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The public urban transport sector is a highly male dominated one: the average percentage of male employees is 82.5%. In accordance to the employment goal of the European Union of 75% until 2020 with a greater involvement of women in the labour market, the EU-Social Partners’ project WISE (Women Employment in Urban Public Transport Sector), which is designated in the Work Programme of the European Social Dialogue and therefore funded by the European Union, aims at examining the employment situation of women in public urban transport sector in Europe in order to contribute to a better representation and integration of women in the sector.

The project’s objectives range from the better access of women to all public transport professions, including technical ones and management functions to the thorough implementation of relevant EU equal opportunities’ legislation in the transport sector. To achieve these objectives different measures have been realized. These include a quantitative survey (carried out by questionnaires sent to transport companies, associations and trade unions in the EU-27 countries), a qualitative survey (carried out by interviews with women in the work meeting cities) as well as by work meetings in five different cities: Antwerp, Berlin, Bucharest, Helsinki and Sofia.

Apart from supporting women to achieve economic independence by giving them easier access to professions and careers in the sector, the beneficial aspects of an increasing women employment for the companies were stated from the project’s start:

- Facing demographic development with a decreasing number of young potential personnel to hire, recruiting more women appears to be one solution to answer the upcoming need of staff.

- The recruitment of women, who, in society, are still seen as the ones taking care for children and/or elder family members, may lead to strategies to improve the work-life balance of professions, thus, the working conditions for both genders.

- Finally, the often well existing de-escalating effects and communicative qualities of women bring forth a new quality of public transport and a better fulfilment of the (female) customer requirements.
2) Women Employment in the Urban Public Transport Sector – State of the Art

So far, the collected data from responded questionnaires of 14 EU-countries (14 of 27 EU-countries approached have returned the questionnaire) reveal that, although the companies, trade unions and associations involved in the project are aware of the benefits of women employment and have mostly tried in various ways to increase the share of women among the staff, the numbers remain unbalanced: The percentage of female employees in the companies varies from 5 to 31% with an average of 17.5%. In technical or operational divisions such as driver’s professions, the number of women is especially low – often under 10%.

A number of different (estimated or evaluated) reasons were revealed in the project’s course: The lack of corporate initiatives for work-life balance of employees was detected as one of the main barriers to women employment as well as cultural aspects such as a “male working culture” and existing gender stereotypes. Also missing political strategies to augment the share of female staff members has to be taken into account as a reason.

The number of female employees is not only constantly low but has also been stagnating for some time in every country visited during the project. Nonetheless, it was apparent that women employment is slightly higher in Eastern European countries than in Western European ones. The lack of gender diversity in technical or operational (and often better paid) divisions, however, fits in the overall European pattern.

The collected data also showed that women are under-represented in all age groups, but especially in the age group of employees older than 60 years. Also, a visible segregation according to functions takes place. Especially in the Eastern countries, women are much better represented. For example, in one Eastern European transport company visited, 44% female tram drivers are employed. Other departments in Eastern European countries, where women are well-represented are administration and customer service (in which the deescalating and communicative qualities of women are highly valued). In these divisions, women are with a share up to 77.1% sometimes in definite majority.

The results of the companies of all countries having responded to the quantitative questionnaire show that, in management, low gender diversity is in place: Men are the definite majority in the sector’s leading positions. There seems to be the tendency that, the higher the positions in the company hierarchy, the fewer women are represented. The same applies to the board of directors. Nonetheless, compared to the low numbers of female employees in the sector, the share of women in management – with an average of 23.8% – is relatively high.

The small number of women in technical jobs has already been mentioned, but it has to be pointed out that the significance of technical jobs in urban public transport companies is still considered as high. The women’s lack of interest in technical professions and the sometimes assessed absence of skills in this area have been established as a common point of view. It appeared in the project’s course that this stereotype has been well adopted and generally accepted and that it therefore might cause a major obstacle to women employment. However, not only the urban public transport sector has to cope with this challenge. Indeed, it also affects many other sectors offering technical jobs.

One of the interesting outcomes of the project study showed a pattern: By far more women work as tram or metro drivers than as bus drivers in companies providing all services. The absence of a need for qualifications (bus driving licence) and the issue of perceived insecurity at workplace have been named as probable reasons.
3) Key Aspects and Instruments influencing Women Employment

The following indicators shaped up as to have a high importance for women employment:

- Reconciliation of work and family/social life: work organisation
- Reconciliation of work and family/social life: Work-Life-Balance
- Health and safety at workplace
- Working culture
- Wages
- Career, qualification and trainings
- Recruitment

Therefore, these key aspects have been analyzed and described in detail within the WISE project and will be highlighted in this summary.

Reconciliation of work and family/social life: work organisation

Managers and researchers explain the lack of women in staff due to insufficient measures for female employment, for example an insufficient flexibility in arrangements that enable women to reconcile work and family life, the possibility to work part-time is to be mentioned among others.

It has often been established that work organisation should, under preservation of the operational and internal needs of a company, alter in order to meet new demands. Improving the productivity is of high significance for business (and employment) survival. Therefore both, companies and employees, need flexibility. Working time arrangements and work-life balance are becoming more and more important issues, also on the EU agenda. For an increase of women employment, more working time flexibility appears to be crucial.

From an employers’ point of view, the flexibility of working hours offers many benefits: One positive effect is binding employees to the company to increase job tenure – an important criterion for new employees to choose a profession or an employer. Furthermore, the improvement of the employers’ attitude and morale, which leads to a reduction of absenteeism and staff turnover, while it increases the effectiveness of recruitment and the productivity, are desired implications.

Many of the companies surveyed or visited during this project (75%) offer working flexibility, amongst which part-time work and flexible working hours are favourably mentioned. Other measures named were tandems, long-term work accounts, workplace planning based on ageing structures, individual duty schedules, part-time work for managers and telework. Some companies established mentoring of women. However, despite the relatively high number of companies with implemented regulations, not even half of the companies (46.4%) consider these measures as to be effective for boosting equal opportunities of their employees.

Individual duty schedules have been discussed as one aspect of working time flexibility for increasing employees’ work-life balance, thus job motivation and satisfaction.

The survey showed that working hours’ regulation differs much from country to country, whereas many company representatives shared the opinion that the sector’s working hours are often not convenient for women.

The demand for part-time work therefore depends on several aspects, such as the size of the company, the working time demands (shift or night work) or, especially, the number of female employees, as much as the number of female workers is connected to the demand of parental leave. The following thesis seems valid: The more the women share increases in companies, the more demand of part-time work is to be expected.

86.2% of the surveyed companies have already implemented measures of part-time work but only 48.3% think of the regulations as being effective, although they are demanded, especially by women: When taking into account only the total number of female and male employees, the share of female part-time workers exceeds the share of male part-time workers. The example of two cities visited showed that for elder employees part-time work prior to retirement is attractive. Therefore, the demand among this target group is increasing.

In addition, it has been surveyed that in Western European countries the number of part-time workers is higher than in Eastern European countries. Reasons for that might include different wages implying that part-time work cannot be as easily afforded in Eastern countries. The lower payment of part-time work has, also in Western countries, often be considered as a barrier to this form of flexible working-time especially for single mothers, who are afraid not to be able to sufficiently earn a living.

Shift work cannot be avoided in public transport seeing that it is a necessary measure in the sector in order to ensure passenger’s mobility on different times of day and night. Anyhow, the demographic development affects many European economies so that the recruitment and binding of a decreasing number of young potential personnel becomes more and more important. It is common opinion that, future needs of personnel can be met better by increasing the number of female employees. Therefore, it seems necessary to readjust working conditions and employment policy including strategies of work-life balance which is an overall important issue for both, male and female employees.

The system of shift work is mentioned by more than half of the companies (51.7%) and most trade unions (78.6%) as an obstacle to women employment. Interestingly, many of the interviewed women in driving profession do not share that opinion. If assessed as an issue, it appears to be mainly a problem when women have very young children.

All in all shift work is considered attractive for monetary reasons. Most collective bargaining agreements between companies and trade unions include extra payments for night, weekend and/or holiday work. As an alternative to offer equal and fair working conditions for every employee, “rolling shifts” have been mentioned in more than one country. The so-called rolling shifts provide the opportunity to work in favoured shift but also maintain the obligation to take on less-favoured ones in order to ensure a balanced shift work among employees.

Additionally, giving employees the possibility to change shifts among each other via internal corporate communication media (e.g. internet), under supervision of team leaders and/or the management, might lead to an improved satisfaction of employees. The definition of individual schedules on employee’s personal request, though, depends on factors such as the company’s size and has to be carefully analyzed also according to the corporate needs.
Reconciliation of work and family/social life: work-life-balance

In order to discuss work-life balance, one has to consider the aspect of parental leave, which until today is still mainly executed by women and whose regulations differ not only from country to country but often reflect the companies’ corporate policy. Nearly three-quarters of the questioned companies use a combination of parental leave with part-time work, other measures are rather secondary. Discussions of professional perspectives prior to parental leave are executed by 40.7% of the companies. Offers of training programs and/or consultation after parental leave are furthermore mentioned.

In terms of childcare, legal possibilities to get exempted from work or to get a special leave at short notice in case of a child’s sickness as well as subsidization of costs for childcare exist in all visited countries. Yet, regulations for childcare vary from country to country. As an especially varied and sophisticated example, Finland has developed very comprehensive regulations with state-subsidized childcare fees. Representatives mentioned the municipal obligation to arrange childcare for every child until the start of primary school and state support of municipalities for morning and afternoon childcare during the first and second year in primary school. Moreover, the right to full-day childcare for children under 3 years is mandatory.

On company level the corporate measures in terms of childcare differ strongly. Action varies from part-time possibilities for parents to company kindergartens that were mentioned in the questionnaires and during the work meetings or the interviews. While private or public kindergartens are available in all visited cities, the opening hours are very different even from facility to facility. In some countries, the numbers of kindergarten facilities as well as the opening hours have been assessed as to be insufficient for full-time workers and incompatible to shift-work.

It has been already mentioned that no visited company has a corporate kindergarten or childcare centre, which is based on the fact that the state does subsidize public but not corporate kindergartens. In one city visited, earlier existing facilities were closed due to few requests by employees. Nonetheless, the companies’ cooperation with local kindergartens in order to improve accessibility and affordability of childcare for employees has been suggested during the meetings. Especially the interviewees stated that kindergarten infrastructure could be better in terms of quantity and opening hours.

In addition to childcare, the issue of elder care becomes more and more important in consideration of an ageing population. Measures taken and subsidization of costs vary from country to country and among the companies, but should be carefully kept in mind.

Health and safety at workplace

Next to flexibility of working time, health and safety at workplace are seen as an important issue in public transport sector. In the past, many measures to secure health and safety at workplace have been implemented, most of them with small impact on the equality between men and women. It is therefore valid to raise the question if counteracting measures are indeed effective as tools for improving gender equality.

In order to optimize future measures and activities in view of effectiveness, one deems it is necessary to further analyze this aspect.
In light of the increasing challenges of day-to-day work, the installation of a body or person to report about violence cases and/or harassment seems to be crucial, especially as many interviewees mentioned that the fear of violence and aggression belongs to the disadvantages or critical aspects of their job as a driver in the sector. All visited companies and cities had either different contact bodies or persons installed that can be approached; the action procedures differ, though. It has been opined that the position in regard of the hierarchical level of either body or person for complaints is important. The wish has been issued that companies should avoid linking the department for complaints directly to the department that is in charge of employment decisions. This might be a barrier to set complaints. As an overall estimation it has been issued that, the easier the access to the contact person, the lower the barrier to contact might be.

Working culture
The topics “corporate culture” and “working culture” turned out to be of high importance when addressing women employment. When facing issues of working culture, one continuously stumbles across gender stereotypes; these items are highly linked to one another (see also subchapter “Stereotypes”). Diversity of and tolerance towards different people and their individual background are often assumed to have a positive impact on the company’s attractiveness for women. A so-called “male working culture” is often described as a corporate culture oriented on male attributes and focused on men as an internal and external target group to the effect that female employees feel that they have to show more masculine than feminine characteristics, also in order to succeed in their careers. It is generally said that women perceive the necessity to perform better than men in order to be accepted in their job; this is also the case in the public transport sector. The quantitative survey shows that more than half of the companies’ representatives (55.2%) esteem that a male working culture is an obstacle to gender equality, which is expressed by female staff numbers. Nonetheless, measures to improve the working culture towards a more diversified one are scarcely taken, the promotion of women’s networks for example are not common at all. During the course of this study, the term “male working culture” could never be clearly defined but high gender segregation often results of historical development and of the fact that the sector provides more jobs in the operational (e.g. drivers as a service-oriented job not focused on techniques anymore) and technical field than in the commercial and administration one.

All in all, the issues of male working culture and gender stereotypes have to be further analysed in order to propose accurate measures to overcome the posed barriers to women employment. Generally speaking, the sensitization of employees, managers and trade union members for this issue is important, though it might be helpful including this aspect in training offers.

In order to approach the topic of working culture, some recurrent, exemplary aspects are to be mentioned in the following. Regarding the working clothes, companies have made good experiences with providing them to both genders. If the corporate uniforms are made available to women, this will have a positive influence on women employment because working clothes are of high importance for all employees’ identification with the company. Consequently, women do not need to critically mention this aspect of missing or inappropriate working clothes anymore, as it was done by some interviewees. The issue of working atmosphere stays a highly subjective one and is not otherwise handled in this report. However, most women assess the working atmosphere in their company as positive. Comments like “The public transport sector is a great place for women.” have been issued more than once and mirror the women’s all-in-all pleasure at work: “I like driving!” Social contacts with colleagues and passengers were often viewed as positive and enjoyable for women and lead to the general perception that “Women are well-suited for the sector.” Women in the sector value the work independence and responsibility for passengers and esteem that the driver delivers an important transport service for the customer.

Stereotypes are “perceptions about the qualities that distinguish groups or categories of people”1 exist very strongly – also in the public transport sector; they have been confirmed in all visited countries and companies. A variety of statements on the prescriptive and descriptive behaviour of men and women were given in work meetings, interviews and surveys. There is certain consensus between employers and trade unions that gender stereotypes and a male working culture have significant influence on the sector’s women employment. Regarding cultural differences there is no absolute evidence, if stereotypes are stronger at hand in one country or the other, or, where they are more or less obvious. Stereotypes exist in a descriptive (How does a person behave?) and prescriptive (How has the person to behave?) way. They are an important factor for women employment and are widely spread. The strongest stereotypes are similar in different European countries, but the occurrence of some other stereotypes differs per country.

Wages
Concerning the concept of equal pay, it was said that, within the urban public transport sector – at least within the same tariff payment groups – the principle “same wage for same work” is valid. However, it needs to be pointed out that the WISE survey among companies only asked for starting salaries and does not include questions of professional advancement. As a consequence, the results do not lead to knowledge about wage development of male and female employees. In addition, the salaries of employees, who belong to the non-tariff payment group, are not included in this survey.

1 Different Cultures, Similar Perceptions: Stereotyping of Western European Business Leaders; Martha Maznevski (Ph.D.), Karsten Jonsen, Institute for Management Development (IMD), Lousanne, Switzerland; published by CATALYST, New York, 2006, p. 5-8.
As always, adequateness of payment has to be seen as very subjective. The focus of this study lies therefore on extra payment for weekend, night and holiday work, which is granted in 61% of all companies taken part in the survey. Since, compared to other sectors, the basic salary for driving personnel in urban public transport companies is relatively low – at least in some European countries – extra payments are attractive so that these corresponding employees are motivated to work additional shifts. Regarding advantages for employees, different incentives as a measure of employee motivation exist in some of the companies.

Career, qualification and trainings

Well qualified employees are the key for entrepreneurial success. In this context, qualification needs to be updated for example towards a need to know the changing customers’ attitudes in order to react correspondingly. From the employees’ view, it is important to be able to maintain employability and to be “fit” in the job they are doing. Regarding continuous qualification, it can be generally said that the European urban public transport companies apply the continuous training for bus drivers based on the EU-directive 2003/59/EC on the initial and continuous qualification and periodic training. In most cases, the employers finance the training; sometimes the drivers themselves have to co-finance it. Only in a few cases, there is financial support by state or regional authorities.

In Germany apprenticeship is one option to recruit new and young staff. The system designs the visit of a vocational school, on two days a week in a period of three or three and a half years, while learning on the job in a company the other days of the week. This combination of theoretical and practical education (dual professional apprenticeship) helps many young people to learn detailed tasks and to gain background information and knowledge. If they are further employed, companies save money and time for the apprentices’ job familiarization. Apprentices of the sector receive professional education in three company fields of activity: commercial, technical and service-oriented activities.

Concerning driving staff, initial and other trainings are offered in cooperation with an external training and development institute. In Finland, the training for vocational qualification, as youth education, normally lasts three years and, as an apprenticeship, two until three years. As far as the professional training for drivers is concerned in Bulgaria, they mostly need to complete a theoretical and practical training lasting of six months each. After they have successfully completed the training and the examination, they work as practical assistant for drivers. Only after this procedure they are allowed to drive trolleybus or tram.

Considered separately by gender, differences in educational degrees are in favour of male employees in the categories of „school leaving certificate“ and „initial vocational education“. However, the differences are low. In comparison to men it needs to be pointed out that, within female workforce, a larger proportion (10.5%) of employees has a university degree (men: 5.8%). So, the qualification of women is often better than those of men. Therefore, it is even more astonishing that they are hardly represented in higher or leading management positions. This aspect of qualification on the one hand and a lack of presence in certain job positions on the other hand, can be stronger tackled by companies including the implementation of counteractive measures such as career support and promotion for women.

In most of the companies, there is no special distinction in trainings between the offers for women and men. Apart from one company (BVG, Berlin), where special trainings for women (language courses, application training) are offered, the companies do not offer specific training courses for female employees because mostly they do not distinguish between genders regarding training offers. Thus, the majority of the companies do not offer functional courses or trainings for improving personal skills or dealing with gender issues. For employees, who want to develop a career in their company, different possibilities exist. Still, the most frequent one is the classical vertical management career. Improvement of equal opportunities for both, women and men, also means to enable career progression for women, whether in classical management careers or comparable horizontal careers with responsibility for personnel, special subjects or projects. Regarding the possibilities in the companies and the desires of employees for a career progression, there are big differences between the enterprises and the women interviewed in the project.

