THE IMPORTANCE OF SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND ETHICS OF BUSINESS:
DO PREGNANT WOMEN AND WOMEN WITH CHILDREN ARE EQUAL
TO OTHER MEMBERS OF THE WORKFORCE?

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Abstract

Purpose – to disclose the importance of social responsibility and ethics of business regarding gender.

Design/methodology/approach – analysis and synthesis of scientific literature and legal documents, analysis of statistical data, interview.

Finding – the interview results had exposed that women in society are still recognized as those who are concerned with family issues more than their job position. As a result, women face a "glass-ceiling" while seeking a career, as woman are still seen as unequal workers, especially young (recognized as future moms), pregnant women, and women with small children. This stereotype is hard to change.

Research limitations/implications – the interview was organized with women only from Lithuania. The study could be broadened in the future, interviewing business representatives.

Practical implications – the ‘glass-ceiling’ while aiming at a successful career is faced not only by pregnant women and women with children, but even by future moms (as every young woman is seen as potentially getting pregnant and having children which are ‘always sick’).

Originality/Value – the main goal of this study is to try to reduce gender inequality in career pursuits.

Keywords: corporate social responsibility, business ethics, maternity/motherhood, gender equity.

Research type: general review.

Introduction

The gender equality is the fifth goal of sustainable development settled by United Nations (UN) in 2015 and is described as to “achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls” till 2030 (United Nations, n.d. a; n.d. b; n.d. c). This shows that gender equality is an important issue in the entire world, and it should be highlighted that gender equality issues in different countries are different: starting from the fact that girls are not allowed to achieve the primary education in third world countries and varies till unequal possibilities to achieve the top positions in the developed countries. Especially pregnant women and women with children face the inequality in the job market as they feel perceived not equally to other members of the workforce. But this issue is not connected with feminism ideas or the aim to have 50/50 of women and men in the organization.
There are tries to overcome this problem and to reach the gender equality. It is believed, that to achieve the gender equity or at least to minimise the gender inequality in career pursuits could help the active implementation of corporate social responsibility and business ethics. So the purpose of this article is to disclose the importance of social responsibility and ethics of business regarding gender and to try to reduce gender inequality in career pursuits.

**Theoretical aspects of gender equality in career**

At different stages of life, opportunities of women and men to participate in the labour market vary and depend on different factors: their age, education, status of health, lifestyle, and so on. Women and men face many challenges in overcoming the first difficulties towards work, gaining experience, successfully (or not) establishing themselves in the labour market, climbing up (or not) the career levels. And while one of the most important goals of modern society, ensuring its progressive social, cultural and economic evolution, is to guarantee equality for all members of society, women and men still have unequal access to the labour market (Kiaušienė, 2011). And this situation changes very slowly.

It is relevant to focus on organizational change to suspend the premise of ideal worker linking with gender and include the socially responsible solutions. The principal change at workplace cannot be achieved only by human resources policymaking (Crowley & Sansonetti, 2019).

Today still a inordinate part of gender inequality in the labour market is connected to an unequal division of labour in the household. Despite the fact that number of women participating labour market in most industrialized countries is close to or even equal to that of men, women are still continuing to provide a disproportionate share of housework, such as not only cleaning and cooking, but also growing and caring their children. By the way, the recent researches had shown that the gender pay gap is closely related to (both expected and actual) child birth. From this realistic perspective, long-term positive changes towards more gender equality is likely to come from the primary changes in social norms and expectations that lead towards a more equal division of labour within the home (Alon et al, 2020).

In 2001, P. T. Costa, A. Terracciano, and R. R. McCrae had highlighted the gender equality paradox explaining that largest differences are found in prosperous cultures where women have greater educational opportunities (cit. Stoet & Geary, 2020).

Alon et al (2020) had stated that “the economic downturn caused by the COVID-19 outbreak has substantial implications for gender equality” and explained that “this is realised not only during the downturn and is still valid during the subsequent recovery”. Authors had added that “compared to “regular” recessions, which affect men’s employment more severely than women’s employment, the employment drop related to social distancing measures has a large impact on sectors with high female employment shares”. To add, the authors believes that “the effects of the crisis on working mothers are likely to be persistent, due to high returns to experience in the labour market and can bring about some positive changes that have the potential to reduce gender inequality in the labour market in the long term” and adds that there are “opposing forces which may ultimately promote gender equality in the labour market:

1. Businesses are rapidly adopting flexible work arrangements, which are likely to persist.
2. There are also many fathers who now have to take primary responsibility for child care, which may erode social norms that currently lead to a lopsided distribution of the division of labour in house work and child care”.

