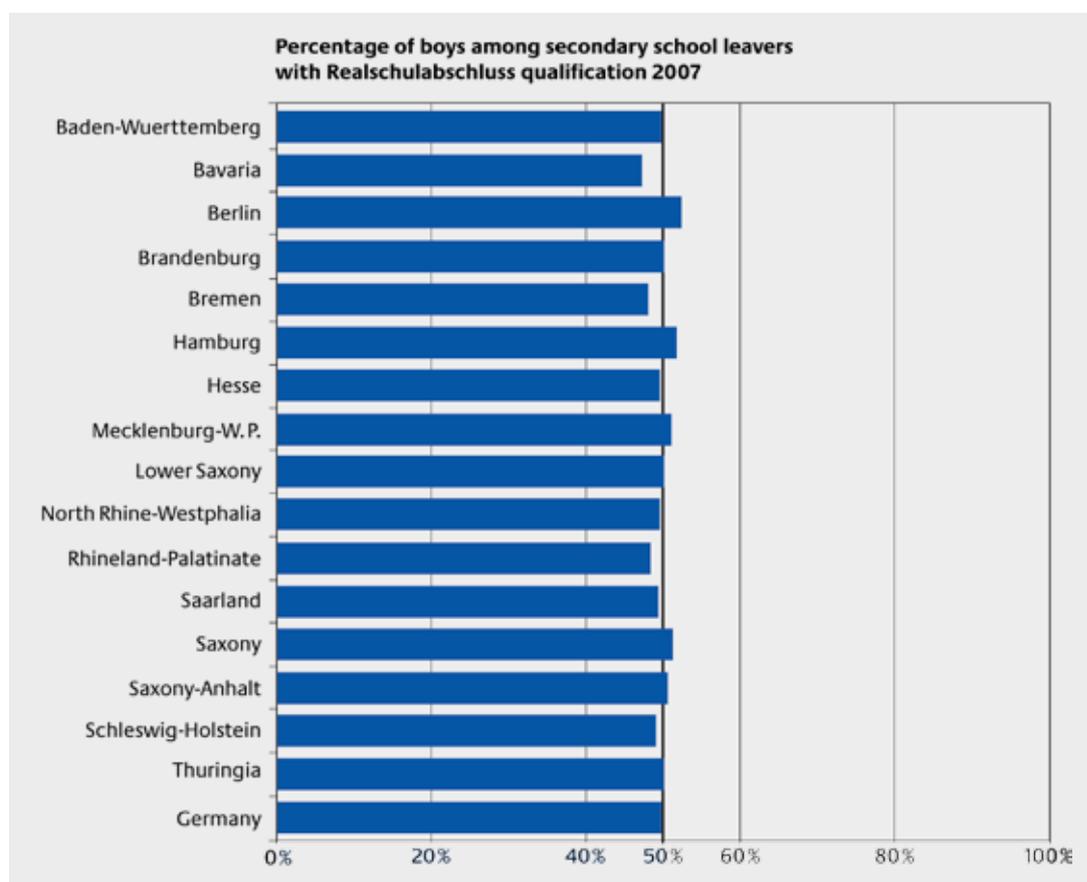
**Definition:** Percentage of boys among school leavers who leave secondary school with Realschulabschluss qualifications.

**Methodological notes:** The figures include public and private secondary schools. The Realschulabschluss is equivalent to Sekundarabschluss I (ordinary level secondary school leaving certificate/qualifications).

**Source:** Statistics for secondary schools and vocational schools and colleges (school year 2006/2007).

This indicator points to:

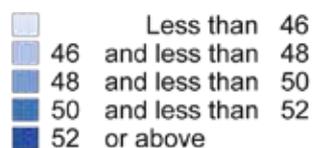
- I Gender-specific differences in education.
- I The presence of a gender equitable school environment.
- I The extent to which gender-specific teaching concepts have been implemented.
- I Gender competence in everyday school life.



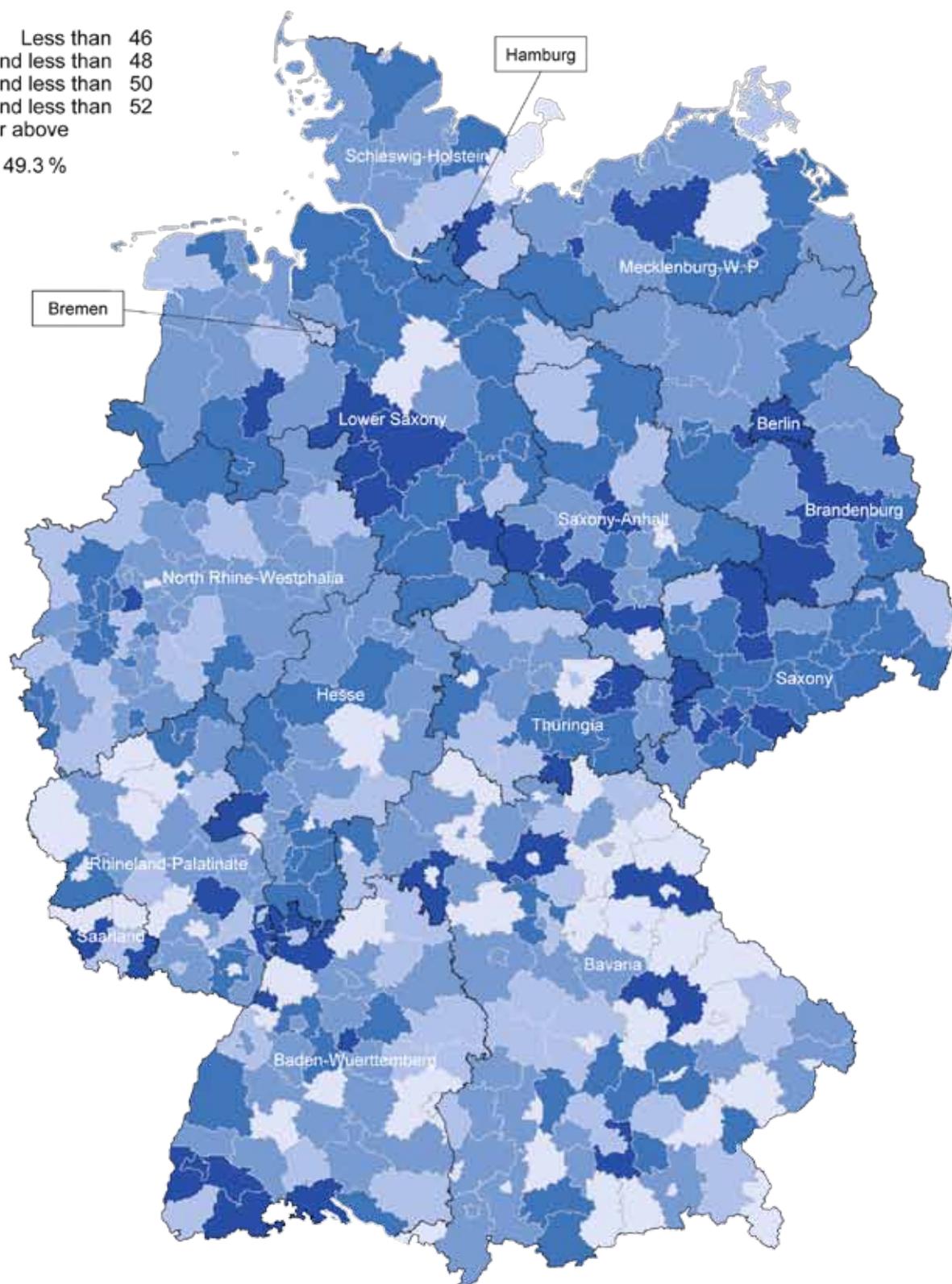
Of 396,699 school leavers who left secondary school in school year 2006/2007 with Realschulabschluss qualifications, 195,765 were male. This gives a national average of 49.3%. In a state comparison, the quotas range from 47.0 % to 52.3%.

## Percentage of boys among secondary school leavers with Realschulabschluss qualification 2007, by administrative district/municipality

Boys (%)



Average: 49.3 %



## 2.4 School leavers leaving secondary school with Hochschulreife university entrance qualifications

### Indicator description

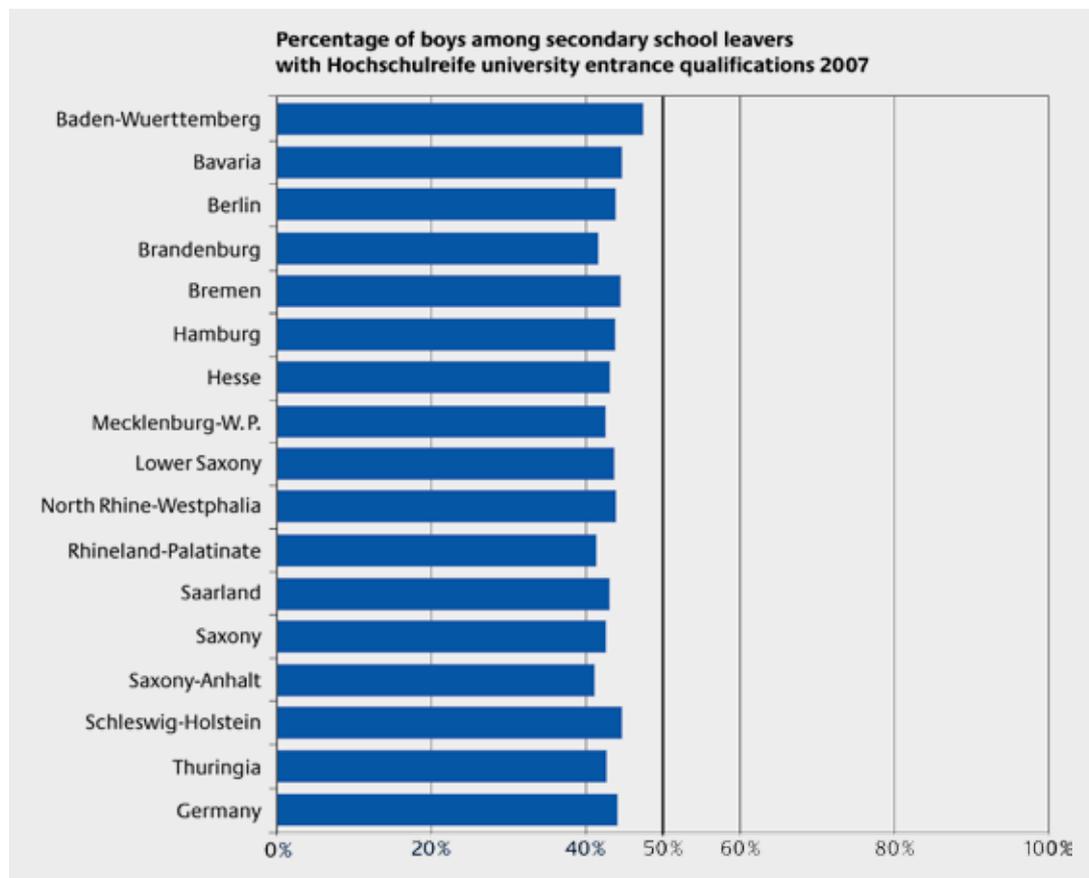
**Definition:** Percentage of boys among school leavers who leave secondary schools with Hochschulreife university entrance qualifications.

**Methodological notes:** The figures include public and private secondary schools. School leavers leaving secondary schools with Fachhochschulreife technical college entrance qualifications were not surveyed because this level of qualification is not available at all secondary schools in all German states.

**Source:** Statistics for secondary schools and vocational schools and colleges (school year 2006/2007).

This indicator points to:

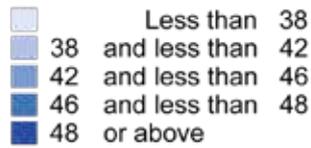
- | Gender-specific educational differences.
- | The presence of a gender equitable school environment.
- | The extent to which gender specific teaching concepts have been implemented.
- | Gender competence in daily school life.



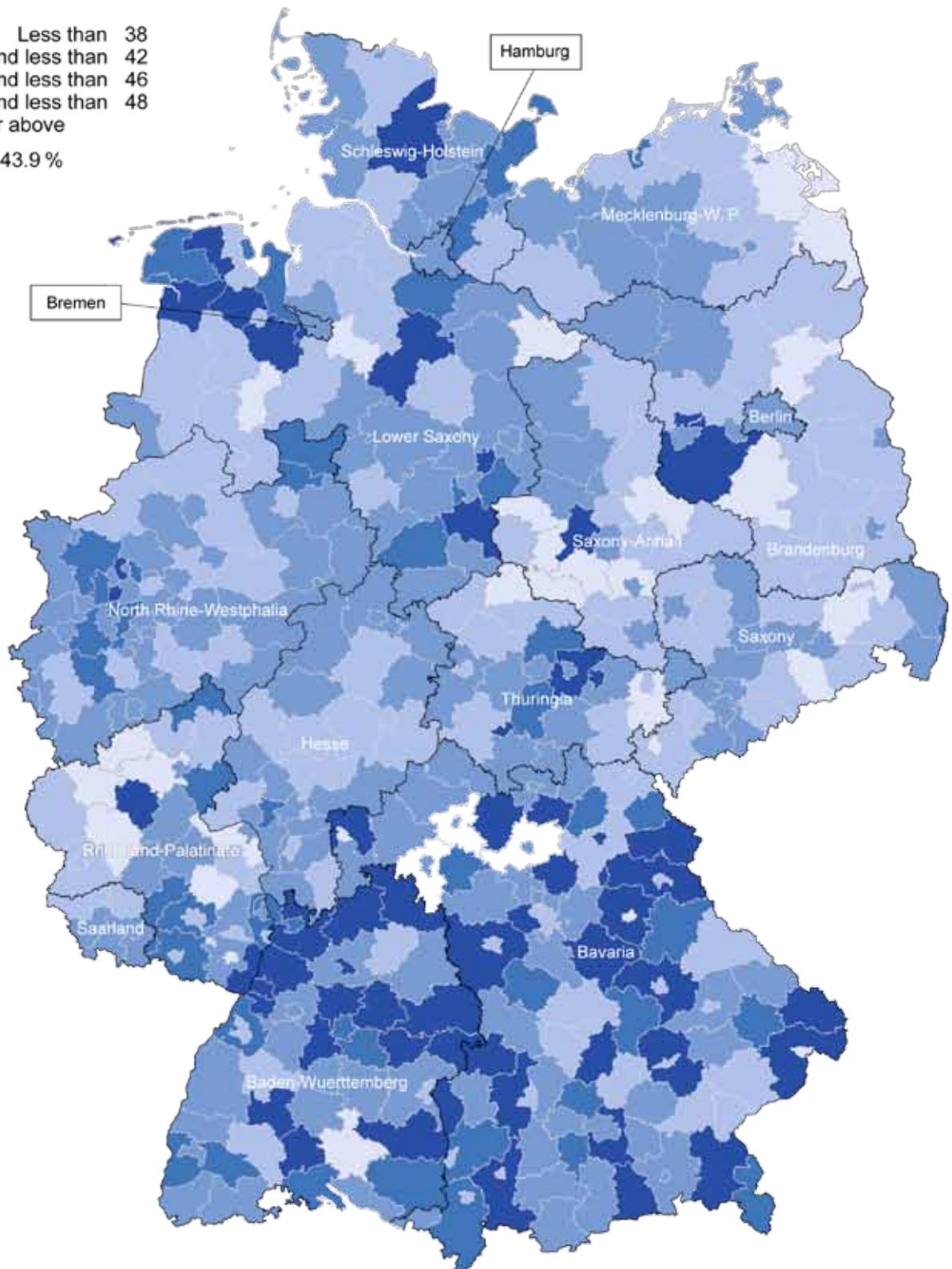
Of 243,685 school leavers who left secondary school in school year 2006/2007 with Hochschulreife university entrance qualifications, 106,944 were male. This represents a national average of 43.9%. In a state comparison, the lowest quota is 41.1% and the highest 47.4%.

## Percentage of boys among secondary school leavers with Hochschulreife university entrance qualifications 2007, by administrative district/municipality

Boys (%)



Average: 43.9 %



Bamberg, Schweinfurt, and Wuerzburg administrative districts lack schools awarding university entrance qualifications.

