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Article

Women Managers: Enormous Deficit in Large Companies and Employer's Associations

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Women Managers: Enormous Deficit in Large Companies and Employers' Associations

Elke Holst

Across Europe, there are much fewer women than men employed in executive positions. On European average, only 10% of the members of the highest decision-making bodies in the top 50 publicly quoted companies are women. However, the situation varies substantially from country to country. The European countries with the highest shares of women managers are Slovenia and Latvia, at 22% each, while the country with the worst record is Italy, at 2%. Germany, with a 10% share of women managers, is in the middle of the ranking order. However, the picture in Germany becomes less favourable when the figures for enterprises and associations are examined separately. For example, women occupy only 1% of the seats on the boards of management and 8% of the seats on the supervisory boards of Germany's 87 largest 'old economy' joint-stock companies. The situation is more favourable in the workers' representative bodies and the professional associations, where women account for between one fifth and one quarter of the executives – a figure that is still far removed from parity, however. Even under the broader definition of specialist and managerial staff in all areas of white-collar and public-service employment, the share of women is still less than one third, although women account for 45% of total employment in these areas.

The German business sector's agreement of 2001 with the German government to commit itself to voluntarily promoting equal opportunity for women and men in the private sector has had very little impact to date at managerial level. Substantial effort is still required if this situation is to improve.

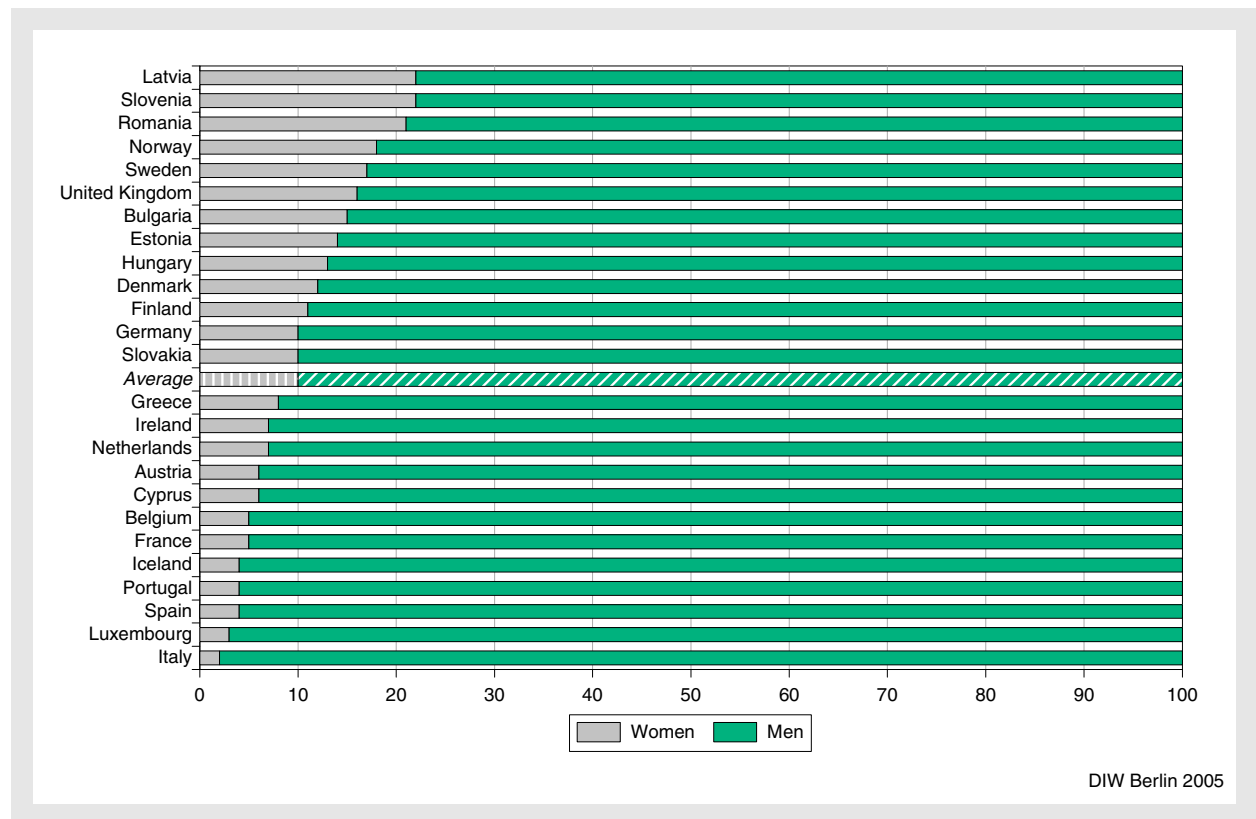
European countries in comparison

There are much fewer women in important decision-making positions than men throughout Europe, but the size of the imbalance varies from country to country. According to a study of the top 50 publicly quoted companies in 25 selected European countries (cf. figure 1),¹ the share of women in the highest decision-making bodies is particularly low in the private sector. In

Figure 1

Members (Excluding Presidents) of the Highest Decision-Making Bodies in the Top 50 Publicly Quoted Companies,¹ a European Comparison, 2003

(%)



¹ The top 50 companies are defined as those quoted on the national stock exchange with the highest market capitalisation. Market capitalisation is defined as the market price of an entire company, which is calculated by multiplying the number of shares in issue by the share price.
Source: European Commission: 'Women and Men in Decision-Making', www.europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/women_men_stats/out/measures_out438_en.htm; figures data as at March 2004.

