

Gender and the Workplace

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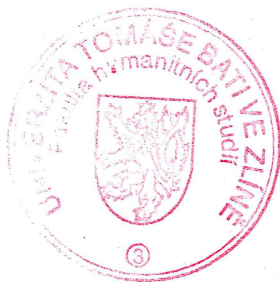
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ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá problematikou genderu v oblasti pracovního prostředí a popisem historických událostí, které k genderové problematice vedly.

První část práce se pak věnuje historii genderových vztahů od počátku až po současnost. Vysvětluje vznik ženských hnutí i vznik hnutí mužských.

V druhé části popisují termíny, které se týkají genderových studií, a které jsou nezbytné k pochopení problematiky s tímto spojené.

Poslední část práce se zaměřuje na pracovní trh a na to, jak ho gender ovlivňuje v otázce diskriminace, segregace, platových nerovností, ale také sladování rodiny s profesní kariérou a sexuálního obtěžování.

Klíčová slova: feminismus, mužská studia, genderové role, genderové stereotypy, diskriminace, segregace, sexuální obtěžování.

ABSTRACT

This bachelor thesis deals with gender issues in the workplace and describes historical events, which preceded these problems.

The first part deals with the history of gender relations from its beginnings up to the present time and spells out what were the reasons for both feminist and men's movements.

The second part of the thesis explains the terms relating to gender studies, which are crucial in order to understand the topic.

The last part focuses on the labour market and the way gender influences its issues such as discrimination, segregation, wage inequalities, and also harmonizing family and professional career and sexual harassment.

Keywords: feminism, men's studies, gender roles, gender stereotypes, discrimination, segregation, sexual harassment.

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis is my own and certify that any secondary material used has been acknowledged in the text and listed in the bibliography.

May 13, 2009

.....*Zabrackmhera*.....

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INTRODUCTION

I considered the topic of discrimination and inequalities in the workplace very interesting. I chose this theme since I was curious as to what degree, the differences in women and men's status and evaluation are real, and to what degree that this is just rumours.

In the first part, I concentrated on the history of feminist movements and the results it produced; since if it were not for these results, I would have had nothing to write about. I also mention the men's studies at the end, because women's movements and men's movements are contrary, yet complementary to each other.

The second part of my bachelor thesis is focused on explanation of the basic terms of gender studies. Without knowledge of these terms, one would not understand the issues of discrimination so clearly. The notions of gender roles and gender stereotypes appear throughout the thesis and are necessary for understanding not only the history of feminist movements, but also the labour market issues, in the first place.

The third part describes the situation in the labour market, with the main emphasis focused towards problems of gender. It opens with discrimination and continues with job segregation in more detail, followed by gender wage gap. All these issues are somehow interconnected, but they will be explained separately, including the reasons for those particular situations. The next sections deal with various obstacles women are exposed to, such as difficulties with career advancement or harmonizing work and family. Sexual harassment is the last issue to be put in more detail, because it is at the forefront of public concern today.

1 FEMINIST MOVEMENTS

Mutual relations between men and women were not equal for centuries and perhaps millenniums. Women's status was very low and considered subordinate to men's. It was just a matter of time, when women would attempt to change it and fight for themselves. Women set about rebelling and enforcing changes in law, and called for equal opportunities. These efforts ended up in favour of today's women all around the world in many respects. Were not for these efforts, today's society would probably still face as huge inequalities as it faced in the past.

This section introduces feminism in general – as a term, then its early forms and beginnings, its efforts throughout the world, and its development.

1.1 The First Appearance of Feminism

The French author Charles Fourier wrote his *Théorie des Quatre Mouvement et des Destinées Générales* in which he described the conception of an emancipated woman, and from which the notion of feminism arose in the first place. The notion of feminism started to be used in France in 1890s and gradually began a synonym for women emancipation (Valdrová 2006, 190).

Osvaldová (2004: 40-41) states that it is not possible to define feminism precisely, since it started to appear in various countries dealing with various issues, which resulted in many different theories. Feminism therefore represents a complex of various philosophic courses, ideas and ideologies (see more detail in the Third-wave Feminism section).

1.1.1 First-Wave Feminism

The first wave of feminist movement dates back to the end of the 19th century up to 1930. It dealt with legislative obstacles, which kept women from education and having the right to both vote and be elected. For women, this entailed not being a part of public life and not being able to lead an independent life on their own. The World War I appeared to be the crucial landmark – men went to war and women had to fill in for them. As indicated above, this changed the perception of what was considered traditional – women had more job opportunities and realised they actually enjoyed their jobs. As women had to come back to

their households after the war, they felt they miss the work outside, which provided them with personal joy and information from the outside world (Valdrová 2006, 191).

1.1.2 America

The American feminists called for equal access to jobs. As the 19th century was the era of the new technologies and production shifted outside homes, the nature of work changed with it. Home was no longer a shelter, but it became more like a trap – women were trapped not only from a social life, but also from new technologies and access to information. As the time passed, women's status considerably changed especially during the wars, when men left their homes and joined up. Suddenly, women had to face huge challenge to survive in the world, which was almost unknown and closed for them to that time. Women overtook men's roles and asserted themselves outside their homes – first women to get paid were housekeepers, teachers and care workers, since these professions were connected with their original traditional activities (Osvaldová 2004, 19-20).

The next area of women's emancipation dealt with legal equality and right to vote. The American women started the movement for women's suffrage, and demanded amendment to the Constitution. The Nineteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution was passed on June 4, 1919. It prohibits the states from denying the right to vote on the basis of citizen's sex. It was ratified fourteen months later (Osvaldová 2004, 20-21).

1.1.3 Europe

The most significant uprising was British massive rebellion of suffragettes. These women presented the petition to the British Parliament in 1886 demanding women's suffrage. The parliament did not response, so they formed the association National Society for Women's Suffrage, and kept sending such petitions to the parliament. Both Great Britain and the USA experienced street demonstrations and lectures (Sokačová).

By the mid 20th century, the women's suffrage was obtained in the majority of the European countries, with the exception of some, which achieved this only in the second half of the 20th century, such as Switzerland in 1971 and Jordan even later in 1982 (Sokačová).

1.1.4 Czech Feminism

Feminism in the Czech Country focused on improvement of women's social status, and its results belonged to the most powerful ones, despite moderate beginnings (Osvaldová 2004, 23). Tomáš Garrigue Masaryk was one of the most important personalities of the women's movement, and was interested in women issues from the very beginning of his carrier. Along with his wife Charlotte, they proclaimed equality – he took over his wife's last name "Massarigue", and happily took care of his four sons. He considered women equal to men and provided an incentive to the article of the constitution, which states so (Osvaldová 2004, 28).