## 2.5 Access to higher education

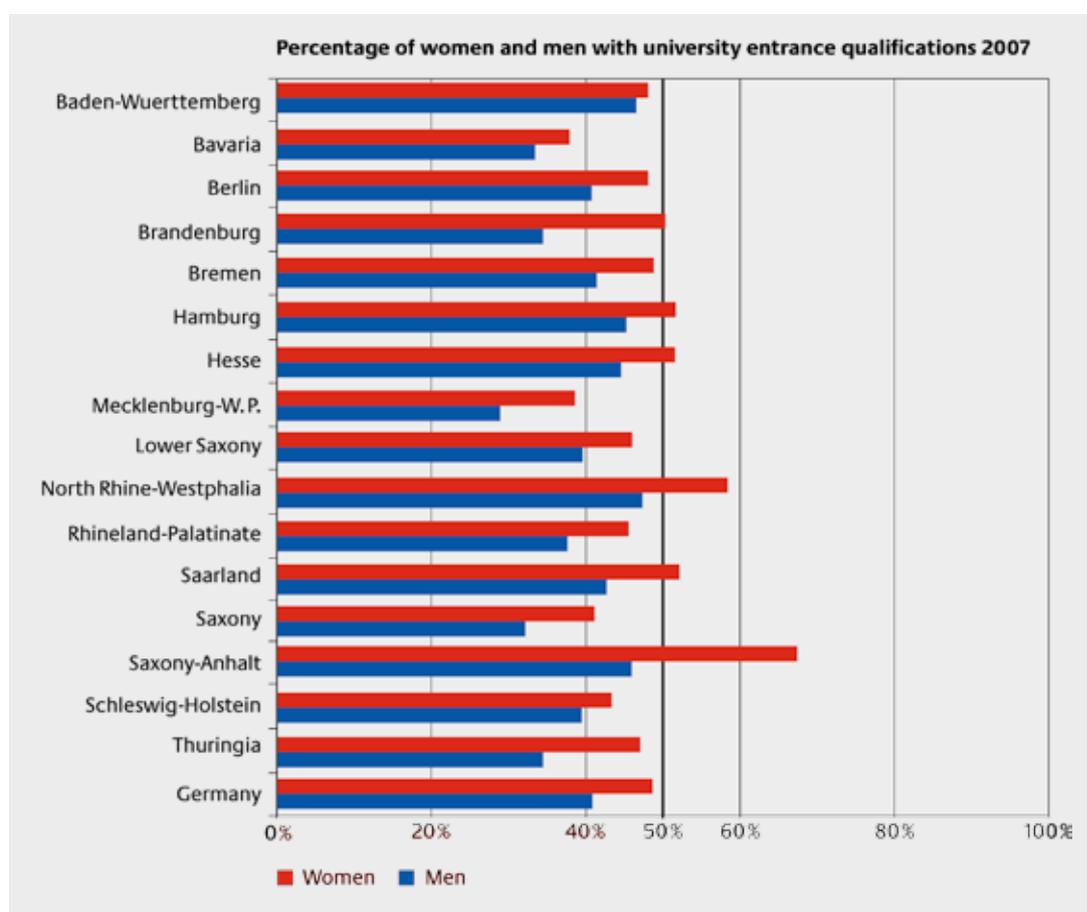
### Indicator description

**Definition:** Percentage of women and men with university entrance certificates among the respective age group. This age group is calculated taking the average age of the 18 to 21 year olds among the resident population.

**Methodological notes:** To draw up the map, the following index was used: women's quota when men's quota = 100; the bar chart shows the original quotas.

**Source:** Statistics for secondary schools and vocational schools and colleges (school year 2006/2007).

Segregated by gender, this indicator illustrates the quota for all holders of university entrance qualifications in the respective age group in the population. It points to gender-specific differences among school leavers who have attained school leaving qualifications which entitle them to go to university.



In 2007, an average 44.5% of the German population in the target age group were entitled to study at university. At 48.6%, there were more women than men (40.5%). In a state comparison, the number of women ranged from 37.7% to 58.2%, and for men from 33.1% to 47.1%. In all German states, the number of women with university entrance qualifications is higher than that of men.

## Women and men with university entrance qualifications 2007

Index: Percentage of women with university entrance qualifications when percentage for men set equal to 100.

- Less than 114
- 114 and less than 118
- 118 and less than 122
- 122 and less than 126
- 126 or above

Average: 120



## 2.6 Academic study: Engineering science

### Indicator description

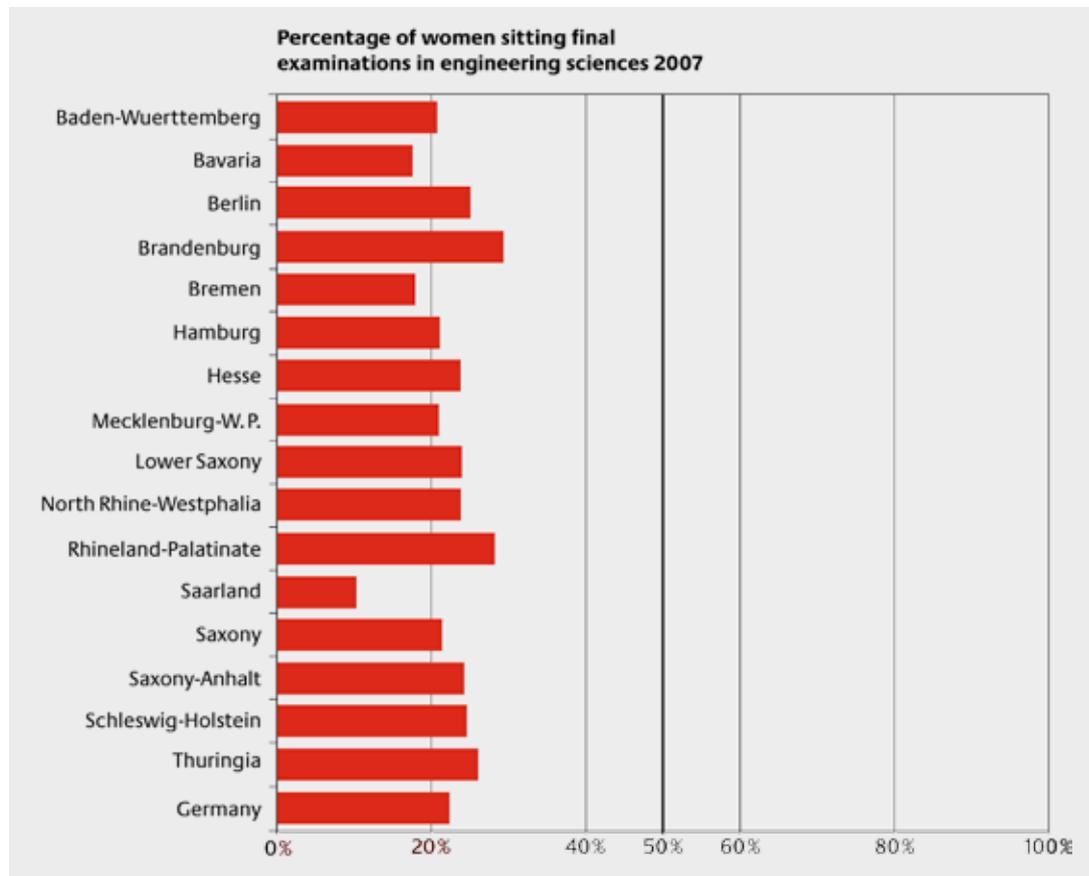
**Definition:** Percentage of women who took their final exams in engineering science.

**Methodological notes:** The engineering science group includes engineers (general), machine/process engineering, electrotechnology, architecture/interior design, and construction engineering. Final exams were included which complete a course of academic study independent of whether the exam was passed.

**Source:** Exam statistics 2007.

This indicator represents women's interest in studying in a male-dominated course of study.

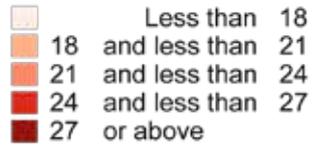
- I Gender-specific selection of study courses by women and men.
- I The influence of traditional role models in women's and men's choice of occupation or profession.
- I Gender-specific segregation of the labour market.



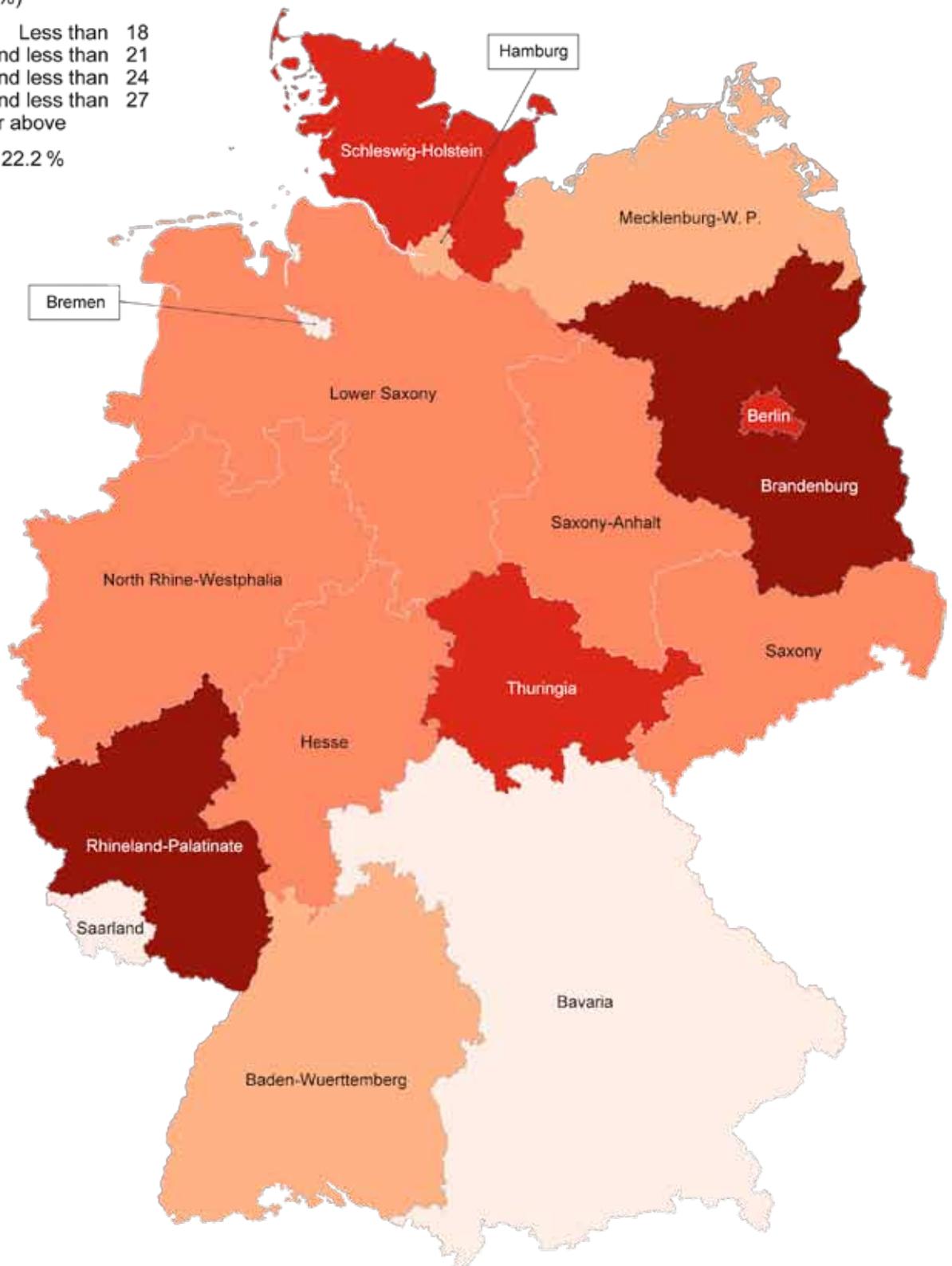
Of 44,676 final exams in engineering science, 9,931 were taken by women; this represents a national share of 22.2%. The range spans from 10.3% to 29.1%.

## Percentage of women sitting final examinations in engineering sciences 2007

Women (%)



Average: 22.2 %



## 2.7 Academic study: Primary teacher training

### Indicator description

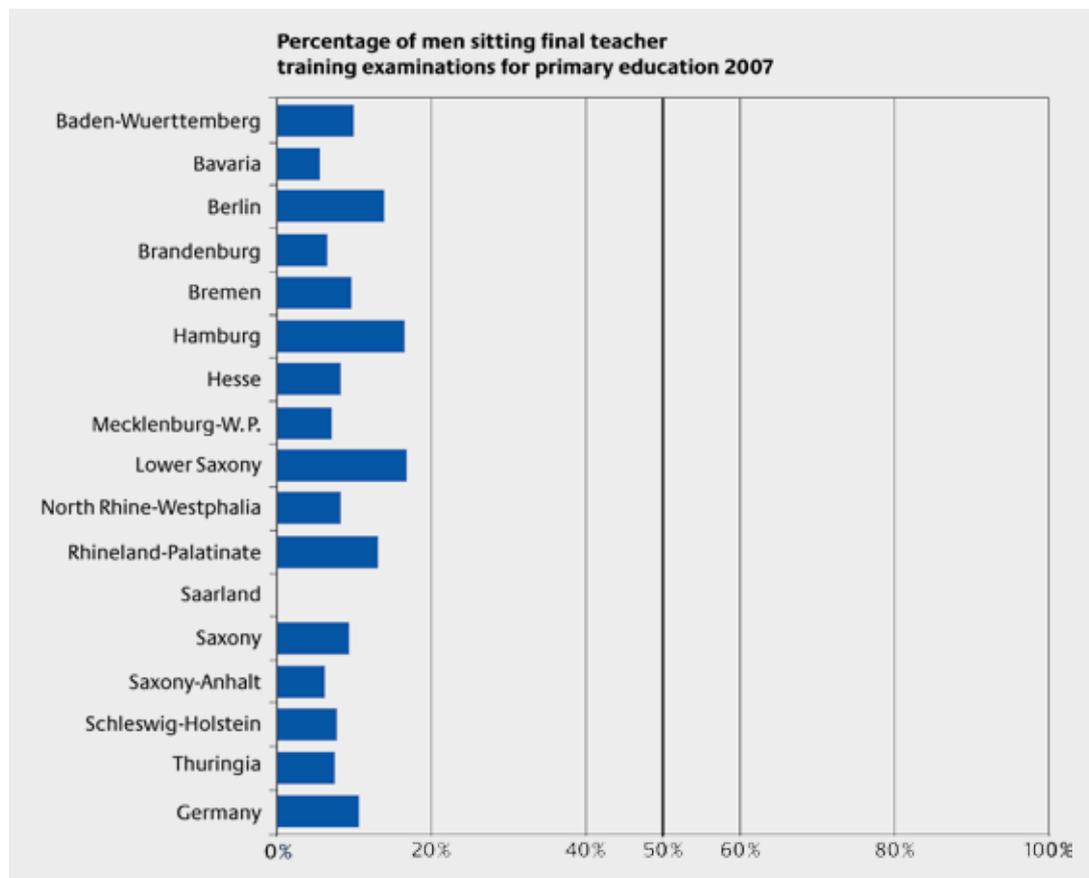
**Definition:** Percentage of final primary teacher training exams (Grundschulen) completed by men.

**Methodological notes:** The figures include primary teacher training graduates where these qualifications are valid in specific states, otherwise the figures contain teacher training graduates who qualified to teach in primary and Hauptschule schools. The exams covered by the survey were ones which completed a course of academic study regardless of whether the student passed. In Saarland, primary teacher training is not available.

**Source:** Exam statistics 2007.

This indicator represents the interest among men in training to become a primary school teacher, a job largely done by women. It points to:

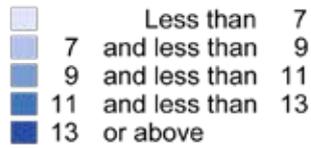
- Gender-specific selection of academic courses of study by women and men.
- The influence of traditional role models on women's and men's chosen occupations.
- Gender-specific segregation of the labour market.
- High expectations among men regarding position and income.