When looking at career development possibilities for women, there are no special ways or career paths. In most of the cases, there are not any fixed career paths at all but similar instruments such as succession plans. Even though, sometimes there are no women represented in such programs, it is considered that only qualification and not gender is the decisive factor for being part of them. It has been estimated by company representatives that clear career paths and opportunities tailored specially for women might inspire more women to urban public transport companies, so that this could have an influence on recruiting.

In many companies, there are regular development discussions. They usually take place annually and are offered to the entire personnel. In some countries, a periodic personal feedback discussion between employee and supervisor is mandatory. Many female employees in all companies visited would appreciate if there is a regular feedback by their boss and a transparent way of communication. Many studies from other sectors have delivered comparable results.
A topic very controversially discussed is a quota for women. In the interviews with female employees, the number of female proponent and opponents in the company is rather balanced. Patterns of opinions can be found such as that proponents of the quota are rather women with many years of professional experience. Academically educated women generally tend to belong to the quota's proponents. Among the female bus drivers the opinion are balanced. Opponents of the women's quota are relatively young and self-confident. The decision of quotas for any given sector, however, does not lie in the range of the social partners' legitimization. Their activities of facilitating the women's access to a career in a company on a disburdening as well as on a mandatory basis can only be expressed in a call for voluntary action of the concerned parties within the companies. It actually needs to be considered that every decision leading to a fixation of quotas is of a political nature. Consequently, they can only be presented by political instances, in this case the European Parliament and the European Council (contingently with recommendations of the European Commission). If such an approach should arise, the social partners will work together on the means for implementation. On a corporate level, based on company policies and strategies, target figures are possible – also without official European or National political strategy. A precondition for corporate target figures is that the companies will make gender equality a key issue of their corporate mission, and, thus show such commitment strategically.

Recruiting
There are many reasons for recruiting more women. One of the most important in view of the demographic development has already been mentioned. Also in qualitative terms, there are much more arguments for women as employees. The aspect of the women's qualification regarding their driving behaviour, which is often perceived and assessed better (more conscious, more sensitive and sensible) than male drivers does mostly not take part in customer surveys so far. However, it could be an option for the future. The surveyed companies answered that they – so far – do not make distinctions between the instruments for recruiting women or men. In addition, most of the instruments are used for all job levels/professions. Only a small amount of companies specially addresses executives or other special target groups. Interesting in this context is the fact that 57.1 % of the companies affirmed that they want to encourage more women to work for their company – but only 29.4 % offer specific trainings, e.g. for job interviewers to be aware of this topic and for managers, who make personnel decisions. Although, in general there is no strategy or campaign for recruiting more women, which (independent of gender stereotypes) is necessary for the increase of the women share, female employees, who are already employed, can be multipliers to recruit new female colleagues. For many companies, it is still an important source of recruitment, if a family member already works for the company. This means that, within families the employer is often recommended to the family members. Also, younger women are a considerable potential for recruiting female working force. This refers especially to young women, who are not sure what to do after school, for example whether they want to apply for an apprenticeship or whether they want to start studying. If these women are addressed at an early stage in school, the possibilities seem to be higher to encourage them to work in the urban public transport sector.

It has already been stated that the image of the urban public transport sector implies that the sector is perceived as being male-dominated. Specific promotion and communication highlighting positive aspects such as employment security have to be improved in order to attract women. Moreover, this sector has the image of being rather old-fashioned and conservative. Therefore, companies are often not present in the applicants' minds as potential employer. In young peoples' conception of a future employer, the public transport sector hardly plays any role. Additionally, at least in some countries, the sector's salaries do have perceived disadvantages compared to those in other industries. Moreover, many of the sectors' existing professions are unknown to young people. The implementation of special campaigns might be of help to fight these drawbacks strategically. Campaigns or projects to attract young potential employees for the technical sector in Germany are called “MINT-activities”, which aim at promoting the sectors Mathematics, Informatics, Natural Sciences and Techniques for potential personnel. In addition, the “Girls Day” taken place annually in Germany, in which companies can take part, aims at encourage girls or young women to learn technical professions. These activities can be added with the aspect of hiring female working staff. As one measure, the “Women Employment Scheme” implemented in one company visited aims at attracting more women to apply for a job in the sector and to heighten the share of women. This scheme is based on a regional law including gender equality, which defines the obligation for companies to analyse the company’s employment structure and possible employee fluctuation. In the interviews with female employees, there was a consensus among the women that the companies need to develop more marketing and communication measures targeted for recruitment. It has been suggested, for example, that female employees introduce and present their work in schools in order to eliminate existing concerns and stereotypes about the sector and its professions. In many companies, there is cooperation regarding recruitment with external institutions like job centres or schools and universities. In some cities it has been mentioned that the majority of women do not ask for a job in the urban public transport sector. The retailer industry, for example, has a big demand for women and often seems to be more attractive to them. Conclusively, there are many possibilities to cooperate with either local or regional work agencies or universities and schools to attract young women for working in the public transport sector. It always depends on local structures, strategies of the company and potential applicants, which way of cooperation needs to be chosen.
4) Future Prospects on Women Employment

Apart from the companies and cities visited within the scope of the WISE project, there are examples of companies, which successfully have implemented measures on women employment.

In one German city, the urban public transport company which has also answered the WISE questionnaire of the quantitative survey, has increased its overall women share up to 30.6%, with 33.05% female drivers and more than 20% female employees in technical departments like maintenance and infrastructure (in December, 2010). Here, a voluntary strategic approach of gender equality (incl. integrating the topic into the corporate mission and defining single measures) was initiated and successfully realized.

In another company from France, whose representative have been invited to one of the WISE Steering Committee Meetings, the women share in operator and executive positions could be increased. Moreover, there is the recruitment goal of 10% set for the departments under this threshold. This objective is accompanied by a diversity-enhancing campaign on operator and executive recruitment as well as by communication actions in secondary schools before vocational counselling. Further corporate measures include the creation of a diversity observatory with exchanges of good practices between departments and the launch of a women’s social network in the railway maintenance sector.

These examples show that companies can play an active role in promoting gender equality and reducing the barriers of women employment. In cooperation with the Social Partners, positive impulses for the Europe wide future development of the sector’s companies with regards to gender equality can be generated.

To follow-up the WISE project, the Social Partners UITP und ETF recommend using the project results in order to initiate a broader and more intense discourse between the European transport companies, their associations and trade unions. It is aimed to commonly discuss and to validate the proposed measures as well as to define further fields of activity, which help to further increase the share of female employees.

As a Kick-off, UITP und ETF propose to realize a conference titled “Women Employment and Gender Policy in European Public Transport Companies”, which will take place in spring 2013.
II. DETAILED PROJECT REPORT

1) Political and Social Framework Conditions of Women Employment in Europe

The “Europe 2020 Strategy”, which has followed the “Lisbon Strategy” and provides guidelines for the economic and employment policies of the EU-member states, includes provisions for smart, sustainable and inclusive growth. The latter implies the reduction of barriers to labour market participation especially for women. One of the headline targets is to increase the employment rate of population aged 20 – 64 years from 69% achieved in 2009 to 75% in 2020 with the greater involvement of women.1 Measures include investing in appropriate skill development, rising job quality and fighting gender segregation. However, in the EU-Member States, women employment ranges from below 40% to above 70%. So, gender equality is on the agenda of many European countries.

Equal treatment is not a new phenomenon in Europe. In fact, the European Union is the main promoter of women employment. For example, equal treatment for women and men was a founding principle of the EU in 1957. Since the 1970s, European and national laws have expanded women’s choices and improved their lives. The proportion of women in work has risen steadily and, since 2000, female workers have taken three quarters of the millions of new jobs generated in Europe.²

Often, girls have outperformed boys with regards to school education performance. While the boys still perform better than girls in mathematical ability (average difference of 2-4%), girls perform better than boys in reading literacy. But they do so at a substantially higher margin (8-10%). With regards to upper and post-secondary education, more women than men successfully complete trainings at this level. Here, the EU-wide women’s share is more than 50%, in Germany and Portugal even 57%. In general, the share of women among students has increased between 1997/1998 and 2003/2004 in almost all countries of the European Union. In 2004, women made up 55% of all students enrolled in tertiary level education and around 59% of students, who have graduated with ISCED³ level 5 qualifications (first stage of tertiary education, e.g. Bachelor degree) in the EU-25. So, more women than men are educated to tertiary – or university – level in most European countries.⁴

Nonetheless, women often earn less than men, and remain a minority in political decision-making and senior management positions. So the EU is stepping up action to eliminate discrimination and achieve gender equality. Key objectives include breaking down stereotypes, and achieving economic independence for women so that they can work, earn their own incomes, and have equal rights to benefits.

Furthermore, the better integration of women in the labour market helps to counterbalance the effects of a shrinking working-age population, thereby reducing the strain on public finances and social protection systems, widening the human capital base and raising competitiveness. Measures to facilitate work-life balance can have a positive impact on fertility. To reach the Europe 2020 objective of a 75% employment rate for women and men, particular attention needs to be given to the labour market participation of women with every kind of vocational or cultural background. The employment rates of these groups are still relatively low and remaining gender gaps need to be reduced in both, quantitative and qualitative terms.

The impact of parenthood on labour market participation is still very different for women and men in the EU today because women continue to shoulder a disproportionate part of the responsibilities involved in running a family. Many women feel that they still have to choose between a career and their children. Current demographic trends also mean that women and men increasingly have to care for dependants other than children over indefinite periods of time. Member States, which have put reconciliation policies in place, are seeing high numbers of both women and men in work and relatively sustainable birth rates.

The positive trend of female employment growth was affected by the economic downturn in the past years; the crisis has had serious repercussions on the labour market and unemployment figures. The EU-Commission proposed “A shared commitment for employment” which aimed to limit the social impact of the crisis, and recognised the need to reinforce gender equality in the responses to the crisis. Recent analysis of national responses to the crisis confirms the risk of downgrading the status of equality policies or reducing budgets allocated to these policies.

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3 International standard classification of education

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The project WISE (Women Employment in Urban Public Transport Sector), which is designated in the Work Programme of the European Social Dialogue, was conducted from December 2010 until March 2012. It was funded by the European Union and aimed at examining the employment situation of women in urban public transport companies in Europe. Thus, WISE contributes to a better representation and integration of women in this sector. The project’s realisation has been agreed between the Social Partners of the urban public transport sector, which are the International Association of Public Transport (UITP) in Brussels, Belgium and the European Transport Workers’ Federation (ETF) in Brussels, Belgium. The “Verband Deutscher Verkehrsunternehmen Akademie (VDV-Akademie)” in Cologne, Germany has taken over the conceptual support, organisation and budget control of the WISE project. Another partner involved is the organisation “Prospektiv – Gesellschaft für betriebliche Zukunftsgestaltungen mbH” in Dortmund, Germany that has done the External Expertise, which implies the project’s scientific support. In addition to these partners, the WISE Steering Committee consists of further members representing trade unions respectively employer organisations of different EU-countries like Belgium, Bulgaria, Finland, France, Germany, Romania and Sweden.

The WISE project has following objectives:

1. Better access of women to all public transport professions, including the technical ones and management functions
2. Better workplace safety and security, to allow women and men to opt for all work shifts
3. Equal access to training
4. Better workplace culture to accommodate the needs of both, women and men
5. Better work-life-balance for both, women and men
6. Thorough implementation of relevant EU equal opportunities’ legislation in the transport sector

To achieve these objectives, a quantitative survey has been realized in order to get information on gender equality and on the working situation of women within several urban public transport companies in the 27-EU-countries. For this purpose, three different questionnaires have been sent to the sector’s companies, employer associations and trade unions. One questionnaire has been sent to companies, one to associations and one to trade unions.

In addition to this quantitative survey, a qualitative survey has been realized by interviewing 50 female employees of urban public transport companies to assess their personal situation. These interviews are connected with the Work Meetings – visits of the WISE Steering Committee in five European cities for discussions with the companies’ management, trade unions and other parties involved in the issue. Per city, 10 interviews have been realised. The interviews and the Work Meetings took place in: Berlin, Helsinki, Antwerp, Sofia and Bucharest.

Before the start of the WISE project other European projects on women employment have been carried out. One example is the project “PROMOTING EQUALITY” that was launched by ETF in 2007. It aimed to guide and mobilise trade union action to make the transport industry a more attractive workplace for women and to eliminate the risk of gender inequality at work.8 Another project, carried out by the European Social Partners ETF and The Community of European Railway and Infrastructure Companies (CER) refers especially to women employment in the railway sector and has been carried out in 2005/2006. At its end, a set of recommendations’ meant to improve the presence of women in the railway sector, have been signed on 12 June, in Rome.8

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Public transport is of central importance to the economic strength of Europe. It is not only a provision for elementary requirements embodied in the law. Public transport also is of general interests for the enabling of mobility needs, which have increased substantially over the past decades. Moreover, in big European cities, such as the capitals Berlin, Brussels or Paris, the urban public transport companies of the transport industry with several ten thousand employees represent the most important employers. Apart from the aspect of mobility, public transport relieves the ecologically negative effects of individual motor traffic by reducing harmful substances in the environment, which considerably contributes to fighting climate change. Consequently, public transport is a condition for the real usage of an increasing life standard and a condition for the realisation of professional possibilities. The economic value of European public transport services, including those provided by operators and organising authorities, is estimated at between 130-150 billion EUR per year. Public transport operators directly employ 1.2 million persons and for every direct job in public transport 2 to 2.5 indirect jobs typically exist.

In total, 60 billion passenger journeys are made by public transport every year. Furthermore, the public transport sector is important for the prospering development of agglomerations, as well as social inclusion within and outside of agglomerations, which contribute substantially to sustainable employment in Europe. A strategy that aims at increasing the participation and integration of women within the urban public passenger transport sector is beneficial for both, companies and employees, for several reasons:

- For the background of general demographic developments, the high average age of employees in urban public transport companies and the huge retirement rates in the coming years require that companies recognize and use the potential of women for recruiting highly skilled staff and women in management positions.
- The image of women and family friendly companies is considered as modern, which enlarges the possibilities of such companies to attract women at the labour market.
- A mixed work force better reflects the customer structure of urban public transport companies and thus helps a better understanding of customer needs and contribute to an increase in the service quality.
- In general, companies with a balanced gender structure are proved to be more successful because they are able to use all communicative and innovative potential of male and female workers.
- A better gender balance also in male dominated profession contributes to a general improvement of working conditions for both, men and women with positive effects on wellbeing at work, on a more balanced work culture and thus on the productivity of the company.
- Additionally, a work organisation that takes into consideration work-life balance requirements of the work force – in particular when based on social dialogue – increases wellbeing at work, motivation of employees and thus contributes to improved productivity.
- Employing more women as drivers can contribute to a better security and feeling of security within public passenger transport, since strength of women lies in a higher potential of acting in a deescalating way in critical situations.
- Employing more women within driving personnel changes the image of companies. Through their often communicative and calming way of treating customers, women might contribute to the well-being of passengers. Another aspect is that, in companies where women work, they act as multipliers for future female personnel.

Since urban public transport is a male-dominated sector showing high gender segregation, European companies of this sector did several efforts to increase the share of female employees in the past decade. Consequently, the number of women in the companies has increased. The total share, not taking into account the women share in different departments, varies between 3% and 30% on average. Among the companies’ divisions, the share of female employees is unbalanced. In the commercial divisions, the number of women often exceeds the number of men. However, among the employees in driving operation or technical divisions (for example workshops), the share of women is often below 10%. Reasons for this unbalanced situation imply organisational framework conditions (for example lack of corporate initiatives for the employees’ work-life-balance), cultural aspects and missing political strategies.

9 UITP 2010: “Towards a new approach to mobility in urban areas”
10 UITP 2011: Observatory of employment in public transport, Report 1, April 2011
3a) Results of the WISE survey for companies

The sector is still male-dominated: most employees, especially among the drivers, are men. At a closer look, for differentiating the results of the WISE survey, many interesting figures can be seen when looking at the state of the art of women employment in European urban public transport companies. In the WISE project, one important approach to gather information on the state of the art of women employment in Urban Public Transport Companies in EU-27-Countries was a quantitative study. For this aim, a questionnaire with 25 questions in total was handed out to a sample of 68 companies from the different countries. Between May 2011 and November 2011, they were asked to fill in the questionnaire and to send it back to the Project Coordinator VDV-Akademie, Cologne, Germany. The evaluation was conducted by the external expert “Prospektiv” based in Dortmund, Germany. From these 68 companies, 29 sent the questionnaire back and gave helpful information to the project consortium. The response rate is 42.6%, which is a really good number for studies like this. However, the study is not representative – due to the fact, that there has not been a systematic weighted sample (for example with regards to the companies’ size). The answers come out of 14 countries of the EU-27. See the following map for details:

The results of the survey show that female employees are underrepresented in the European transport companies that answered the questionnaire. The companies employed in total 158,017 employees. 17.5% of the employees are female (27,680 persons), while 82.5% are male (130,337 persons). A comparable share of women has also been observed in the four cities Berlin, Helsinki, Antwerp, Sofia and Bucharest, which have been visited in the project. The overall women share in these cities ranges from 5 to 31%. In most of the cases, the share has been stagnating in the past years. In this context, one hypothesis could be that, for example companies from Eastern European countries have – due to their historical development – different shares of women than Western European companies. And indeed, there are some differences in the public transport companies that took part in the WISE study, but these differences are only slight ones. From all companies that took part, 18 are from Western European countries (Ireland, Portugal, Spain, France, Belgium, Germany, Austria, Denmark and Finland). They have in total 106,191 employees, of which 16.0% are female. When considering the 11 companies from Eastern countries (Poland, Czech Republic, Hungary, Romania and Bulgaria) that took part, it can be stated that there are 51,826 people employed in these companies. The share of women in these companies is with 20.7% a little bit higher than in the Western companies.