2003, on average only one executive position in ten was occupied by a woman in Europe (as in Germany). Only 2% of managing directors and company presidents were women. Women were members of the highest decision-making bodies most frequently in the eastern European countries of Slovenia and Latvia (both 22%) and Romania (21%). The shares in Norway (18%), Sweden (17%) and the United Kingdom (16%) also significantly exceeded the average. France's large enterprises, by contrast, had only a 5% share of women in their top deci-

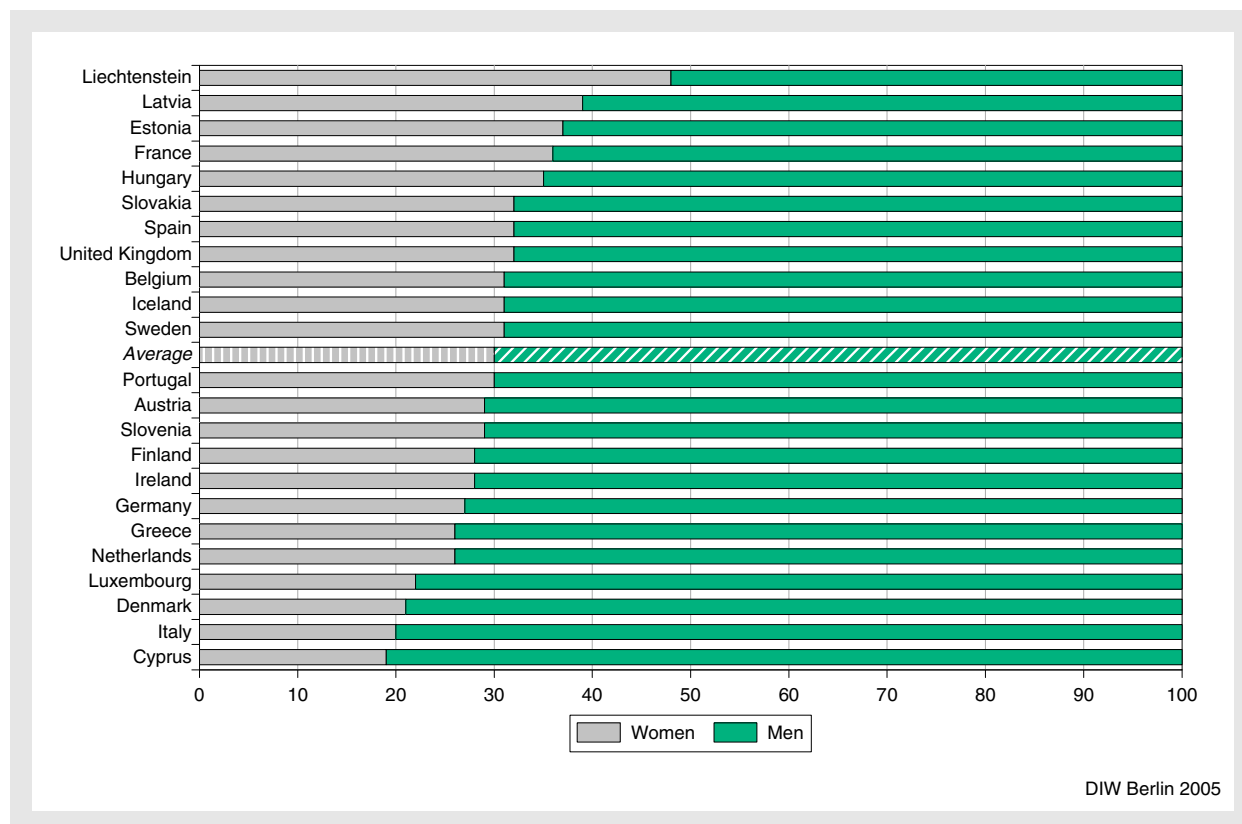
sion-making bodies. The southern European countries of Spain and Portugal (both 4%) and Italy (only 2%), had the lowest rate. The share of the labour force accounted for by women in the latter countries deviates far less from the average: it is relatively high in Portugal, at 45%, while Spain and Italy, at 38% each, have the lowest shares in Europe.

The EU Labour Force Survey collects data on the occupational status of a sample of the total labour force in European countries. This definition also takes account of male and female managers in smaller firms and of technical executives.² Under this definition, the share of women in managerial positions amounts to around 30% (cf. figure 2), and the results are less diver-

¹ This survey was launched in 2003. The top 50 companies are defined as those quoted on the national stock exchange with the highest market capitalisation. Market capitalisation is defined as the market price of an entire company, which is calculated by multiplying the number of shares in issue by the share price. Surveys were carried out in all the EU member states except for Lithuania, Malta, Poland and the Czech Republic, and additionally in Bulgaria, Iceland, Norway and Romania. For definitions, cf. European Commission: 'Women and Men in Decision-Making' (www.europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/women_men_stats/defcon_en.htm#top).