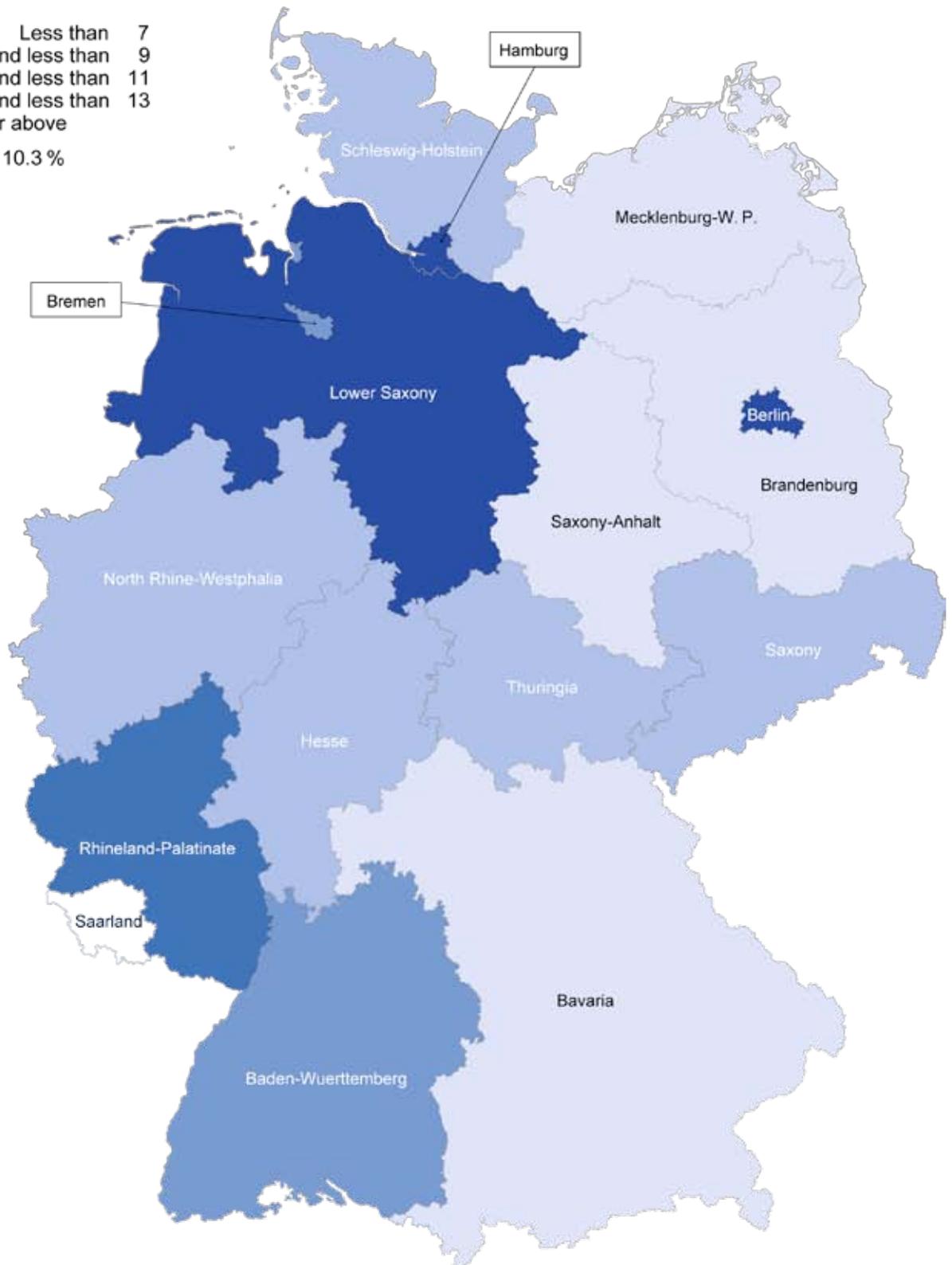
Out of a total of 8,999 students who took their final primary teacher training exams in 2007, only 931 (10.3%) were men. The range spanned between 5.2% and 16.6.%.

## Percentage of men sitting final teacher training examinations for primary education 2007

Men (%)



Average: 10.3 %



Saarland does not have a tertiary teacher training college.

## 2.8 Doctorates

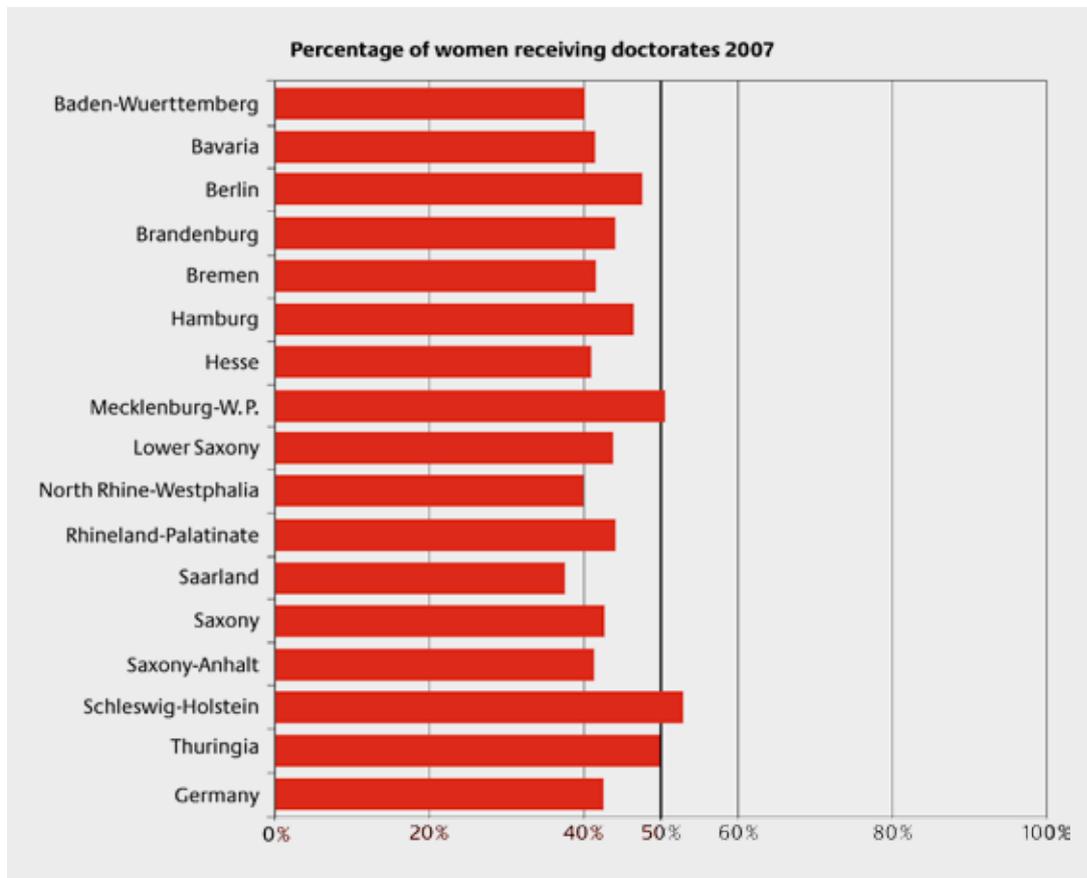
### Indicator description

**Definition:** Percentage of women who have received a doctorate

**Source:** Exam statistics 2007.

This indicator points to:

- I Women's involvement in academia.
- I Structural barriers in academia that make it difficult for women to gain access to top positions in science, research, and private industry.
- I The need to steer educational planning.



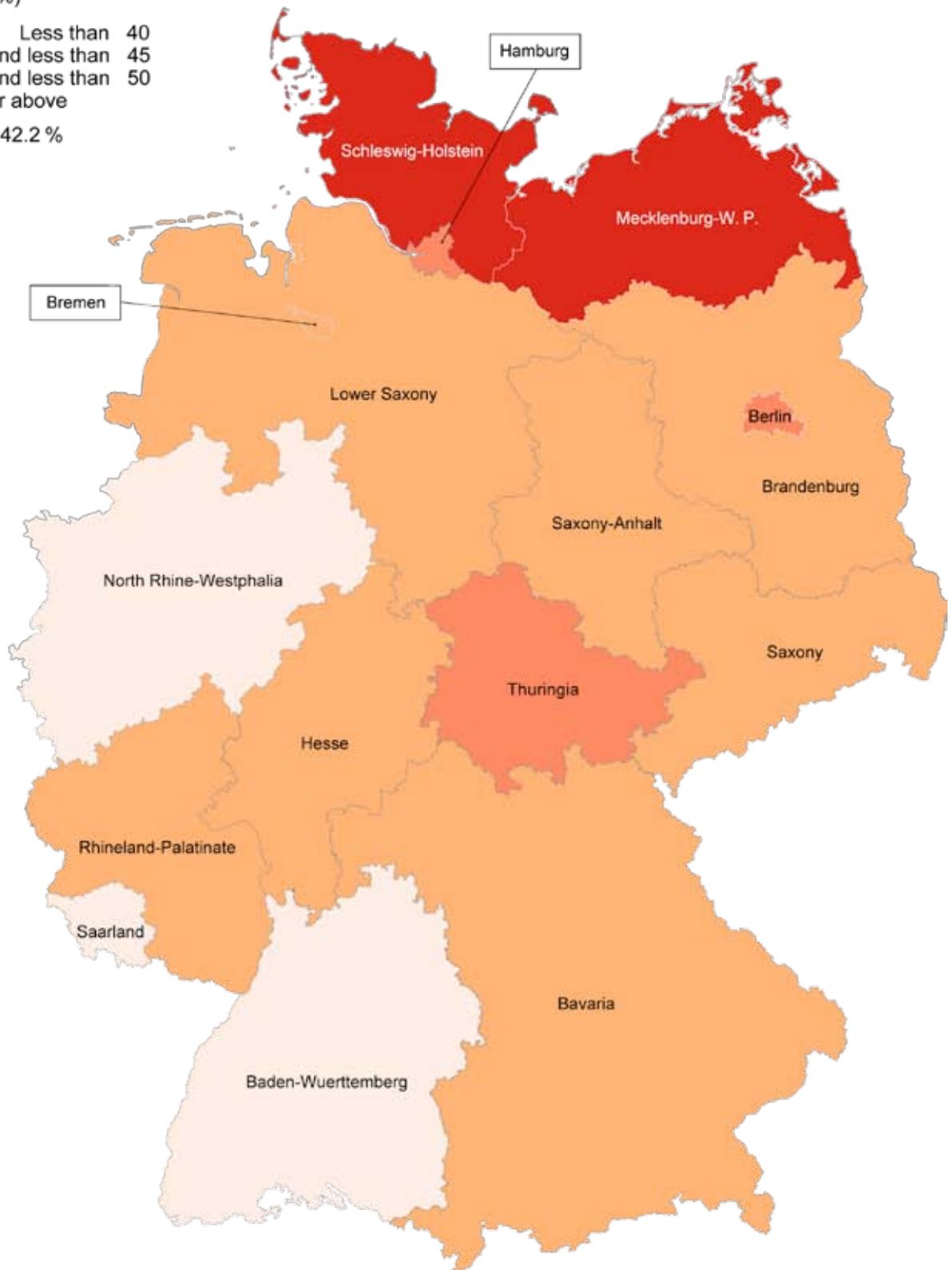
Of the 23,754 doctorates at universities, 10,333 were received by women. The ratio of women in the national average thus lies at 42.2%. In a state comparison, the range spans from 37.4% to 52.6%.

## Percentage of women receiving doctorates 2007

Women (%)

- Less than 40
- 40 and less than 45
- 45 and less than 50
- 50 or above

Average: 42.2 %



## 2.9 Postdoctoral theses

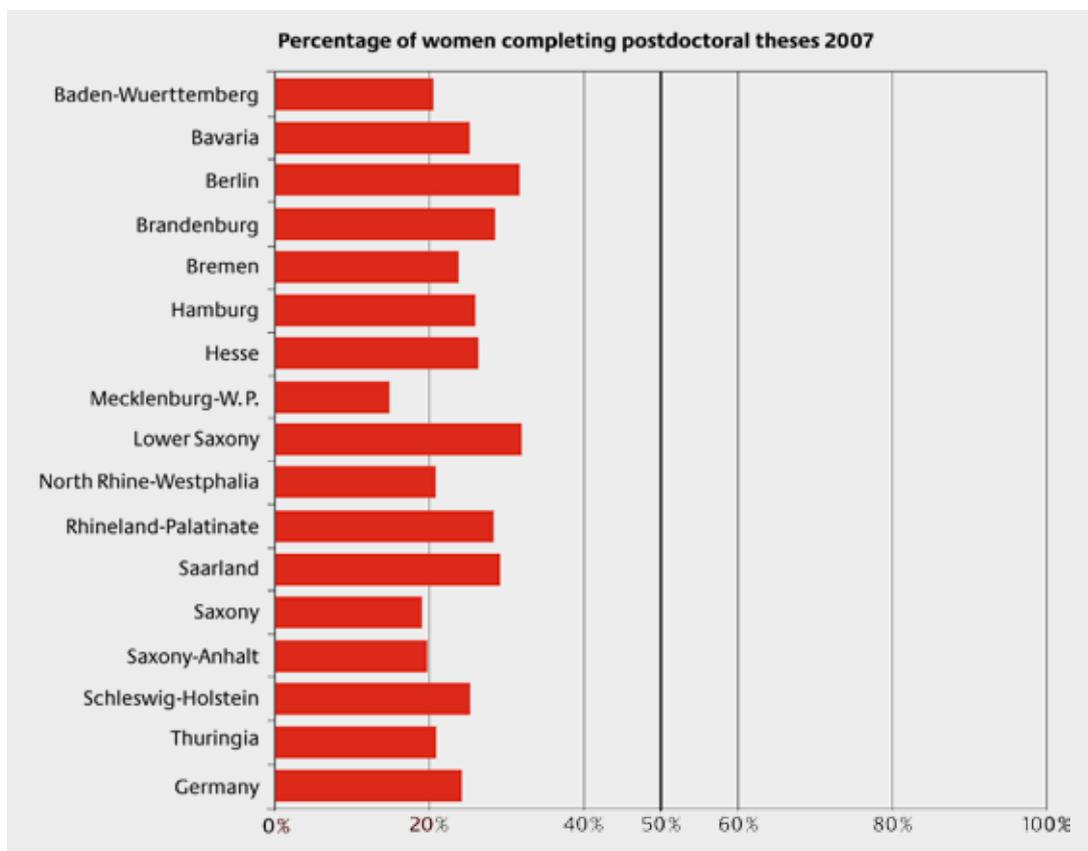
### Indicator description

**Definition:** Percentage of women with post-doctoral theses.

**Source:** Postdoctoral theses statistics 2007.

This indicator points to:

- I The potential for academically qualified women to taking on an (ordinary) professorship.
- I Structural barriers in science that make it difficult for women to gain access to top positions in science and research.
- I The need to steer educational planning.



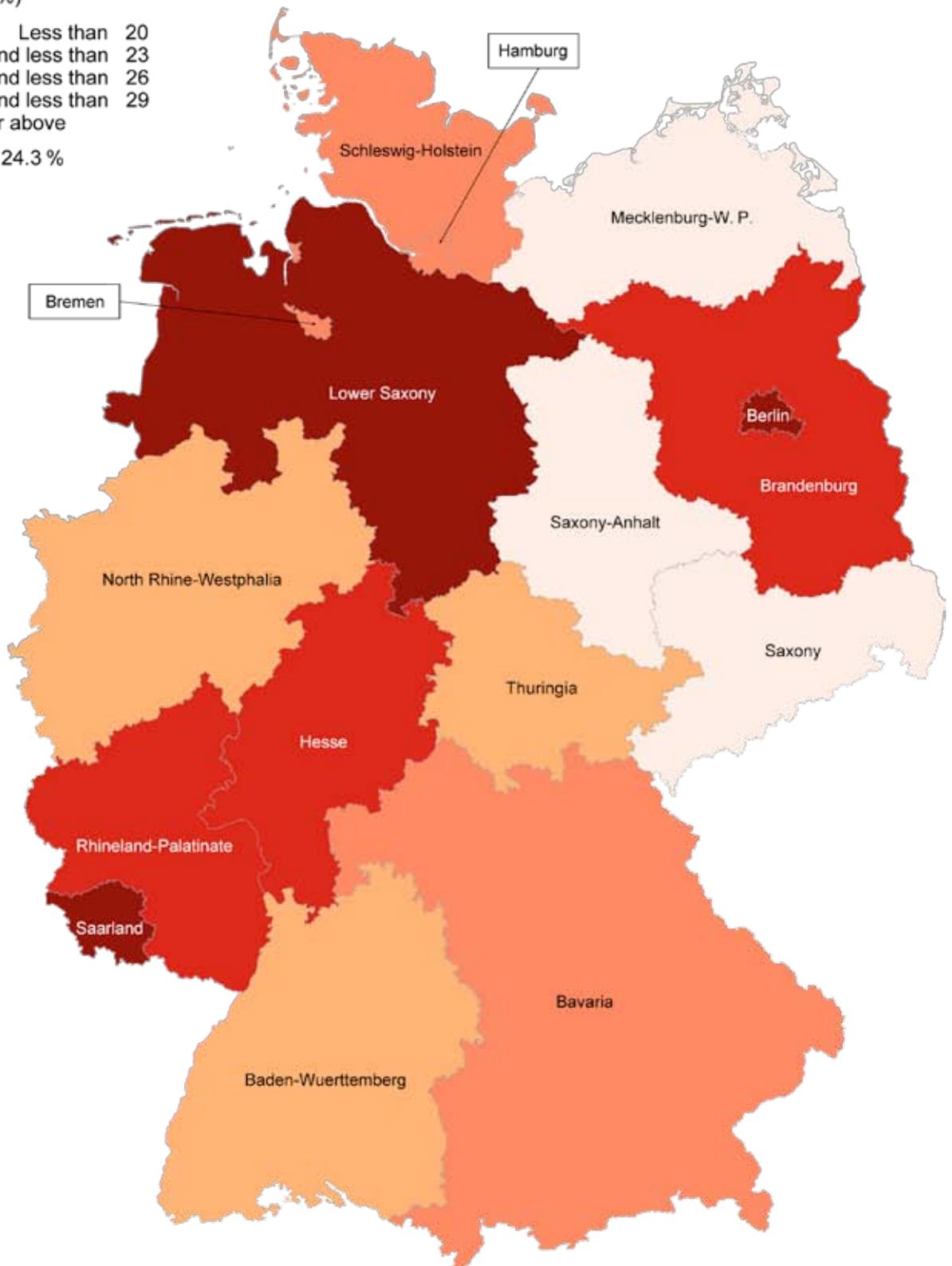
In 2007, a total of 1,881 successful postdoctoral theses were completed by 457 women. The percentage of women among the national average lies at 24.3%. In a state comparison, the range spans from 14.6% to 32%.