3b) Women employment with regards to age groups, departments and positions

In addition to the number of the employees, it is interesting to know if there are any differences of the number of men and women with regards to different age groups. As regards the distribution of women and men by age groups, it can be seen that women are underrepresented in all age groups: men are the majority. For example, 14.8% of the employees in the age group below 20 years are female; the highest share of women can be observed in the age group of 40 – 49 years with 19.4%. Noticeable is the comparatively low share of women (8.3%) in the age group of employees older than 60 years. When considering the results with regards to gender and departments, the following picture can be drawn: In the surveyed companies women are in the departments “driving operations” (departments in urban public transport companies, to which all bus-, tram- and metro-drivers are belonging to and which care for the transport of passen-
gerers) and “other operational functions” (departments in urban public transport companies, where mainly functions of infrastructural matters and maintenance are integrated and which often deal with technical tasks) clearly underrepresented. From all employees working as drivers 9.3% are female, from all employees belonging to the category “other operational functions” 8.1% are female. In the administrative department, also fewer women than men are employed, but the differences are not as big as in the above mentioned departments (women: 39.6%, men: 60.4%). In the department “customer services”, the share of women is relatively high (45.9%) amounting almost to the same percentage of men (54.1%)
With another perspective on the figures, a different picture can be drawn: When regarding only female employees and their distribution in several departments, it is obvious that most of them are working in “administration/overhead” (29.2%); In the department “driving operations”, the share of women is slightly lower (23.7%). One reason may be that in all urban public transport companies, administrative jobs seem to be more “typical” work for women.

Differences can be seen when looking at companies from Eastern European countries on the one hand and from Western European countries on the other hand. When looking at Eastern European companies, at the department “customer services”, there are 77.1% female employees. In Western companies, only 39.2% female employees work in this department. A comparable situation can be seen in the department “administration/overhead”. Here, the woman share is 54.1% in Eastern European companies and only 34.8% in Western European companies.

Women share per department in Western European companies:

The reasons for this outcome can be diversified. Instead of tracing the reasons back to an active way of recruiting women for certain departments in these countries, it rather can be assumed that the dissimilar outcome in Eastern and Western companies is based on different situations in the countries and corporate cultures in the companies. Further reasons imply the different historical development and the economic situation (e.g. unemployment rate) of the countries. In addition, the existence of and the access to professional education for women is supposed differ from country to country. All these factors are decisive for the employees’ (women and men) choice of the sector, job and department they are working in. In general, the aspect of “typical” jobs for men and women – no matter if they are voluntarily chosen by the employees or shaped by stereotyped gender roles – certainly has an influence on the share of women and men in certain departments.

During the work meetings, the aspect of gender stereotypes, shaping “typical” men’s and women’s jobs, has been on the agenda several times. This fact refers to the role of men and women in society – at the workplace but also in private life. At the workplace: Women were said to be more communicative and, therefore better suited for jobs interacting with customers. On the other hand, they were said to be less interested in technical jobs. In private life: While women were said to be mainly responsible for raising children and doing the household chore, men were said to be the main bread-earners of the family.

So, the more obvious existence of stereotypes might explain why in some countries, more women are working in the so-called typical women’s jobs and departments, such as customer service and administration.
management in the surveyed transport companies is quite high. On approx. 35%.

management positions (e.g. team leader) can rise from 15% up to department). According to this study, the share of women in "lower" top management with more than 85% (for example management kräftemonitor 2010”) published by the "German Institute for Eco

According to a German study on leading positions 2010 (“Führungs

Comparisons to other studies show that, the higher the position in the company hierarchy is settled, women are fewer represented. When considering the results (of all companies that have responded) with regards to gender and positions, it can be seen that the proportion of male employees is higher in all positions. Only in customer services and the administrative jobs, the differences between women and men are smaller. The differences in the positions that require technical knowledge and include management responsibilities are much stronger. Among all managers with staff responsibility, 76.2% are male. 23.8% of these managers are female, which is quite much (in comparison to their share in the entire enterprise (approx. 17.5%). By contrast: the share of women, who are member of the board of directors (19.3%), is also higher than the absolute share of women in some companies. However, the majority of the board members are male (80.7%).

Comparisons to other studies show that, the higher the position in the company hierarchy is settled, women are fewer represented. According to a German study on leading positions 2010 (“Führungskräfte-Monitor 2010”) published by the “German Institute for Economic Research” (“Deutsches Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung”), in most companies men are the majority in middle management and top management with more than 85% (for example management department). According to this study, the share of women in "lower" management positions (e.g. team leader) can rise from 15% up to approx. 35%. Compared with these figures, the share of women in management in the surveyed transport companies is quite high.

3c) Women in technical jobs

The fact, that the urban public transport sector is a sector of high gender segregation (glossary), is based on the historical development and on the fact that the sector offers more job professions in the technical field than in the commercial field. Consequently, women are numerically underrepresented in this sector, given that they tend to have a minor interest in technical professions. On the other hand, technical jobs still have a high significance in urban public transport companies. It was interesting to see the answers of the interviewed women in the companies that took part in the project. Some say that many women don’t have the technical know-how, which is perceived as a weakness. One example statement is: “There should be some basic knowledge in order to help oneself during a slight breakdown. Then one doesn’t have to wait for the technician to come, otherwise one paralyses the entire traffic.” Other women say that men may be better prepared for technical things, but the new buses do not require technical know-how, they almost drive without any problems. So these women appreciate when the company wants to get more women for technical jobs. One woman said: “It needs to get out into the public and declare that one, for example as bus driver, doesn’t even need technical know-how.”

3d) Women in driving operation

It was astonishing to see that in nearly every company, which has been visited during the project and that operates with metro, trams and busses, more women are working as metro or tram drivers than as bus drivers. For example, at BVG in Berlin, from all employees, who work as metro drivers, 16.3% are female. Among the tram drivers there are 17.2% women but among the bus drivers the share of women is only about 6.1%. The situation is similar at DeLijn in Antwerp. From all tram drivers, 22.2% are female but from all bus drivers only 13.6% are female. In Finland, in the capital area of Helsinki, the share of women working as bus drivers is about 6%, whereas female tram drivers in Helsinki have a share of 35% and female metro drivers even 42%. In Sofia, in one of the visited companies that operates with trams and trolley buses, the share of women among the tram drivers is 44%. This is a very high share and nearly balanced with the share of men. However, in trolleybus operations the women share is much lower. One probable reason for the high share of tram drivers is that tram drivers do not need further qualification, such as special driving licenses. Further reasons that have been stated are: more safety and security (closed cabin) for drivers, and that, on the tracks, people cannot “get lost” and it is easier and less stressful during rush hour, which lowers the probability of accidents.

McKinsey 2010: Women matter; Deutsches Institut für Wirtschaftsforschung 2010: Führungskräfte-Monitor 2010
The other company visited in Sofia, which also operates with metros, is an exceptional case. Here, female metro drivers do not exist at all. Asked for possible reasons, it was said that, until 1999, the professional education of train driving has been available only for men; due to the reason that is has been offered by “military high schools”. Since then, such training has been made available to everybody but, due to the stereotype of locomotive drivers being only men, women have showed no interest.

Women are underrepresented in the European urban public transport companies that took part in the study. On average, in many of the companies, the share of women among all employees has been stagnating for years. Of course, there are some differences, for example when comparing Western European companies with Eastern European Companies as well as when looking at different departments or positions. But, nonetheless, men are the majority.

In general, the share of women in an industry or sector depends on many different factors (for example type of work, needed qualifications, stereotypes, working time regulations etc.). It also often depends on past developments. A comparison with other studies on a worldwide level (“Global Gender Gap Report 2010”, published by the “World Economic Forum”, figures not based on European surveys) shows that the share of female employees in the industry “Logistics & Transport” including warehousing is about 28%. However, if a closer look is taken at the “Eurofoundation Factsheet” on the sector “Land transport” only, the figures are different. Here, the share of men is 82.8% and the share of women 17.2% - a figure that is very similar to the overall women share of the WISE survey. In contrast, industries, which have a particularly high share of female employees, are for example “Financial Services & Insurance” (60%), “Professional Services” (56%) and “Travel & Tourism” (49%). In these sectors, more than a half of the working force is female.

In the following chapters, probable factors of evidence for the share of women in the companies surveyed within the WISE project will be discussed.

In chapter four, subchapter a) the different aspects of “reconciliation of work and family / social life” will be described. Here the aspects important for the urban public transport sector that have been on the agenda during the work meetings and the interviews as well as in the questionnaires of the quantitative survey will be considered in detail. These include for example part-time work and its application process, individual duty schedules and the – for the urban public transport sector relevant – shift work. Subchapter b) includes additional aspects relevant for “reconciliation” like parental leave, child-care, eldercare etc. The following subchapter looks into the aspect of health and safety at workplace, which has proved to be a key topic for women employment. At the end of chapter four, the working culture including the very important aspect of gender stereotypes as well as the entire subject of payment conditions (e.g. equal payment for women and men) will be regarded.

In chapter five, the instruments and measures of companies, especially of the Human Resource department are further analyzed. Here Human Resource-aspects like recruiting ways (special campaigns for special target groups) or general issues influencing recruitment, like the image of the companies in the urban public transport sector and their cooperation with external institutions, are described.

4a) Reconciliation of Work and Family/Social Life/Work Organisation

One characteristic of a family-friendly company is the offering of flexible and adapted work organisation models, which allow the employee – men and women – to better reconcile work and family life.

Measures to make work more flexible also can help to bind employees to the company and, thus, to increase their job tenure. This is true especially for women, who still take over the part of childcare in a relationship. In Germany, a study of the “Federal Ministry for Family, Elder, Women and Youth” has shown that 69% of all surveyed companies do have flexible working arrangements. However, it is also said that employees should have the flexibility to arrange their working time and not only the employer.14 Also several studies on European level have shown that they have positive effects on employees’ attitude and morale, which, in turn, can lead to enhanced company performance. These arrangements can reduce absenteeism and staff turnover while they increase effective recruitment and productivity gains.15

The companies’ answers in the WISE survey show that flexible working time arrangements are offered in many countries. Measures mentioned include:

- Part-time work (89.3 %)
- Flexible working hours (75 %)
- Tandems, long-term work accounts, survey of employees’ attitude (50 %)
- Workplace planning based on ageing structures (42.9 %)
- Individual duty schedules (32.1 %)
- Part-time work for managers (28.6 %)
- Telework, mentoring/coaching for women (21.4 %)

In the survey, 75% of the companies said that they have been implemented regulations for flexible working time arrangements for their employees. In comparison, only 46.4% of the companies consider these measures to be very effective for boosting equal opportunities of their employees. This is similar to the assessed effectiveness of part-time work mentioned above. There are no significant differences between flexible working time arrangements of Western European and Eastern European countries.

However, when discussing measures for “work-life-balance” or a “better reconciliation of work and family life”, it must be ensured that women do not fall out of the company information and contact systems, training systems, career opportunities and the structures of the “normal” full-time employment relationship. In particular for women in (temporary) part-time work, additional measures are necessary in order to keep women integrated in the company and give them the same opportunities.

Individual duty schedules

One aspect belonging to flexible working time arrangements are individual duty schedules. They can improve the employees’ work-life-balance and, consequently, their job motivation and satisfaction.

The working hours’ regulations – according to the collective bargaining agreements (CBA) between employers and trade unions – as well as the detailed realisation of individual schedules differ from country to country. During the work meetings it was learned that there are dissimilar working hours for drivers in different countries. In Helsinki, for example, the regular working time is 80 hours in 2 weeks and maximum 11 hours per day. In Sofia, at one company, drivers have a 48-hours-week (96 hours in 2 weeks) and work in a shift system based on four months. Employees drive max. 7 to 9 hours per day. At the other company in this city, there is a 3-shift system from 4 am until 1 am. It has to be pointed out that, as far as drivers are concerned, the full working time mentioned here does not necessarily reflect the actual driving time.

Some of the company representatives stated that the working conditions are not convenient for women. One of the reasons mentioned was the daily journey to the women’s work place, which is difficult especially at the hours of early morning and late night. However, in this company, female tram drivers with small children have the right to take Saturday and Sunday off in order to care for their family.

At some companies, drivers have the possibility to exchange individual duty schedules with colleagues but there are certain restrictions. In Berlin for example: If an employee has required changing its duty schedule at Christmas, supplement (additional payment for working on holiday) cannot be granted. However, employees can work according to a flexible schedule (gliding time). Within this schedule, employees can collect a minus and plus of 78 working hours.

In some countries, it has been said that there is big challenge during peak hours (e.g. commuter traffic) because at that time the working hours’ arrangement is not sufficient.

Practice Examples: At the BVG in Berlin, it is possible to take vacation of two months. Employees work ten months and get an adapted salary – also in the two months, in which they do not work. Based on collective bargaining agreements (CBA) in Sofia, there is a similar regulation depending on the children’s age: Until the kid’s eighth birthday, parents are allowed to take off six months two times.

Full-time and part-time work

Although working time flexibility can be organized within a full-time working contract, one part of working time flexibility is the reduction of working time, such as working part-time. Since – in a certain life phase – working part time can be favored by some employees, for example if they have to raise children or to care for relatives, this measure – as one possibility of combining work and family life – has been a topic in the WISE questionnaire. It also has been discussed on the work meetings and during the interviews with the women.


The results of a survey on working time flexibility in Europe, done by the “European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions” in 2007, underline that, in the case of part-time work, it appeared that large establishments with a high proportion of women among the workforce, as well as companies in the public sector and services sector, have a higher incidence of part-time work. The study also revealed that, “in combination with other working time arrangements, companies with temporary contracts, unusual working hours and other flexible working time arrangements, parental leave and assistance for childcare services had higher chances of having part-time workers, while companies that used overtime had lower incidences of part-time work. Similarly, country, sector (both services and public sectors), size (larger companies) and a high number of women in the workforce were all major factors that explained the take-up of parental leave in an establishment. Companies which have shift work, night work, short-term contracts and flexible working time arrangements showed a higher take-up of parental leave.”

In the WISE survey for companies, 86.2% of the enterprises said that they have already implemented measures to enable employees to work part-time. However, it is surprising that only 48.3% of the companies using offering part-time jobs think that this measure is very effective. In detail, 75.8% of all companies offer part-time work for employees with children below school age, 62% make offers to employees with children at school age.

From the companies asked, both, female and male employees mostly have full-time contracts. Nonetheless, among all employees, the total and absolute number of men working part-time exceeds the number of women doing so (men: 94.9%, women: 88.3%). Here, it is possible that the higher absolute number of men applying for part-time work just reflects the higher share of male employees working in the companies.

When looking only at the total number of female or the total number of male employees, the share of female part-time workers exceeds the share of male part-time workers (men: 4.9%, women: 11.5%). So here, we have a completely different result. The following graph illustrates the share of full-/part-time workers per gender employee group:

The figures at the right show that the percentage of part-time workers among the entire number of employees varies between 0.09% and 18.1%. Of course, these data depend on the company size and, consequently, on the total number of employees. The company visits during the work meetings could prove the fact already mentioned above: It is more common for women to use the part-time work option, than it is for men.

The figures at the right also show that, in Western European countries, the number of part-time workers is higher than in Eastern European countries, especially in Berlin and Antwerp, the figures are much higher than in the other cities. Reasons might include the different wages of the sector in Europe, implying that in the Eastern countries, part-time work is not easy to afford for employees. Other reason may be the traditional working patterns in some Western European countries, where men still are the main “breadwinners” in families.

Especially for elder employees part-time work prior to retirement is attractive. This was mentioned in Berlin and in Helsinki, where this part-time option is offered to this target group because of an increasing demand.

Employees regarding gender and working time (percentages; n=25)

– Company questionnaire

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The figures at the right also show that, in Western European countries, the number of part-time workers is higher than in Eastern European countries, especially in Berlin and Antwerp, the figures are much higher than in the other cities. Reasons might include the different wages of the sector in Europe, implying that in the Eastern countries, part-time work is not easy to afford for employees. Other reason may be the traditional working patterns in some Western European countries, where men still are the main “breadwinners” in families.

In the companies visited for the work meetings, the possibility for working part-time exists. Nonetheless, the regulations differ – not only from country to country, but also from trade union to trade union within one city or company. In Helsinki, for example, “AKT”, which is responsible for “blue-collar employees” (e.g. drivers), does have restrictions for part-time work in its collective agreement. “ERTO”, responsible for “white-collar employees”, who, for example, work in management or administration, does support working part-time. In general, the regulations depend on the tasks, priorities and on the historical development of each trade union. Therefore, it is not easy to compare them – especially not within a Europe-wide context.

Application process of part-time work: Although a full-time employment contract between employees and companies (like equal working conditions and payment for both genders) is mainly aspired to from the beginning of employment, it is worth to have a look at the application process of part-time employment in the public transport companies. Therefore, this issue has been raised in the work meetings because, as mentioned above, companies that offer part-time work to their employees – as a reaction on a possible demand in a certain stage of lifetime – can be very attractive for male and female employees and for the reconciliation of their work and family life.

The regulations for applying for a part-time job are different. For example at BVG in Berlin, every request is treated as a special case. Therefore it was said that a certain internal company legislation and strategy (“BVG model”) is needed in order to improve and simplify the application process. This process was said to have already started. So, part-time requests are supposed to take place according to a generalized process soon.

At DeLijn in Antwerp employees can apply for a part-time job after one year of employment. Applications should be handed in nine months in advance. The subcontractors of DeLijn offer part-time work to their employees from the beginning of employment.

In the interviews many women said that part-time work would be interesting for them when they have children. However, the driver’s job, shift work and part-time was seen as a challenge for female and male employees. The interviewees also pointed out that the option to work part-time should be offered to every employee and should not depend on gender and job position. Furthermore some of them emphasized that for drivers part-time work would be necessary in order to stay in the company for a long time. Without this option the physical and psychological strain of full-time driving would result in early retirement. For some women (in Antwerp and Sofia) part-time work is not or less attractive or simply not possible because of financial reasons. Especially single mothers are concerned about not being able to earn their living with a part-time job. In Antwerp a survey on part-time work addressed to female drivers has shown that women are less interested in working part-time on a daily basis, they rather prefer working part-time on a weekly basis. So, different part-time models should be offered by companies.