101
Despite the ambitious goals to reach the gender equality in the labour market, women still face with different barriers and discrimination in achieving their career, these barriers are also called as a “glass ceiling” or “sticky floor”. The relations between work engagement and career perspectives of women and glass ceiling and sticky floor which are affected by artificial and natural reasons are shown in figure 1.

The glass ceiling could be explained as a barrier to the efforts of women (and minorities) to reach the top management positions in organizations (Fritscher, 2017; Stephen & Kumar, 2018; Sharma & Kaur, 2019). Fritscher (2017) had explained that the “glass ceiling is so named because it is a point beyond which women cannot reach or a ceiling on their advancement. The ceiling is made of glass because the woman can see beyond” and the author added that in “lawsuit-driven society, employers hesitate to create a written policy that blatantly discriminates against women”. Sharma & Kaur (2019) had stated that glass ceiling mostly connected with personal, organizational and societal barriers women (mothers) face in the job market. The European institute for gender equality the “sticky floor” explains as “expression used as a metaphor to point to a discriminatory employment pattern that keeps workers, mainly women, in the lower ranks of the job scale, with low mobility and invisible barriers to career advancement”. But there is a need to agree that sometimes sticky floor can mean barriers settled by family or society (not letting girls to go to school, to seek for a career and so on).

Bertrand (2017) and Sharma & Kaur (2019) had stated that women (even with higher education) still most often choose to work in work spheres or job positions which with lower salary (this is explained as their psychological difference) and they (more often than men) are more risk-averse and vastly underrepresented in top-paying occupations. This determines and gap in salary. Better paid occupations require more time commitment and women face with difficulties with this inflexibility as they remain disproportionately responsibilities in the family: housework, including raising and caring children and other life chores outside of work.
In 2015, M. S. Morgan had identified that “it is difficult to conclude accurately as to how much disparity in men/women pay and career advancement is due to discrimination and how much is connected with the differences in the choices or preferences made by the men and women” (cit. Sharma & Kaur, 2019).

It is said, that women carry the disproportionate share of care responsibilities for children and dependent adults and at home. The survey conducted by Crowley & Sansonetti (2019) had shown that care responsibilities are the main reasons for women’s interrupted connection to paid employment in most EU countries.

Bertrand (2017) had added that “childcare is one of the most prominent factors holding back women’s earnings at the executive level” and the author had stated what “if wives earn more than their husbands do, it is difficult on the relationship, and the marriage is more likely to be unhappy or end in divorce”.

There are some efforts in some countries (more information in the next section of this article) to encourage more men (fathers) to take up parental leave. This is most often achieved by reserving some months of the parental leave for fathers, with these months being lost if not taken up by the father (e.g. via “daddy quotas” or “daddy months”). Such policies are appealing in that they attempt to go to the core of what seems to hold women’s earnings back in the labour market by trying to speed up the shift in social norms that still too often associate the mother as the dedicated provider of childcare and non-market work (Bertrand, 2017).

The gender pay gap is “still a relevant indicator because it points to both the magnitude and driving forces of unequal pay. However, due to its limitations, it has to be put in context with the use of other relevant gender equality indicators” (Crowley & Sansonetti, 2019).

Despite the changed role of women in society, growing their ambitions to risk and activities, the situation in women empowerment and development is positively changing and women in different ages get the top positions in organizations, however the glass ceiling are being still faced by women (especially future and young moms) nowadays (more about this in the next section of this article).

Poduval & Poduval in 2009 already had raised some of the issues the society must try to address:

a) Does motherhood affect productivity at the workplace?
b) Does motherhood incite subconscious gender discrimination at the workplace?
c) Does motherhood imply that the employee be given special privileges beyond possible entitlements, say maternity leave?
d) Do special policies exist regarding leave benefits and special entitlements that may be needed by working mothers, say sudden sickness of the child?
e) Is flexible working desirable? Can it be taken undue advantage of by the employee?

Some of the answers will be provided in the next sections of this article.

Maternity, paternity and parental leave policy

For gender equality to be fully realised, gender equality must be embedded in all policy making and at all levels of government (OECD, 2017).

Countries have the primary responsibility for ensuring social security to all residents and children. They have various means of implementation and financing at their disposal to achieve such goal. In this respect, companies can play an important role in the extension of social protection within the framework of national policies and legislation. Hence, they can contribute primarily as employers and taxpayers, but they can also support the extension of
social protection through their corporate social responsibility (CSR) strategies and practices (Tessier, 2015).

Working women who become pregnant are facing with the fear to loose their jobs. As Poduval & Poduval (2009) had explained it can force women (mothers) “to take more than available leave options, and job security can be at risk”. So the meaningful social and even individual control is needful to deal with such a situation.