The 1960s were the years when Vojta Náprstek, a man who supported women emancipation, familiarised Czech society with knowledge about women's movements in England and America, where he had emigrated to after revolution. Americký klub dam, formed by Náprstek himself and Karolina Světlá, educated its members (thanks to Náprstek's extensive library), supported new ideas, and took care of children and youth. The lectures were attended by famous personalities including T. G. Masaryk. Eliška Krásnohorská strived for grammar school for girls to be established – Gymnázium Minerva was founded in Prague in 1890, and was the first grammar school in Central Europe. Women activists also struggled for coeducational state education (Osvaldová 2004, 25-27; Sokačová).

As far as politics is concerned, Teréza Nováková, Františka Plamínková and others established Ženský klub český in Prague in 1903. It focused on better coequality for women in the fields of education, legal system, work and politics; the priority being achievement the right to vote (Osvaldová 2004, 29). Františka Plamínková discovered a discrepancy in the articles, which resulted in first attempts to having a female candidate in the elections in 1908. Women did not give up and tried again four years later – Božena Viková-Kunětická was eventually elected in Národní strana svobodomyšlná, and became the first female deputy not only in Czech congress, but also in whole Europe. After the establishment of Czechoslovakia in 1918, she became the first woman to be elected to senate. Františka Plamínková became a senator in 1925 and she continued dealing with women issues (Osvaldová 2004, 30-31).

An important landmark for Czech women was the year 1920, since that year they were given the longed-for right to vote, as one of the first in all Europe (stated in article number 106 in the first Czech constitution). It was Františka Plamínková again, who established

Ženská národní rada, which goal was to supervise the coequality in practice. The social and demographic changes after World War I also meant that women were allowed to carry out more professions, including the field of politics (Osvaldová 2004, 37; Sokačová).

1.2 Second-wave Feminism

After 1920, during World War II and further, nothing happened concerning feminist movements. Women activists at that time concentrated more on hostility to fascism than their own interests (Sokačová).

The feminist issues were at the forefront again from 1960s and dealt with women's lives within their families – firstly, women's household work was not considered adequate to men's jobs, and secondly, women were isolated from the outside world (Osvaldová 2004, 34; Sokačová). Osvaldová (2004: 43) further explains the former in the way that women also faced inequalities in pricing – their work in households was undervalued, simply because only paid public jobs were considered valuable (which they had no access to). The latter led to women's sense of being unimportant and inability to determine the outside world; women also did not participate in decision-making processes. If they wanted to work, they had to ask the husband for permission, and they were even forced to stop working right after giving birth or getting married, because marriage in the 1960s was still regarded as the best way how to provide for themselves.

The second-wave feminism in the 1970s changed the roles of women and also women's identities, such as being entitled to decide when and how many children they wanted to have, to realise themselves outside home and develop their own potential, and most importantly to decide about future job. These years questioned the traditional roles of both women and men, and therefore broadened the perceptions of each gender's identities (Valdrová 2006, 192-195).

This wave of feminism also led to lots of different approaches to feminist issues and feminism itself diversified. Many feminist followers turned away and criticised their forerunners. That is how so many branches of feminism were created – liberal feminism, existential, marxist, et cetera (Osvaldová 2004, 34-36). These are analysed in more detail in the third-wave feminism section.

1.2.1 Czech Second-wave Feminism

Františka Plamínková strongly affected one of the most famous women struggling for equal opportunities in our country – Milada Horáková. Her efforts were directed at women's equality in the workplace – she demanded women to have a chance to professional carrier. Another important person was Milena Jesenská who, for the very first time, introduced women as equal to their male counterparts. She introduced the idea that women belonged to the intellectual elite on their merits and not through their husbands or brothers (Osvaldová 2004, 38-39).

1.3 Third-wave Feminism

The modern concept of feminism no longer represents the struggle of women against men. All the postmodern feminisms further equal opportunities, yet slightly differently. These trends may also contradict each other. The contemporary world therefore uses plural instead of singular, when referring to feminism (Sokačová).

Valdrová (2006: 195-197) explains the individual forms in more detail, here are some examples: reformatory feminisms strive after the changes through reforms – such as liberal feminism focused on law, marxist feminism dealing with economic equality, or developing feminism handling the issues in the Third World. Another group of feminist theories deals with gender hostilities, for example radical feminism facing sexual oppression of women. What they have in common, though, is the belief that women have lower social status in comparison with men. The majority of feminisms claim that not every dissimilarity between men and women means discrimination (Sokačová).

Feminism in contemporary society is being understood as a movement against men, or at least a problem referring to women, exclusively. Feminism, though, is actually a matter of men, too, since the fixed gender roles restrict them as well, as mentioned below in the next chapter (Sokačová).

2 MEN'S STUDIES

With the expanding feminist ideas and efforts, men started to feel disadvantaged as well. Valdřová (2006: 62) points out that whilst women's roles headed towards public sector changed rapidly, men's roles headed to private sector changed very slowly.

2.1 The Subject Matter of Men's Studies

The issues of masculinity are studied by men's studies, which arose as a reaction to feminism. Such studies question the ideas about masculinity and femininity – what influences and determines the two gender social scheme (Valdřová 2006, 59-60).

The traditional men's roles were disputed, not only because it no longer suited men themselves, but also because it was revealed that such model is simply not achievable. The traditional men should have had the following characteristics: competitive, independent, masterminded and active, plus he was supposed to be successful (both at work and at home) and healthy (Valdřová 2006, 60-61).

Men's studies also attempt to change the situations resulting in social obstacles such as: discrimination of men in parental and divorce issues (that women normally take care of the children and that children end up in mother's custody in case of a divorce); tendency not only to underestimate the facts that men might be the victims (violence, bullying, harassment), but also to ascribe the role of the perpetrators to them rather automatically and stereotypically (Valdřová 2006, 61).

2.2 Men's Movements

Men's movements firstly appeared in the United States of America in 1970s and spread further from there (Valdřová 2006, 64). Men's studies are very diversified, as well.

Iva Šmídová gives some examples of men's movements. First, the movements dealing with the issues of power and unemployment – she explains that men's identity is strongly connected with their work, and therefore being unemployed is a huge threat to them. Second, the movements dealing with the problems of fathers and gays (Hlupá, 2003). The letter analyses the gays issues, as gays used to be the most oppressed group (along with the black men), who were accused of not being mannish and lacking some parts of traditional masculinity (Valdřová 2006, 66-67).

3 SEX AND GENDER

Before writing about gender roles, gender differences or gender discrimination, it is necessary to distinguish between the terms sex and gender, since they both express something completely different, which is probably not obvious at first glance. There are many definitions describing the basic disparity, but every one of them is yet slightly different. The core fact is awareness of either biological features or social characteristics.