## Percentage of women completing postdoctoral theses 2007

Women (%)

Less than 20
20 and less than 23
23 and less than 26
26 and less than 29
29 or above

Average: 24.3 %



## 2.10 Junior professors

### Indicator description

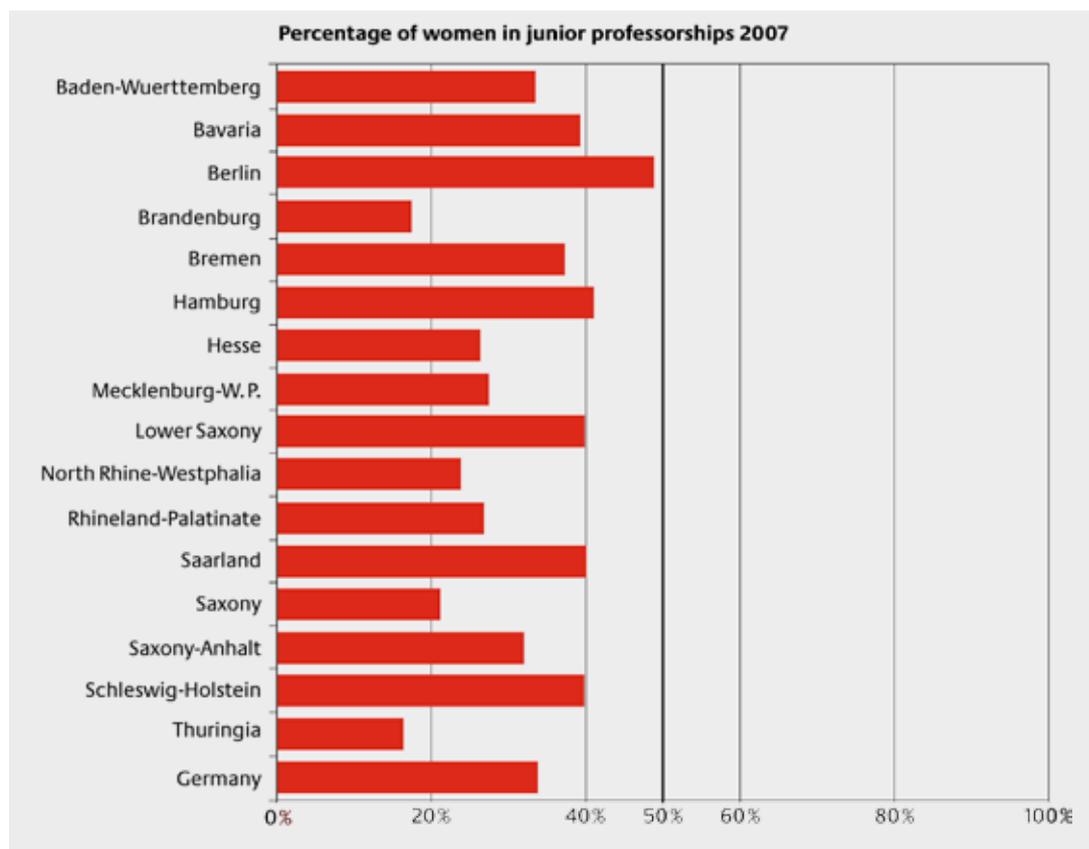
**Definition:** Percentage of women in junior professorships.

**Methodological notes:** The survey included all universities and equal-ranking institutes of higher education with junior professorships.

**Source:** Exam statistics 2007.

This indicator points to:

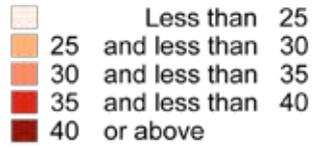
- | The current potential for women who achieve academic qualifications which allow them to take on an (ordinary) professorship.
- | The willingness among universities to allow women to take part in structural and decision-making processes in research and teaching.
- | Structural barriers in science that make it difficult for women to gain access to top positions in science and research.
- | The level of acceptance regarding junior professorships as an equal-ranking path of qualification alongside a postdoctoral thesis.



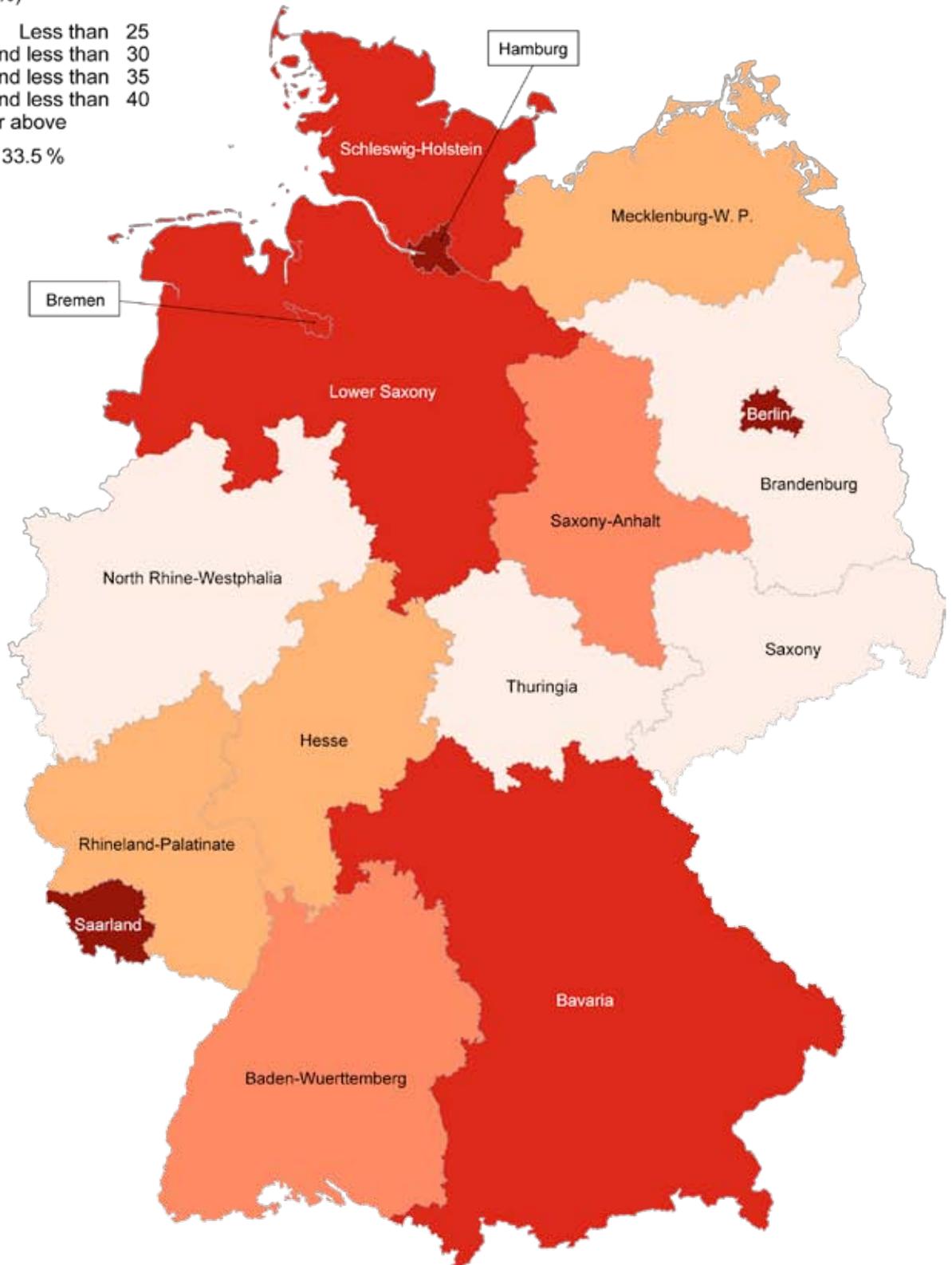
Of 802 junior professors in 2007, 269 were women. The ratio of women in the national average lies at 33.5%. In a state comparison, the range spans from 16.1% to 48.7%.

## Percentage of women in junior professorships 2007

Women (%)



Average: 33.5 %





### III.

## Work and Income

Among the main social changes in the past ten years are the growing number of women who go to work. While the ratio of women in the jobs market has steadily increased, the ratio of men is stagnating. But focusing purely on employment figures is not enough, because despite the rise in numbers, the percentage of women in employment has not risen quickly.

One reason lies in the traditional gender-specific division of work. Women do the unpaid work of keeping the house, caring for the family and bringing up the children, and thus have only a limited amount of time in which they could take up gainful employment. Given the difficulties of balancing family and work commitments, women usually work part time or in what are referred to in Germany as minijobs that do not enable them to earn their own living. This has an impact on upward mobility and career opportunities, meaning that women often work in poorer paid jobs than men. Breaks from work to bring up a family and to work part time are among the key factors which result in the fact that in Germany, an average 23% few women earn less than men. As the employment figures were traditionally higher in former eastern Germany, the gender pay gap in the new German states lies at 6% (Federal Statistical Office 2008).

With regard to reconciling work and family life, childcare was taken up as an indicator. The childcare infrastructure, coupled with family-friends human resources development and organisational structures are central determinants of how work **and** family life can be reconciled, both for women and for men.

The change in employment structures highlights trends which do away with the image of men as the sole bread winners. The normal work profile of 'full-time work without a break until pensionable age', which men have generally held, is on the decline. Discontinuous work histories, meaning switching between phases of full time employment, unemployment, part time work and minijobs, will affect women and men alike.

The nine selected indicators show the current status within a changing society. They are a yardstick for the opportunities available to women and men in paid employment and in the home.

### 3.1 Compulsorily insured employees (employment rate)

#### Indicator description

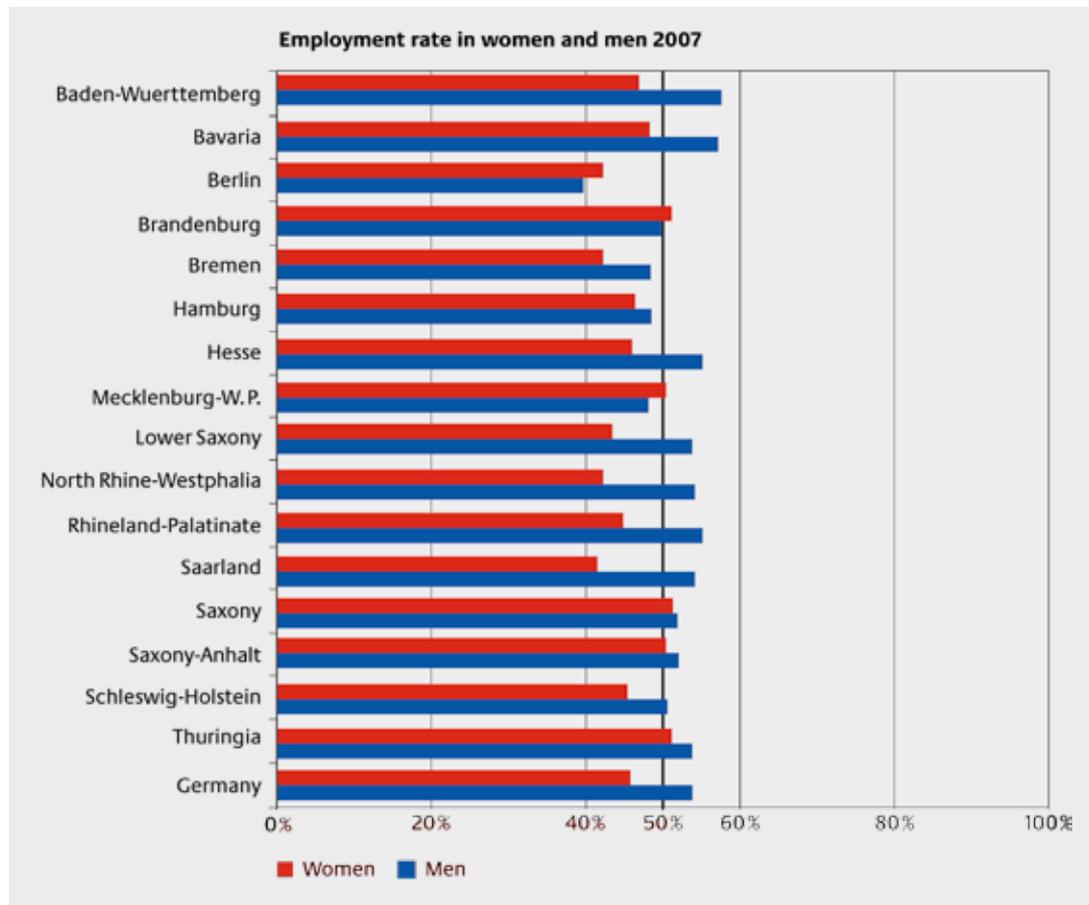
**Definition:** Percentage of compulsorily insured employed women and men in the 15 to 65 age group (employment rate of women and men).

**Methodological notes:** The employment statistics take in employees aged 15 to 65 who are compulsorily insured (health and pensions) or who must by social security contributions under Book III of the German Social Code (SGB III). Low-paid employees (minijobs), civil servants, the self-employed, and family members, who act as unpaid carers of dependents, were not included in the survey.

**Source:** Employment statistics published by the Federal Employment Agency 2007.

This indicator shows quantitative differences in the number of women and men in compulsorily insured employment relationships. It points to:

- I Differences in the numbers of women and men in employment.
- I The social situation and changes in traditional gender-specific division of work.

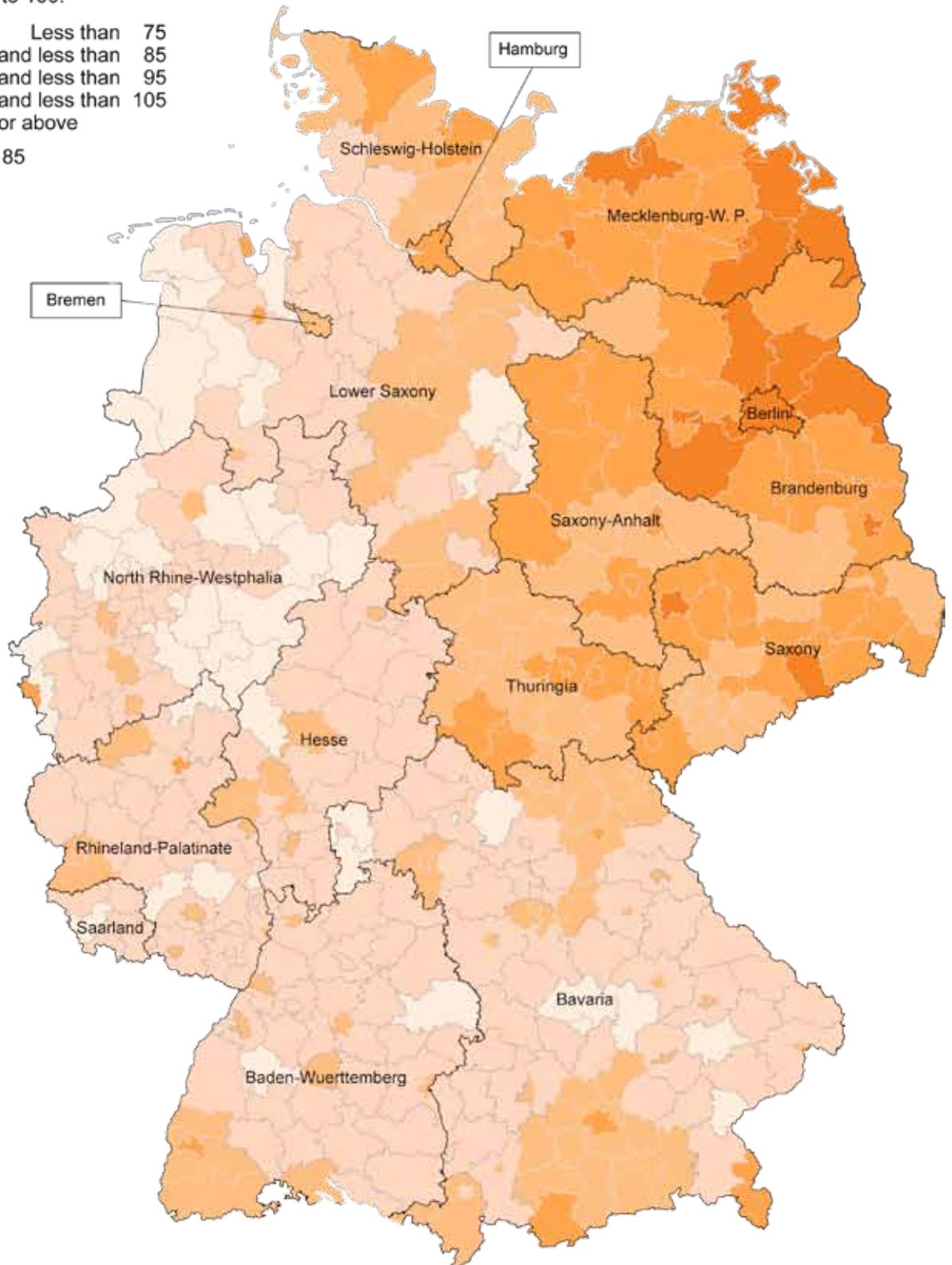


## Employment rate 2007, by administrative district/municipality

Index: Employment rate for women  
when employment rate for men  
set equal to 100.