Moreover, Poduval & Poduval (2009) had stated that those working mothers who are able to balance their home and work responsibilities, successfully enjoy the stimulation that a job or career provides them. The authors believe, that such woman – in this case working mother – combines developing the ability of raising a useful member of society and at the same time gain financial independence at once. The authors explain that the term “working mother” means two different situations:

1. The stay at home mother who works from home;
2. The woman who works away from home while managing to fulfil her maternal duties.

Even International Labour Organization (ILO) had already prognosed in 1998 that around 80 per cent of all women in industrialized countries and 70 per cent globally will be working outside the home throughout their child-bearing years (ILO, 1998).

Poduval & Poduval (2009) had added that “material aspirations and the necessities of daily life often compel both parents to work. A qualified woman may insist on working to maintain an effective career and be financially independent. The single working mother is a combination of these entities, working not only to run the family, but also maintaining her position as a financially independent head of the family”.

The need to rethink and reshape maternity, paternity and parental leave policy to include guaranteeing equal treatment, in terms of career and earnings, for working mothers and fathers who decide to take parental leaves compared to their colleagues (whose who have no children) is essential.

In 1919, the International Labour Organization (ILO) had created ‘Maternity Protection Convention’ which is the first global standard aimed at protecting working women before and after childbirth. The Convention (No. 183) lastly was revised in 2000 and now calls for a minimum 14-week maternity leave (Article 4). In countries which provide cash benefits under national law or practice, the ILO standard says that a woman should be paid at a rate of not less than two-thirds of woman’s previous earnings (Article 6). Lithuania had ratified this agreement on September 29, 2003 (ILO, n.d.).

Currently, most countries meet the ILO standard of 14 weeks and some countries provide for more than 14 weeks. It is a pity, that there is still some countries which mandate a maternity leave of less than 14 weeks.

According to the 17 article of Law of the Republic of Lithuania on Sickness and Maternity Social Insurance (No. Nr. IX-110, valid consolidated version) the maternity leave period is equal to 126 days (18 weeks, which are devoted into 2 parts: 10 week before and 8 weeks after the child birth). Pregnant woman can start they leave at 30th or later week of pregnancy and get the maternity leave benefits. If pregnant woman decides not to start her maternity leave before child birth the benefits are paid only for 56 days (8 week). 18 article of the same law document states, that maternity benefit during maternity leave is paid at 77.58 per cent of the beneficiary’s compensatory earnings and the minimum amount of benefit is 6 or more of basic payments (in Lithuanian “his is called ’bazinės socialinės išmokos”, BSI and from January 1, 2020 are equal to 39 EUR).

The EU guarantees minimum maternity leave of 14 weeks. But the level of remuneration and maximum duration of this leave varies significantly (Crowley & Sansonetti, 2019).
The length of maternity leave given to new moms differ from country to country. Only one EU country – Germany – lets fresh mothers to have 14 weeks maternity leave. In other countries, pregnant women and new moms enjoy greater rights, e.g 15 weeks in Belgium and Slovenia, 16 weeks in Austria, Latvia, France, Netherlands and Spain, 17,5 weeks in Finland, 18 weeks - in Cyprus, Denmark, Malta and Romania, 20 weeks in Estonia, Luxemburg, and Poland, 21,7 weeks in Italy, 24 weeks in Hungary, 26 weeks in Ireland, 28 weeks in Czech Republic, 30 weeks in Croatia, 34 weeks in Slovakia, 43 weeks in Greece, 58,6 weeks in Bulgaria. It is seen that most EU countries follows the ILO convention providing 14 and more weeks for maternal leave. In two EU countries, such as Portugal (6 weeks) and Sweden (12,9 weeks) the maternity leave is shorter that it is guaranteed by EU (Maternity Leave by Country 2020, 2020; Warren, 2018).

In Lithuania the childcare is organized not only during maternity leave which is only 18 weeks. Parents (mother or father) have the possibility to have a parental leave for longer period.

In Lithuania childcare allowance is paid to one of the parent (or other caring person¹). According to Liethuanian State Social Insurance Fund Board (SODRA) “the benefit is paid if a person has a record of social security payments for at least 12 of the previous 24 months, until the first day of the child care leave. The last job and insurance coverage must be established in Lithuania. Childcare allowance is calculated in relation to earnings and depends on the time scale chosen” (Renkuosi Lietuvą, 2020) (see table 1).