² Directors and chief executives, production and operating managers, other specialist managers and managers of small enterprises, International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO), categories 12 and 13.

Figure 2
Women and Men in Managerial Positions¹ in Europe
 (%)



¹ Persons categorised as directors and chief executives, production and operating managers, other specialist managers and managers of small enterprises (ISCO International Standard Classification of Occupations, categories 12 and 13).
 Source: European Commission: 'Women and Men in Decision-Making', www.europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/women_men_stats/out/measures_out4311_en.htm; data as at March 2004.

sified across the different countries. Germany is still positioned in the middle to lower half of the table at 27%. By contrast, the Baltic countries Latvia and Estonia, as well as France, are well above the average at 36% to 39%. The lowest shares of women are found in Denmark (21%) and – not unexpectedly – in Italy (20%) and Cyprus (19%).

It appears that the strongest efforts to redress the imbalance between the sexes are currently being made by the European Commission. It is on the latter's initiative that the Council of Ministers has passed numerous agreements obliging the member states to implement national measures promoting parity between women and men.³

A high share of women government ministers might be helpful in pushing forward the implementation of

these agreements. While women are also under-represented in national governments, the imbalance is less severe than in the private sector. Thus, women account for 24% of all ministers in Europe's national governments. The countries with the worst records in this respect are Italy and Cyprus (both 9%), Greece (6%) and Slovakia (which has no female ministers at all). German women who account for 46% of government ministers, are very well represented at government level compared to other European women after Swedish (52%) and Finnish and Spanish women (both 47%).⁴

By signing the Amsterdam Treaty,⁵ Germany committed itself to implementing the EU Council of Minis-

³ Cf. Overview of Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality (2001-2005): www.europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/equ_opp/strategy/3_1_en.html.

⁴ Cf. European Commission: 'Women and Men in Decision-Making'. Data as at September 2004 (www.europa.eu.int/comm/employment_social/women_men_stats/out/measures_out416_en.htm).

⁵ Treaty of Amsterdam amending the Treaty on European Union, the Treaties establishing the European Communities and certain related acts. Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. Luxembourg 1997.

ters directives on equal treatment in employment.⁶ The recent draft anti-discrimination law focusing on employment and occupation implements four EU directives.⁷

These developments could have significant implications for the personnel policies of companies.⁸ The German government had already passed a law in 2001 on the enforcement of equal treatment in the Federal Administration,⁹ which was intended to promote women's prospects of employment and promotion. A similar law has not been introduced in the private sector, but the top employers' associations in German industry made a commitment to the German government to promote parity of opportunity for women and men in companies.¹⁰ Under the terms of the agreement, the commitment must be assessed every two years.

Women in managerial positions in Germany's enterprises and employers' associations

In order to gain a preliminary picture of the situation, the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth has launched a project on women's representation in German politics, industry and large associations.¹¹ The results from the last quarter of 2002 show that women are still seriously under-represented in all areas (cf. table 1). In Germany's 87 largest old-economy enterprises (measured by employee figures),¹² women occupied only 8% of the total of 1 446 positions on the supervisory boards¹³ and 1% of the available

seats on the boards of management. The largest old-economy company in Germany with a woman on the board of management is Merck AG (a pharmaceutical concern with around 34 300 employees), which is the 41st largest enterprise in the sample. This company, which has three women on its ten-strong board of management, also took first place amongst the old-economy companies for the number of women on one of its highest decision-making boards. In the 49 new-economy companies surveyed,¹⁴ women only accounted for 4% of the members of the supervisory boards and boards of management. In Germany's 44 largest private enterprises,¹⁵ the 19 women found in the three bodies listed (boards of management, supervisory boards and boards of directors) occupied 5% of all the available positions. The 180 old-economy, new-economy and other private enterprises covered by the survey represent 6.7 million employees, which corresponds to more than one fifth of the entire labour force.

Women are no better represented at managerial level in Germany's employers' associations than they are in business enterprises. The share of women on the boards of management and boards of directors of the workers' associations and professional associations, by contrast, proved to be much higher. In the 32 trade unions surveyed, almost one fifth of the highest decision-making positions were occupied by women, and the share was actually somewhat higher in some of the professional associations and associations of liberal professionals and self-employed. The share of women on the boards of

⁶ Council Directive 2000/78/EC Establishing a General Framework for Equal Treatment in Employment and Occupation was passed on 27 November 2000; cf. *Official Journal of the European Communities*, L 303/16 EN of 2 December 2000. Directives are European framework laws that are implemented via national laws in the individual member states.