The term sex “refers to one’s biological identity as male or female” (Andersen and Collins 1995, 67) and describes “the chromosomal composition of individuals, the reproductive apparatus and secondary characteristics ..., the intrapsychic characteristics presumed to be possessed by males and females” (Brannon 1996, 11). All these characteristics clearly refer to human biological features and that is why the term gender became being used (especially in social sciences such as sociology and psychology) - it “includes the social attributes associated with being a woman or a man in a particular society” (Woodward 2000, 44). Furthermore, it “describes the traits and behaviors that are regarded by the culture as appropriate to women and men. Gender is thus a social label and not a description of biology” (Brannon 1996, 11).

Whereas sex is given, and normally immutable, gender on the other hand according to Andersen and Collins (1995: 67), is formed in social institutions such as work, families, mass media or education.

The connection between these two terms is that the social differentiation stems from the biological differences associated with sex. Furthermore, the characteristics ascribed to each sex, both by culture and individuals themselves, are included in the term gender (Brannon 1996, 11).

3.1 Gender Identity

Gender identity represents one’s own awareness of themselves as a woman or as a man; it is one’s own subjective feeling of being male (masculinity) or female (femininity). Everything we do, everything we experience, is an expression of our own gender identity.

One’s gender identity it is not given only biologically, it is dependent on their culture and society. Gender identity is formed during one’s lifetime and determined by the external influences, such as society, family, school or the labour market, media etc. How this affects one’s masculinity or femininity can be explained by the way of a following example: from

early childhood, men are raised to avoid doing anything feminine, because it could weaken and even threaten their masculinity. Women on the other hand tend to brag about their masculine behaviour, because through this they can get the credit, since masculinity is considered more valuable in our society (Valdrová 2006, 6-11).

3.2 Gender Role

Gender role is defined as expected, socially encouraged pattern of behaviour exhibited by individuals in specific situations consisting of activities that men and women engage in with different frequencies (Brannon 1996, 168). One's gender role is bound to one's gender identity, since the way a person is brought up influences both. A little child is taught its gender role by its parents and it is subsequently developed via its environment, such as school or media. As a person grows up, they know what kind of behaviour in their particular society, is expected from them. For example, boys do not play with dolls and girls do not use foul language (Valdrová 2006, 6-11). Gender roles thus really vary, as well, according to a particular society and culture connected with it – different culture means different expectations. One can notice the obvious connection with previous difference between sex and gender – sex roles and gender roles differ in the same way. Whereas the former is essentially biologically determined, the latter is culturally determined.

A person's behaviour and activities they perform change, depending on their gender role. This specific behavior is then considered either masculine or feminine. For example – repairing cars is associated with men, whilst repairing clothes is associated with women (Brannon 1996, 168). This can be perceived and observed very well in children, for instance, a little girl playing with Barbie, and pouring imaginary drinks into the small imitation of crockery, and in contrast, a little boy playing with toy cars and racing.

The labour market is also influenced by these fixed ideas about women's and men's behaviour patterns. Women face one more danger unlike men on the labour market – they are threatened by gender relating prejudices. Whereas men are perceived as providers for the family, women's self-realisation is primarily assumed to be fulfilled by taking care of family and household. Job loss in case of men is perceived as a personal failure and all 96 per cent of women would be annoyed if a man did not work. In case of women, only 41 per cent of men would bother. Furthermore, it was shown that it would annoy 30 per cent of women if a man carried his work into his free time, but vice versa, it would be twice as

much – 60 per cent. Similarly, if a man worked ten hours a day or more, he would be socially highly valued, whereas a woman would be considered a bad mother and wife who does not care enough of her children, and the like. Women's self-realization through family is further reflected in their self-depreciation at work and lower willingness to devoting themselves to professional career. It happens that women carry out more inferior jobs than their male colleagues with equal qualification. In addition, they tend to accept lower wages and even demand lower salary when asked during job interview. Some women may experience fear of success, for a successful woman is assumed to lose her femininity (Valdrová 2006, 136-137).

These characteristics are not the only ones that play important part when dealing with the labour market. Beauty for instance is also a very important matter when regarding men or when regarding women. For women it is considered to be a basis of success approximately twenty times more often than in case of men (Valdrová 2006, 136).

3.2.1 Typically Feminine and Typically Masculine Characteristics

As mentioned before, gender roles vary depending on society and culture, and so do gender identities, therefore even feminine and masculine characteristics and traits.

The table below shows the list of character descriptions. Firstly, any person can apply some of these terms to describe themselves. Secondly, any person can mark them (or at least some of them) as typically masculine or feminine. Both these different approaches are determined by the culture the person is from (Woodward 2000, 44-46).

Table 1 the list of character descriptions

tall	tender	arrogant
lucky	active	jealous
humane	proud	individualistic
tactful	modest	commanding
athletic	intuitive	unpretentious
weak	kind	passive
benevolent	decisive	conventional
assertive	unfriendly	strong
irresponsible	tidy	co-operative

perceptive	playful	robust
anxious	unemotional	responsible
gentle	informal	flexible
vulnerable	calm	acute
dignified	vigorous	cheerful
crude	faithful	timid

Source: Kath Woodward, *Questioning Identity*

(London: Routledge, 2000), 45

The second table shows an example of gendered categorization of given traits, based on a small survey carried out in the United Kingdom. It shows how society and culture describe gender-appropriate behaviours, qualities, and characteristics (Woodward 2000, 44-46).

Table 2 typically feminine and masculine characteristics

Feminine characteristics	Masculine characteristics	Neutral characteristics
anxious	active	acute
co-operative	arrogant	benevolent
faithful	assertive	calm
gentle	athletic	cheerful
humane	commanding	conventional
intuitive	crude	dignified
kind	decisive	flexible
passive	individualistic	informal
perceptive	irresponsible	jealous
responsible	proud	lucky
tactful	robust	modest
tender	strong	playful
tidy	tall	unfriendly
timid	unemotional	unpretentious
vulnerable	vigorous	weak

Source: Kath Woodward, *Questioning Identity*

(London: Routledge, 2000), 46

This table refers to the situation in United Kingdom in 1999. A study in the USA in the 1970s showed some shift from this presented result proving that other cultures are different and that times change as well (Woodward 2000, 44-54).

Anybody can verify the veracity of how such traits are culturally typical by simply looking at the tables and differentiating the traits according to their personal experience and perception of masculinity and femininity in their culture.

Gender identity is influenced not only by biological, social and collective factors, but also by individual (Woodward 2000, 46).