All in all, part-time work seems to be a common way for employees to reduce and adapt workload and/or to combine work and family. It seems that – as a result of “traditional” respectively “stereotyped” role models – part-time is used rather by women to reduce working time in order to care for family and household. However, part-time work needs to be offered to both genders and to employees at every hierarchy position. Moreover, it should not be seen as an attribute of women employment or as a matter of discrimination (part-time = female employees = less paid). Due to the fact that the amount of employees (men and women), who have to care for elder family members, will increase in future, part-time is and will remain an important measure to keep these employees = less paid). Due to the fact that the amount of employees (men and women), who have to care for elder family members, will increase in future, part-time is and will remain an important measure of working time flexibility.

When introducing or offering part-time work, companies have to take into consideration that women keep integrated in the company information and communication system and that training measures and career opportunities are offered to women (and men) in part-time like for employees with full-time contracts. Nevertheless, although part-time contracts can be a possibility for – in most of the cases women – to find solutions for better reconcile work and family and put away pressure, working part time has an impact on and on pension rights in the long run. For this reason other measures like improving child care offers are preferable than part-time work from an equal opportunities’ point of view.

17 “Berliner Verkehrsbetriebe BVG” in Berlin; “Nobina Finland Oy”; “Pohjolan Liikenne Ab” and “Pohjolan Kaupunkiliikenne Ab” in Helsinki; “Vlaamse Vervoersmaatschappij De Lijn” in Antwerp; “Metropolitan EAD” and “Stolichen Elektrotransport EAD” in Sofia as well as “S.C. Metrorex S.A.” and “RATB Regia Autonoma de Transport Bucuresti” in Bucharest.
Shift work
Shift work is often mentioned to be an obstacle for women employment, especially for women with young children. Interestingly, the official statements from companies and trade unions are not always in line with the personal statements by the women interviewed. 51.7% of the companies and 78.6% of the trade unions of the WISE survey see shift work as an obstacle for equal opportunities and as a reason for a lack of women in the companies. By contrast, only a few women confirm this opinion. Shift work mainly gets problematic for them if they have young children. In Sofia for example, female drivers, who have young children below the age of 6 years, do not have to work in night shifts and on Saturdays and Sundays. These works can be done only on individual request.

The point is that, due to the specific salary schemes for drivers, shift work is attractive from a financial point of view: Many collective bargaining agreements (CBA) between employers and trade unions provide for a basic salary and include supplement payments for work at night, on the weekend and on holidays. Those additional payments allow achieving a relatively attractive salary as drivers. In Bucharest it was learnt that this part could be 50% of the total salary. Historically this reflects a win-win-situation for employers and – male – employees in the bargaining process.

Organising rolling shifts in a fair and non-discriminative way, which also consider the particular needs of employees with caring duties for children and/or parents is a challenge for management. It is recommended that companies develop in a participative way, based on social dialogue, a system that takes into account reconciliation of work and family life.

One example of shift work arrangement among employees is the exchange of their shifts via internal corporate communication media, such as the intranet. Sometimes the management views these shift exchanges and, in order to realize a proper working organisation, the newly arranged shifts are registered electronically. This helps the person responsible of duty schedules (and the entire employer) to keep control of the drivers’ working hours and, consequently, to hold them responsible in case of accidents or other problems that might occur during work. This opportunity of arranging shift work has the positive aspect of giving more responsibility and flexibility to the employees; however negative consequences include increased administrative efforts. Another option to organize shift work is the definition of individual schedules on the employee’s personal request but here; it is hardly impossible to meet the requirements of every employee. This can only be realized in exceptional cases. For example, if a person does have severe personal problems conflicting with the working time.

Apart from these measures, it lies in the hands of the companies to organize shift work in such a flexible way that it is acceptable and as comfortable as possible for employees – especially for those, who have children.

In general, it has to be underlined that shift work (in a two- or three-shift-system) is a necessary measure in the urban public transport sector in order to ensure the peoples’ mobility. It cannot be avoided.

4b) Further measures of reconciliation of work and family life/social life

Work time flexibility described above also considerably contributes to an easier combination of work and family life of employees. In this chapter, a closer look will be taken at the aspect of how employees with children and/or relatives in need of care can reconcile their work and family life. This will be examined for the companies visited as well as for the companies, which have answered the WISE questionnaire.

First, the aspect of parental leave (either for mothers or fathers) after childbirth will be regarded. Second, the availability of and the access to childcare and kindergartens will be regarded. The third aspect is the availability of possibilities for employees to leave the company in order to tend a relative in need of care.

In the upcoming years, many economies in Europe will be threatened by demographic development, which means that there will be (amongst other effects) less young potential personnel. Due to this fact, it gets more important nowadays to recruit and bind well qualified employees. If companies think they can only rely on new male staff, in most cases this will be a blind alley, because the number of men will often not suffice to replace the retiring personnel. However, if companies should recruit more women, it is necessary that (potential) employers try to readjust their working conditions and employment policy. In this context, work-life-balance is one of the most important issues, not only for women.

Parental leave (maternity/paternity/extended leave)
The European Directive on parental leave 2010/118/EU signed on June, 18th 2009 sets out minimum requirements on parental leave, as an important means of reconciling professional and family responsibilities and promoting equal opportunities and treatment between men and women. The agreement “entitles men and women workers to an individual right to parental leave on the grounds of the birth or adoption of a child to take care of that child until a given age up to eight years to be defined by Member States and/or social partners. The leave shall be granted for at least a period of four months and, to promote equal opportunities and equal treatment between men and women, should, in principle, be provided on a non-transferable basis. To encourage a more equal take-up of leave by both parents, at least one of the four months shall be provided on a non-transferable basis. The modalities of application of the non-transferable period shall be set down at national level through legislation and/or collective agreements taking into account existing leave arrangements in the Member States.”

At the time the questionnaires have been answered, 5.4 % of female employees and 2.7% of male employees have been on maternity/paternity leave, while 2.2% of female and 0.3% of male employees have been on extended parental leave.

Employees on maternity/paternity leave or extended parental leave – Company questionnaire

Measures to ensure that people being on extended parental leave retain in the company (percentages; n=27) – Company questionnaire

74.1% of the transport companies mainly use the combination of parental leave with part-time work. Other measures are secondary. 40.7% of the companies speak with the employees prior to parental leave and discuss their professional perspectives. 22.2% also offer training programs that can be taken by the corresponding workers. Another 37.0% of the companies consult their employees after they have been on parental leave.

73% of the companies are offering an increasing amount of flexible work possibilities, so that employees have the opportunity to work in part-time during parental leave.

In Helsinki the following regulations exist (employment contract act): The maternity leave includes 105 working days. Before normal maternity leave there is the possibility for special maternity leave. The paternity leave includes 42 working days. After maternity leave mother or father, has the right to have parental leave for 158 working days and after that child-care leave (mother/father) can be taken until the child is 3 years old.

In Sofia, 2 years of maternity leave are paid. Until a maximum of 410 days, the employee gets 90% of the usual salary, after that the minimum wage for the country is paid.

Still more women than men are making use of parental leave. It is uncommon to go on paternity leave in the transport companies. Thus, in the sector the “traditional” roles of men and women still exist. In the WISE interviews women stated that they would continue working part-time soon after a child’s birth if possibilities for back to work and re-entering their job earlier would be better. Consequently, companies need to consider more possibilities like telework from home. Of course, for drivers other alternatives need to be offered.

Childcare

All countries of the associations that took part in the survey have a legal possibility enabling their employees to get exempted from work or to get a special leave at short notice in case of a child’s illness. The same applies to the answers of the trade union questionnaire: In all countries there is subsidization of costs for childcare by the social security system, the employers or other authorities. Corporate measures of childcare include:

In order to improve childcare for employees in Berlin, it was suggested during the work meeting to establish a “parent-child-room” in the company’s headquarters in order to give the employees the possibility to take their children to work if it is necessary.
Practice examples: In Helsinki, and Finland in general, the regulations for childcare and parental leave are quite comprehensive. Until the end of the second year, during which the child attends basic education, a partial childcare leave (mother/father) is possible. Salary is paid under temporary childcare leave (in case of child illness; mother/father) for 4 working days. Municipalities have an obligation to arrange childcare for children until they start their primary school. The state also supports municipalities to arrange morning and afternoon care for children during their first and second year in primary school. In general, in Finland the childcare system is good: efficient, affordable and high-quality childcare system: subjective right for full-day childcare for children under 3 years of age, state-subsidized childcare fees. These official regulations have to be followed by employers. They are not entitled to terminate the employment contract of an employee on maternity, special maternity, paternity, parental or childcare leave on financial and production-related grounds; this is possible only if employer’s operations cease completely.

In Antwerp, the city is responsible to guarantee childcare for children at the age of zero to three years. According to the answers in the questionnaire, the company supports employees to find childcare and offers support in case of child illness (e.g. flexible working time arrangements). Moreover, cooperation with external institutions for childcare as well as part-time working possibility for parents of children under and at school age exists. In Sofia, employees can get exempted from work at short notice, e.g. in case of child illness and a long-term and binding holiday planning exists. Furthermore, regarding holiday planning, priority is given to employees with schoolchildren. In Bucharest, the company “Metrorex” also supports employees to find childcare and offers support in case of child illness (e.g. flexible working time arrangements). In addition, the company pays a lump sum in case of childbirth. The amount of this sum has not been indicated. The company “RATB” also supports employees to find childcare and offers support in case of child illness (e.g. flexible working time arrangements). In addition, employees can get exempted from work at short notice, e.g. in case of child illness. Other measures in relation to childcare include long-term and binding holiday planning with priority of holiday planning for employees with schoolchildren, internal leisure activities for children of employees during school holidays, the payment of a lump sum in case of childbirth as well as part-time working possibility for parents of children under school age.

Kindergarten
Public kindergartens are available in all cities of the work meetings; however the opening hours differ not only from city to city but also from one facility to another. In Berlin and Sofia it was said that the availability (number of kindergartens) and the access (opening hours) is positive. The opening hours range from 6 a.m. at the earliest until 7.30 p.m. at the latest. In some countries the opening hours were assessed insufficient for full-time workers and incompatible for shift work. This is the case if kindergartens open too late in the morning and close too early in the afternoon.

In none of the cities visited, a corporate kindergarten or childcare center exists. BVG in Berlin and Stolichen Elektrotransport in Sofia have offered such facility in the past but, due to a decreasing demand, the corporate kindergartens have been disestablished some years ago. At BVG, as a reaction on an internal employee survey, only 2 employees expressed their wish to establish such facility again. The associations’ questionnaire delivers the following results regarding kindergartens: in all countries (four of six) where regulations on part-time/full-time work exist, there is an easy access to affordable childcare. Although the situation of kindergartens seems rather positive, companies should think about starting cooperation with local kindergartens in order to further improve the accessibility and affordability of childcare for employees. The personal statements of women in the interviews have shown that the infrastructure of kindergartens is not as satisfactory as it could be if more offers for “childcare centers” or better opening hours (24 hours, 7 days a week) would exist. Especially in Bucharest, it has been mentioned several times that childcare is organized because; often both parents are employed in the same company, so they could arrange their shifts accordingly. However women, especially those, who do not have a partner in the same company, often wish to have the option to send their children to a corporate kindergarten, which does not exist in the companies.
Elder care
All countries of the associations that took part in the survey have a legal possibility to get exempted from work or to get special leave at short notice if an employee’s family member is in need of urgent care. Costs for family members in need of care are subsidized in three of the six countries.

The trade union questionnaire revealed that costs for family members in need of care are subsidized in 10 of the 11 countries, from which the trade unions took part in the study.

Practice example: Elder care meetings: At BVG in Berlin, employees with an (elder) family member in need of care meet to exchange information and experiences two times a year. In addition, they learn more about different age-related diseases in special seminars.

In Helsinki, employees have the right to be absent for compelling family reasons (women/men) and for nursing a family member or another close person (women/men).

In Bucharest, elder care is supported as follows: At “Metrorex”, employees can get exempted from work at short notice, e.g. in case of exceptional circumstances.

At “RATB”, ad-hoc support in case of emergencies (e.g. for family members that need to care for their dependants) is possible. Furthermore, employees can get exempted from work at short notice, e.g. in case of exceptional circumstances. Other measures for employees with family members in need of care include telework.

4c) Health and safety at workplace
In order to further analyze the workplace safety and security of the employees working in the public transport sector, both terms have to be defined.

Workplace safety means all issues connected with health, the environment and being safe at work. For example, for preventing accidents at work, workplace safety plans have to exist and need to be realized.

Workplace security means issues connected with the police, such as preventing crime, attacks by third parties, terrorism etc.

The main difference between the terms is that

- Safety implies the prevention of dangers or accidents that happen without intention or purposeless, but
- Security implies the prevention of dangers or crimes that are executed intentionally by other people.

Safety and security at work is a very important topic for the urban public transport sector. This could be proved by the statements of all target groups asked in the quantitative surveys as well as in the work meetings and interviews.

Regarding the measures to improve workplace safety, 76.9 % of the trade unions indicated to have implemented measures to increase the safety of employees. Comparable answers were given in the WISE study for associations (80%). However, the impact of this measure for improving equality between women and men is not rated as high (38.5%). This might lead to the conclusion that these countering measures are not effective enough as tools for improving gender equality, or not valued by employees (do not lead to satisfaction: hygiene factor), or both. Possible reasons for these measures’ low effectiveness have to be further analyzed in order to optimize activities, implement new ones and to improve their success.

Answers on different measures applied in the companies: (improvement of employees’ personal security in the graph’s second line)
Answers on the impact of different measures applied in the companies: (impact of the measures for the employees’ personal security in the graph’s second line)

In every country and company visited during the work meetings, representatives have reported about violence, which drivers have or had to face. In Sofia, for example, app. 10–12 cases have occurred in one year. In Helsinki, it was mentioned that violence cases have increased from 2008 to 2010.

The outcome of the quantitative survey for companies shows that activities for increasing the workplace safety and security have high priority. Regarding the occupational health and safety, 89.6% of the companies have already improved the hygiene conditions hygiene factors in the workplace of employees. As far as the security is concerned, 62.0% have also introduced measures to protect employees from the violence of others.

In the quantitative survey, most of the trade union members reported about security at the work place, especially regarding violence of third parties. In 11 of 14 trade unions this topic was raised.

Violence cases (passengers/third parties)

“Insecurity and feelings of insecurity compromise the freedom to work under satisfactorily safe physical and psychological conditions, as well as the freedom of mobility and access to services in the urban environment.” This was said by Roberto Cavallieri, President of the EU Committee of the International Association of Public Transport (UITP) on the European joint conference on “Social-dialogue and good practices for the fight against insecurity in local public transport”, which was held in November 2003 in Naples, Italy. On this conference, the European social partners signed recommendations19 that aim to develop policies on the prevention of insecurity in public transport, which include training, the protection of installations, equipment and staff, and social mediation. The recommendations also aim to elaborate policies on physical, psychological and financial redress following crimes of vandalism, incivility, theft and assaults. On the occasion of this conference, the European social partners issued an appeal to public transport companies, police and judicial authorities to provide assistance in the fight against insecurity.20

The formulation and signing of the recommendations have been preceded by an EU-Social Partners’ study on “Insecurity and feelings of insecurity in local public transport” with representatives of the managements and trade unions in the local public transport companies from the five European cities Antwerp, Barcelona, Berlin, Stockholm and Valenciennes conducted in 2002. Within the WISE project, the issue of security at the workplace is mainly raised in connection with the workplace of drivers and with violence cases of third parties and/or passengers. In Sofia, third-party violence mostly is carried out by passengers.
In Sofia, one of the nationally represented trade unions and the Mayor of the city have signed an agreement for joint action on prevention of work related harassment and violence of women in capital's public transport companies in 2009. The agreement includes collection of data, preparation of analysis and proposal of measures, such as a self-defense course for women. Corporate measures in one company visited include the installation of emergency buttons in vehicles to call the head of operation and/or the police. In addition, every driver has a private and business mobile phone for every shift, with which communication with supervisors or police is possible. Moreover, after the accidents, in which two drivers have been involved in, a closed cabin has been installed in trams. However, when saving the drivers, the well-being of the passengers needs to be taken into account. Some passengers feel safer when the driver is not “closed-up” in a cabin and when he is addressable in case of problems or dangers the passengers might encounter. Therefore, other measures of transport companies to improve the security at the drivers’ workplace include technical and educational measures, such as communication trainings and trainings on how to prevent conflicts and deal with them if they occur.

In Helsinki, similar measures were taken: internal trainings broach the issue of dealing with threats and violence. Moreover, new violence might have been bought. They are equipped with cabins and a controlling system, enabling the drivers to press an emergency button for informing the control centre.

In some of the work meetings it has been underlined that employees sometimes do not dare to speak about or report violence cases – neither about physical nor about psychological violence. So, employees should be encouraged to address their problems. In this respect, the installation of a body or person for complaints is crucial. Apart from this critical aspect of speaking about incidents, violence cases have a negative influence on the image of the company and the entire sector, especially if they are reported in the media like newspapers, television or social media like youtube, facebook etc. As a consequence, the image suffers and can have counterproductive effects on women employment.

In the interviews, many women mentioned that the fear of violence and aggression (also among passengers) belongs to the disadvantage or critical aspects of their (drivers’) job in the sector. Consequently, it seems to be an important barrier for women employment. Some of the statements were: “The violence is becoming more common, this discourages women as well.” “A big problem at the moment is the media discussions about the violence towards bus drivers (…). I’m worried about the influence it will have on the women’s consideration, who think about working in this field.”

In Bucharest, where pregnant women are not allowed to do night shifts, one women in the interviews said that working in night shifts is difficult for women in general, because it is too dangerous. Although cases of verbal aggression and violence against employees occur in the sector, it is important to point out that violence is a common societal problem and by no means an issue in public transport alone. Nonetheless, the image of the sector as a perceived unsafe workplace might be a barrier to women employment, which needs to be overcome.