⁷ Framework Directive 2000/78/EC of 27 November 2000, the amended Equal Treatment Directive 2002/73/EC of 23 September 2002, the Directive on Equal Treatment between Men and Women of 13 December 2004 (Council Document 14438/04) and the Anti-racism Directive 2000/43/EC of 29 June 2000. Cf. for details Federal Ministry of Justice: 'Presentation of draft antidiscrimination law' (www.bmj.bund.de/enid/2d8a6a24f17c3c3d641940f1900f09ff/0/qi.html); for a draft law on implementing European anti-discrimination directives drawn up by the parliamentary parties of the Social Democratic Party and Alliance 90/The Greens, cf.: www.spdfraktion.de/rs_datei/0,,4395,00.pdf.

⁸ In certain circumstances, for example, the burden of proof of discrimination has been reversed, so that the employer must prove that the unequal treatment was admissible. Male and female employees and job applicants who believe they have been disadvantaged on grounds of gender can sue firms for damages, and class actions by associations are also possible. Also cf. Cordula Tutt: 'Gesetz zwingt Firmen zu neuer Personalpolitik'. In: *Financial Times Deutschland* of 15 December 2004, p. 9 (www.ftd.de/pw/de/1102756022094.html).

⁹ Law on enforcement of equal treatment for women and men (Equal Opportunities Enforcement Act, *Gleichstellungsdurchsetzungsgesetz*), Bundestag Records 813/01, 2001.

¹⁰ Agreement of 2 July 2001 between the German government and the main employers' associations in German industry to promote parity of opportunity between women and men in the private sector (www.bundesregierung.de/dokumente/artikel/ix_47142.htm).

¹¹ The related data is researched, elaborated and released on the Internet at the FrauenComputerZentrumBerlin (Women's Computer Centre Berlin). Cf. www.db-decision.de/wid%2002/index_d.htm.

¹² These 87 old-economy enterprises account for almost five million employees. The enterprises surveyed range from Siemens AG (electronics and technology), which has almost half a million employees, to the Neue Eurohypo AG bank, which has 770 employees.

¹³ The majority of the women on the supervisory boards are likely to be employee representatives.

¹⁴ The new-economy companies surveyed employ almost 45 500 persons in all; enterprises range from Mobilcom AG (telecommunications, 4 925 employees) to Internolix AG (computers, 47 employees) and Adori AG (Internet, 5 employees).

¹⁵ Over 1.7 million people work in these enterprises, which include Robert Bosch (electronics, 218 377 employees), Aldi Einkauf GmbH (retail, 200 000 employees) and Alfred Töpfer (grain trade, 750 employees). The definition of decision-making bodies is not always easy because very few of the enterprises have all three types of body listed. In addition, the data provided is often incomplete.

Table 1

Women in Managerial Positions in Enterprises, Workers' and Employers' Associations, and Voluntary Welfare Organisations in Germany¹

	Number of institutions	Women ...					
		on supervisory board		on board of management ²		on board of directors	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Largest enterprises (by number of employees)							
Old-economy joint-stock companies	87	116	8	7	1		
New-economy joint-stock companies	49	9	4	6	4		
Private enterprises ³	44	16	7	1	1	2	3
Employers' associations							
Employers	12			3	2	1	4
Chambers	8			2	2	3	20
Workers' representative bodies and professional associations							
Trade unions	32			68	19	10	19
Professional associations (including associate members of board of directors)	41			69	22	12	24
Associations of liberal professionals and self-employed	17			23	17	5	26
Voluntary welfare organisations	14			33	24	7	15

¹ Survey carried out in fourth quarter of 2002. — ² Including executive boards. — ³ Individual data on enterprises were not always available. Some enterprises had only two of the three decision-making bodies, while a few enterprises provided no data on the bodies listed. A total of 19 women were reported to be members of one of the three bodies, in other words they occupy 5% of all the positions available.

Sources: Women's Computer Centre Berlin on behalf of the Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth (www.db-decision.de/wid%2002/Verb%4nde/Intro_D.html). Data as at January/February 2003; presentation by DIW Berlin.

directors of voluntary welfare organisations was 15%, while almost a quarter of the members of the boards of management were women.

Women professors in Germany

There are also much fewer female than male professors in German academia (cf. table 2). The share of women employed full time at German universities under Pay Plan C (professors and assistant professors) amounted to a total of 13.8% in 2003. Women occupied only 924 (8%) of the 11 514 posts in the highest salary bracket, C4. By contrast, the share of women in the lowest salary bracket, C1 (usually assistant professors), was 24.4%. All in all, the share of full-time women subject to Pay Plan C has increased slightly (+1.5%) since 2000. However, the share of women employed part-time under Pay Plan C fell over the same period from 41.4% to 34.2%. All in all, women accounted for 447 of the 1306 part-time positions covered by Pay Plan C in 2003. Evidently, the difficult labour market situation is rendering part-time university jobs in this salary group increasingly attractive for men.

Socio-demographic structure of specialist and executive employees in Germany

The Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP) (cf. box), a longitudinal survey carried out by the DIW Berlin in collaboration with Infratest Social Research Institute, provides a detailed picture of the current situation and the socio-demographic trend for women and men employed in specialist and managerial positions ('senior positions') in Germany. The sample examined here is not entirely comparable with the group of male and female managers studied in the EU Labour Force Survey because the two surveys are not identical and because the SOEP uses a broader definition for the category concerned.