3.3 Gender Stereotypes

The concepts of gender role and gender stereotype tend to be related, but the difference is that gender roles are defined by behaviours, whereas gender stereotypes are beliefs and attitudes about masculinity and femininity (Brannon 1996, 168). According to Brannon (1996: 168), gender roles can become gender stereotypes when people associate a pattern of behaviour with either men or women and overlook the individual variations and exceptions and subsequently believe that the particular behaviour is inevitably associated with one, and not the other, gender. Stereotypes are closely linked to identities as well, since they represent typical characteristics (the word typical again varies between cultures) of men or women that people would expect of them. A simple example could be a man washing his car, whilst an atypical man may enjoy washing up and be bored by sport on television (Woodward 2000, 52).

A stereotype in general, according to Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, is a fixed idea that people have about what someone or something is like. Gender stereotype then "consists of beliefs about the psychological traits and characteristics as well as the activities appropriate to men or women" (Brannon 1996, 168).

Stereotypes can be either positively or negatively biased – whilst the former encourage identification, the latter is associated with prejudice (Woodward 2000, 52-53). Another fact is that "positive stereotypes are generally linked to, and defined by, the in-group (the one you are a member of) and negative stereotypes tend to be linked to, and defined by, the out-group (the one which is different, which you are not a member of)" (Woodward 2000, 53).

Gender stereotyping results in four main areas of various differences between women and men:

- Abilities and qualities
 - For instance, the fixed idea that women are not able to think logically, and men are not empathic.
- Wishes, desires and aspirations
 - For instance, the stereotype that women do not long for career and men do not do maternity leaves.
- Responsibilities and obligations
 - For instance, the belief that men are supposed to earn money and provide for their family, whilst women are responsible for all the housework.
- Opportunities
 - The fact that women have different opportunities is greatly reflected on the labour market situation. The notion of glass ceiling in this case serves as a classic example of different treatment of each gender (Janebová 2006, 10) (glass ceiling is explained later on in “women on top positions”).

All the forms of behaviour ascribed to each gender by society and environment lead to number of various consequences. The beliefs about what is typical for which gender influence people's everyday lives. The next chapters show how the perception of previously mentioned facts is reflected in positions of men and women on the labour market.

4 LABOUR MARKET

To begin with, it is crucial to explain the terms primary and secondary labour market, for these are the economic terms necessarily to be explained before writing about disparities and inequalities in the labour market (Čermáková 1999, 51).

The labour market according to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English and Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary is the people looking for work, who are both able and willing to work, and the jobs that are available at that time in a particular country and area.

Dualistic labour market theory divides the labour market into two parts – primary labour market and secondary labour market (Šimek 2005, 20). The characteristics of these two labour markets are always in contrast to each other.

4.1 Primary Labour Market

Primary Labour Market can be characterized as the one with:

- well paid jobs with higher prestige and perspective
- relatively firm jobs and better opportunities
- relatively great chance to career advancement
- better work conditions
- relative safety from job loss and firing
- relatively low fluctuation
- well-developed workers care, trainings, advancing qualification

(Šimek 2005, 20; Čermáková 1999, 52)

4.2 Secondary Labour Market

Secondary Labour Market is typical for exactly opposite characteristics:

- jobs with lower prestige and poor wages
- unsure jobs and less stable job opportunities
- insufficiently favourable careers
- no other social or financial benefits
- high possibility of firing or redundancy (but easier chance to get a job)
- high fluctuation

- limitation or impossibility to transition to primary labour market due to no (or very low) opportunity to advance one's qualification

(Šimek 2005, 20; Čermáková 1999, 52)

4.3 Mobility

There are many barriers in mobility from primary to secondary labour market, and that is why the mobility it is so low. To change over is practically impossible to majority of people involved (Šimek 2005, 20; Čermáková 1999, 52).

Despite the fact that equality is guaranteed by the constitution and the code of law, reality does not live up to it. According to Čermáková (1999: 52), the equality between men and women is actually just an abstract notion. Many gender differences, inequalities and discrimination as well are being created by the labour system. The reservoir of labour force for secondary market is, in most countries, made up by women, who break into primary market with difficulties.

Janebová (2006, 36) states that women's jobs take many characteristics of secondary labour market in comparison with men. They are paid less, they hold lower positions, and are considered secondary employees, so their job is associated with higher uncertainty.

5 DISCRIMINATION

On its Website, Victorian Equal Opportunity and Human Rights Commission states that “discrimination means treating someone unfairly or unfavourably because of a personal characteristic such as their sex or race or age.” There are many factors causing discrimination such as sex, race, or age, but also origin, religious belief, sexual orientation, etc. According to Valdřová (2006: 140), sex is considered as disadvantageous as race or ethnic origin, and the combination of previously mentioned factors has even worse impact.

The basis of all discriminatory behaviour is gender scheme. It represents all stereotyped characteristics ascribed to each gender regardless of individual differences. Therefore employers for example treat all women equally according to opinion they have about them as a group – they might expect children, insufficient abilities, inability to get ahead, have authority or lead a team. Rejection of women labour force is not the only situation where gender scheme plays a part. It is also connected with letting women work where men lack interest in (Křížková and Pavlica 2004, 73).

5.1 Perceptions of Discrimination

The following tables and figures show various perceptions of discrimination in the workplace, focusing on gender discrimination in more detail.

The opinion poll from 2003 showed that majority of Czech population, 77 per cent, is aware of women discrimination in general, or discrimination of certain groups of female or male employees. The table below shows the groups that are according to respondents most disadvantaged in the labour market along with the percentage of sex of those considering them disadvantaged (Valdřová 2006, 139).

Table 3 disadvantaged groups in the labour market

disadvantaged groups	percentage of sex		
	women	men	total
women with preschool children	73	67	70
people with low education	63	66	64
elder women	67	61	64
women after maternity leave	64	54	59

handicapped people	53	57	55
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Source: Jana Valdrová, *Gender a společnost*

(Ústí Nad Labem: Univerzita J. E. Purkyně v Ústí nad Labem, 2006), 139

It is obvious that having children influences a women's discrimination on a quite high level. According to this table, women with pre-school children are even more discriminated than that of people with a low education, which is wrong especially when considering the fact that some employers would rather hire someone not that qualified in order to avoid all possible issues concerning children and family life.

Another case study from 2003 revealed that both men (33 per cent) and women (40 per cent) feel they are handicapped, but each gender perceives it differently. Women consider their biggest handicap gender (54 per cent), then age (45 per cent) and finally education (38 per cent). Men on the other hand put age in the first place (51 per cent), then education (40 per cent) and finally state of health (23 per cent). It is interesting that only 10 per cent of men consider gender as a handicap, it took the very last position along with race and nationality (Janebová 2006, 37).

According to Janebová (2006: 37-38), only 15 per cent of women suppose they are completely respected at work, 66 per cent of them think that prejudices make their positions harder, and only 19 per cent of women believe that it is more difficult for them to get ahead. The statistics also show that only one tenth of women but one third of men believe there is no significant difference between mutual statuses. It is merely one per cent of women and three per cent of men who are convinced that some groups of men are at a disadvantage. It was shown that one fifth of women and one quarter of men state that their superiors provide more privileges for men in working relationships. Women are privileged only according to 4 per cent of men and 13 per cent of women (Janebová 2006, 37).