**Infrastructure (vehicles/equipment/toilet)**

In Sofia the work meetings and interviews have revealed different conditions of infrastructure and vehicles for employees. Drivers in one enterprise expressed the wish that the company should invest in new and modern vehicles with air condition in summer and heating in winter. At another company these conditions are assessed better. Furthermore, facilities like dressing and break rooms with food and drinks are available. The biggest infrastructural problem addressed – in many cities – is the lack and bad state of sanitary facilities. So, the absence of toilets is a big problem for female and male drivers. In addition, if sanitary facilities are available they are often in a bad state because of low maintenance.

In Helsinki, companies offer separate dressing rooms, saunas and toilets for men and women in the depots and the number of rest/break facilities has increased in the past few years outside the depots. It was mentioned that the tendering process influences the existence and state of facilities like toilets because after winning a tender, a transport service is offered for a certain number of years but afterwards – if another company offers this service – the maintenance might be reduced. Some of the problem seems to be the non-consistent responsibility for installing and maintaining these facilities. That is why the buyer HSL has taken the responsibility to build and maintain rest/break rooms outside the depots.

The BVG in Berlin has separate sanitary facilities for women and men in all divisions, internally and externally. The same applies to dressing rooms and washing/shower rooms.

**Sexual harassment**

Sexual harassment is often not perceived as such by women, although some cases of bad jokes and unacceptable behavior between men and women exist – especially in the workshops, a rough atmosphere and rude conversation is very common. On the one hand, women feel that they need to be tougher in facing this situation. On the other hand, some women say that the working atmosphere between men and women is more relaxed than between only women. Apart from sexual harassment between colleagues, gender discrimination also happens between driving personnel and passengers.

In the cities visited, different contact bodies or persons can be approached in case of problems or conflicts. (see section office for complaints)

The procedure in case of such incidences is different. In Berlin the usual way is that the employee doing the harassment will get 1) a first notice, 2) a second notice and, if the person does not stop its activities, 3) a dismissal will follow.

In Helsinki, one company representative confirms that there is sexual harassment in some cases, where management and occupational health and safety representatives have intervened in cooperation with the shop stewards. It was said that such behavior is not tolerated and has to be kept under control. So, in case of problems, women either contact representatives of management, one of the shop stewards or one of the occupational health and safety representatives. Both have the possibility and responsibility to intervene and they meet the management regularly to address the employees’ issues. Moreover, it was said that such harassment takes place in both directions, which means that not only women are affected.
At Delijn Antwerp, there are two social workers, who can be addressed in case of sexual harassment. After the approach of the social workers they try to mediate between the corresponding parties. The experiences that have been made are very good. In Sofia, the situation is different between companies. Representatives of one company said that violence cases did not happen. Employees of the other company have reported that there have been three cases in the past 10 years, where passengers have harassed female drivers. After the supervisor’s consultation did not lead to success, a “committee of complaints” has been established that can be addressed. This committee consults both parties of the conflict and makes a decision. According to the statements of the apprentices at all work meeting, sexual harassment seems not to be a big issue. They said, at times some male colleagues behave as if women were not able or (technically) skilled enough to do their job as good as men but in general they said to feel well-treated. What became obvious during the work meetings was that the position (hierarchical level) of the institution or person for complaints is very important. Consequently, companies should avoid that the department for complaints is directly linked to a department or person, who is responsible for “hiring and firing”. So, the easier women can access this institution; the lower will be the barrier for a first contact. That is why, in some cases the representatives in the work meetings argued that women sometimes do not dare to address their issues because of the consequences it may entail.

Practice example: In Helsinki, for example, shop stewards (employees, who are also trade union members) and occupational health and safety representatives (employees, who can be trade union members or not) can be approached by all employees. Blue-collar workers can elect their own shop stewards and occupational health and safety representatives. These employees meet the management regularly and can address current problems and help to solve them. For the women taking part in the interviews, the aspect of not daring to report problems was not a big issue. Indeed, women rarely report to experience sexual harassment. They rather speak about “bad jokes”, which are perceived as “normal”. So, until a certain degree, sexual harassment or incorrect behavior of men is tolerated. In one of the cities, some young apprentices said they would only report problems to the women’s representative if jokes are getting worse and if bullying at workplace begins.

Office for complaints
The following persons (corporate institutions) can be approached in case of social or work-related problems such as sexual harassment. Except for Berlin, all these persons can be approached by both, men and women. Apart from these institutions the employees’ supervisors and regional managers should be approachable for any kind of challenge. Of course, this highly depends on the personal relationship and confidence between employee and supervisor.

In Berlin there is one selected women representative per division available (11 women representatives for 11 divisions), which can be approached by female employees. In Helsinki, first the supervisor or regional manager should be addressed in case of problems. If this did not lead to success, occupational health and safety representatives as well as chief and local shop stewards are at the employees’ disposal. All these people meet the management regularly in order to address the employees’ interests. At Delijn Antwerp, two social workers can be approached in case of problems or sexual harassment.

In Sofia, a “committee for complaints” can be approached by employees (women and men) to address any complaints and problems. Another option is a letter box for informing the trade union about personal issues or for making proposals for improvement in a written form. One trade union collected a lot of reports and questionnaires and used them as “inspiration” for proposals to companies.

Break rooms/dress rooms/lockers, canteens
The situation of break and dress rooms as well as canteens is similar to the situation of toilets. Women in the interviews often said that they need more of these rooms with a shelter in order to eat their lunch and to rest for their usual 30-minutes-break. Neither the amount of these facilities, nor the state (untidy, unsheltered) is satisfactory. The situation of missing break and dress rooms is not satisfactory for all employees because it hinders employees to have a relaxing break and, thus, it reduces work satisfaction and motivation.

Statements and recommendations regarding the toilets and break rooms mentioned in the interviews include: install toilets at every final stop, install canteens / break rooms and ensure a min. break of 30 minutes to relax.

Although many women and work meeting participants complain about the issue of sanitary facilities, restrooms etc., the companies and trade unions did not mention this topic in the returned questionnaire as a reason for a lack of women in the sector.
4d) Working Culture

Especially the working culture in a company, the corporate culture, is of high significance, when accessing women employment. When a working culture is based on diversity and tolerance towards different people and their individual background, it is often assumed that this may also have a positive impact on the company's attractiveness for women.

Based on the definition of "corporate/organisational culture" (glossary) a "male working culture" is supposed to be a corporate culture oriented on male attributes and focused on men as an internal and external target group. As a conclusion, in a "male working culture" it must be more promising for female employees to act like men and to show masculine, rather than feminine characteristics. However, this conclusion is very speculative and could not be statistically proved within the WISE project.

In general, the attributes of genders, men and women, which are important for the contact between people, highly correspond with gender stereotypes. (see corresponding subchapter page 30 – 32)

In the quantitative WISE survey, 55.2 % of the representatives of the transport companies consider the typical "male working culture" as an obstacle to equality in the public transport sector. Since this aspect is the top answer among the obstacles of equal opportunities, the company’s working culture plays an important role for women employment. During the work meetings and in the interviews it was also mentioned that the so-called “male working culture” is hindering women employment in the urban public transport sector.

The following graph illustrates the reasons for a lack of women given by the companies:

![Reasons for a lack of women in the company (percentages; n=29)](image)

Although in many studies the typical "male working culture" is seen as a barrier to equal opportunity in the public transport sector (e.g. Global Gender Gap Report 2010), the associations that answered the WISE questionnaire, rarely apply measures to improve the working culture. 40% of associations are planning such activities but promotion of networks for women, for example, is not very common.

The answers of the trade unions questionnaire also reflect problems with the typical "male working culture" as well as with existing gender stereotypes. 11 of 14 trade unions (78.6%) rank this aspect (together with shift work) on top-position among the reasons for the lack of women in the sector. So, companies and trade unions agree on the fact that the "male working culture" and the shift work are the most important obstacles for women employment. Regarding the physical and mental strain in some of the sector's jobs, companies and trade unions gave different answers. While companies rank this aspect, together with the shift work on the second position (57.1%), the trade unions rank this aspect on position 5. The following graph illustrates reasons for a lack of women given by the trade unions:

![Reasons for a lack of women in urban public transport companies represented by members (absolute numbers; n=14) – Trade union questionnaire](image)

However, during the WISE project the term "male working culture" has never been clearly defined. The answers given rather seem to result from:

- The fact that the urban public transport sector is a sector of high gender segregation (glossary), which is based on the historical development and on the fact that the sector offers more job professions in the operational and technical field than in the commercial field. The consequence of the fact mentioned above: women are numerically under-represented in this sector, given that they tend to have a minor interest in technical and operational professions, therefore: Women might feel urged to perform like men or even better than men in order to be successful.

- Are masculine attributes really promising for working in the sector?

Some of the women stated in the interviews that, from their point of view, it is necessary to act like men and to adapt male thinking in order to have a successful career in a company. In addition they perceived the necessity to perform better than men in order to be accepted in their job. Nonetheless, this argument was not given by all interviewees. Some of the women clearly pointed out that they do not need to outplay men – they just need to be good in their job. The different statements seem to be based on age and experiences of women, because especially young apprentices said that they just need to have good professional qualifications and that a person's gender does not matter that much like their personal characteristics.
In summary, the WISE project has shown that the entire aspect of "(male) working culture" is crucial for women's employment in the urban public transport sector. This needs to be further analyzed, for example, by future project studies since it exceeds the scope of the WISE project. For companies, associations, and trade unions, it is important to sensitize their employees and members (men and women) for this issue of working culture and gender stereotypes. This could be done for example by including this aspect in training offers. Apart from gender characteristics, other topics also belonging to working culture are described in the following.

**Working clothes**

The professional clothes for employees (in this case for drivers) are an essential factor of working culture. The clothes are important for the employees' identification with the company and they represent both, the company and the employee, to the customers. Untidy, broken, incomplete, or even missing working clothes do not give a good impression to passengers, who might draw conclusions from the clothes to the entire company.

For several women in the interviews, the working clothes have been mentioned as critical factors. They said that sometimes working clothes are not available at all for women. Sometimes they are only available in "men sizes" and therefore do not fit women. Especially in Antwerp and Sofia, this was the case. Since working clothes strongly represent a company's working culture, the fact that only male working clothes are available, might lead to the conclusion of a company's "male working culture" – not only perceived by customers.

**Working atmosphere**

The statements on the working atmosphere given in the interviews and mentioned in the following represent a very subjective view and do not reflect the general opinion of female or male employees in the sector's companies. The atmosphere among colleagues is assessed positive. In general women support a balanced gender share in a company. Although a few women report to have experienced, or at least to have observed, conflicts with colleagues (with male or female) they feel well-accepted at work. Especially in Berlin, the majority of women speak of a good working atmosphere at their workplace. This was underlined by the following frequent statements "The public transport sector is a great place for women" and "BVG is a big family". Other issues influencing the working atmosphere positively are: pleasure at work ("I like driving") and the general perception that "women are well-suited for the sector". Further positive aspects include the work characteristics like social contacts to colleagues and passengers, which are positive and enjoyable for many women, work independence as well as the responsibility for passengers, for which drivers deliver an important transport service.

Concerning the atmosphere between women and men, it is surprising that many women do not see problems with male colleagues but with female colleagues. These conflicts between women, resulting from possible competition or other issues, have to be taken into account. Furthermore, the working atmosphere between employees of different countries and cultures, such as between local employees and employees of ethnic minorities (e.g. immigrants), is an issue among drivers. This is especially the case if misunderstandings happen due to communication problems, which are often caused by a lack of the local language's knowledge. Companies should be aware of this topic and offer language trainings, like for example, at DeLijn in Antwerp.

**Relationship and communication between employees and supervisors**

Regarding the relationship between supervisors and employees and the aspect of work appreciation, many women in the interviews see potential for improvement. For example, communication between employees and their supervisors can be optimized. This is often criticized by driving personnel. They state that supervisors (and/or schedulers) decide on the drivers' schedule but sometimes they do not know what it means to keep it during peak hours. "(Make decisions on things they don't work in the real world.)" The majority of employees want to have supervisors, who show appreciation for the employees' work and who treat men and women equally.

In general, more work appreciation for personal performance is required by many employees. Measures should include the initiation of regular individual employee and career development discussions as well as regular surveys and feedbacks on the supervisors' performance. Partly, it was complaint that male supervisors are not able to discuss issues with their female employees. Many women argue for a solid and sensible communication culture as an instrument of employee motivation.

The special leading qualities of female supervisors mentioned in the interviews are key factors for the support of more women in leading positions: "My boss is a woman and it's nice. I notice that she's very committed and this motivates me." and "Women work very precisely, much more sensitive and they add a 'social spice' to their work."

**Gender stereotypes**

As mentioned above, the "male working culture" is seen as a barrier for women's employment in the urban public transport sector. Although this term has not been defined clearly within the WISE project, the percentage of men exceeding the percentage of women in this sector, leads to the assumption that this special working culture similarly perceived by companies and trade unions is of high significance for the success of increasing the women share in urban public transport companies. However, the statements connected to "male working culture" are highly based on gender stereotypes. Consequently, this issue needs to be considered within this project report.
The description of stereotypes and the findings on the existence of gender stereotypes across Europe stated below are based on a European study of 2006, which identified similarities and differences in the ways women and men leaders are perceived across European cultures, and, which addresses whether the consequences of stereotyping varies for women leaders in different European cultures. The 935 respondents from this study have been clustered according to their cultural similarity. This similarity has been identified based on the results of completed Cultural Perspective Questionnaires (CPQ)\(^21\). According to these results four different clusters could be identified: the Nordic cluster (Denmark, Norway, Sweden), the Latin cluster (Italy, France, Spain), the Germanic cluster (Germany, the Netherlands) and the Anglo cluster (United Kingdom, United States).\(^22\)

In general, stereotypes are “perceptions about the qualities that distinguish groups or categories of people. They can apply to any category that a society considers important – from gender to caste to religious affiliation. According to psychologists “people use stereotypes as a short-cut to help them anticipate the motives, abilities, and behaviours of others.” In this way, stereotypes are routinely – and often unconsciously – used by individuals to assess one another. Stereotypes deliver some kind of expediency to people, so that they do not necessarily need to know each other in detail. Although this might be helpful in daily life, stereotypes imply the danger of misunderstanding people based on incomplete information, which can lead to unjustified decisions.\(^23\)

The results of the study show that stereotypic perceptions of women’s and men’s leadership do exist – even though the perceptions are not supported by objective evidence. So the claims of European women managers that gender stereotyping limits women’s advancement in business management could be confirmed.

The strongest stereotypic beliefs are as follows:

Both, women and men respondents perceive that:

- **Women leaders outperform men at the leadership attribute “supporting others”**
- **Women hold the perception that:**
  - **Men are more effective than women leaders at “influencing upward”**
- **Men perceive that:**
  - **Men outperform women leaders at “problem-solving”**

These beliefs define women leaders as people-oriented “care-takers” and men leaders as action-oriented leaders, who “take charge” of people and situations.

Furthermore, managers’ perceptions do not match objective studies of women’s and men’s leadership and their stereotypic perceptions were so widely shared that they are supposed to be sources of bias at workplace.

With regards to cultural differences, the study confirmed that culture can affect how women leaders are impacted by gender stereotypes but the strongest stereotypic perceptions mentioned above are not influenced by cultural differences. In every culture, respondents perceived the largest differences between women and men at supporting others, problem-solving, and influencing upward. One reason for this consistency in the stereotypic descriptions of “taking care” and “taking charge” perceptions of both genders is that they appear to come from a common source – broad gender stereotypes about women’s and men’s traits that were shared across cultures. However, in some cultures more than in others, stereotyping perceptions of women discredited their effectiveness at highly valued aspects of leadership – with potentially damaging effects. So, especially for male-dominated domains like the urban public transport sector, stereotypes might create challenges for women leaders. Ironically, stereotypes are more pervasive in countries with higher levels of gender equality. For example, in the Nordic cluster, men perceived women leaders to be ineffective at delegating, which could be damaging to the women because of the high cultural value placed on this leadership attribute. Based on psychological research, it is argued in the study that trying to actively suppress stereotypes often paradoxically increases stereotypic thinking. This may explain why in countries where gender equality is valued, more individuals are likely to be motivated, due to cultural pressures, to appear unbiased and avoid stereotypic thinking.\(^24\)

In order to put the results in the right perspective, it is essential to point out that the study measures descriptive (description of women’s and men’s behavior) and not prescriptive stereotypes (required/prescribed behavior of women and men). The latter could be prevalent in less egalitarian countries (showing smaller efforts on gender equality), where women are disliked or might face negative consequences if they violate prescriptive stereotypes about their role – for example if they show leadership competence, although in some Latin countries stereotypes imply they should not occupy leadership roles.\(^25\)

As far as the experiences in the WISE project are concerned, gender stereotypes are present in the countries and companies visited. Statements on the prescriptive and descriptive behavior of men and women given in the work meetings, in the interviews as well as in the answers (on a “male working culture”) in the quantitative survey underline this fact. Regarding the cultural differences, there is no absolute evidence, where stereotypes are stronger and where they are less strong or less obvious.

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\(^{21}\) CPQ measures the different kind of individual beliefs and preferences about how people should relate to 1) each other (individualism, collectivism or hierarchy); and 2) the environment (mastery, harmony or subjugation) – dimensions of culture that are important in distinguishing cultures – as previous research could prove.

\(^{22}\) Different Cultures, Similar Perceptions: Stereotyping of Western European Business Leaders; Martha Maznevski (Ph.D.), Karsten Jonsen, Institute for Management Development (IMD), Lousanne, Switzerland; published by CATALYST, New York, 2006, p. 5-6.

\(^{23}\) Ibid, p. 9.

\(^{24}\) Different Cultures, Similar Perceptions: Stereotyping of Western European Business Leaders; Martha Maznevski (Ph.D.), Karsten Jonsen, Institute for Management Development (IMD), Lousanne, Switzerland; published by CATALYST, New York, 2006, p. 4, 22, 27, 29, 33.

\(^{25}\) Ibid, p. 31.
Moreover, it is interesting that, on the one hand, in Berlin, despite the corporate strategic efforts for gender equality (“women representatives”, “women employment scheme”), the women’s total share with about 17%, is not much higher than in other countries visited. On the other hand in Bulgaria and Romania, the total share is around 30% - although there are obviously fewer efforts taken on gender equality. So, the women share in the companies does not necessarily reflect the importance and efforts taken on gender equality. It can be assumed that, although some stereotypes do not differ between cultures, different regions and countries require different approaches and solutions for the reduction of gender stereotypes and for the increase of the number of female employees in the company. These measures also depend on the heaviness of stereotypes existing in the countries and companies. So first, stereotypes need to be analyzed and second, appropriate measures have to be initiated.