In 2003, over 3.8 million men and almost 1.7 million women (extrapolated figures) were working as white-collar employees or civil servants in specialist and managerial positions, which corresponded to just under a quarter of all employees.¹⁶ Of those, almost one tenth were charged with extensive managerial responsibilities.

¹⁶ White-collar employees, civil servants and blue-collar employees; not including apprentices and family workers.

Table 2

Female University Personnel Subject to Pay Plan C by Salary Brackets, 2000 and 2003

	Number		Share of women (%)	
	2000	2003	2000	2003
Full-time employees	42 897	43 451	12.3	13.8
C4	11 316	11 514	6.8	8.0
C3	14 502	14 593	10.2	12.1
C2	8 979	8 490	12.9	15.1
C1	8 100	7 548	23.0	24.4
Part-time employees	686	1 306	41.4	34.2

Source: Federal Statistical Office (ed.): 'Finanzen und Steuern. Personal des öffentlichen Dienstes'. Series 14, Issue 6.

ties, e.g. as directors, managing directors or members of the boards of management of large companies and associations (cf. table 3). Almost 1.2 million of the specialists and managers were employed in the public service (this category includes grammar school teachers). Senior civil servants accounted in total for one tenth of all senior-level employees. Women accounted for 31% of all specialist and managerial staff. The share of women occu-

pying specialist and managerial positions has changed only insignificantly since 2000. The slight shift in favour of women shown in table 3 on the basis of weighted results is due to an increase in the share of highly qualified women, but not in those charged with extensive managerial responsibilities.

Further evaluations show that in 2003, too, the share of specialists and managers amongst working women was lower than that amongst men (12% against 25%). These shares amounted to 10% and 21%, respectively, in 2000. The increase in the share of men since 2000 can be seen in relation to the generally higher loss of employment amongst men, which particularly affected those in less skilled positions. There is a rising trend in the share of part-time employees amongst female respondents in senior positions, as is also the case amongst female employees overall (25% in 2003 as against 21% in 2000). By contrast, almost all men in senior positions are still full-time employees (97%).

Female specialists and managers more often single and childless

The average age of senior white-collar employees and civil servants was just over 43 in 2003; white-collar

Box

The Socio-Economic Panel

The Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP), a longitudinal survey that has been carried out since 1984 in western Germany and since 1990 (prior to monetary union) in eastern Germany by the DIW Berlin and Infratest Social Research Institute, questions respondents on an annual basis on their occupational status and income, inter alia.¹ The size of the representative sample has been increased repeatedly over the years; it was almost doubled in 2000, raising the number of respondents to over 24 000. As a result, meaningful information can now also be gleaned from more detailed analyses of smaller segments of the population – such as specialist and managerial employees.

For the purposes of this study, dependent employees in senior positions are defined as senior white-collar employees and civil servants who described themselves either as senior civil servants (including judges and career soldiers) or white-collar employees with higher-level qualifications or managerial functions. This category includes all civil servants from Pay Plan A13 upwards (in other words, grammar school teachers are also included), as well as scientific researchers, engineers

and department heads. White-collar employees with extensive managerial responsibilities were also categorised as senior employees. These include, for example, directors, managing directors and members of the boards of management of large companies and associations.²

Within the SOEP survey, a total of 1620 dependent employees in specialist and executive positions (including senior civil servants) were identified in 2003; these included 24 female and 123 male white-collar employees with extensive managerial responsibilities.

The DIW Berlin published an analysis of the structure and remuneration of employees in specialist and executive positions in 2000.³ These results are only partially comparable with those from 2003 in view of revisions to the weighting since 2000. The trend for managerial positions in some of the main areas was therefore recalculated using updated weighting factors from the 2003 data release.

¹ Cf. SOEP Group: 'The German Socio-Economic Panel (GSOEP) after more than 15 years – Overview'. In: Elke Holst, Dean R. Lillard and Thomas A. DiPrete (eds): 'Proceedings of the 2000 Fourth International Conference of German Socio-Economic Panel Study Users (GSOEP2000)'. In: *Vierteljahrshefte zur Wirtschaftsforschung*, vol. 70, no. 1, 2001, pp. 7-14.

² Employees and self-employed (including family workers), and apprentices and trainees are thus excluded from the analysis. There is only a very small number of female blue-collar workers in leadership positions (master craftswomen, forewomen, overseers) and there is therefore little sense in carrying out a gender-specific evaluation of this group.

³ Cf. Elke Holst: 'Too Few Women in Top Posts'. In: *DIW Economic Bulletin*, vol.40, no. 2, February 2003, pp. 65-70.