The typical areas of women discrimination are wage gap between men and women, lack of women in decision-making positions, segregated labour market, low number of female entrepreneurs, complicated employment of women with babies, numerous cases of sexual harassment and other forms of violence, discriminating advertisement of job openings by the usage of generic masculine. Two most significant manifestations of discrimination are then job segregation and wage discrimination (Valdrová 2006, 139; Šimek 2005, 28).

5.2 Occupational Gender Segregation

Men and women are sorted into different sectors and different professions, which leads to the fact that the labour market is segregated by gender. This phenomenon is called occupational gender segregation (Křížková and Pavlica 2004, 71). The labour market itself is therefore usually divided into female and male jobs (Čermáková 1999, 54). The division of the labour market into primary and secondary (as explained in previous section) also plays a part here, for women form the majority of secondary labour force, and men do vice versa. Whereas women are concentrated in specific sectors such as education, health service or utilities, men are concentrated into sectors such as industry and agriculture. Besides, women hold lower positions, men on the other hand hold positions with higher competencies and controlling responsibilities (Křížková and Pavlica 2004, 71). Numbers reveal that 77 per cent of all employers are men, and that men form 80 per cent of the group with highest salaries (Valdrová 2006, 141).

There are two types of job segregation to be distinguished – horizontal segregation and vertical segregation. Whilst the former relates to men's and women's representation in various professions and sectors (the examples are given above), the latter applies to men's and women's concentration on various hierarchical levels. Furthermore, the former also means that women appear in professions with the lowest salaries, and the latter represents the fact that men are concentrated in higher positions including fields normally dominated by women's labour force (as showed on the example of American survey below) (Křížková and Pavlica 2004, 71; Valdrová 2006, 141).

According to Renzetti (2003: 277-278), occupational gender segregation is further complicated by age, education, and race and ethnic background. Race is in this case even more difficult to be overcome than gender.

Šimek (2005: 24) states that a typical case of job segregation is ousting being one of many causes of discrimination in the workplace, and the biggest group suffering from this is women. It means that gender job segregation is not a consequence of women's or men's free choice. It begins with discrimination (in approach to either jobs or treating at work) and gender oriented socialization (Křížková and Pavlica 2004, 73).

It can be seen in school textbooks and media, that women are pushed into the edge of the labour market and into typically feminine professions, which are both economically and socially less valued. Women are depicted as mothers, wives, housewives, and professionally as teachers, nurses, secretaries or hairdressers. There are usually no

businesswomen, or newspaper-women, and neither is a father accompanying children to the swimming pool (Valdrová 2006, 136).

5.2.1 Measurements of Occupational Segregation

There are two basic ways how to measure occupational gender segregation – firstly, the usage of index of dissimilarity, and secondly the percentage representation of each gender within particular occupations.

The most common measure which occupational gender segregation is measured by is the index of dissimilarity (simply called D). This index shows the percentage of women or men who would have to change their jobs so that the distribution of women and men within the occupation is even. The table below serves as an explanatory example showing occupational segregation in seventeen industrial countries (Renzetti 2003, 272).

Table 4 occupational segregation in seventeen industrial countries

Country	Index of Dissimilarity
Italy	24,6
Japan	25,1
Germany	36,4
France	38,3
United States	38,4
Switzerland	39,2
Austria	39,2
Netherlands	39,9
New Zealand	41,9
Canada	42,4
Sweden	43,2
United Kingdom	44,4
Australia	47,1
Ireland	47,6
Norway	47,9
Luxembourg	48,9

Denmark	49,7
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Source: Claire Renzetti, *Ženy, muži a společnost*

(Praha: Karolinum, 2003), 273

According to this table, Italy has the lowest index of dissimilarity and Denmark having the highest one. It means that Italian labour market is the least segregated one, whilst Denmark has the most segregated labour market. In this case, the table reveals that almost one-half of workers would have to change their jobs to make the gender representation in all occupations even.

The other way how to measure occupational gender segregation is based on percentage representation of each gender in specific occupations (Renzetti 2003, 274). According to Český statistický úřad (2005) the largest sectors employing women and men are the following:

Table 5 the largest sectors employing women and men

Men	Percentage
Construction	91,3
Mining of uranium and thorium ores	90
Manufacture of basic metals	82,5
Women	Percentage
Activities of households as employers of domestic staff	100
Health and social work	78,7
Education	76,2

Source: Český statistický úřad, *Mezinárodní srovnání - nejvýznamnější odvětví dle koncentrace zaměstnanosti žen / mužů* (2005)

This table shows that men predominate in fields such as construction, mining and manufacturing. Not only are these sectors considered typically masculine, but they are also connected with the necessity of having technical knowledge and perhaps physical strength. Neither of which is typical of women, who on the other hand predominate in fields coinciding with their true nature – to take care of someone and to help others. All these

expected forms of behaviour and interests are based on gender stereotypes and therefore do not have to necessarily reflect the essence of why is that so.

The situation in the United States of America will serve as an example to demonstrate the mobility between traditional women's and men's jobs. Renzetti (2003: 275-276) states that both women and men enter the occupations traditionally held by the other gender, and it issues in lowering occupational gender segregation. To show it in more detail, these examples should be taken into consideration: the number of female engineers increased from one to 9.4 per cent, the proportion of female doctors rose from six to 30.1 per cent, and the proportion of female tertiary teachers grew from 19 to 36.4 per cent. Although a little amount of women and men entered professions non-traditional for them, the majority seeks gender typical professions. It has been proved that people holding non-traditional professions for their gender leave these positions to a larger degree.

Occupational gender segregation is complicated by several factors. Firstly, the number of women was historically so low in some professions that even if it has multiplied many times, it still does not mean that these particular professions are held by many women, or that they are not dominated by men. Second, sectors where women dominated were even more feminized (feminization is explained later on), which is explained by way of an example of female accountants – in 1950 women comprised 77.7 per cent of all the accountants, but by the end of 1997, this number increased up to 90.6 per cent (Renzetti 2003, 276-277).

Besides, the survey in America revealed another interesting factor concerning traditional women's and men's jobs – men are concentrated in controlling positions in sectors, which are normally dominated by women. For example, 60.3 per cent of male managers or owners of stores as against 57.6 per cent of saleswomen; or approximately 40 per cent of male managers in clerical positions, despite the fact that 98.2 per cent of clerical positions are held by women (Renzetti 2003, 274-275).