Lightest orange	Less than 75
Light orange	75 and less than 85
Medium orange	85 and less than 95
Dark orange	95 and less than 105
Darkest orange	105 or above

Average: 85



## 3.2 Part time employees who pay compulsory social insurance contributions

### Indicator description

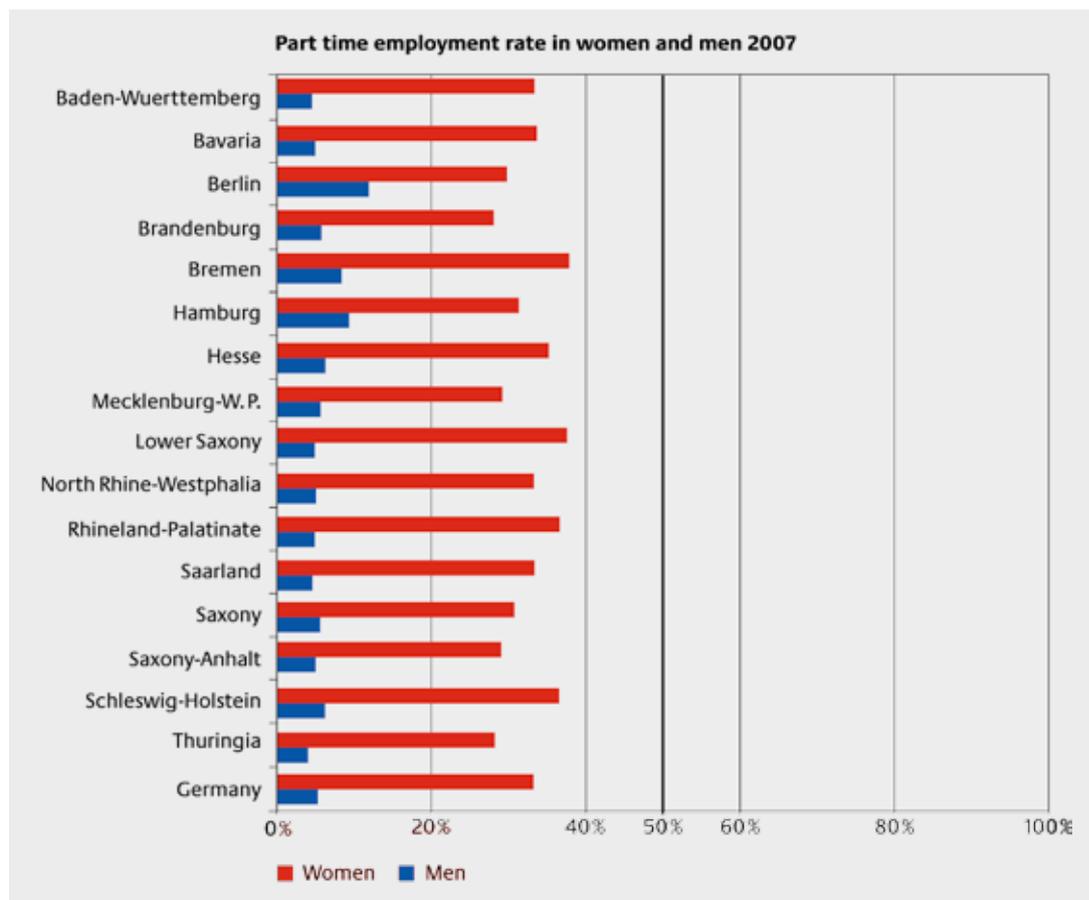
**Definition:** Percentage of women and men working part time relative to all compulsorily insured women and men (part time rates).

**Methodological note:** Low-paid workers (minijobs), civil servants, the self-employed, and unpaid family members were not included in the survey.

**Source:** Employment statistics published by the Federal Employment Agency 2007.

This indicator shows the considerable gender-specific differences in part time work. It points to:

- I Part time work as typically a women's domain (modified breadwinner model with the wife earning pin-money).
- I Women bear most responsibility for raising children and/or caring for dependent family members.
- I Unfavourable employment trends and career opportunities for women, which could also be due to part time jobs.

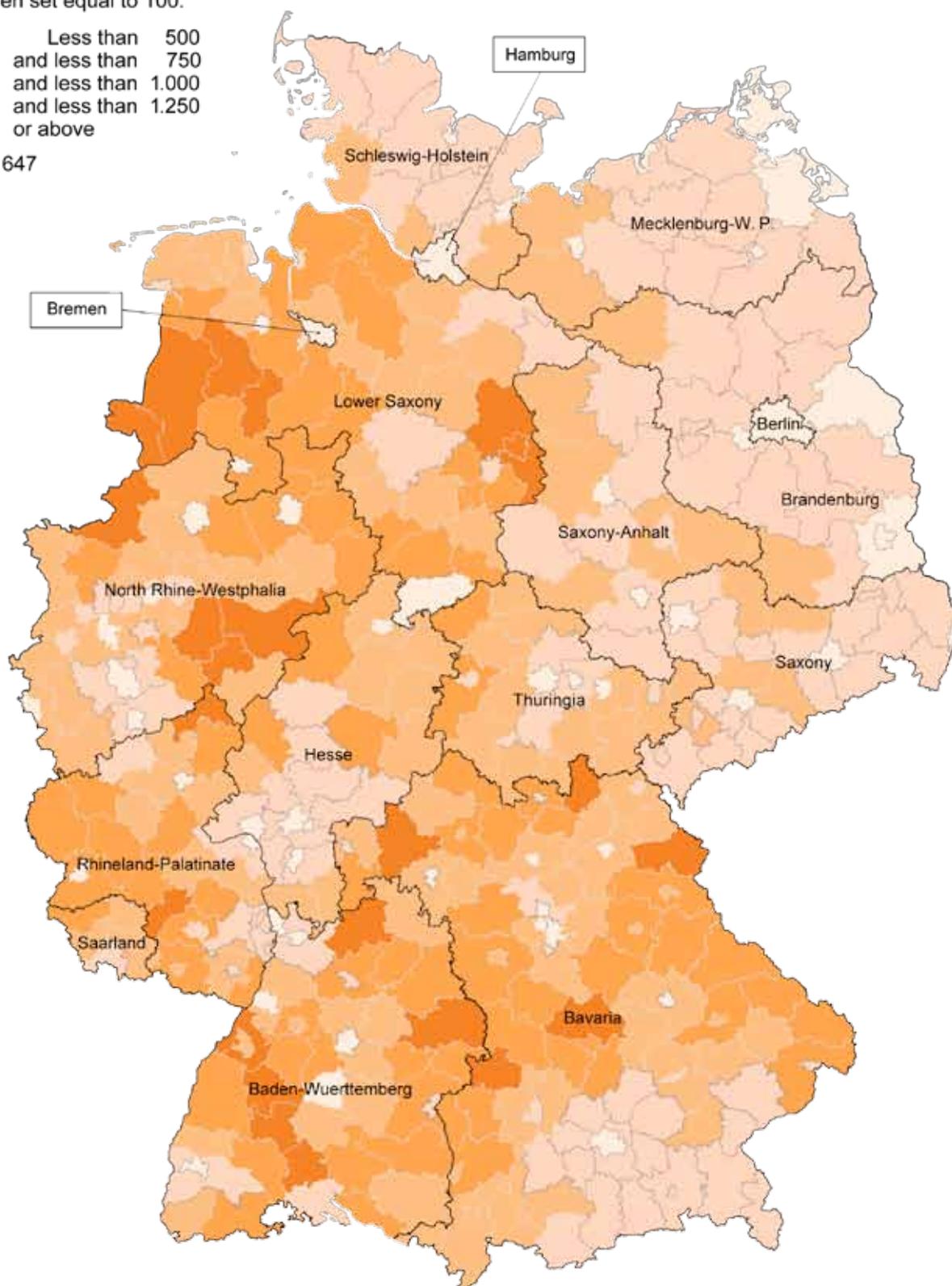


## Part time employment rate in women and men 2007, by administrative district/municipality

Index: Part time employment rate for women when part time employment rate for men set equal to 100.

- Less than 500
- 500 and less than 750
- 750 and less than 1.000
- 1.000 and less than 1.250
- 1.250 or above

Average: 647



### 3.3 Working women and men with children under three

#### Indicator description

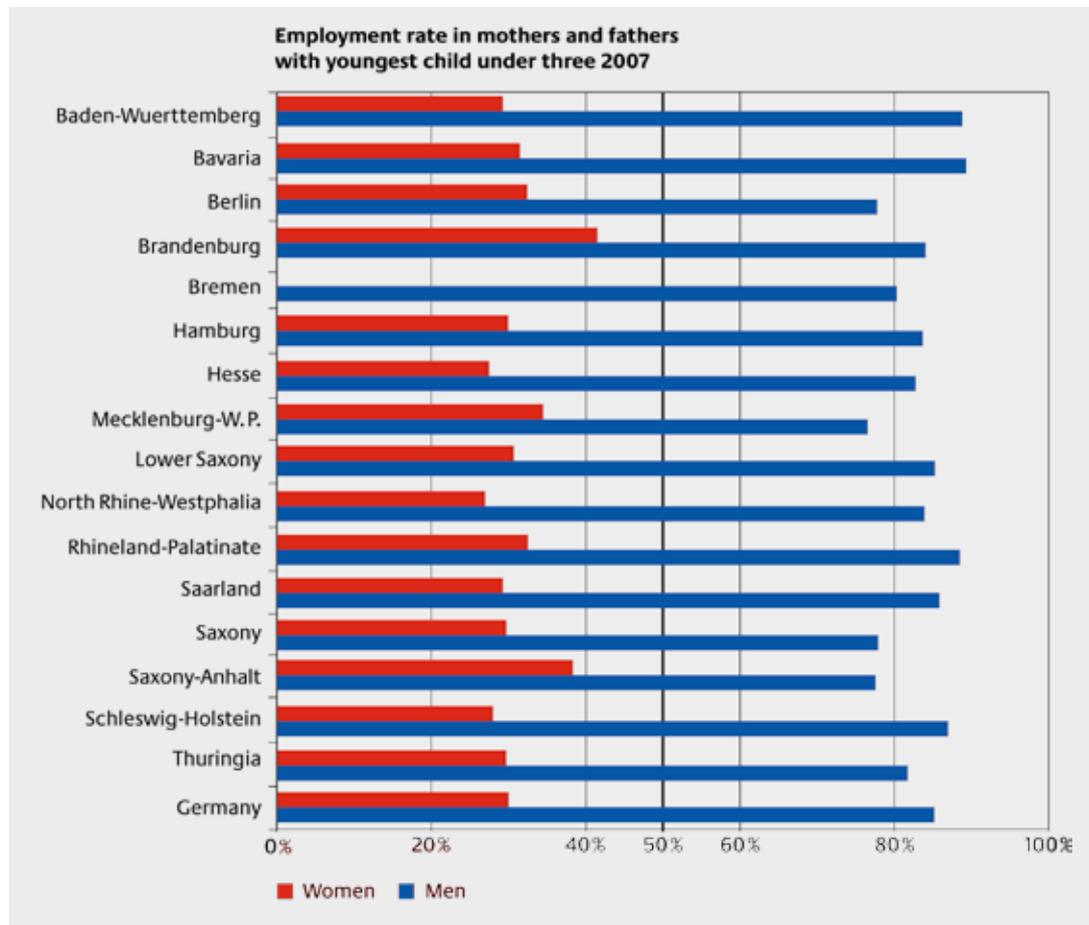
**Definition:** Percentage of mothers and fathers aged 15 to 64 whose youngest child is under three, and who go to work compared with all parents in this age group with a youngest child under three.

**Methodological note:** The survey covered solely actively employed mothers and fathers aged 15 to 64 with one or more children under three. Parents on parental leave were not covered.

**Source:** Microcensus (annual average 2007).

This indicator points to:

- I Employment choices made by mothers and fathers with small children.
- I Conditions that allow reconciliation of work and family life (including caring for a dependent relative).
- I The predominant family model and social trends.



The bar chart illustrates that caring for small children largely remains the mother's responsibility, and that significantly more mothers than fathers choose not to go to work. When looked at as a whole, there is evidence of an East-West divide. The number of working mothers in Eastern Germany tends to be higher than in the West. Note on Bremen: for statistical and methodological reasons no figures on working women are available.

## Employment rate in mothers and fathers with youngest child under three 2007

Index: Employment rate for women when employment rate for men set equal to 100.

- Less than 34
- 34 and less than 36
- 36 and less than 38
- 38 or above

Average: 35 %



No information on Bremen for statistical methodology reasons.

### 3.4 Parental benefit recipients

#### Indicator description

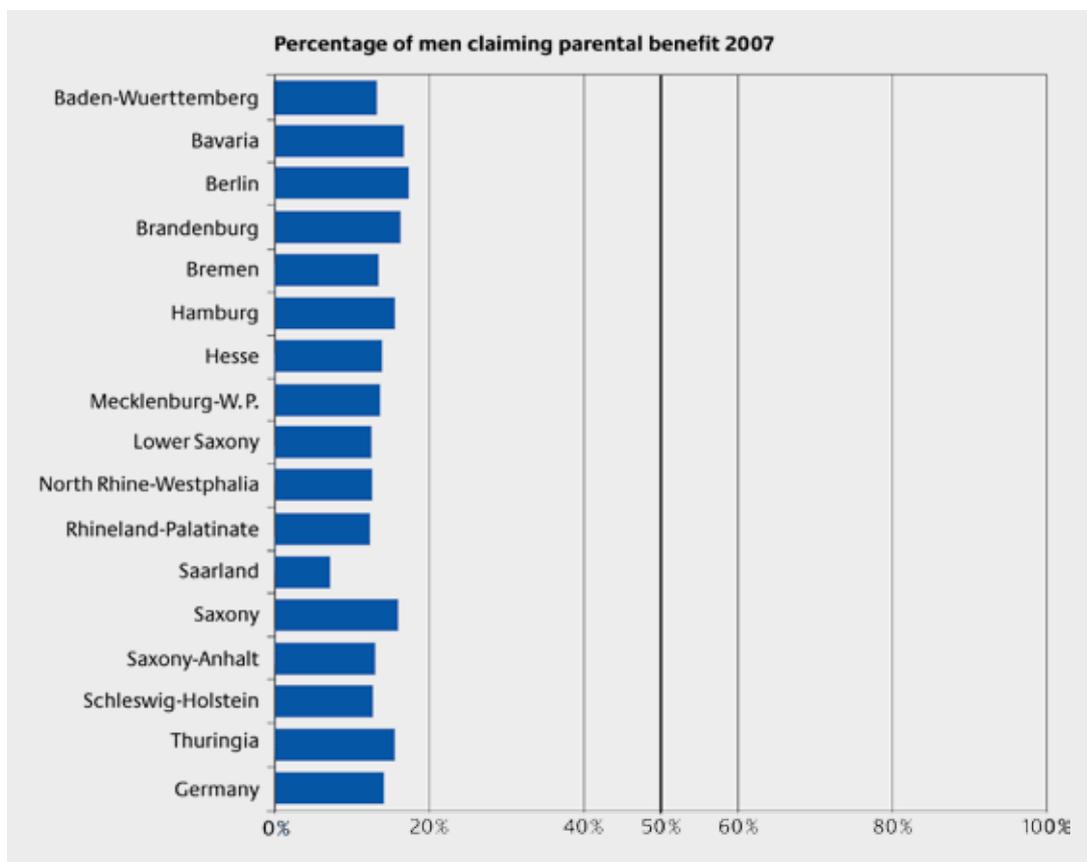
**Definition:** Percentage of men among parental benefit applicants.