### Table 1. Duration of parental leave and childcare allowance in Lithuania in 2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The period of getting childcare allowance. Need to choose one option</th>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Allowance - the percentage part of the previous earnings</th>
<th>The lower limits (minimum amount) of childcare allowance per month</th>
<th>The upper limits (maximum amount) of childcare allowance per month</th>
<th>The childcare allowance compatibility with other income during the parental leave</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Until the child is one year old</td>
<td>1 year</td>
<td>77,58%</td>
<td></td>
<td>2126,00 EUR</td>
<td>If a person receives income or benefits from work in the first year of child-rearing, he or she will be paid a difference between the amount of the childcare allowance and the income received.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Until the child is two years old</td>
<td>1st year</td>
<td>54,31%</td>
<td>6 BSI* which is equal to 234 EUR now</td>
<td>1488,31 EUR</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2nd year</td>
<td>31,03%</td>
<td></td>
<td>850,35 EUR</td>
<td>It is allowed to work and get an income during the second year without any reduction in the allowance.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* - 1 BSI = 39 EUR

Source: Created by author according to: LR ligos ir motinystės socialinio draudimo įstatymas, 2020; SODRA, 2020; Renkuosi Lietuvą, 2020,

¹ Other caring person: adoptive parent, or guardian, or one of the grandparents (grandparents have the right to receive the childcare benefit only if one of parents (adoptive parents) of the child has the right caring for the child.
According to the Labour code No. XII-2603 (Article 134), the maximum duration of parental leave is three years and the employer is recommended to maintain the workplace for the person who is on childcare leave.

Also, the months during which the person is on the parental leave, are continued to be taken into account as the periods of social insurance. However, during the third year, childcare benefit is no longer payable (Renkuosi Lietuvą, 2020).

It should be highlighted that the dominant role in childcare is recognized and supposed to be a role for women and this responsibility influences the working life of mothers (women) more than that of fathers (men) (Poduval & Poduval, 2009).

The survey done by European Commission (Crowley & Sansonetti, 2019) on new visions for gender equality 2019 had shown a present experience in some countries (such as Germany and Iceland) a satisfied developments in this regard for three types of policies:

1. A consistent increase in the length and the size of well-paid exclusive paternity leave, which incentivises parents’ equal share of care work, even in the long term;

2. A broader investment in improving the accessibility, both in terms of availability, high-quality and affordability, of flexible childcare services, which supports both parents to meet their work and family needs;

3. Incentivising both parents, with a specific focus on fathers, to take flexible working arrangements, both in terms of working hours (e.g. part-time) and place of work (e.g. teleworking), without any negative consequences at the workplace in terms of career or earnings.

The maternity, paternity and parental leave policy can make it easier for fresh mothers and fathers to spend more time with their newborn children while securing their job positions and getting financial support during the leave period. More men choose to have a parental leave in those countries where governments have started to mandate the paid parental leave.

However, providing these benefits of paid parental leave is costly for countries. Asai (2019) explains that “beyond the monetary costs of supporting women (and men) on leave, there are costs associated with staffing that the firm must bear too. Thus, there may be incentives for organisations to minimize or reduce these costs through hiring practices that may manifest in lower starting wages and reduced career opportunities for women. These unintended consequences can be mitigated or exacerbated through the institutional details of leave programmes and a corporate environment that makes it easier to stay employed during pregnancy and to return to full-time work after childbearing”.

As the EU directive 2010/18/EU on Parental leave does not stipulate whether the parental leave needs to be paid, the payments in each country vary.

EU countries are free to establish their own rules on entitlement to benefits and services. All countries offer some family benefits but amounts and conditions differ widely. In some countries it is received regular payments, while in others family situation may give rise to tax benefits rather than payments (European Union, 2020).

To sum up, in Lithuania it is common for a woman to spend at least a year at home when a child is born. Meanwhile, few mothers in the world have such opportunity. In most countries, maternity and parental leave last an average of 18 weeks. After that, either the leave is no longer paid or the child has to be left in the care of nannies or grandparents who helps to be able to perform her dual role efficiently.

To add with, according to the Health Insurance Act No I-1343, one of the parents (adoptive parents) raising a child under 8 years of age, one of the guardians, caring for a child under 8 years of age in the family, as well as one of the parents (adoptive parents) raising two or more minor children, one of the guardians), caring two or more minor children in the custody of the family are insured, e.g. one that is insured at the expense of the state.
Moreover, it should be noted that socially responsible organisations should pay more attention for this question: they should not follow the law but be more friendly for mothers.