Concluding the findings above, gender stereotypes (descriptive and prescriptive) exist. They are wide-spread and play an important role for women employment. The strongest stereotypes are similar in different European countries; some others differ from culture to culture. Since, stereotypes and solutions of how to reduce or to eliminate them is a very complex matter, it is challenging to find clear answers within the scope of the WISE project – especially because the dissimilar stereotypic situations in the different countries regarded in this project require different solutions.

A possible procedure to reduce gender stereotypes in companies could consist of the following steps:

1. Companies need to commit strategically to the reduction and/or abolishment of gender stereotypes as a basis for gender discrimination.
2. Corporate Measures should be strategically anchored through all departments and hierarchy levels.
3. Examination (e.g. internal company studies/surveys) of the degree of existing stereotypes, which should be preceded by:
4. Definition of detailed measures and time plans for countering existing stereotypes, e.g. trainings to sensitize employees on the issue.

In addition to this, some of the Social Partners’ recommendations in this project report will consider possible ways to reduce gender stereotypes within organisations.

Besides the WISE project, further research on the issue – especially based on the urban public transport sector – needs to be initiated. Since many stereotype studies seem to be focused on women and men in management positions, it would be interesting to make sector-based investigations and to establish further research on the existence and awareness of gender stereotypes among women and men in other hierarchy positions and (technical) departments such as workshops. A similar study for drivers for example might deliver interesting results, which can contribute to a better understanding of working culture and gender stereotypes in the urban public transport sector.

Role models

Female employees in a certain (leading) position can serve as idols or role models (glossary) for other female employees, given that they are accepted and/or successful. There is general consensus (in work meetings and interviews) on the fact that the existence of such idols would help to increase the women share in the transport sector by encouraging other women to apply at companies where the woman share is high or, if they are already employed. This became obvious especially in Berlin, with a woman on the company’s top position, which was valued and appreciated by many women interviewed.

4e) Wages

Since the questions on wages in the quantitative WISE surveys and in the work meetings were focused on the wages of drivers, they are mainly considered in this chapter. However, regarding the statements in the interviews, women of many different professions have given their personal opinion on their salary. Nonetheless, these opinions cannot be assessed objectively, nor compared with other European studies or average figures. The women’s opinions just leave an impression of subjective satisfaction or dissatisfaction concerning the individual payment.

Equal payment

In order to take a closer look at the equality of payment between female and male workers the term “wage inequality” respectively “gender pay gap” has to be defined. So, gender pay gap means “the average difference between men’s and women’s hourly earnings (…). The gender pay gap reflects ongoing discrimination and inequalities in the labour market which, in practice, mainly affect women. Its causes are complex and interrelated.”

According to the Belgian Presidency report 2010 on the gender pay gap in the Member States of the European Union, “the gender pay gap nowadays still averages 18% in the European Union. The pay gap is partly explained by the persistence of pay discrimination for equal work or work of equal value, despite the fact that European legislation combating this type of gender-based discrimination has existed since the European Community was created, and despite the widespread adoption of national legislation in this area. This phenomenon is continuing, even though women’s employment rates, job opportunities and levels of education have increased in all States, and despite the fact that girls do better than boys at school and make up the majority of those completing higher education.”

The elimination of the pay gap, and consequently the abolishment of inequalities between men and women at work, remains a considerable challenge for ensuring smart, sustainable and inclusive growth and for attaining the European Union’s objectives of the Europe 2020 strategy.28

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27 The gender pay gap in the Member States of the European Union: quantitative and qualitative indicators, Belgian Presidency report 2010, Addendum 2 (16516/10 ADD 2)
“Gross hourly earnings levels of women and men vary very considerably from one country to another. The lowest hourly earnings are found in Bulgaria (about EUR 1) while the highest are found in Ireland (EUR 21.50 for women and EUR 25.90 for men). The average hourly earnings in 24 Member States of the European Union are EUR 8.58 for women and EUR 10.43 for men.”

The following graph illustrates the average gross hourly earnings of women and men working full time and part time (in euro), countries arranged in increasing order of female earnings (2006).

In the European Union the average pay gap is 18%. It ranges from 4% in Italy to 27% in Estonia. In Italy, Slovenia, Poland, Romania, Portugal, Belgium, Luxembourg, Bulgaria, Hungary, Latvia, France and Lithuania the gap is less than 16%. Sweden, Spain, Ireland, Greece and Finland have a pay gap which is nearer to the European average. Cyprus, Germany, the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Slovakia and Estonia have a wide pay gap of over 22%.

The following graph illustrates the average gross hourly pay gaps for women and men working full time and part time (in euro), countries arranged in increasing order of the pay gap (2006).

Within the urban public transport sector – at least within the same tariff payment groups – it was found that the principle “same wage for same work” is valid. However, it needs to be pointed out that the WISE survey among companies only asked for starting salaries and does not include the career and, consequently, wage development of male and female employees. In addition, the salaries of employees, who belong to the non-tariff payment group, are not included in the survey. Therefore, the actual payment equality and the identification of a specific wage gap percentage within the WISE project are not possible.

In future studies dealing with payment conditions in the transport sector need to examine in detail if there is a wage gap between women and men. Questions that should be answered in such a project include:

1. Is there an inequality of wages between certain employee groups, such as female and male employees?
2. How high is the average wage gap percentage in the European urban public transport sector?
3. Do differences exist between Northern, Southern, Western and Eastern countries? If yes, at what percentage?
4. What are the main reasons for this pay gap?
5. How can this pay gap be reduced or eliminated – measures, best-practice examples?

Regarding the adequateness of payment for the job’s requirements, the interviewees have given different answers. Some think they are well and adequately paid, others are not satisfied. What makes the evaluation difficult is the fact that in many countries, people do not speak about their salary. So the adequateness of payment – especially if employees compare themselves with colleagues – is often based on assumptions and not on knowledge. Furthermore, the women’s statements strongly depend on the employees’ job position, education and former job or sector. Another important aspect is the average salary in a country or in the sector. For the latter, the quantitative survey delivers interesting results:

29 Without Member States’ explicit consent, data are not accessible. In principle, the figures relate to the 27 Member States; many of the indicators, however, could not be calculated for Austria, Denmark and Malta, as micro-data were not available to researchers about those countries.
30 The gender pay gap in the Member States of the European Union: quantitative and qualitative indicators, Belgian Presidency report 2010, Addendum 2 (16516/10 ADD 2)
31 Council of the European Union, November 2010, p. 16.
32 Ibid.
33 Ibid.
Extra payment

The extra payment in the urban public transport sector, in this case for certain drivers’ shifts, is paid additionally to the basic salary mentioned above and accounts for a considerable part of the drivers’ total salary. The WISE questionnaire for companies revealed that 61% of all companies asked offer extra payment for weekend work. On average the height of extra payment is: 15% for evening work, 23% for night work, 51% for weekend work, 114% for work on public holidays and further 54% for other extra payment. In the companies of the work meetings, the extra payment for night work is not expressed in a certain percentage but according to an index-linked package of 1.39 Euro extra per working hour. It has to be mentioned that the term night work means different working hours, depending on the company. The starting time varies between 8 p.m. and midnight. It usually ends at 6 a.m. Extra payment for weekend work refers to work on Saturdays and sometimes on Sundays. The percentage depends on the working time. In general 15 – 65% is paid for Saturdays. One company pays 15% for Saturday work but 100% for Sunday work between 0 a.m. and 24 p.m. Further extra payment is granted for working on public holidays and on free days. The percentage on public holidays ranges from 100 – 135%. One company differentiates between work on public holidays according to the monthly working schedule (110% bonus) and work on public holidays for extraordinary work not according to the schedule (210% bonus). Another company offers extra payment (100%) for work on free days, e.g. if one employee replaces a colleague at short notice.

In the interviews, it was emphasized that these extra payments are attractive, especially if employees are single mothers or if the average wage is low in comparison to other sectors or countries. Especially in the Eastern European countries this is the case. Some interviewees pointed out that a “danger bonus” for drivers would also be desired. Apart from appreciations by monetary incentives, female drivers wish that supervisors and other colleagues would show more personal appreciation for their job and responsibility, e.g. by personal communication, recommendation or other support. They said this would increase their work satisfaction and motivation.

Advantages for employees

Incentives as a measure of employee motivation and binding exist in some of the cities visited. In Berlin, the public transport use is free of charge, wife/husband of employees pay 50%. Further incentives are: free medical care and psychological service, employment after apprenticeship for one year and one day, free social consulting and meeting targets. 21% of employees get incentive money. Some interviewees pointed out that a “danger bonus” for drivers is also needed. Apart from appreciation by monetary incentives, female drivers wish that supervisors and other colleagues would show more personal appreciation for their job and responsibility, e.g. by personal communication, recommendation or other support.

In Helsinki, incentives include price reductions for sport offers, sauna and for renting houses of the company’s real estate. Further incentives in Helsinki are granted based on the employee’s presence, fuel consumption and number of accidents (for drivers), customer feedback as well as meeting targets. 21% of employees get incentive money. Furthermore, statutory and also additional occupational health care is offered to the employees. It includes: health check when starting a job, workplace visits, follow-up of employees with long-term disabilities, co-operation and meetings with the healthcare, health condition follow up and all things to do with occupational diseases, health care visits to occupational health centers as well as active rehabilitation after a long absence caused by injury or sickness.

In Sofia, employees can also use the public transport free of charge; their husbands/wives get a 50% discount for tickets.
5) Career, Qualification and Trainings

Well qualified employees are the key for entrepreneurial success. If one has to fulfil the given tasks successfully, it is important that he or she has or is able to acquire the competencies needed. Furthermore, qualification is the basis for career progression in a company. In this context, but also in general, qualification needs to be updated: From the employer’s view, it is important for example, that employees in the sector know new legal regulations regarding driving or, that they have the required technical knowledge when working with new machines in maintenance departments. Furthermore, employees of the sector need to know the changing customers’ attitudes in order to react correspondingly. From the employees’ view, it is important to be able to maintain employability and to be “fit” in the job they are doing.

Regarding the qualification of female and male employees, the following numbers were given by the companies in the WISE study: Not differentiated by gender, 40.0% of all employees possess a professional degree (initial vocational education), while 36.7% have a basic education (school leaving certificate). Only 6.7% of all employees have a university degree, while 16.0% have completed vocational further education.

Considered separately by gender, differences are in favor of male employees in the categories of “school leaving certificate” and “initial vocational education”. However the differences are low. 37.6% of all male employees have a school leaving certificate. The distribution in the group of women also shows that the majority have such a certificate (33.2% of all women) or a professional degree in form of an initial vocational education (38.7% of all women). In comparison to men it needs to be pointed out that, within female workforce a larger proportion (10.5%) of employees have a university degree (men: 5.8%).

### Apprenticeship in Germany

Apprenticeship is one option to recruit new staff. In Germany, an apprenticeship is a common kind of vocational education. Many young people choose an apprenticeship after finishing school. This normally means that, for two or three years, they go to a vocational school and – at the same time – they learn on the job in a certain company. This combination of theoretical and practical education (dual professional apprenticeship) helps many young people to learn detailed tasks and to gain background information and knowledge, for example on economics or legal issues. The BVG in Berlin offers apprenticeships in technical, administrative and driving functions. The German apprenticeship “Fachkraft im Fahrbetrieb (FiF)” for example is an apprenticeship, where young people learn to handle different tasks. After their apprenticeship, they are not only qualified in driving, but also in technical issues as well as in administrative or other measures such as customer service or quality management.

This means that, after finishing the apprenticeship, they have many different possibilities to work for the company. Depending on vacancies, they have a larger choice of jobs within the enterprise, for example, they often can choose to work in different departments or starting a career, which includes different stations and departments within the enterprise.

At BVG in Berlin, 15% of the apprentices are women. To show a comprehensive picture of the situation, this overall percentage has to be split up into commercial apprentices and technical apprentices. Within the commercial department the share of women varies between 17.1% and 70.6% with an average value of 39.6%. Within the technical department, women are less present; the percentage varies between 0.0% and 14.3%.

The following graph shows the detailed share of female and male apprentices per department.

### Commercial Apprentices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>% Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Qualified Employees for Driving Services</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial Employees for Office Communication</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>83.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commercial Employees for Industrie Services</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>70.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>111</strong></td>
<td><strong>44</strong></td>
<td><strong>67</strong></td>
<td><strong>39.6%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Technical Apprentices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>% Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employees for Electronic Services</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees for Mechatronics</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial Mechanisms</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Scientists for System-Informations</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor Mechanics</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Railroad Workers</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Scientists</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>301</strong></td>
<td><strong>18</strong></td>
<td><strong>283</strong></td>
<td><strong>6.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### BVG Total

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Women</th>
<th>Men</th>
<th>% Women</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>412</strong></td>
<td><strong>62</strong></td>
<td><strong>350</strong></td>
<td><strong>15.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: BVG, 31.12.2010
So, it has to be underlined that the women’s presence in the commercial department is much higher than in the mechanical professions, which seems to reflect a typical role model of female and male professions with women working in the administration (for example office communication) and men working in the technical field (for example mechanics, railroad workers etc.) of the company. The development of the apprentices’ numbers shows a decrease.

A special challenge lies in attracting women for work in technical fields, here difficulties occur as the education systems are still characterised by a high gender-segregation (problem of horizontal gender segregation) and therefore it is hard to find women with adequate education. Companies therefore need to start “recruiting” at school-level to promote technical subjects and studies or an apprenticeship and to actively motivate girls to choose non-traditional education paths.

While in 2007, the total number of female apprentices was 70 (total number of apprentices 373) showing a share of 18.8%; in 2010 only 62 female apprentices of 412 (15.0%) were working at BVG. In 2011, the company has offered 129 apprenticeships, 34 of them could be staffed with women. Apprenticeships include many technical jobs, driving education (“FiF”, see above) and of course commercial professions, like secretaries, accountants etc. Their recruitment has started in 2010. In the period from 01.09.10 until 23.09.10, young girls have been addressed directly by the passengers’ information system in order to encourage them to apply for an apprenticeship. Beyond the scope of the WISE project, a good practice example for bringing girls to men’s occupations could be found in Austria – at the public transport company in Vienna (“Wiener Stadtwerke/Wiener Linien”) – to seize targeted measures for the promotion of women in occupations and areas that are male dominated so far. The holding company “Wiener Stadtwerke” that ranks among the 10 largest apprenticeship offering companies in Austria recruits 130 apprentices annually for 15 different education professions. Specific programmes and activities shall encourage girls/women, who are looking for an apprenticeship to choose a technical occupation within the company. Measures, which have been implemented, concern different aspects:34

General framework conditions

 ↑ Persons, who explicitly deal with the issue of women in the company and who are contact for female apprentices are in the HR-department and in the workers’ councils
 ↑ Creation of infrastructure/facilities for women within areas that are male dominated (e.g. own toilets, etc.)

Recruiting of female apprentices

 ↑ Offensive public relations and external communication: apprentice girls are promoted on posters, on the Internet, at vocational fairs, etc.
 ↑ Establishment and keeping of close co-operation with organisations advising girls and young women with the occupational choice and presenting Wiener Linien as potential employer on various occasions
 ↑ Participating in the “Viennese Daughters’ Day” ("Wiener Töchtertag") attracts girls to work in technical professions
 ↑ Invitation of all female applicants for technical occupations to acceptance tests
 ↑ Preferential recruitment of women for technical jobs, when qualifications of male and female applicants are equal
 ↑ Female apprentices are not placed in a department or team where there are exclusively men (at least 2 girls ideal-prove)

Training of apprentices

 ↑ Creation of instructor profile exactly determining necessary qualifications (also concerning the gender topic)
 ↑ Where possible, female instructors are teaching (e.g. first female instructor of mechatronics) in order that girls have a direct contact person and role model
 ↑ Training course for all instructors where the issue of female apprentices is explicitly dealt with (in a seminar on diversity and gender)
 ↑ Regular networking meetings of apprentice instructors in the crafts/technical field (every two months) as well as continuing contact with and support from the person in charge of apprentices are held
 ↑ The acquisition of auxiliary qualifications, that go beyond the requirements of the 3 to 4 years lasting apprenticeships, is prompted (e.g. European Computer Driving Licence, seminars on rhetoric and presentation techniques, promotion of social aptitudes, etc.) and open for all apprentices

Starting from the apprentice training, “Wiener Stadtwerke/Wiener Linien” motivates women and girls to seize also occupation in techniques, crafts and construction. As a result, the share of girls in the skilled occupation vehicle engineering experienced a rise by the threefold since 2006.

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34 WIR – Women In Railway, Good Practices and Implementation Guide, Study conducted on behalf of the Community of Railway and Infrastructure Companies (CER), the European Rail Infrastructure Managers (EIM) and the European Transport Workers Federation (ETF), KMU FORSCHUNG AUSTRIA, Austrian Institute for SME Research, Vienna 2012.
Training offers
In many countries, for example in Finland, trainings for drivers are offered in cooperation with an external training and development institute. Sometimes, the institutes have a focus on trainings for bus drivers or transportation jobs in general. These institutes often care for the initial trainings when a person wants to become a bus driver. In Finland, for example, the training for vocational qualification, as youth education, normally lasts three years and, as an apprenticeship, two to three years.

Concerning the initial vocational training, in Bulgaria, at least at the companies visited, the situation is different. As far as the professional training for tram and trolley bus drivers is concerned, they need to complete a theoretical and practical training lasting of six months each. After they have successfully completed training and examination, they work as practical assistant for drivers. Only after this procedure they are allowed to drive trolley bus or tram.