**Methodological notes:** The survey covers all applications for parental benefit for births (and adoptions) in 2007.

**Source:** Federal statistics on parental benefit 2007.

This indicator points to:

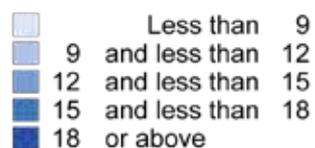
- | The current situation and trends in young fathers' attitudes to employment and family.
- | The break down of role models/gender-specific stereotypes.
- | Social and business acceptance of modern fathers.



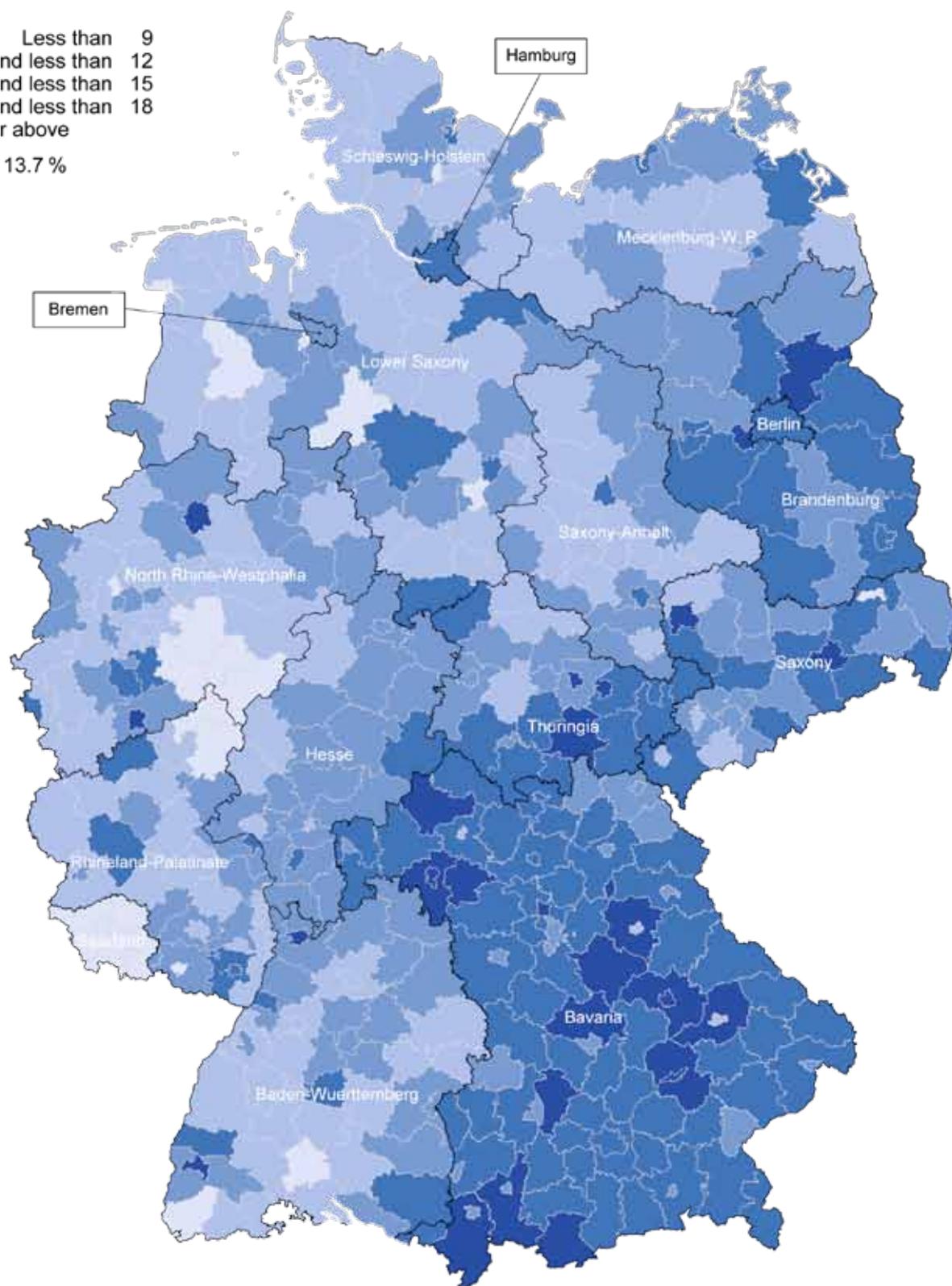
In the 438 districts and free cities, including Berlin, Bremen and Hamburg, the percentage of fathers among parental benefit applicants lies at 13.7%. The range spans from under five percent to over 20%. The state-specific averages show differences in the number of fathers among parental benefit applicants, ranging from 12.0% to 17.1%.

## Percentage of men claiming parental benefit 2007, by administrative district/municipality

Men (%)



Average: 13.7 %



### 3.5 Childcare

#### Indicator description

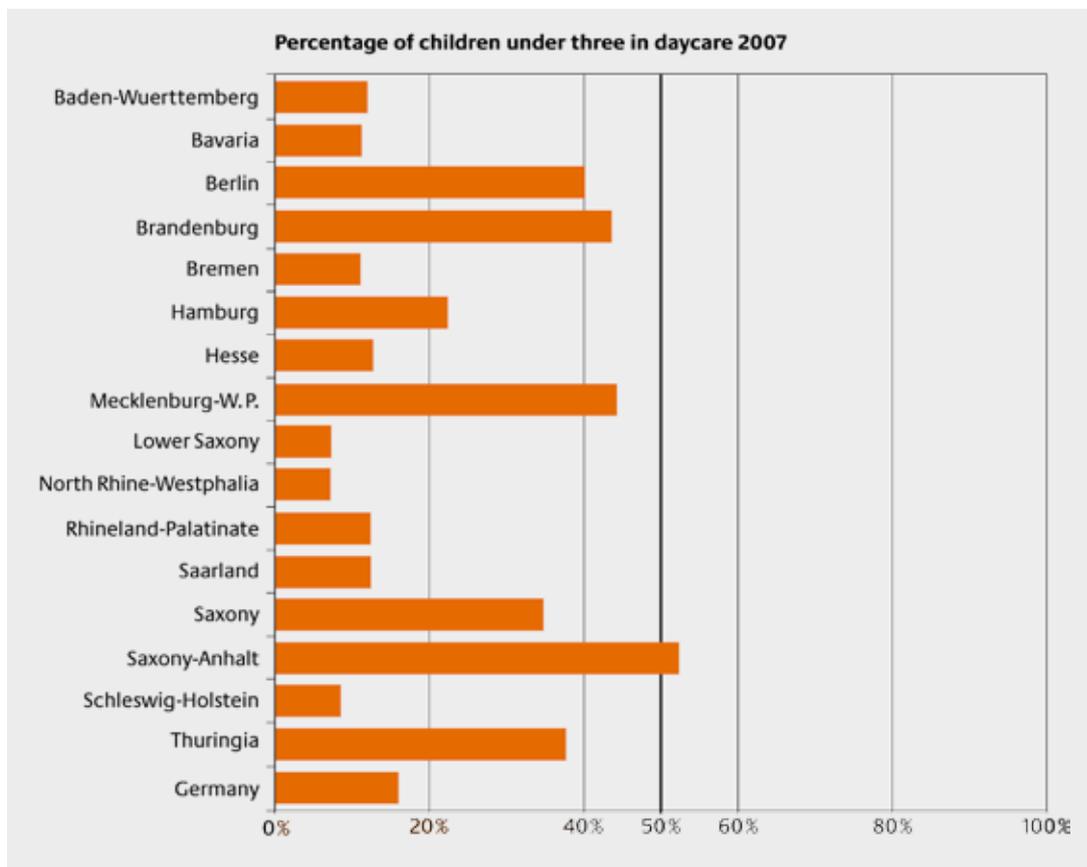
**Definition:** Percentage of children under three who are cared for in childcare institutions (daycare centres or with childminders) among all children in this age group.

**Methodological notes:** Childcare institutions and services as defined by this indicator include crèches (for children under three), mixed-age nursery schools, and daycare centres. The figures cover the number of children in daycare.

**Source:** Statistics on children and staff in daycare centres, and children and carers in publicly funded child-minding services 2007.

This indicator points to:

- I The current situation and trends that aid reconciliation of work and family life (including caring for dependent relatives).
- I The actual freedom to choose between care within the family and childcare in crèches, mixed-age nursery groups or daycare.



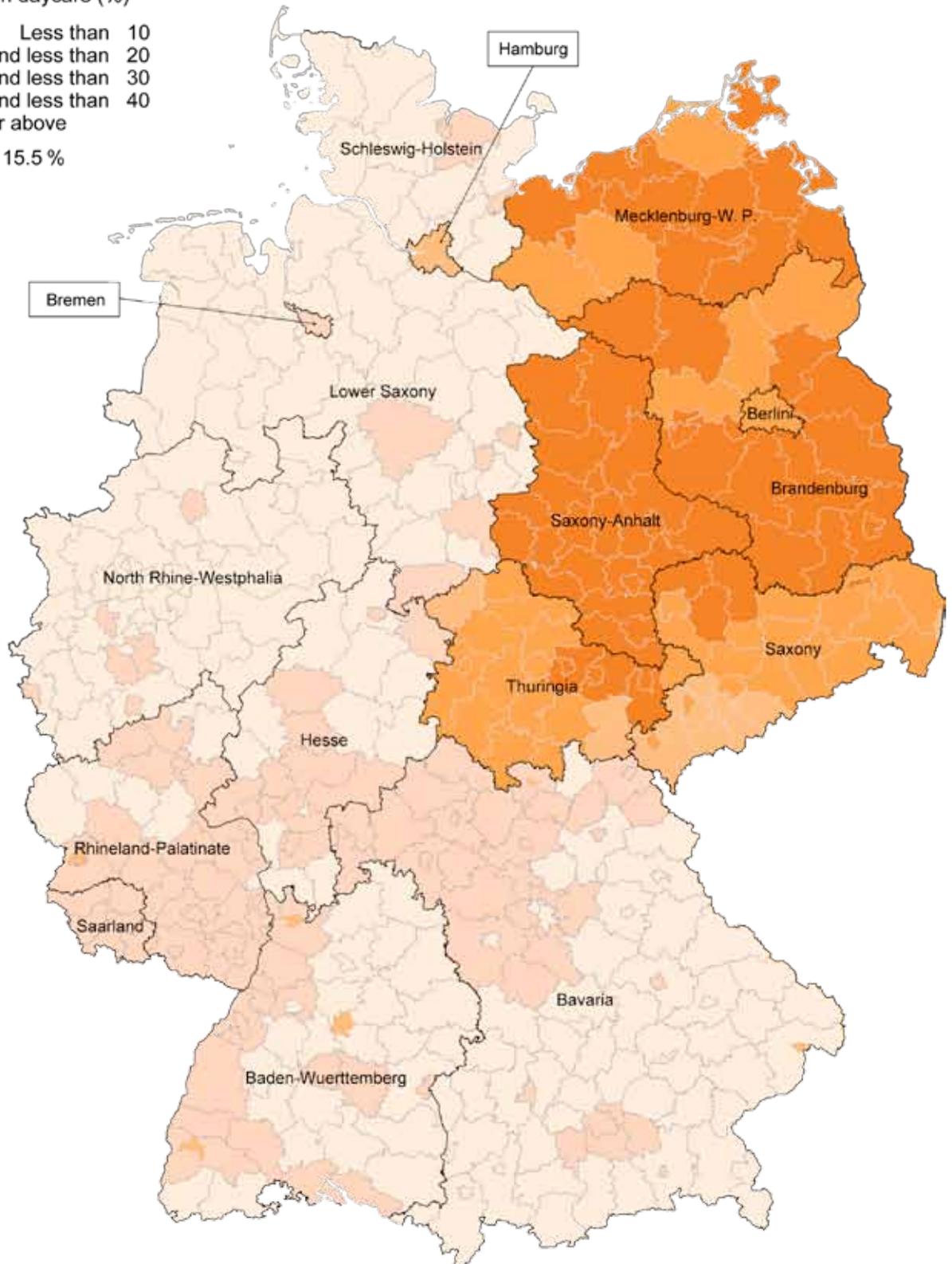
In the districts and free cities, childcare rates lie between 2.2 and 58.5%. In the German states, the range spans between 6.9% and 51.8%. The national average is 15.5%.

## Percentage of children under three in daycare 2007, by administrative district/municipality

Children in daycare (%)

- Less than 10
- 10 and less than 20
- 20 and less than 30
- 30 and less than 40
- 40 or above

Average: 15.5 %



### 3.6 Unemployment among women and men (unemployment rate)

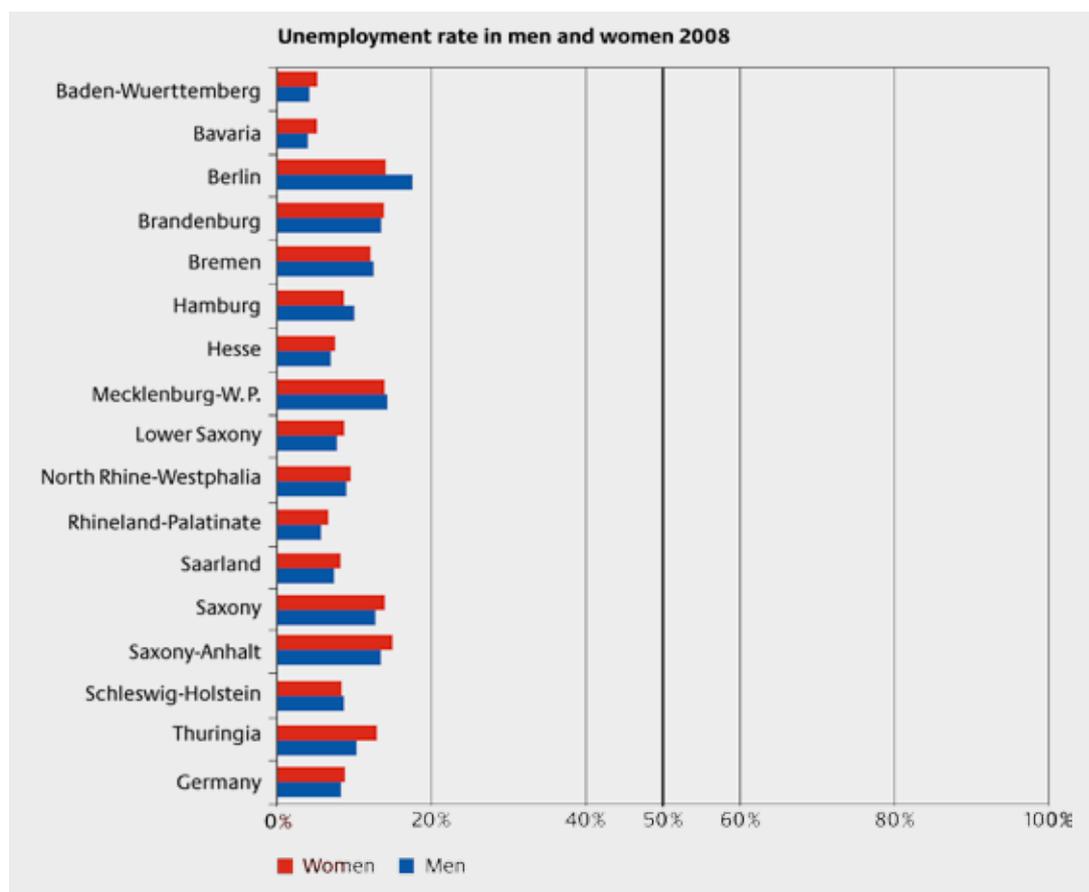
#### Indicator description

**Definition:** Percentage of unemployed people among civilian employees, segregated by gender.

**Methodological notes:** Unemployed refers to anyone without a job (less than 15 hours a week), seeking work, available for work and registered as unemployed with either a job centre or a provider of basic benefits for job seekers. Civilian employees include unemployed persons, compulsorily insured employees, low-paid workers, and civil servants, but not members of the armed forces. To calculate the figures for civilian employees, statistics from various sources are used (employment statistics, unemployment and labour promotion statistics, personnel statistics, and the microcensus). The gender-specific differences cannot be interpreted directly as differences in employment opportunities, because non-working women who want to work are more likely than men to leave the job market without registering as unemployed and are thus not included in the unemployment statistics.

**Source:** Unemployment statistics published by the Federal Employment Agency in September 2008.

The unemployment figures serve as a key indicator for how the job market is assessed. The separate figures for women and men provide references for gender-specific differences in the employment market.