5.2.2 Feminization

Feminization of some positions is a manifestation of job segregation, and feminised jobs are then those where women comprise a high proportion of all workers (more than 70 per cent). Lower wages, lower job prestige, lower certainty, and lower number of employees'

amenities are all examples of consequences resulting from feminization. The connection with secondary labour market is rather obvious here – feminised jobs carry the same characteristics; therefore working in feminised jobs equals working within secondary labour market. Besides, all stereotyped female characteristics such as sensitivity, care, unselfishness, empathy, patience and others are gradually ascribed to feminised jobs as well. Typical feminised sectors are health service and education, typical jobs are for instance secretary or post woman (Křížková and Pavlica 2004, 72).

According to Křížková and Pavlica (2004: 72-73), feminization results in several consequences:

- Difficult access for men to those sectors and jobs considered feminised. Not only are men discouraged from taking such jobs, but they are also considered effeminate or even homosexual if working there.
- If men enter feminised sector, they hold controlling positions and their wage is extraordinarily high. The reason is that they are rare and therefore need to be sustained. That is why it can happen that the same controlling position held by a man is paid up to 100 per cent extra than in case of a women.
- If man holds traditionally feminised position, it is not his behaviour, which changes; it is the job sheet and character of the job instead. Man as a secretary for instance does not make coffees, but has other duties (usually more responsible).
- Men are not required to exhibit their positive emotions or establish a nice atmosphere in so-called emotional jobs, since it is not considered traditionally masculine. Women in such positions as flight attendant or nurse on the hand are required to show emotions as if it were their job sheet.

These are not the only issues feminization leads to. There are many disadvantages connected to working in feminised sectors for women as well, since in the Czech Republic it carries the characteristics of being twice or even more times handicapped. It could be best seen in professions such as doctors or teachers in public sectors, or social workers (Čermáková 1999, 54).

Except for this, women also face huge difficulties penetrating to so-called male jobs. Men are so afraid of women working in “their” sector, that they will not let them. There is a good reason behind, though – the history revealed that the more women in male jobs, the more it outwardly looks like easy or unimportant job, or job, which requires just low

qualification. Consequently, wages get lower along with job prestige, and in the end, also men's social status drops (Čermáková 1999, 54).

5.3 Gender Wage Gap

Gender wage gap is another manifestation of discrimination as far as gender is concerned. This form of discrimination has always been present in the labour market, but history shows that it has been fading. Still, equal pay for work equal work does not really exist. There are several possible explanations for this, essentially differing in whether wage gap really is a form of discrimination or whether it is just the law of the market.

Wage discrimination, which the contemporary modern world suffers from, changes throughout times. This can be demonstrated on an example from US history – from 1960 to 1990 women earned between 59 and 70 per cent of what their men counterparts did. By 1998, the differences lowered to 76 per cent (Renzetti 2003, 286-287).

Czech labour market deals with wage discrimination as well. Women are still not evaluated enough, and they draw lower wages than men do in all branches of Czech economy. One of the basic characteristics of Czech labour market is unequal women's status compared to men's, despite women's high economic activity (Valdrová 2006, 140).

The wage gap between women and men has been proved many times by lots of studies and researches, and women still earn less money for the same work than men (Valdrová 2006, 141). To demonstrate this statement, the situation in the Czech Republic in years 1997, 2002 and 2007 can serve as an example. In 1997 the wage gap was 26.6 per cent (Čermáková 1999, 53), in 2002 it lowered to 26 per cent (Valdrová 2006, 141), and by 2007 it dropped again, this time to 19 per cent (Zelenková and Kejhová 2007). These differences vary according to specific sectors women work in, for instance the highest gaps in 2002 concerned female university graduates (39 per cent), women in top positions (46 per cent) and women within dynamically developing branches such as finance and insurance (45 per cent) (Valdrová 2006, 141).

Furthermore, manual male workers at the average usually earn more money than privileged women who do not work manually. It leads to the fact that wage inequalities apply to all categories of working women (comparing men's and women's average salaries) (Čermáková 1999, 53).

Despite attempted explanations of these differences through objective factors, a huge part of wage discrepancies can be explained only by unequal evaluation of women's and men's work (Valdrová 2006, 141). There are people though who still assert that it is not about inequalities, but about real differences, for example that men do a lot of overtime, that they work in sectors with higher average wages, or that they predominate in higher positions. All these aspects are however conditioned by gender. Women simply cannot work that much overtime, because they are obliged to take care of family and household (Zelenková 2007). Economists state that companies cannot straighten the wages just because it is connected with discrimination, for it is the criteria of remuneration that is reflected in men's higher wages (Zelenková and Kejhová 2007).

What opposes the equal treatment principle is that one fifth of women would expressly support men's wage privilege and another third would be willing to accept it rather than decline, because of the image of men as a provider for the family. Which is ironic, since huge amount of families are provided by women who are sole wage earners (Janebová 2006, 39).

6 OBSTACLES AND PROBLEMS AT WORK

It was shown that having diverse team in the company pays off. Not only does it contribute to more effective problem solving, it also creates more natural atmosphere within the company. It represents competitive advantage, as well. Having diverse management means various opinions and experience. It is not only about age, it is about gender as well. Lack of women could be as disadvantageous as lack of men (Zelenková and Kejhová 2007; Smrčková and Švidrnochová 2007). Yet still, women have difficulties to work their way up. Furthermore, they have to face difficulties which men are hardly confronted with. Women are still being discriminated in terms of hiring and advancement and treated in a sexual manner. Neither of these issues refers to male employees.

6.1 Career Advancement

The twentieth century brought fundamental changes in women's lives – they got opportunity to start studying and working afterwards. This led to expanding not only women's economical independence, but also social and psychological independence (Valdrová 2006, 138).

However, this view is inconsistent with gender contract, which credit women with obligation to carry out unpaid homework and take care of family members. As mentioned before (in occupational gender segregation section), women then hold less qualified and lower professions and less paid jobs. When deciding about future job, plenty of girls follow their wish to handle family life in the first place, and therefore often do not plan any carrier. Moreover, women have to prove their qualification and performance more arduously than possible male applicants do. This relates mainly to women's career advancement and holding higher positions, since men are still considered more typical in this positions and it therefore makes them better candidates (Valdrová 2006, 138-139).

6.1.1 Discrimination in Hiring

Women discrimination starts at recruitment process in the first place. Women are usually discriminated because of generalized experience that most of them prefer family to carrier. Because of this belief, women who do not intend to have a family are discriminated as

well, for their individual interests are not taken into account (Křížková and Pavlica 2004, 74).

In accordance with case study from 2003 concerning women's and men's status in the labour market, one third of female respondents stated they experienced discriminating questions during job interview. One could be taken aback by the fact that majority of Czech female managers agree with asking these kinds of questions. Despite the prohibition set by an act, they assume they are entitled to pose such questions and treat female candidates differently from male candidates whose performance is not likely to be influenced by family affairs (Janebová 2006, 37-38).