Regarding continuous qualification, it can be generally said that the European urban public transport companies apply the continuous training for bus drivers based on the directive 2003/59/EC on the initial qualification and periodic training. When applied, these trainings usually are used by the entire bus personnel. In most cases, the employers finance the training, sometimes the drivers themselves have to co-finance it. Only in a few cases, there is financial support by state or regional authorities. The EU directive 2003/59/EC regulates both, compulsory initial and continuous training for bus drivers, for example the continuous training includes 35 hours in 5 years. The trainings’ content usually implies dealing with threats and violence, economical and proactive driving as well as vehicle technology, emergency extinguishing and emergency first aid, first-aid and well-being at work. Furthermore, a focus often lies on customer service. For new drivers, there are orientation elements in the trainings. Furthermore, training-on-the-job between employees is offered, when new employees just have entered the company, for example tram drivers train tram drivers.

Besides the continuous trainings for bus drivers, many companies offer further trainings. At best, this means that trainings are offered for every employee at every hierarchy position and that there is no special distinction between the offers for women and men. The Finish company Nobina for example offers coaching to employees of the middle management and to executives. In most of the companies, there is no special distinction between the offers for women and men. For example at DeLijn in Antwerp, every employee gets an individual training of min. one day per year.

The opinion of the interviewed women regarding the satisfaction with the training offers differs: Some women say they like the seminars being offered and their content and that taking part is easy. Other women say that they don’t really know which trainings are offered for them (“I’ve never heard of any options for further training”) or they miss some focuses. For example they desire to take part in trainings for computer know-how or foreign languages. When offering trainings, it should be clear that they are not only directly, but also indirectly in line with competences needed for the current job or for a future position. Due to this fact, trainings do not only include skills needed for the current job, it should be normal that they go beyond compulsory content and also include interdisciplinary skills, like communication, customer orientation, language courses etc.

Special offers for special target groups
Most of the urban public transport companies do not offer special training courses for female employees, neither functional courses nor trainings for improving personal skills or dealing with gender issues. Some others, for example the BVG in Berlin, offer special training programmes for women. It mainly includes seminars to improve the self-consciousness of women. Furthermore they deal with managing the balancing act of profession and family, showing profile on the job – reaching professional and individual objectives etc. Since many years, these trainings have been running well and are well-demanded.

However, it cannot generally be said, whether special training offers for women are better than trainings for both genders. It depends, for example, on the gender equality policy of the companies. Each of them has to know which way fits best to the corporate gender policy and has to choose trainings accordingly. Many companies rely on “awareness raising trainings”, where gender topics can be one issue amongst others that depend on mentalities and culture (e.g. older employees, employees with migration background etc.).

Career development
For employees, who want to progress in their company, different possibilities exist. Still, the most frequent one is the classical vertical management career, which normally includes responsibility for money and / or for people and which is linked to a step onto a higher level of the internal hierarchy or job ladder. In most cases, men are in such positions, as the figures above have shown. However, improvement of equal opportunities for both, women and men, also means to enable career progression for women, whether in classical management careers or comparable horizontal careers with responsibility for special subjects or projects.

Regarding the possibilities in the companies and the desires of employees for a career progression, there are big differences between the enterprises and the women interviewed in the project. When looking at career development possibilities for women, there are no special ways or career paths. In most of the cases, there aren’t any fixed career paths at all but similar instruments. For example, an interviewed female manager said that, in her company every member of the management and every person with a key function do have a succession plan. According to this personal statement, the potential successors are trained in special trainings. At current, female persons are not represented in these programs. But the interviewee insists that in this program, it doesn’t matter whether you are a man or woman and that finally the qualification counts.

A representative from one of the companies visited stated that clear career paths and opportunities tailored specially for women might inspire more women to public transport companies, so that this could have an influence on recruiting. Another person said that, a support plan for women is not needed. Besides, as experiences of managers and employees show, it could create problems with men, who would feel disadvantaged. So in this aspect the opinions vary. Critically, such opinions need to be treated carefully because the argument that women need special support reflects a certain kind of stereotyped thinking.
When asking the employed women in the companies, the answers also differ. Some of them would appreciate clear career possibilities. One of the interviewed women reported, that she always went to the advanced training being offered to her and, surprisingly, she was actually asked to be promoted. Before that, she did not even thought about how she could advance within the company. Another woman said that, if somebody would offer her a higher position, she most likely would not decline.

Women, who are interested in a career promotion in their company, often missed that possible job openings are not advertised within the company. Regarding this aspect, some said that the trade unions can influence companies on filling job positions. For example, as far as internal recruitment is concerned, trade unions could insist on transparency – meaning that they should be informed, who can apply and who is invited for a job interview. So companies follow the approach that new workers shall be hired only in case of zero candidates for the position or eligible current employees. However, relying only on existing staff, can also be a problem because especially in male-dominated companies, there are just a few women that could be considered for vacancies. However, it is obvious that job advertisements normally need to be formulated “gender neutral” and cannot set a focus on women. An exception, for example, are job advertisements in Germany, where it is possible to claim that women are preferred in case of equal qualifications of male and female applicants. One of the interviewed women said that she would like to go to college, but would appreciate more support and help with the coordination. Since she was concerned of getting a rejection, she did not dare to ask her boss. If another colleague would accompany her and would also like to go to college, she would not be alone, and, this would motivate her.

It was really interesting to see that, even if career opportunities would be available, they would not apply for them, because they would rather drive a bus. They just like their job and feel good with it. They just would like to have some more support by their bosses. So here, the interest in getting promoted within the company is based on personal wishes and ambitions, and – as far as this aspect is concerned – this is also valid for men.

**Personal support by supervisors and appraisal talks**

In many companies, there are regular development discussions. They usually take place annually with the entire personnel. The focus of the discussions, for example for bus drivers, is: the evaluation of the past season, fuel consumption, idling, accidents, customer feedback and their training demand.

In a collective bargaining in Germany for the urban public transport in the German Federal State of Northrine-Westphalia, it has been agreed on that every employee, even every driver, has the right for regular feedback discussion with his/her boss once in a year. Of course, many companies have voluntary installed regular feedback discussions, but what is new here is the right of the employees to insist on the offer for such a discussion where personnel development is considered. At RATP, the urban public transport company in Paris, every employee should have a compulsory feedback discussion once in two years.

At one Finish company, the following instruments have been set up:

- Regular employee development discussion between supervisor and employee
- Monthly feedback discussions
- Individual competence matrix
- Individual development plans
- Annual employee satisfaction surveys

Many female employees in all companies visited would appreciate if there is a regular feedback by their boss and a transparent way of communication. From a good executive they require that he/she is able to make decisions, to be straightforward, to be honest and to communicate with the employees or target group involved in the matter. The executive should treat men and women equally. Many studies from other sectors have delivered comparable results. In the company in Berlin, regular employee discussions between employee and supervisor take place. Every second year, a survey among employees is carried out.

**Management skills**

At BVG in Berlin, the program “developing managers” exists. It includes feedback on employees in leading positions with the objective of developing managers. In this way, the differences as well as strengths and weaknesses of men and women in leading positions can be identified and used for further strategic decisions. This feedback should be anonymous. However, regarding the feedback for women in leading positions in might be difficult not to reveal the person, who is evaluated because the share of women in leading positions is very low.

Regarding training courses for employees in leading positions, seminars for both genders offered in Berlin proved a failure. Reasons are that when talking about special topics, women sometimes tend to be too reserved and timid in a gender mixed group. Therefore, these seminars are offered separately to men and women. Nowadays, seminars are offered to employees according to their personal situation, their wishes and expectations after having an individual conversation with the supervisor or the HR-department. In order to measure the supervisors’ leading performance, it is planned to get a feedback on the leading qualities and qualifications of each supervisor in each department.
Quota/target Figures
A women quota or a gender quota means a regulation for gender representation for bodies or for job positions in a company. The purpose of a women quota is the equality of women and men in society, politics and economy. In many countries, the constitution implies equal rights and equal opportunities for women and men. In the 27 member countries of the European Union, men are the majority until the age group of 45 years, above this age group women are the majority. In 2005, 51.3% of the babies born were male and 48.7% female. Since 1980, this share has been stagnating more or less.35 These comparable shares of men and women are not given in the working life and most notably not in managing positions, the number of women is often much less than the number of men. The actual shares vary from country to country, sector to sector and job to job from 3% to 60% or even higher. However, over all jobs and sectors, the average share of women in managing positions is much lower than the one of men. Therefore, it is said that the proclaimed equal opportunities and equal rights for women and men do often not exist in reality. Many politicians, experts for social matters and further parties argue that the only way for a more balanced share of women in working life is setting up a binding quota for women in management positions. They claim that this quota should be implemented in public sectors but also in private economy and be understood as an active instrument of personnel policy.

There are different types of quota:
Absolute quota: Women are treated principally in favour, as long as the purpose of the women quota of X percentage is achieved in the targeted body. This quota is the most controversially discussed, because male candidates would be discriminated, if they are not chosen for the vacation position – no matter which qualification they have. Relative quota: This quota regulation is mostly formulated in the way that – equal qualification given – female applicants are favoured over male applicants as long as the share of women of X percentage is achieved in the targeted body. This is the most common quota. Both quotas are currently discussed controversially. The main question in many EU-countries is about setting up any legally binding women quota for managing positions in companies and sanctions in case these quotas are not fulfilled (e.g. by monetary penalties). Besides this, there are many other voluntary solutions for companies to increase the share of women in management positions, e.g. to operate with quantitative targets for women or quantitative target corridors – also called “target figures”. In this case, every company has to find its own way that fits to existing strategies and policies. For example, the German railway company “Deutsche Bahn” has set up a programme to increase the share of women in general and in management positions. Until 2015, the share of women in the entire workforce is supposed to increase to 25%. The share of women in management positions is supposed to increase from 16% currently to 20%. For this purpose, several activities are undertaken, for example the company decided that, when staffing management positions, on each candidate listed, at least one woman has to be represented.

People, who are against a quota, often say that it is not the task of the state or any other institution to define a quota that is legally binding. They argue that companies have their own culture, that can be diversified also without any quota and, that women in management positions, who have progressed due to the quota, will always be seen as a “statutory women”. With regulators like this, they say, the gender is more important than the qualification and the performance of people, which is economically intolerable.

People that support a quota for women often state that, without a quota nothing changes in the economy. For example, in the past years, many enterprises have said that they will consider more women for management positions. But without any sanctions, they say, it can be seen that nothing happens. So, in their opinion, the quota is absolutely necessary to really increase the share of women.

In the interviews with female employees, it was asked whether women would appreciate a quota. Regarding the quota for women, the number of female proponents and opponents in the company is rather balanced. The following patterns of opinions can be found: Proponents of the quota are rather women with many years of professional experience. Academically educated women generally tend to belong to the quota’s proponents. Among the female bus drivers 50% are pro and 50% are contra the quota. Opponents of the women’s quota are relatively young and self-confident (sometimes they are still apprentices) “The woman is responsible for herself.” The arguments against the quota include: “Quota – no. First, women have to apply.” Or: “Equal payment for men and women is more important than the quota.” However, the interviews leave the impression that, a lack of information regarding the quota may occur. Also, in the quantitative questionnaires some companies said that they operate with quota, but indeed they operate with voluntary target figures without any sanctions if not being fulfilled.

In contrast to quotas, these voluntary target figures are defined by the companies’ management. They can be part of a corporate strategy on gender equality (such as within the diversity policy at Delijn in Antwerp) and define a specific percentage on female employees (at DeLijn: 18%), which should be reached within a certain time horizon. These target figures can be combined with sanctions if they are not achieved but this is not necessarily the case. Companies with such an active policy on gender equality including objectives on women employment will be perceived more attractive among potential and existing female (and male) employees and will consequently profit from being more competitive than other companies without such initiatives.

6) Recruitment

There are many reasons for recruiting more women. One of them is the demographic development in European countries: in times of more and more elderly employees and less young people entering the job market, the potential of women just cannot be neglected in quantitative terms. Without hiring women, the employees leaving their companies in future cannot be replaced. In qualitative terms, there are much more arguments for women as employees. The aspect of the women’s qualification regarding their driving behaviour, which is often perceived and assessed better (more conscious, more sensitive and reliable than male drivers) is mostly not included in customer surveys so far. However, it could be an option for the future. Another perspective of the demographic development implies that the customers of the urban public transport sector include more (elder) women in future, which might increase the (female) customers’ demand for female drivers as they do feel more comfortable. For example, already today many customers say that they prefer to drive with women and that they feel more comfortable in a communication with female employees.

Another important aspect in this context are the target figures of the European Union regarding employment: One of the headline targets is to increase the employment rate of population aged 20 – 64 years from 69 % achieved in 2009 to 75 % in 2020 with the greater involvement of women. Therefore, companies have to make their thoughts about a better recruitment of women already today. The following factors have influence on successful recruiting and, consequently, on the share and image of women in urban public transport companies.

Different ways of recruitment

In the quantitative WISE survey for companies it was asked, which recruiting activities and instruments companies use. Here, it was noticeable that the surveyed companies rely primarily on traditional instruments for recruiting staff, which the following graph (results of company questionnaire) shows:

In this context, passive means that applicants read the vacancies through external sources, such as on the company website, search engines, links and advertisements in magazines. With an active recruiting (e.g. visit job fairs at schools), the company would specifically address potential applicants. 62% of the companies use online job boards. However, 82.7% use their own website, which is quite a high number. Regarding advertisements, 48.3% of companies use regional print media advertisements. Furthermore, social media for recruitment are not extensively used by the companies: only 10.3% of the companies asked use this modern way of recruitment. The companies answered that they – so far – do not make distinct between the instruments for recruiting women or men. In addition, most of the instruments are used for all job levels. Only a small amount of companies specially addresses executives or other special target groups. Interesting in this context is the aspect that, in another question of the survey, 57.1% of the companies affirmed that they want to encourage more women to work for their company – but only 29.4% offer specific trainings for job interviews to be aware of this topic and for managers, who decide, which applicant will be hired. It is furthermore interesting to see that sometimes there are special sectors from which companies recruit their drivers. For Delijn for example, there is no special sector or source from which it mainly recruits personnel. Here, truck drivers, who have been on international routes before and prefer to work closer to their home, are among the recruited staff. Another group of people are women, who have worked in the service industry (restaurants, cafés) before and have quit their job because of the inconvenient working hours in this sector. Another situation can be found in Finland: The company Pohjolan Liikenne stated that an important recruitment source market is the construction industry, where many employees have worked beforehand but most of them are not women. Nevertheless, there is close cooperation between the transport and the construction companies when recruiting people who want to change their profession. In general, in most of the companies there is no strategy or campaign for recruiting more women. But women, who are already employed, can be multipliers to recruit new female colleagues. Many people from both genders apply for a job because they have heard about it from friends or relatives. Still for many companies it is an important source of recruitment, if the father or the grandmother of a young woman or men works for the company and tells about his or her positive experiences and about his/her positive opinions of working in something like a “family company”. In Finland, employees have also introduced their jobs on “schools parents’ days”.

For each company, one option to recruit more women is to collect some positive arguments why they should apply for a job in the company. Depending on the employment strategy, the gender equality policy and the different target groups of employees (drivers, technicians, administrative staff) that companies want to address, an active job-marketing can be carried out. Many arguments normally aim at both target groups women and men. In the following there are 12 arguments listed that companies from Germany, Finland and Sofia proposed to use for addressing employees and for motivating them for an application:
Younger women are a considerable potential for recruiting female work force. Especially young women, who are not sure what to do after school, for example whether they want to apply for an apprenticeship or whether they want to start studying. If they are addressed at an early stage in school, the possibilities seem to be higher to encourage them to work in the urban public transport sector.

**Image of companies**

Representatives from BVG in Berlin stated that the image of the urban public transport sector is dominated by the perception of a male-dominated working culture. For example, a survey among young people has revealed that the company is perceived as male business implying the association chain: BVG = bus = male business. So, promotion and communication including positive aspects (job security, environmental and climate protection etc.) has to be improved in order to attract women. Moreover, this sector is perceived as traditional and conservative and therefore, companies are often not present in the applicants’ minds as potential employer. Other barriers stated are the steadily decreasing number of school graduates, who are, in many cases, not meeting the jobs’ requirements and qualifications.

With the recruiting of women, there is high potential to remove some barriers because statistics prove that they are often better educated than men. Until today, well-educated and well-qualified women still care for the children instead of their men. They experience the typical “baby break”, which makes a career development difficult and needs more commitment from each woman.

While for many other sectors, a ranking of top-companies and favourite employers, to which young people (school or university graduates) send their applications, exists, the transport sector does not have any ranking, or, this sector’s companies are not present in these rankings. Furthermore, at least in some countries, the sector’s salaries do have perceived disadvantages compared to those in other industries.

Therefore, it is even more important that parents are included, when their children decide for the apprenticeship, especially because many of the existing professions are unknown to young people. Among other barriers, the trade unions especially underline that women are probably more jeopardized to be threatened by aggressive behaviour of third parties, especially on bus/tram routes in the evening, which cross dangerous city regions. Another obstacle for recruitment mentioned is the old-fashioned image of the public transport sector, especially among young people. It was argued that some youngsters may have certain expectations on their job (own car, high salary), which the companies of the sector cannot meet.

**Target groups and special campaigns**

There are different possibilities to address special target groups. Campaigns or projects to attract young women for the technical sector in Germany are called “MINT-activities”, which aim at promoting the sectors Mathematics, Informatics, Natural Sciences and Technics.

**Practice example:** The “Women Employment Scheme” at BVG aims at attracting more women to apply for a job and to heighten the share of women. This scheme is based on a regional law including gender equality (LGG), which defines the obligation for companies to realize an analysis of the company’s employment structure and possible employee fluctuation. The “Women’s Employment Scheme” has entered into force in 2003. Every two years, it has to be adapted and updated according to the current situation and development in the company. It includes the following objectives:

1. Equality in case of job advertisements (including the remark that women are explicitly encouraged to send their applications)
2. Participation at and promotion of the yearly Girl’s Day
3. Special trainings for executives and female employees
4. Equal occupation of committees with women and men
5. Gender equality for written and spoken speeches
6. Promotion of flexible working times
7. Return to the same job after parental leave
8. Prevention against sexual harassment
The following aspects are included in the regional law on gender equality (LGG):

- Preference for women at the choice of applicants in case of equal qualification in occupational groups where women are underrepresented (less than 50%)
- Promote and publish vacant positions in all public media

The following measures are carried out by the company:

- “Girl’s Day” (once a year). It exists since 2001. Girls at the age of 8 – 15 years have the chance to get a detailed insight into technical professions/apprenticeships and to possibly decide for a technical apprenticeship or career in future and to apply.
- Maternity leave: Mothers can start their maternity leave for weeks earlier than the time defined in collective labour agreement.
- Certificate “Audit” for a family-friendly company called “Beruf und Familie” (“profession and family”; since 2009) This facultative audit (no legal obligation), the company has chosen to implement and, within which BVG has been successfully reached certification, includes quality manuals leading the process.
- Application trainings for “BVG-kids” (children of BVG employees) done by a computer-based assessment test. The children of the 9th class (at the age of 15/16) can learn by this test, whether they are suited for the job and fulfill all requirements or not.