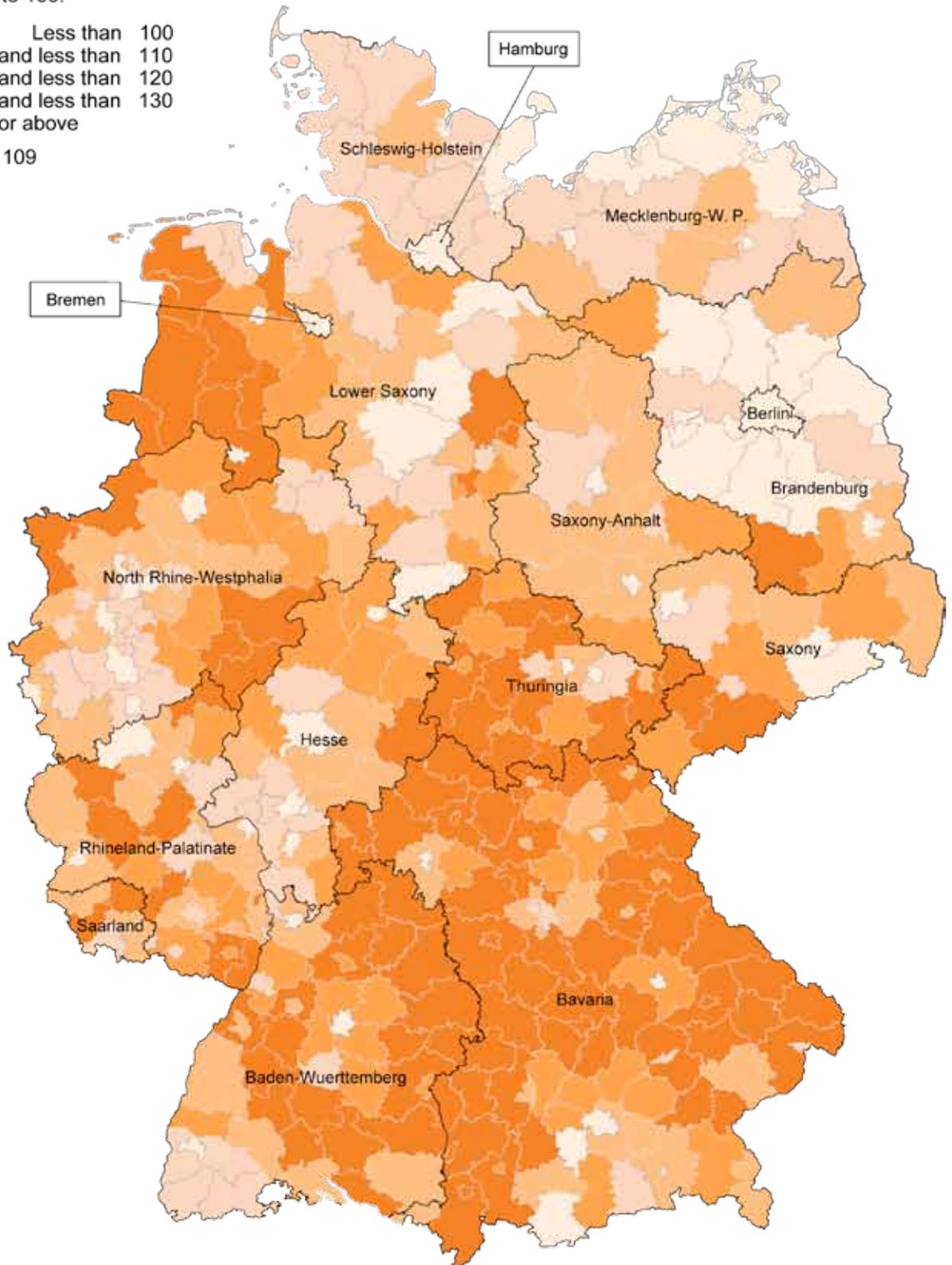


## Unemployment rate in men and women 2008, by administrative district/municipality

Index: Unemployment rate for women  
when unemployment rate for men  
set equal to 100.

- Less than 100
- 100 and less than 110
- 110 and less than 120
- 120 and less than 130
- 130 or above

Average: 109



### 3.7 Long-term unemployment among women and men

#### Indicator description

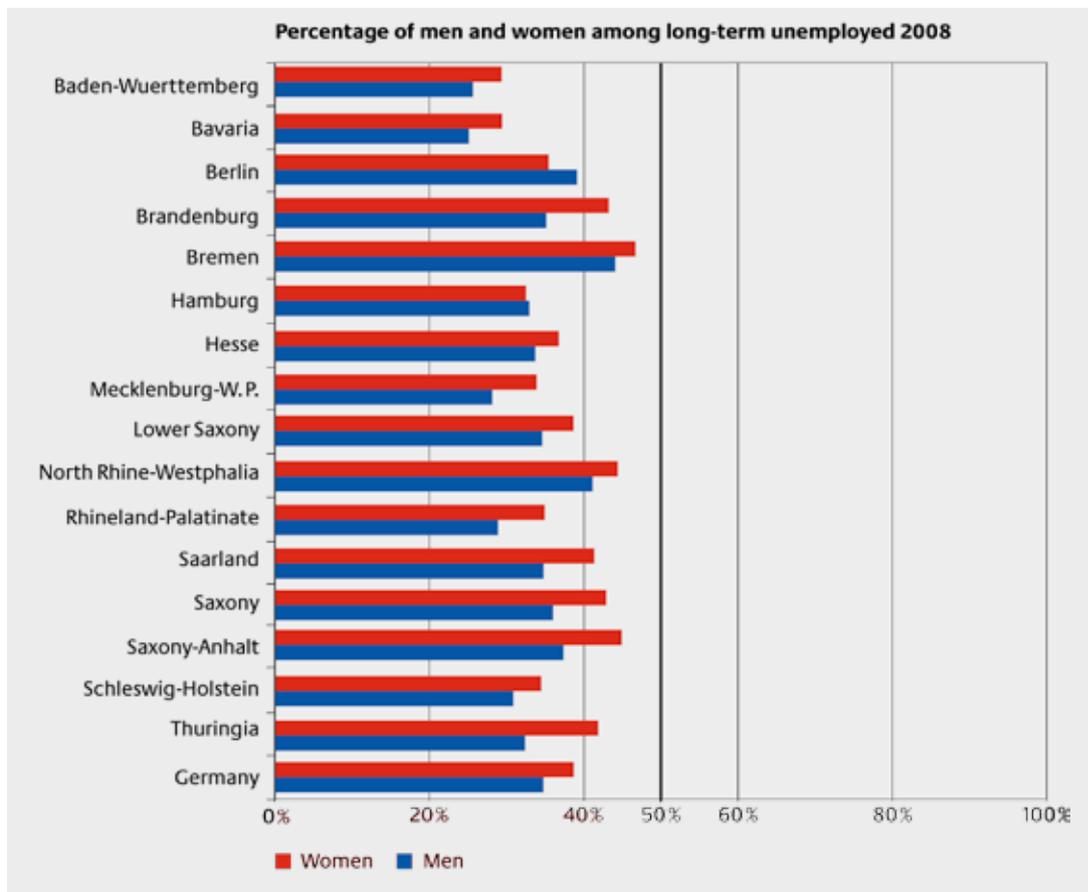
**Definition:** Percentage of long-term unemployed among unemployed people, segregated by gender.

**Methodological notes:** Unemployed refers to anyone without a job (less than 15 hours a week), seeking work, available for work and registered as unemployed with either a job centre or a basic benefits for job seekers provider. Long-term unemployed refers to women and men who have been unemployed for longer than 12 months. The gender-specific differences cannot be interpreted directly as differences in employment opportunities, because non-working women who want to work are more likely than men to leave the job market without registering as unemployed and are thus not included in the unemployment statistics.

**Source:** Unemployment statistics published by the Federal Employment Agency in September 2008.

This indicator points to:

- | Gender-specific differences in reintegration into the job market following unemployment.
- | Potential barriers to re-entering the job market.
- | Varying potential risk of poverty for women and men, particularly poverty in later life.

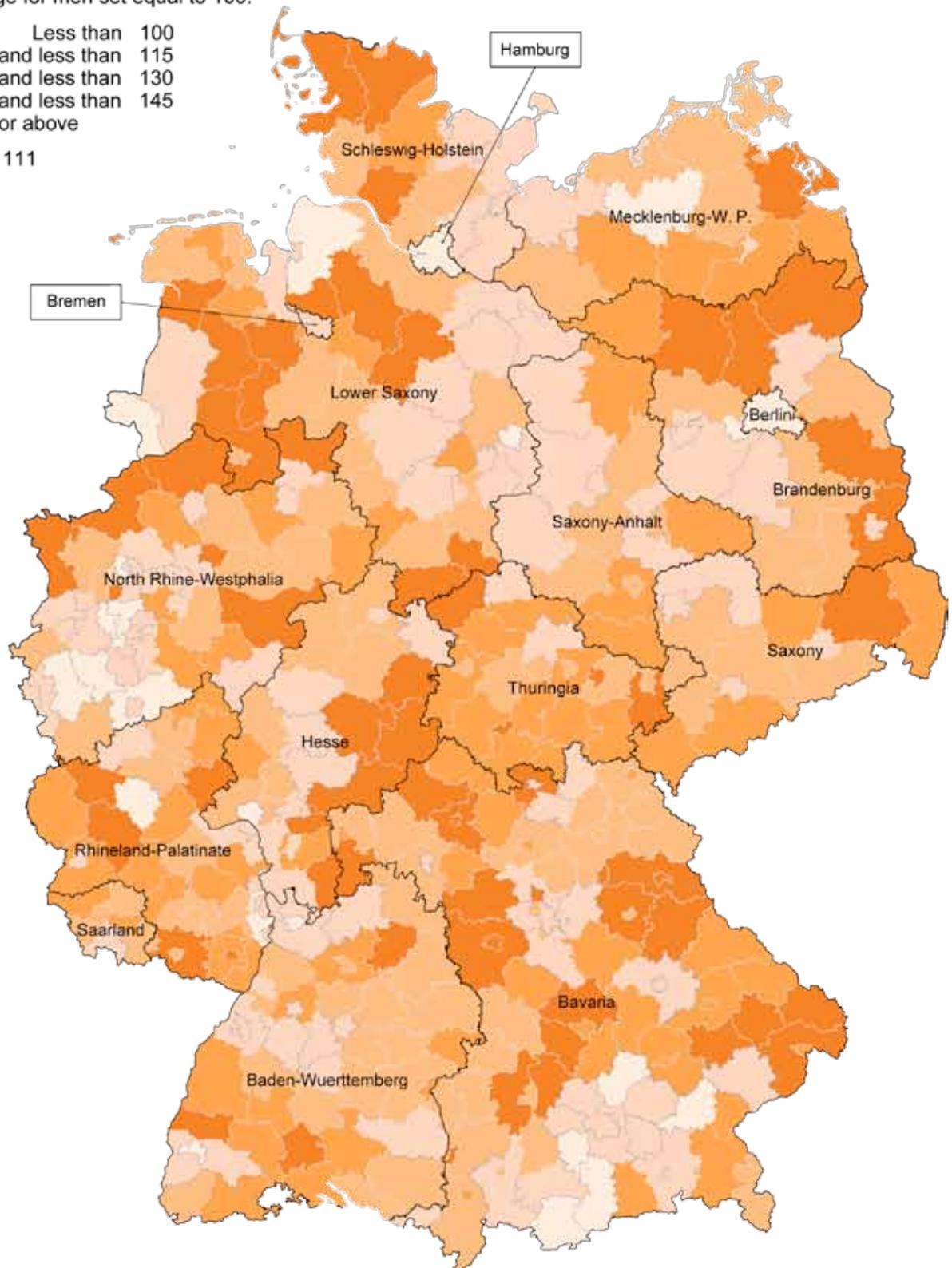


## Percentage of women among long-term unemployed 2008, by administrative district/municipality

Index: Percentage of long-term unemployed among unemployed women when equivalent percentage for men set equal to 100.

	Less than 100
	100 and less than 115
	115 and less than 130
	130 and less than 145
	145 or above

Average: 111



### 3.8 The gender pay gap

#### Indicator description

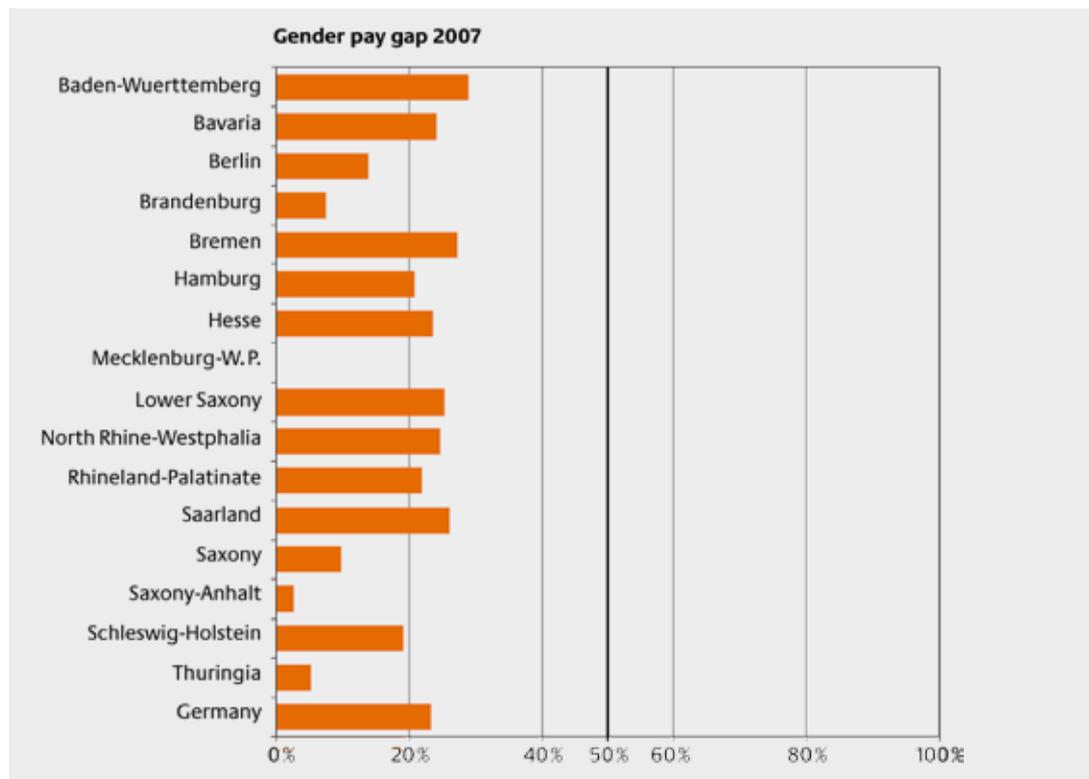
**Definition:** The difference in percent between the average gross hourly pay for women and for men (gender pay gap, or GPG).

**Methodological notes:** These representative statistics cover the number of full time, part time and low-paid workers, their paid working hours (excluding low-paid workers), and their gross total income. Civil servants are not included. The results provide an insight into the gross hourly pay earned by workers in the production and services sectors.

**Source:** Quarterly income survey 2007.

This indicator shows the difference between the average pay earned by women and men (gender pay gap, or GPG). The reasons for this gap could include:

- | The differences in the distribution of women and men among the performance groups.
- | Lower collective wage rates in typical women's occupations (known as pin-money jobs).
- | Lower incomes in sectors and businesses which typically employ women.
- | Different forms of employment (from full time to part time, etc.)
- | Discontinuous employment profiles.
- | Fewer opportunities for upward mobility (the glass ceiling).



The national pay gap average is 23.0%. In a state comparison, the range in pay differences in 2007 spanned from 2% to 28%.

## Gender pay gap 2007

Gender pay gap (%)

- Less than 10
- 10 and less than 20
- 20 and less than 25
- 25 or above

Average: 23 %



Average figures on part time and full time employment are not available for Mecklenburg-Western Pomerania.