6.1.2 Women in Top Positions

Janebová (2006: 38) states that women have a difficult access to some jobs and prestige or managerial positions. This leads to inequalities in power distribution. There are three basic causes of what keeps women from entering the key positions: women's inability or lack of interest, women's role as mother or care person, and finally lack of opportunities to self-assertiveness. The last showed the biggest difference in women's and men's perception to this – whilst 48 per cent of women speak up, on the side of men it is only 18 per cent.

The representative inquiry of one consulting group questioned 220 men in top positions about required competencies and characteristics for someone on top post. The results are greatly pro men. 94 per cent of respondents replied that they could do without typical female competencies such as ability to solve problems through empathy. These managers put more emphasis on characteristics normally ascribed to men, such as decisiveness (79 per cent), ability to delegate (74 per cent), ability to assert themselves (73 per cent), and ability to take a risk (72 per cent). Not even 10 per cent of managers find so-called female characteristics necessary for top management, which naturally decreases women's chances to fill top positions. Moreover, managers do not see any reason why to encourage women to further their career. Finally, only three per cent declared for quotas for women in companies' management (the points at issue of quotas are spelt out later on) (Valdrová 2006, 137-138).

In the Czech Republic, women's and men's mutual positions are unequal almost in all areas of social life. The reason is that masculinity is in our culture perceived as more valuable than femininity and even superior to it, so men are advantaged over women. Typical

notions of executives in number of professions are connected with notions of masculinity. This is visible for instance on requirements which contradicts traditional concept of femininity, such as ambitiousness and rationality. If a woman complies with them, then she is perceived as unfeminine; but if she does not comply with such requirements, she is not a good manager (Zelenková 2007).

The reason why women on top posts are much more noticeable and vulnerable is that they are still exceptions. In comparison to men, it takes more effort if women want to keep the top post (Zelenková 2007). In that case they have to play according to men's rules otherwise they would not gain respect and support from their male colleagues (Zelenková and Kejhová 2007). Not only do women have to play men's game, but they also have to prove all the time that they are able to do so. In addition, women preferring career to family devote more energy to doing their job than their male colleagues do. Women then happen to feel as if they needed to be even better than men, if they want to reach the same success or position. It means that female bosses behave in a manly manner and even more than men themselves. This kind of behaviour is then required from their subordinates as well (Švihel 2008).

As far as male's and female's characteristics are concerned, there are some differences between these two genders. Whilst men are able to fully concentrate on one thing and go into the details, women can handle more things at a time. Women on top posts are to be met more often in fields where communication and dealing with partners is important, such as personal agencies or public relations. Higher degree of empathy is also typical of women, which makes them absorb the human resources problems in broader scope. Besides, to this position one is usually promoted from position in administration or accounting, which men normally do not hold. All the characteristics above are socially accepted clichés, though (Švihel 2008). One should never forget to focus on individuals more than counting on these stereotypes.

In the Czech Republic, the representation of women in top management of mid-sized and large businesses is only 7 per cent (Smrčková and Švidrnichová 2007). There are plenty of reasons standing behind this fact. First reason for such a low number of women in high positions is that there are plenty of mechanisms that keep women from access to those posts. This phenomenon is called glass ceiling, it deals with rooted prejudices about abilities and characteristics of women, as well as active opposition of men to this issue (Zelenková 2007). On its website, Genderová informační a tisková agentura defines glass

ceiling as invisible barrier in the labour market, which hold women back from advancement to higher positions caused by gender stereotypes. Glass escalator on the other hand is described as a concept which points out that better mobility is typical of men, who are promoted more quickly for one thing, and to higher positions for another. Secondly, the preponderance of men in top management is given historically. Some men even cannot respect a woman to be their superior. Again, the black and white perception of men as providers and women as housewives is to blame. Moreover, male managers form an enclosed community with their own rules and way of communication, and they are reluctant to let women in (Smrčková and Švidrnichová 2007). To be perfect is not enough in top management, it is necessary to participate in extra-work activities and attend various parties. Women simply cannot do this that often because of the children they have to care for. Men would rather welcome somebody who they can discuss their male interests with (Švihel 2008).

6.1.3 Quotas

Quotas represent a possible solution to this problem. The core idea is to enable women to penetrate men's closed group, because it is not all right if men's aversion is the only problem, which keeps women apart (Smrčková and Švidrnichová 2007). There are two basic opinions on this, contrary to each other.

One represents the idea that it is needed to create models so that people would get used to the fact that women hold top positions. However, not at all costs, of course. As far as this is concerned, the point is just not to discriminate women because of their gender and provide them with an opportunity to penetrate men's management (Smrčková and Švidrnichová 2007).

Second opinion deals with the fact that quotas are wrong, because they also represent a form of discrimination. Even if it is a positive discrimination, it is still wrong, since any kind of discrimination is undesirable. The negative point of view in this case is that women should work on top posts owing to their qualities, not quotas. What these two opposed views have in common is that it can make some men think differently. Companies should select the best employees regardless of their gender. The situation in the United States could serve as a good example – because of the keen competition which prevails in there, companies cannot afford not to hire a woman just because she is a woman, and hire a less

competent men instead. Women's status is therefore better (Smrčková and Švidrnichová 2007).

6.2 Harmonising Work and Family

The ambitions of women who desire to make a career are strongly influenced not only by employer's stereotyped expectations, but also by lack of support from close relatives and friends. Women on top positions are often therefore those with no or older children. The support from company is as necessary as the support from the closest people (Zelenková and Kejhová 2007).

The employers in the Czech Republic still do not take advantage of alternative employment methods; instead, they are more likely to refuse women in order not to face possible occupational absence (Janebová 2006, 40). Furthermore, they do not realise that they can conceivably lose current high-quality employees when not offering this (Zelenková 2007). In order not to lose contact with work, women tend to shorten their maternity leave even from three years to just half a year. They do not want to give up on the position they work so hard to get, and throw away their qualification. What could help to solve this situation is that employers should support these women more often by offering part-time jobs or homeworking (Zelenková and Kejhová 2007).

Harmonising work and family can be a lot easier when exploiting quantitative or qualitative flexibility (as indicated above). The former enables it thanks to shortening the working time or enabling the employee to determine in some measure the time when the work is being done. That is mainly part-time job, shift work, flexible working hours, regular and irregular working time, job sharing or compressed workweek. The latter enables employee's independence on place and way of performing their work, such as homeworking and teleworking (Janebová 2006, 40).