In the interviews with female employees, there was a consensus among the women that the companies need to develop more marketing and communication measures targeted for recruitment. It has been suggested, for example, that female employees introduce and present their work in schools in order to eliminate existing concerns and stereotypes about the sector and its jobs.

Of course, there are many different skills needed by the employees when applying for a job in an urban public transport company. Besides the driving license that is needed for drivers, for example, employers expect reliable employees, who are able to drive “customer-friendly” and to communicate with customers, not only in cases of emergencies.

One of the obstacles for recruiting people at the Company DeLijn, Antwerp is the language skills (Dutch skills) of applicants and potential employees, which are not brought up by all applicants. Furthermore, company representatives stated that the attitude of potential employees often lacks of behavioral codes. Furthermore, applicants often do not have the qualifications and skills needed. On the one hand, these lacks mostly correspond with the duration of unemployment (more than 50% of unemployed people in Flanders are long-term unemployed). On the other hand, the percentage of immigrants reflects insufficient Dutch knowledge.

A second problem of recruiting is seen in the absent willingness of young people, especially of young women, to enter a blue collar technical job. The City of Antwerp’s recruitment strategy has been focusing that problem in the last years. Still, the success could be higher.

Cooperation with external institutions

In many companies, there is cooperation regarding recruitment with external institutions like job centres or schools and universities. Between the BVG-HR-department and the local job centre, there is cooperation, for example when BVG would need to recruit 30 female bus drivers. In cases like this, normally only 1/3 of the applicants do have the qualifications required for this job. Moreover, there is hardly any range of potential applicants in the job centres’ database. When looking for female bus drivers, only 1-2 unemployed women, who are officially registered, are available. Therefore, these positions are staffed with the majority of available applicants, who are men and/or qualified/experienced drivers.

In order to increase the number of applications of young people, BVG cooperates with schools in Berlin explaining the company and its job possibilities, done by “BVG-Jobscouts”. This way of promotion at schools for recruiting potential apprentices only exists for a short time (since 2010). Furthermore, BVG HR-department contacts universities in order to attract especially young (male and female) engineers as they are urgently needed. According to a company representative, BVG needs to recruit 85 engineers until 2020. This recruiting is not focused on genders. It pursues both, men and women.

Furthermore, trade fairs and other fairs for networking between companies are used (mainly for approaching students/trainees, e.g. in Berlin and surroundings: “Bonding Berlin”). At these fairs the personal exchange is a considerable benefit for recruitment.

In the work meeting in Sofia, it has been said, that there is also cooperation with the local work agency. During the economic crisis 2008/2009, a considerable number of employees have lost their job. The sectors services, retail and tourism with their job offers could compensate some of these losses. However, the representative from the work agency pointed out that people need to be flexible these times. In her opinion, women show more flexibility in changing their job and applying for new jobs in other sectors.

As far as the cooperation with training centres for recruitment is concerned, the representative of a Finish company underlined that people sent from these centres consists of 2 types: 1) motivated and trained and 2) not motivated without sufficient qualification.

So, conclusively, there are many possibilities to cooperate with either local/regional work agencies or universities and schools to attract young women for working in the public transport sector. It always depends on local structures, strategies of the company and potential applicants, which way of cooperation needs to be chosen.
7) Role of Trade Unions and Works Council Representatives for promoting Women Employment in Urban Public Transport

The results of the quantitative WISE study for trade unions shows, that the majority of trade unions promotes several topics in the context of equal opportunities for women and men. They mainly include the improvement of working conditions in the workplace. 76.9% of the trade unions implemented measures to increase the safety of the employees. Similar answers were given in the WISE study for associations. Here, 80% have implemented such measures. However, the impact of the measure of improving equality between women and men is rated comparably low with only 38.5%.

In addition, the trade unions have already promoted especially the improvement of personal security, PR-initiatives for gender equality as well as publications on equal opportunities. The biggest impact is seen mainly by the promotion of the topics: improvement of health/hygiene conditions, PR-initiatives for gender equality, initiatives to break gender stereotypes, corporate gender reporting in member companies, equal opportunity plans in member companies and publications on equal opportunities.

From all trade unions, 10 said that they have a person or body for ensuring equal opportunities, 3 do not have such a body and 1 is planning to apply this in future. The same amount of answers has been given on the question, whether the trade unions have set up or are joining a working group/body/committee, where gender subjects are discussed regularly.

Moreover, the trade unions have also been asked what could be – in their opinion – reasons for a lack of women in urban public transport companies represented by their members. The following graph demonstrates detailed results:

Many of the trade unions said that the typical male work culture and existing gender stereotypes as well as the shift work are the most important reasons for a lack of women (78.6%). Both aspects have also been seen as obstacles in the WISE work meetings in different urban public transport companies. Besides this fact, a fewer number of trade unions said, that the current way of recruiting (57.1%) and the leaves for care or family reasons (50%) are hindering women employment.

Trade unions and elected workers’ representatives can play an important role for the promotion of women employment in the urban public transport sector. The trade union and works council representatives have contact with the workers at the workplace level. Their role is to listen to the problems and needs of workers and they act as multipliers. This is in particular relevant regarding understanding and fighting stereotypes that still persist within urban public transport including among workers. Awareness rising about stereotype thinking and training on fighting stereotypes of such representatives has an important multiplier effect within a bottom-up approach on fighting stereotypes.
8) Conclusion and Future Prospects

After 16 months of working activities, the following conclusions on the six WISE objectives (gathered by the results of the quantitative survey and work meetings) can be drawn:

1) Better access of women to all public transport professions, including the technical ones and management functions
As expected before the WISE project activities, there is considerable gender segregation in the sector, which the project results have proven. This is especially expressed in the different transport professions and hierarchy positions. Although, the percentage of female employees per department differs between Western and Eastern European countries, there is still potential to increase the access of women to professions like driving operation (especially bus) and to technical professions (engineering, maintenance, workshops) as well as to leading and management positions.

2) Better workplace safety and security, to allow women and men to opt for all work shifts
Occupational health and safety, workplace ergonomics as well as workplace security have high priority in the European urban public transport companies. Although there are a considerable number of measures on workplace security, for protecting employees in driving operation and other customer-related professions from violence cases of third parties, companies need to create further appropriate measures. This and the constant development and realization of these measures will be a major challenge in future years, especially in order to gradually change the perception that the workplace is unsafe for women.

3) Equal access to training
In most cases, vocational trainings are offered to both, male and female employees. It is not made much difference on the training for men and women. Indeed, companies offer only few training courses specifically to women. With regards to initial training for drivers, it was learnt that women have better access to metro and tram driving because of missing special qualifications (licence D) needed for bus driving or perceived workplace insecurity at the bus. Moreover, in one country (due to historical development) train drivers have been educated in military high schools, and therefore such education has been only made available to women since 1999. Summarized, bus driving, with respect to training possibilities and security issues, needs to be more opened to female employees.

4) Better workplace culture to accommodate the needs of both, women and men
Sectors and companies, in which the majority of employees are male, tend to gradually create a typical „male working culture“ This also applies to the sector of public transport companies. This perceived „male working culture“ with their implications like gender stereotypes or sexual harassment still is a considerable barrier on the way to increase this sector’s attractiveness for women and their employment share. Especially gender stereotypes are of interdisciplinary nature and indirectly influence many of the WISE objectives and topics discussed. Changing an established culture requires many efforts from companies, associations, trade unions and works councils in sensitizing employees for this issue. The existence of social facilities and appropriate working clothes for female drivers also significantly affect working culture. So, for driving staff, companies have to provide uniforms for women and men, a sufficient number of toilets, pleasing break rooms and canteens as well as appropriate (separate) dressing rooms.

5) Better work-life-balance for both, men and women
With regards to the reconciliation of work and family/social life, especially concerning work organisation, it was learnt that the vast majority of companies (75 %) offers flexible working hours. However further possibilities of part-time work should be broadened where possible on an organizational and reasonable on an economical basis. It needs to be created offensively and proactively as well as communicated by the management of the companies. Since shift work is indispensable in urban public transport companies for meeting the mobility requirements of European citizen, it should include more flexible und individual components and variations, which is not yet the case today. If these aspects are considered, employees, especially those with children, will find shift work acceptable and profitable. With regards to parental leave, it needs to be made attractive to both genders, so that the typical pattern of women going on parental leave could be overcome in future. The aspect of elder care is not treated as priority within the companies. At least, at the majority of the companies employees can get exempted from work at short notice in case of exceptional circumstances. Due to the demographic change, this aspect's importance will increase in the coming years, so that companies with corresponding offers will be more attractive and competitive.
6) Thorough implementation of relevant EU equal opportunities’ legislation in the transport sector

Since this aspect cannot be fully answered with the work meetings results, the following results are based on the quantitative survey. Regarding regulations and guidelines for equal opportunities, the “European Directive of Equal Treatment” (2000/43/EC) is the most important one on European level. 70.4% of the transport companies reply to have implemented guidelines for equal opportunities in general, which can be seen as a high number. The remaining companies are planning to implement them (3.7%) or have not implemented them (25.9%). None of the companies applies a women’s quota in the way that for certain position a specific percentage share of women is fixed. However 6.9% have defined corporate target figures for women without having sanctions if the figures are not reached. Regarding the application of state programs for equal opportunities 31% have said yes, 10.3% plan to do so and 58.6% don’t do that. As far as the associations are concerned, five (of six) indicated that they support the implementation of this EU-Directive mentioned above. From the trade unions, nine (of 14) indicated that they support the implementation of this Directive. Concerning further existing guidelines on this topic in the companies represented by their member companies, 12 of 14 trade unions answered; 8 confirmed to have further equal opportunities’ regulations in the companies of their members. Most common are general regulations on this topic, regulations on working conditions as well as gender reporting and gender representatives. Three trade unions answered that there is a quota for women in public transport companies but at a closer look, it is not really a quota but a voluntary target figure without sanctions. All in all, it seems that there is still potential, first, to gather knowledge on these regulations and, second, to implement them.

Future Prospects

Further EU-research on the following topics, which, during the project course, have been assessed as to be of considerable importance on women employment in the transport sector is to be recommended:

Examination of a sector-based wage gap between women and men

Research on the equality of wages between female and male employees should be implemented. Here, the average gender pay gap in the European urban public transport sector (incl. examination of differences between Northern, Southern, Western and Eastern countries) would be of importance. Moreover, the main reasons for an existing pay gap and measures and practice examples to eliminate them should be identified.

Examination of gender stereotypes

Establish further sector-based research on the existence and awareness of gender stereotypes among women and men in other than leading positions and (technical) departments such as workshops. A similar study for drivers for example might deliver interesting results, which can contribute to a better understanding of working culture and gender stereotypes in the urban public transport sector. Furthermore, studies in single companies on a corporate level can be initiated in order to implement and define counteracting strategies and measures.
Corporate Culture/Organisational Culture
The values and behaviours that contribute to the unique social and psychological environment of an organisation.
Organisational culture is the sum total of an organisation's past and current assumptions, experiences, philosophy, and values that hold it together, and is expressed in its self-image, inner workings, interactions with the outside world, and future expectations. It is based on shared attitudes, beliefs, customs, express or implied contracts, and written and unwritten rules that the organisation develops over time and that have worked well enough to be considered valid. Also called corporate culture, it manifests in
(1) the ways the organisation conducts its business, treats its employees, customers, and the wider community,
(2) the extent to which autonomy and freedom is allowed in decision making, developing new ideas, and personal expression,
(3) how power and information flow through its hierarchy, and
(4) the strength of employee commitment towards collective objectives.

It is termed strong or weak to the extent it is diffused through the organisation. It affects the organisation's productivity and performance, and provides guidelines on customer care and service; product quality and safety; attendance and punctuality; and concern for the environment. It extends also to production methods, marketing and advertising practices, and to new product creation. While there are many common elements in the large organisations of any country, organisational culture is unique for every organisation and one of the hardest things to change.36

Education of employees (quantitative survey):

a) School leaving certificate
Employees with this certificated have left school with a certificate but did not begin a professional training.

b) Initial vocational education
Employees with this kind of education have left school with a certificate and have begun a professional apprenticeship, either only theoretical, at a vocational school, or theoretical and practical at a vocational school in combination with an apprenticeship at a certain company. In Germany, for example, the latter is called “dual apprenticeship” (“duale Berufsausbildung”).

c) Further vocational education
Employees with this kind of education have a school leaving certificate. They further have done an apprenticeship. For improving their qualifications, they have made use of further vocational education – either at their workplace in a certain company or on individual initiative, or both.

Equality between women and men (gender equality)
refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same but that women's and men's rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men. Gender equality is not a women’s issue but should concern and fully engage men as well as women. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue and as a precondition for, and indicator of, sustainable people-centered development.37 One instrument respectively a global strategy of gender equality is gender mainstreaming (see below).

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36 http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/organisational-culture.html
37 http://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/conceptsanddefinitions.htm
Equal opportunities
Principle of non-discrimination which emphasizes that opportunities in education, employment, advancement, benefits and resource distribution, and other areas should be freely available to all citizens irrespective of their age, race, sex, religion, political association, ethnic origin, or any other individual or group characteristic unrelated to ability, performance, and qualification.

Gender mainstreaming
Mainstreaming a gender perspective in all types of activities (referred to as gender mainstreaming) is a globally accepted strategy for promoting gender equality. Mainstreaming is not an end in itself but a means to the goal of gender equality. Mainstreaming involves ensuring that gender perspectives and attention to the goal of gender equality are central to all activities – policy development, research, advocacy/dialogue, legislation, resource allocation, and planning, implementation and monitoring of programmes and projects.

Gender segregation (in employment)
This term refers to the unequal distribution of men and women in the occupational structure – sometimes also (and more accurately) called ‘occupational segregation by sex’. There are two forms: ‘vertical segregation’ describes the clustering of men at the top of occupational hierarchies and of women at the bottom; ‘horizontal segregation’ describes the fact that at the same occupational level (that is within occupational classes or even occupations themselves) men and women have different job tasks. Degrees of sex segregation vary inversely with the level of aggregation of data.

Role model
An individual, who is looked up to and revered by someone else. A role model is someone who other individuals aspire to be like, either in the present or in the future. A role model may be someone, who you know and interact with on a regular basis, or may be someone who you have never met, such as a celebrity. Common role models include well known actors, public figures such as police men or political officials, teachers or other educators, and parents or other family members.

38 http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/equal-opportunity.html#ixzz1JboKw0iC
40 http://www.businessdictionary.com/definition/role-model.html
IV. CONTACTS/IMPRINT

European Social Partners

UITP – International Association of Public Transport
Mr. Jean Dekindt
Rue Sainte-Marie 6
B-1080 Brussels
Belgium
jean.dekindt@uitp.org

ETF – European Transport Workers’ Federation
Ms. Sabine Trier
Rue du Marché aux Herbes 105, Boîte 11
B-1000 Brussels
Belgium
s.trier@etf-europe.be

Project Organisation

VDV-Akademie e.V.
Mr. Michael Weber-Wernz, Ms. Andrea Dinkelmann
Kamekestrasse 37 – 39
D-50672 Cologne
Germany
weber-wernz@vdv.de, dinkelmann@vdv.de

External Expertise

Prospektiv – Gesellschaft für betriebliche Zukunftsgestaltungen mbH
Mr. Gereon Stock
Kleppingstrasse 20
D-44135 Dortmund
Germany
stock@prospektiv-do.de
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Members of the WISE Steering Committee
(in alphabetical order)

Ms. Angelescu, Marinela – Federatia Sindicalotelor Din Transporturi Si Servicii Publice, Bucharest, Romania
Ms. Bönnemann, Petra – Bochum-Gelsenkirchener Straßenbahn AG, Bochum, Germany
Mr. Dekindt, Jean – Union Internationale des Transports Publics (UITP), Brussels, Belgium
Ms. Delmas, Sylviane – Union Internationale des Transports Publics (UITP), Brussels, Belgium and RATP, Paris, France
Ms. Dieu, Annick – Société des Transports Inter-communaux des Bruxelles (STIB), Brussels, Belgium
Mr. Heimlich, Stefan – Vereinte Dienstleistungsgesellschaft ver.di, Bundesvorstand, FB Verkehr, Berlin, Germany
Ms. Josephson, Birthe – Kommunal Svenska Kommunalarbetareförbundet, Stockholm, Sweden
Ms. Schmidt, Ines – BVG Berliner Verkehrsbetriebe A.ö.R., Berlin, Germany
Mr. Springer, Dimitri – Bochum-Gelsenkirchener Straßenbahn AG, Bochum, Germany
Mr. Stock, Gereon – Prospektiv - Gesellschaft für betriebliche Zukunftsgestaltungen mbH, Dortmund, Germany
Ms. Trier, Sabine – European Transport Worker’s Federation (ETF), Brussels, Belgium
Ms. Vasarainen, Mari – Employers Federation of Road Transport (ALT), Helsinki, Finland
Ms. Weber, Ulrike – Prospektiv - Gesellschaft für betriebliche Zukunftsgestaltungen mbH, Dortmund, Germany
Ms. Yordanova, Ekaterina – Federation of Transport Trade Unions in Bulgaria (FTTUB), Sofia, Bulgaria
Ms. Zlatkova, Daniela – Federation of Transport Trade Unions in Bulgaria (FTTUB), Sofia, Bulgaria

Michael Weber-Wernz Andrea Dinkelmann