Table 3

Trend for Share of Women in Specialist and Managerial Positions, 2000 to 2003

	Women	Men	Total ¹		Share of women ¹		
	2003				2000	2003	Change 2000 vs. 2003
	Extrapolated to millions		Structure (%)		%		Percentage points
Total specialists and managers	1.7	3.8	5.5	100.0	28.6	30.6	2.0
Senior civil servants	0.2	0.4	0.6	10.3	26.3	26.3	0.0
White-collar employees							
Highly qualified	1.4	3.0	4.5	80.9	29.3	31.9	2.6
Extensive managerial responsibilities	0.1	0.4	0.5	8.8	25.2	23.8	−1.4
Public service	0.5	0.7	1.2	21.6	43.4	45.1	1.6
Other	1.0	2.6	3.5	64.0	24.2	27.0	2.8

¹ Calculation is based on unrounded original data; figures may not sum due to rounding.

Sources: SOEP 2000, 2003; Samples A-F (weighting factors from the 2003 SOEP Release; DIW Berlin calculations).

employees with extensive managerial responsibilities are over three years older, on average (cf. table 4). Women specialists and managers tend to be somewhat younger overall than their male counterparts. Only just over every fourth woman in a senior position is married, compared to 70% of the men. A third of all men, but only just over a quarter of all women, have children aged under 16 living in their household. Women working part time work around 29 hours a week. Men working full time report that they work an average 46 hours per week, compared to 40 hours for women.¹⁷

The majority of both women and men in specialist and managerial positions are well trained (having spent an average 15 years in training); four fifths work in the occupation for which they trained. Amongst young specialists and managers represented in the SOEP data base, the shares of women and men are identical. The share of women amongst 30 to 44-year-old specialists and managers amounts to only one third, while it is even lower (28%) amongst 45 to 59-year-olds. The sample included practically no women specialists and managers in the older age groups.

The high share of women in the younger age group might be taken as an indication that there will be more women specialists and managers in future. However, the lower shares of female specialists and managers in the older age groups also reflect the prevailing traditional division of labour in the household, which affects especially women in the family phase. The phase of life in which careers are launched is usually the same as that

in which children are born. In this care-intensive phase of family formation, women are generally responsible for the home and family, while men tend to intensify their breadwinner roles – in part to compensate for any loss in income incurred when the female partner leaves or reduces her employment. Once this division of responsibilities has been chosen early on, it is practically impossible to catch up on lost opportunities at a later date.

Most senior white-collar workers and civil servants in the sample have been employed by their companies for a substantial length of time – 11.4 years on average. As the analysis of the top jobs shows, it is particularly difficult for women to build a successful career in large enterprises. Only a quarter of women in senior positions, compared to a third of men, are employed in these firms. By contrast, 56% of the female specialists and managers work in companies with less than 200 employees, compared to 43% of the men. The public service offers the best opportunities for women: 42% of the women in managerial positions are employed here, compared to only 29% of the men. Less than a fifth of the women in manufacturing industry occupy senior positions, compared to over a third of the men.

Conclusion

Women are still severely under-represented in the highest decision-making positions in Germany, and especially so in the business sector. They account for only 1% of some categories, for example the members of the

¹⁷ Also cf. Karl Brenke: 'Dauer der Arbeitszeiten in Deutschland'. In: *Wochenbericht des DIW Berlin*, no. 47/2004, pp. 731-737.

Table 4

Socio-Demographic Structure of Civil Servants and White-Collar Employees in Specialist and Managerial Positions, 2003

	Total	Women	Men
Number of cases			
Total specialists and managers	1620	487	1133
Highly qualified	1473	463	1010
Extensive managerial responsibilities	147	24	123
%			
Total specialists and managers	100.0	30.6	69.4
Highly qualified	100.0	31.3	68.7
Extensive managerial responsibilities	100.0	23.8	76.2
Region			
Western Germany	100.0	28.6	71.4
Eastern Germany	100.0	41.9	58.1
Married	62.2	44.1	70.2
Child(ren) (aged under 16) in household	33.4	27.4	36.1
Age group			
Under 29	100.0	49.6	50.4
30 to 44	100.0	32.1	67.9
45 to 59	100.0	28.1	71.9
In years			
Age			
Average overall	43.4	41.1	44.4
Highly qualified	43.0	41.0	44.0
Extensive managerial responsibilities	46.7	42.7	48.0
Education	15.3	15.4	15.2
Length of service with employer	11.4	12.1	9.8
In hours			
Actual working time			
Full-time employees	44.0	40.1	45.7
Part-time employees	46.0	44.4	46.5
Part-time employees	28.3	28.8	26.7
%			
Volume of employment			
Full-time employees	90.2	75.5	96.6
Part-time employees	9.8	24.5	3.4
Overtime worked	68.2	60.9	71.4
Working in occupation for which trained	80.0	78.4	83.6
Size of enterprise			
Under 20 employees	16.4	20.7	14.5
20 to 199 employees	30.4	35.0	28.4
200 to 1999 employees	22.6	18.5	24.5
2000 and more employees	30.6	25.9	32.7
Public service	31.5	41.5	29.1
Civil servants	10.3	8.9	11.0
Business sector	99.6	99.8	99.4
Industry	29.4	18.6	34.2
Trade, hotels and catering, transport	12.8	15.7	11.4
Other services	57.4	65.5	53.8

Sources: SOEP; Samples A-F; DIW Berlin calculations.

boards of management of the 87 largest old-economy companies. All of the categories studied, and especially enterprises and employers associations, have a lot of catching up to do as regards integrating women into their management bodies. Even under the much broader definition of specialists and managers, the share of women still remains less than a third.