### 3.9 Business start-ups

#### Indicator description

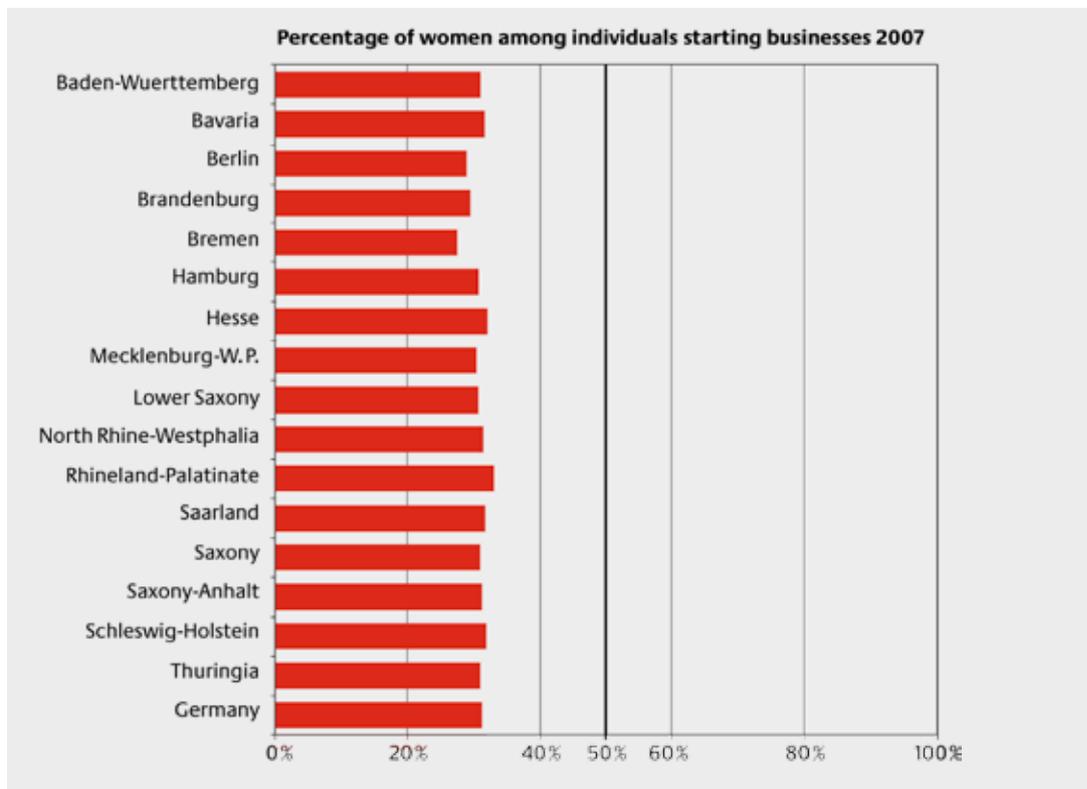
**Definition:** The percentage of women in the overall number of people involved in related business start-ups (founders).

**Methodological notes:** The reliability of this indicator is limited because the business is not always taken up in all cases in which a start-up is reported. Start-up founders in sectors not covered by the German Commercial Code are not included (e.g. unregulated professions, manufacturing, administering private assets).

**Source:** Official commercial statistics 2007.

This indicator shows the number of women in business start-ups. It points to:

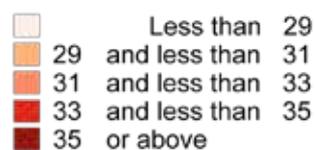
- | Women's readiness and courage in starting up a business.
- | Target group specific consultancy services.
- | Target group specific need for support.
- | Influencing factors in founding a business conditions (e. g. economic situation, unemployment).



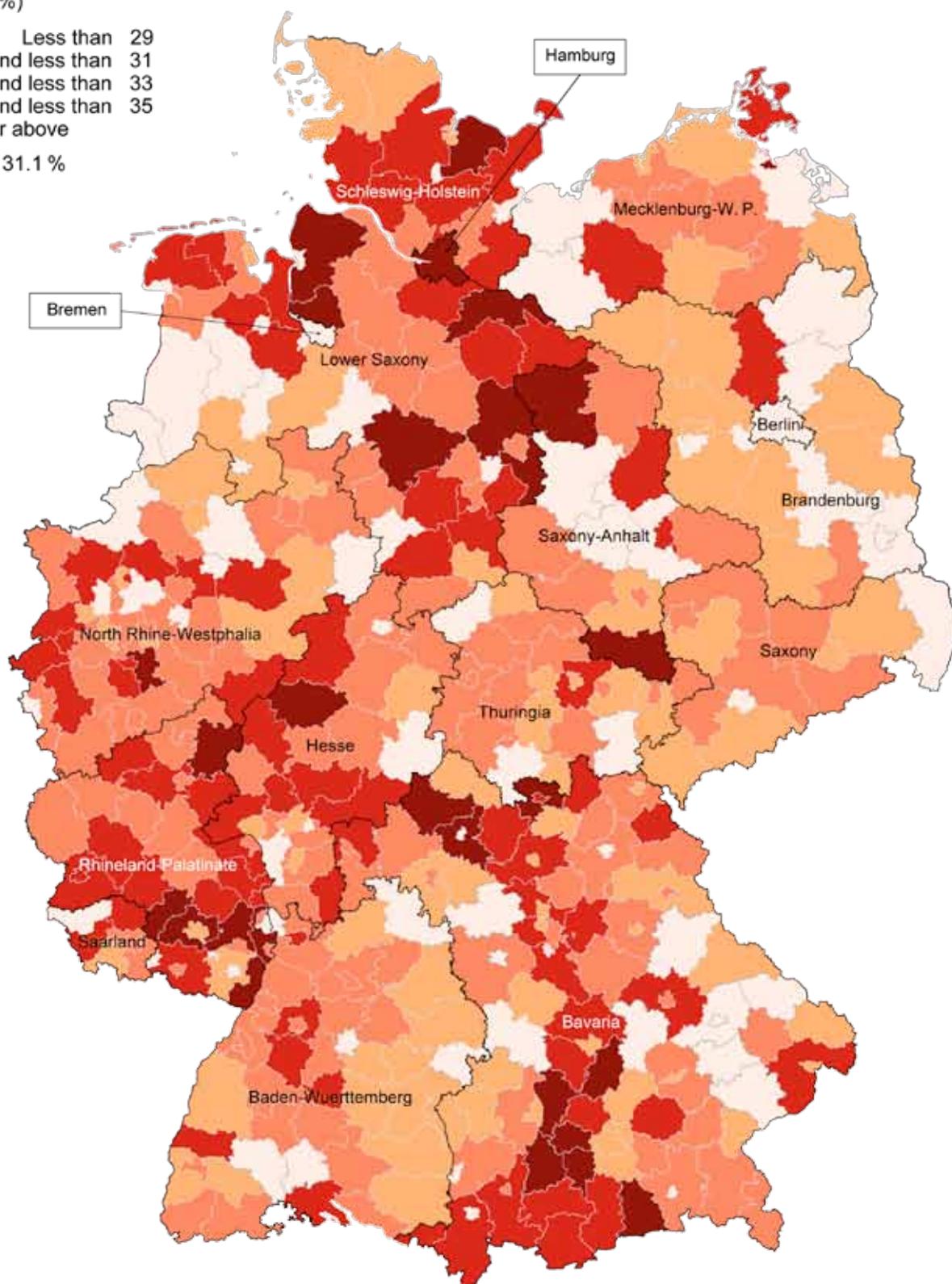
Of the 768,970 individuals who registered a business, 239,045 were women. The percentage of women in the national average lies as 31.1%. In a state comparison, the range spans from 27.5% to 32.9%.

## Percentage of women among individuals starting businesses 2007, by administrative district/municipality

Women (%)



Average: 31.1 %



## IV.

### Personal circumstances

There are surprisingly few statistics available for use in creating indicators for this category. Particularly as regards the issue of violence against women, there are no valid data available. The quality of life for women and men takes in physical and mental wellbeing.

As indicators, the living conditions and everyday circumstances of people in old age and their life expectancy rate are used. Significant gender-specific differences are evident for both indicators.

Most elderly women live alone. This is mainly due to the high life expectancy rates for women and the social norm that the male partner in a couple is older than the female. As a result, women are far more reliant on professional help when they need care.

Life expectancy is one of the few sets of statistics that have long been segregated by gender. The debate on the causes has been in progress equally as long. On the one hand, the reasons for male excess mortality are put down to biological factors (genetic and hormonal differences), while on the other hand, behavioural and environmental influences are cited. In a study, “Mortalitätsdifferenzen der Geschlechter”, also known as the “Klosterstudie”, (The Gender Mortality Gap – the cloister study) by Marc Luy (see [www.klosterstudie.de](http://www.klosterstudie.de)), it was shown that the biological factors are the cause of a marginal survival advantage for women of about a year’s more life expectancy in young adult age. Life expectancy is thus largely driven by factors that can be influenced, such as the social and economic situation, educational level, and personal lifestyle.

## 4.1 Older people in singles households

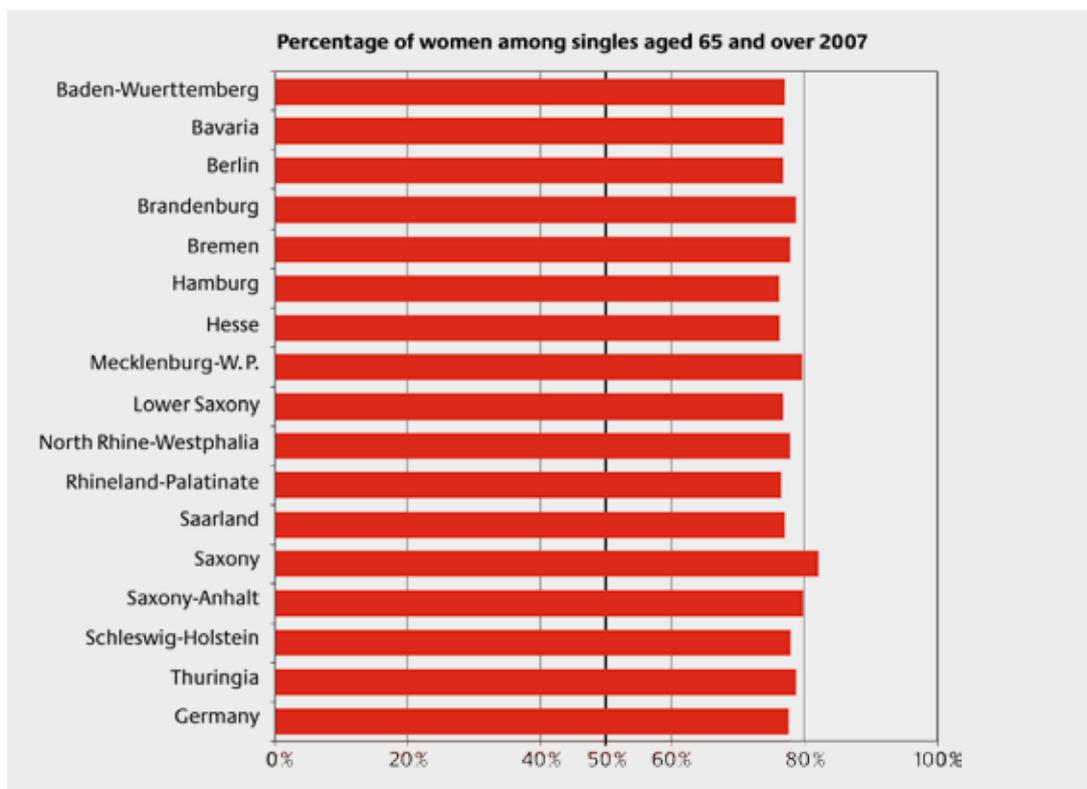
### Indicator description

**Definition:** Percentage of women among singles aged 65 and over.

**Source:** Microcensus 2007.

This indicator points to:

- | The typical situation for older women.
- | The need for support and help in old age.
- | The need to foster social contacts.



The national average for single women aged 65 and over is 77.3% (2007). In a state comparison, the range spans from 75.8% and 81.7%.

## 4.2 Life expectancy

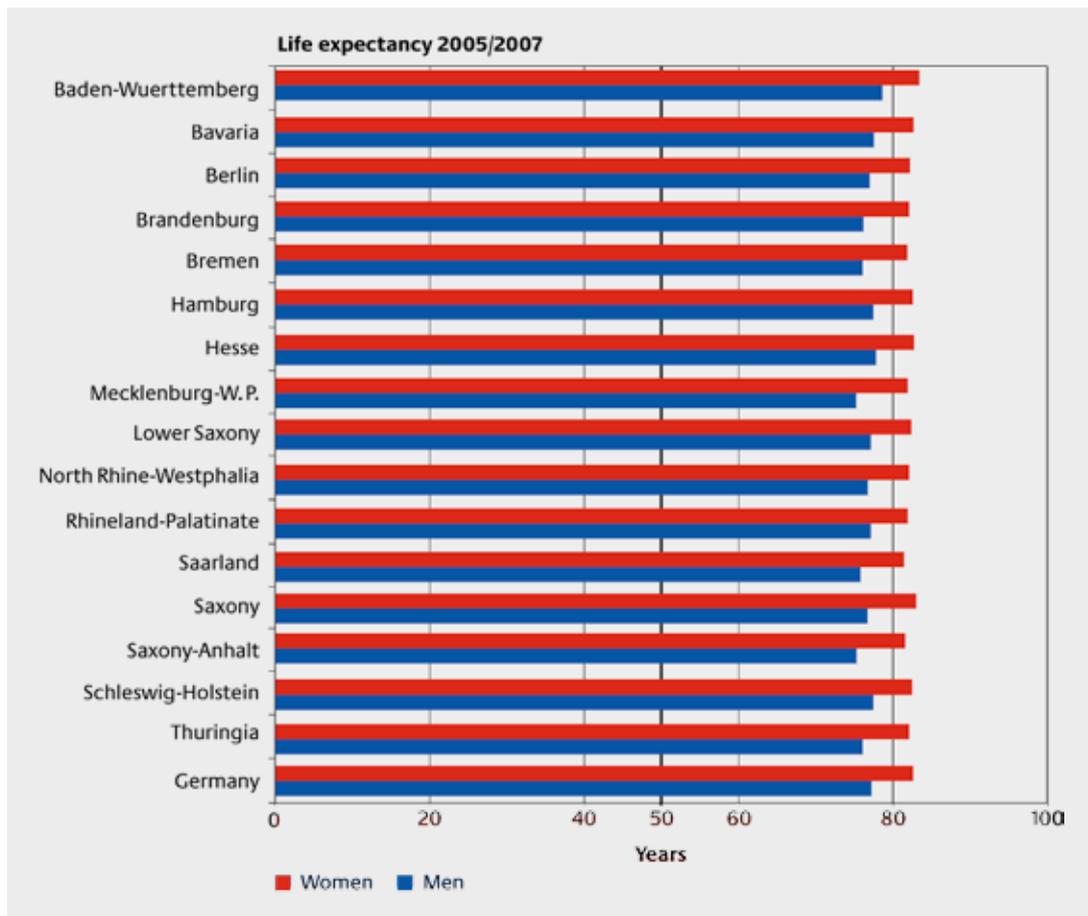
### Indicator description

**Definition:** Average life expectancy of women and men at birth.

**Source:** Mortality tables (periodic mortality rates); statistics on natural population shifts and population growth (2005/2007).

This indicator shows the differences between women's and men's average life expectancy at birth. It points to:

- | Lost years among men due to gender-oriented role models.
- | Higher risk-related behaviour.
- | Inadequate eating habits.
- | Fatal road, air and rail accidents.
- | Work-related stress.
- | Poorer preventive healthcare.



The national average for life expectancy in 2005/2007 was 82.3 years for women and 76.9 years for men. In a state comparison, the range spans for women from 81.0 years to 83.2 years. For men, it ranges from 74.9 years to 78.3 years.

## Comments and Outlook

The indicators are designed to sensitise regional actors and highlight the need for action. Given the regional differences in sociocultural conditions and the many structural influences, the indicators are suited in only a limited way as a measure on which to test the effectiveness of gender equality policy measures.

The ‘career choice: healthcare sector professions’ and ‘career choice: technical apprenticeship jobs’ indicators were not used because they take in too large a group of different occupations and thus weaken specific equality-related findings. If the Atlas is produced again in the future, attempts should be made to use these indicators in a suitable form.

It has been shown that a range of indicators whose use would have been desirable from a specialist standpoint cannot be used with existing statistics. For example, the microcensus cannot be used to evaluate statistics at district level (indicators 3.3 and 4.1). For indicator 3.3, the microcensus does not allow a state result for Bremen due to statistical and methodological reasons.

Also, official statistics contain no reliable data on the issues of violence against women and domestic violence. These statistics are collected in the German states by the respective Ministries’ departments using differing definitions and categories. This makes it difficult to compare them. The European Union intends to develop indicators with which the extent of violence against women can be illustrated. Once these indicators are available, a check must be made as to whether they can be used in any future edition of the Gender Equality Atlas.

Statistical comments, e.g. on differing data resources in the various German states, can be found in the methodological notes on individual indicators.



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Publikationsversand der Bundesregierung  
Postfach 48 10 09  
18132 Rostock  
Tel.: 0 18 05/77 80 90\*  
Fax: 0 18 05/77 80 94\*  
Telephone service for the deaf: [gebaerdentelefon@sip.bundesregierung.de](mailto:gebaerdentelefon@sip.bundesregierung.de)  
E-Mail: [publikationen@bundesregierung.de](mailto:publikationen@bundesregierung.de)  
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