6.3 Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is another form of discriminatory practices in the labour market causing gender inequalities. Although sexual harassment can appear between the same genders, mostly it occurs between men and women, in which case this sexual behaviour is most frequently aimed from men's side at women (rarely vice versa). Furthermore, it is often

accompanied by abuse of power predominance, which eventually causes lowering of women's status at work and in society in general. The people who are sexually harassed become the victims of this treatment. These victims face stressful situations caused by harasser's behaviour, allusions, touches etc. Sexual harassment includes a broad scale of possible ways how to pressure on somebody and create a hostile and stressful environment. This could happen both knowingly and inadvertently, in which case a perpetrator does not discern the consequences of their behaviour, such as erotic allusions or touches or even motifs of bare women bodies on their notice board or computer screen. Prolonged pressure and constant lowering one's self-confidence may often make the victims leave their job. (Valdrová 2006, 142-144; Křížková and Uhde 2006).

Sexual harassment is defined as sexual behaviour of any form, which is justifiably perceived as unwelcome, inappropriate, or offensive, and which intention or consequence results in decrease of natural person's dignity or in creating hostile, humiliating or perturbing working environment. In practice, unfortunately, this kind of sexual behaviour is more often construed as innocent fun or even consequence of women's provocation, rather than pressure of the harassers from their power advantageous position. The problem is that the definition of sexual harassment is grounded on subjective interpretation of individual ways of behaviour. The moment one's sexually tinged behaviour is perceived as unwanted and bothering or importunate, this behaviour becomes sexual harassment (Valdrová 2006, 142-144; Křížková and Uhde 2006).

6.3.1 Occurrence and Types of Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment in working environment is pretty common phenomenon. The number of registered cases has been permanently increasing. Percentage of both women and men who experienced sexual harassment either directly or vicariously is about 25 per cent. This percentage is based on respondents' own understanding of the notion – what they personally described as sexual harassment. Generally speaking, women experience sexual harassment more often than men do. (Valdrová 2006, 142-144; Křížková and Uhde 2006).

The following are the examples of behaviour which might be perceived as sexual harassment: sexually loaded jokes, showing erotic magazines, sending ribald pictures via e-mail, checking out, affairs between colleagues, unwanted physical contact, bothering telephone calls and e-mails, and even attempted rape. According to the research, the most

common types of harassment are sexually loaded jokes and talk, and allusions to someone's personal life. Love affairs between colleagues and sexually oriented remarks ensue. The research questioned people who are now employed or who had ever been employed, and asked them about types of sexual harassment they experience either now or ever before. It was shown that the order of mentioned types of sexual harassment has not been changed markedly, which means that it relates to a persistent problem, and the number showing the percentage of particular experienced unwanted behaviour therefore does not fluctuate very much. The only considerable change was noticed concerning sending ribald pictures via e-mail. This type of sexual harassment now ranks sixth (unlike twelfth before), which means that the access to the Internet and the expanding usage of electronic information technologies and electronic mail have most probably contributed to the higher occurrence of this type of harassment (Křížková and Uhde 2006).

There is also a huge difference of how women and men perceive this kind of behaviour as harassing. All the previously mentioned types of behaviour at work bother women significantly more often than men. To support this idea, here are some examples: almost 50 per cent of women consider the love affair between superiors and subordinates inappropriate (whilst only 30 per cent of men do the same), 44 per cent of women would be bothered receiving ribald pictures via e-mail (but only 25 per cent of men), sexually loaded talk annoys 42 per cent of women (and only 21 per cent of men), and affairs between colleagues bother 36 per cent of women (but 24 per cent of men) (Křížková and Uhde 2006).

Another research showed who usually the initiators are and who the victims are. In most cases, the victims of sexual harassment are women and initiators are men. The situation gets worse if the initiator is a superior (man), in which case a victim (woman) not only has to face the power relationship man – woman, but also the power relationship superior – subordinate. To complain is much harder in this case, for the victim fears job loss and perhaps public humiliation. Moreover, superior should always be the one who subordinate can turn to and count on, not the one who commits sexual harassment themselves. The examples of sexually harassing behaviour on subordinate women are the followings: sexually oriented remarks (10.9 per cent), unwanted physical contact (16 per cent), date proposals despite lack of interest (21.2 per cent), sexual advances (22.6 per cent), and even attempted rape (30 per cent) (Křížková and Uhde 2006).

6.3.2 Dealing with Sexual Harassment

The definition of the notion of sexual harassment became crucial in order to establish favourable conditions at work assuring equal opportunities for women and men. This definition was added to Czech legislation in 2004 in connection with the Czech Republic entering the European Union. Before, in labour-law relations, this kind of discrimination was not taken into account. It emerges from the legal definition that the burden of evidence rests with defendant, who must prove their innocence. The fact that so many disputes over the definition of sexual harassment arose, reflects the fact that sexual harassment was in our society perceived as needlessly overrated issue. Underestimating the momentousness of sexual harassment complicates the solution of this problem (Křížková and Uhde 2006). The provision was preceded by many discussions concerning the possibility of abuse of this law. Women, however, did not massively start to take the employers to court, as was initially feared (Valdrová 2006, 142-144).

Women should have the opportunity to seek help from their employers and unions. In German speaking countries, for instance, the position of consultant for equal opportunities can be found in all state controlled sectors (Valdrová 2006, 142-144).

What contributes to misrepresented concept of sexual harassment is media, in a large degree. Media inform about this phenomenon in funny way, which can subsequently misrepresent the information. Furthermore, this interpretation results in belief that women themselves provoke to such behaviour, and men are those who react to this in a sexual way, since they naturally have a need to hunt. This excuse actually lays the blame on women rather than men. The pictures accompanying the sexual harassment articles may also dilute the fact that it is unwelcome phenomenon (Valdrová 2006, 142-144) – women often seem not being annoyed at all, and even giving a faint smile.

CONCLUSION

This bachelor thesis analysed women's status in the workplace and proved that it really is unequal in comparison with men's. The ideas are accompanied and supported by numbers and percentages from various surveys for a better understanding.

The work revealed that women are discriminated in various ways – they form a reservoir of secondary labour force (which means that their work is undervalued), they have difficult access to “men's jobs” (which are considered valued), they face the prejudices (which makes their chances to be hired lower), they face the glass ceiling (which keeps them from career advancement), they are supposed to give up on their career and nurture the children (which isolates them from the outside world), and they are confronted with sexual harassment considerably more often.

An interesting discovery was that men also feel discriminated, especially when it comes to family issues. Men are not taken into consideration as often as women are in the matter of maternity leave. Usually, they also work longer and therefore cannot spend so much time with their family, yet they still feel the necessity of being the providers for the family and would feel ashamed if losing the job and being unemployed or paid less than their wife.

The history showed that if it were not for brave women struggling for their rights, women in the present world still might not be working or might be allowed only to do what their husbands would suggest or approve. The second point is that feminism is not a negative phenomenon as many people assume, and therefore should not carry a negative connotation.

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