The German business sector's commitment – as agreed with the Federal Government in 2001 – to promote equal opportunity between women and men in the private sector stipulates that the degree to which the agreement is being implemented is to be assessed every two years (for the first time in 2003). The results presented here indicate that significant effort is still required if the situation is ever to be improved substantially.

Women who wish to pursue a successful career are forced to adapt to the norms determined by men in economic life. This is all the more true if they want to occupy top-level positions. Women who avoid a care-intensive family formation phase on their career path have a competitive advantage over mothers, especially those with young children. The study showed that women in senior positions are actually less frequently married than their male counterparts, and that they often have no children in their households – although these women (at 41) are on average over three years younger than the men in the same jobs.

There is universal agreement today that child-care facilities must be provided. These are just as essential as a new conception of the division of labour in private households. If the situation is to improve, companies must create the conditions that will allow reconciliation of work and family life.¹⁸ A strategy of this kind would also be to the benefit of companies themselves which, by retaining skilled workers, would be acting in their own interests.

¹⁸ Company agreements on reconciliation of work and family life might be a useful tool in this respect. However, there are very few programmes of this kind to date: only 8% of all the enterprises surveyed had company agreements on reconciliation of work and family life. Cf. Christina Klenner: 'WSI-Betriebsrätebefragung 2003 zur Vereinbarkeit von Familie und Beruf, zur Chancengleichheit und zur Beschäftigungssicherung. Erste Ergebnisse' (www.towards-power.de/dl/wsi-befragung.pdf); and Renate Schmidt and Gert G. Wagner: 'Der politische Gastkommentar – Mehr Rücksichtnahme auf Kinder'. In: *Handelsblatt* of 15 July 2004, p. 7.

Supplement: Economic Indicators
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(data as of 11 February 2005)

Germany – Selected Seasonally Adjusted Economic Indicators¹

		Orders in manufacturing (volume) ²																	
		Unemployment		Vacancies		Manufacturing						Intermediate goods industry		Capital goods industry		Durable consumer goods industry		Non-durable consumer goods industry (incl. semi-durable goods industry)	
						Abroad													
						Domestic													
		in 000s			month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	
2003	J	4 318		391		98.1		93.3		104.2		97.6		99.4		89.0		98.6	
	F	4 365	4 335	379	385	98.4	97.1	94.7	92.9	103.0	102.3	96.8	96.5	100.4	98.3	88.0	87.6	100.0	97.7
	M	4 391		372		94.6		90.6		99.7		95.0		95.2		85.8		94.4	
	A	4 407		365		96.9		92.7		102.2		96.2		98.4		86.9		96.6	
	M	4 400	4 398	353	359	93.2	95.8	91.7	92.5	94.9	99.9	93.8	95.4	93.1	97.0	84.0	84.7	95.8	96.8
	J	4 382		346		97.3		92.9		102.8		96.1		99.4		83.2		97.8	
	J	4 388		346		97.3		93.0		102.7		97.6		98.0		88.6		96.6	
	A	4 394	4 390	341	343	97.2	97.7	92.2	93.1	103.4	103.5	97.2	97.8	98.2	98.8	85.6	87.4	97.7	96.6
	S	4 396		337		98.7		94.2		104.2		98.5		100.2		87.9		95.5	
	O	4 396		332		99.6		94.9		105.5		100.0		100.5		89.0		98.3	
	N	4 389	4 388	328	330	99.8	100.1	95.7	94.8	104.9	106.7	100.6	100.6	101.1	101.3	87.0	87.9	95.5	97.2
	D	4 364		322		100.8		94.0		109.5		101.2		102.2		87.8		98.0	
2004	J	4 296		309		99.5		94.7		105.5		100.8		100.2		87.5		95.3	
	F	4 307	4 315	300	305	100.0	100.8	94.2	95.6	107.2	107.4	101.8	102.0	100.6	101.9	87.4	87.7	94.4	95.6
	M	4 320		288		103.0		97.7		109.5		103.4		104.9		88.4		97.1	
	A	4 334		278		103.2		97.1		110.9		104.5		104.3		88.3		99.0	
	M	4 342	4 338	284	282	107.4	104.3	98.7	97.3	118.4	113.2	107.8	105.6	109.6	105.6	90.8	89.4	100.9	98.8
	J	4 360		282		102.3		96.1		110.3		104.4		102.9		89.1		96.5	
	J	4 388		277		103.3		96.3		112.1		103.3		105.4		87.7		98.7	
	A	4 415	4 401	274	277	103.2	103.2	97.2	96.2	110.9	112.0	104.6	103.7	104.6	105.3	87.6	86.7	97.0	97.6
	S	4 438		276		103.1		95.3		113.0		103.1		105.8		84.9		97.1	
	O	4 453		279		102.8		96.0		111.4		101.8		106.4		83.7		96.7	
	N	4 474	4 470	280	280	101.9	103.3	94.9	96.6	110.6	111.6	101.3	101.3	104.3	107.4	85.0	84.3	99.5	98.2
	D	4 527		285		105.1		99.0		112.7		100.8		111.5		84.3		98.3	
2005	J	4 704		294															
	F																		
	M																		
	A																		
	M																		
	J																		
	J																		
	A																		
	S																		
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¹ Seasonally adjusted by the Berlin Method (BV4). With this method, the addition of new data can change previous seasonal adjustment patterns even if the original, unadjusted, figures remained unchanged. Quarterly figures are calculated from seasonally adjusted monthly figures. — ² Also adjusted for working days.
Sources: Federal Labour Office; Federal Statistical Office; DIW Berlin calculations.

Germany – Selected Seasonally Adjusted Economic Indicators¹ (continued)

	Manufacturing output ²														Retail trade turnover				Foreign trade (Special trade) ²					
	Employment in mining and manufacturing				Capital goods industry				Durable consumer goods industry				Non-durable consumer goods industry (incl. semi-durable goods industry)						Construction industries				Exports	
																	2000 = 100							
	in 000s		month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter	month	quarter				
2003	J	6 190	99.7	102.5	88.1	87.7	97.5	97.0	85.6	100.9	100.1	55.5	45.7	100.1	165.1	45.1	135.6							
	F	6 181	100.1	104.1	89.1	87.7	97.5	97.0	81.1	83.8	100.9	55.5	44.8											
	M	6 172	98.0	100.4	85.9	87.7	96.1	97.0	84.7	98.6	98.6	54.1	45.1											
	A	6 160	99.8	101.7	87.7	85.8	99.0	97.6	86.7	100.7	100.7	54.4	44.5											
	M	6 151	97.9	100.4	85.8	85.8	95.9	97.6	84.9	101.3	100.2	54.3	44.2											
	J	6 140	98.0	98.8	83.9	83.9	97.9	97.6	85.5	98.7	98.7	54.9	44.6											
	J	6 130	99.7	102.3	88.8	86.9	97.8	97.1	86.5	99.4	99.4	55.7	44.2											
	A	6 117	98.2	99.8	85.4	86.9	97.3	97.1	83.6	98.0	99.2	55.6	44.2											
	S	6 108	98.4	100.5	86.4	86.4	96.1	97.1	84.4	100.1	98.0	56.6	43.9											
	O	6 098	100.2	102.2	87.8	87.7	97.7	97.4	84.4	100.1	100.1	55.5	44.3											
	N	6 092	100.8	104.1	87.3	87.7	96.8	97.4	83.8	97.5	99.4	56.7	45.8											
	D	6 086	101.2	104.5	87.9	87.9	97.8	97.4	85.4	100.5	100.5	57.8	45.3											
2004	J	6 043	101.0	103.0	88.3	88.6	98.0	97.7	82.7	98.6	98.6	58.5	45.1	99.0	176.4	45.7	135.7							
	F	6 035	101.0	102.4	87.5	88.6	97.7	97.7	85.8	83.3	98.2	58.3	45.7											
	M	6 030	102.2	105.9	90.0	90.0	97.5	97.5	81.2	100.3	100.3	59.6	44.9											
	A	6 028	102.8	106.2	89.6	91.1	97.7	98.5	80.3	98.5	98.5	61.6	46.9											
	M	6 020	105.9	109.8	93.0	91.1	100.4	98.5	82.4	95.6	98.2	63.5	48.9											
	J	6 017	103.9	108.7	90.7	90.7	97.2	98.5	80.8	100.4	98.2	60.1	46.3											
	J	6 010	102.9	106.2	87.7	87.6	98.0	98.2	78.7	98.4	98.1	61.0	49.1											
	A	6 011	104.0	107.9	88.4	87.6	98.0	98.2	80.9	98.0	98.1	60.4	48.1											
	S	6 010	103.9	107.9	86.7	86.7	98.5	98.5	79.0	97.8	98.0	60.0	49.0											
	O	6 006	102.8	107.0	84.6	84.5	96.8	96.9	77.8	96.2	97.1	62.3	49.1											
	N	5 998	101.4	103.1	83.7	84.5	97.4	96.9	77.7	98.1	97.1	61.5	48.9											
	D		101.0	101.5	85.3	85.3	96.6	96.6	78.1	97.1	97.1	59.8	47.8											
2005	J													97.1	183.6	48.9	145.8							
	F																							
	M																							
	A																							
	M																							
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	J																							
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1 Seasonally adjusted by the Berlin Method (BV4). With this method, the addition of new data can change previous seasonal adjustment patterns even if the original, unadjusted, figures remained unchanged. Quarterly figures are calculated from seasonally adjusted monthly figures. — 2 Also adjusted for working days.
Sources: Federal Labour Office; Federal Statistical Office; DIW Berlin calculations.