Social responsibility and ethics of business is important in demonstrating their positive impact to all stakeholders, in this case, especially for their workers, ensuring not only safe and healthy working conditions, but creating a positive climate inside the organization. Tessier (2015) had explained that „as employers, companies are responsible for respecting the relevant labour and social security legislation and for the payment of social insurance contributions for their employees. The former includes in many countries the legal requirement to pay wages throughout periods of maternity and sickness, and in case of employment injury. Some companies also provide complementary protection (coverage for health, death, invalidity, pension, etc.) and services (on-site medical facilities, childcare, etc.) to their employees, their families and sometimes the larger community“.

Men (fathers) are encouraged to take up parental leave (Bertrand, 2017). For example, most EU countries have introduced dedicated paternity leave into their parental leave policy.

**Maternity statistics**

More and more often women are postponing the issue of starting a family, more and more are later giving birth to their first babies (see Figure 2).

![Figure 2. Mean age of women at birth of first child in 2018](image)

**Note:** * - Non-EU countries

**Source:** Eurostat (online datacode: demo_find), 2020
The statistical data show that women delay motherhood and averagely have a first baby at 29.0 years old. However, if the median age (instead of the mean age) would be compared, it would be seen that most often women give birth to their first child at an average age of 31.1 years (at 33.7 years in Spain and 28.9 years in Romania). Woman firstly want to enter the labour market and achieve a career.

Poduval & Poduval (2009) had stated that “unexpected sickness of children is a calamity that can be difficult to handle. There often is need to use and avail of unpaid leave and unexpected absences from work. Few employers would consider the needs of sudden leave requirements in women with young children. Even in double-income families, it is still the woman who is expected to take care of a sick child”.

As a result women, especially mothers face with barriers in the labour market as their (future) children are perceived as “always sick” and this is confirmed by the results of innerview with mothers (next section of this article).

**Results of interview with mothers**

The interview as a research method is designed to collect a source of information from a small number of people and helps to better understand, explain, and explore research subjects' experiences, opinions and feelings, attitudes, preferences, behaviour, and etc. Interview questions are usually open-ended questions so that in-depth information will be collected (Virginia Tech University Libraries, 2018).

During the period February 3-29, 2020, it was conducted online (Zoom) interview with seven moms having only one child with the aim to disclose the real situation they were or are facing while being pregnant or having babies and being on the maternity and parental leave.

**Table 2. General information about interviewed moms who had faced the issues in the career pursuits**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent</th>
<th>The age at which the baby was born</th>
<th>The current age of the baby</th>
<th>Facing or faced the discrimination in the labour market</th>
<th>the glass ceiling or sticky floor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10 years</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Sticky floor - the influence of the family members.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>2 years</td>
<td>Was asked about her future family plans during job interview and was told that parents of “always sick” children are not welcome.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6 month</td>
<td>At workplace had heard discriminating comments stating that she will never climb her career (glass ceiling) in this organization.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.5 year</td>
<td>Her job position was cancelled during her maternity leave.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1 year</td>
<td>Was informed that the employer won’t save the work positions during the childcare leave period.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>7 month</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2.5 year</td>
<td>Heard a lot of unpleasant comments (stereotypes) about working mothers at her workplace.</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Respondent ‘A’ being 20 years old and graduating her bachelor studies in engineering had a baby. Unfortunately, she had not started her work experience and spend at home growing and caring her baby for 8 years (as she had all social guarantees and her husband was against that she would work). After 8.5 years this woman got divorced and realised that she is not good enough in engineering while trying to get the job position as she was without any experience and even her studies were finished almost 10 years ago. As a result respondent “A” had started working as a seller at supermarket and receives only a minimum wage what is not enough for her and her son’s needs. This woman thinks about further studies, but the employer does not create favourable conditions for goal, stating that the education she has in this job position is sufficient. Attends distance learning courses and does not lose hope of getting a better paid job.

Respondent ‘B’ remember her job interviews entering the job market and employers were asking about her future plans, especially about family goals, if she would be able to travel abroad and how many kids she is planning to have, and so on. As the kid of respondent ‘B’ was often sick and as she knew, the workers of “always sick” children are not welcome in her office, she plans to start her own business to spend more time with her baby.

Respondent ‘C’ during her pregnancy period realised that she does not want to come back to work as worked in masculine team and knows that she will never have a higher position – non of women can lead a men’s team. As a result she decided to turn her hobby (knitting and sewing) into a small business.

Respondent ‘D’ faced with an issue that the job position of the head of unit was cancelled during her pregnancy. The employer could not offer the relevant managing position. Anyway, respondent ‘D’ succeeded and found a new and seems a better job position in another company. She feels that she had gained enough experience at previous work and a new employer does not think that children are always sick. This is not a problem for respondent ‘D’ as she can work from home while caring her sick baby.

Respondent ‘E’ had a short work experience as administrative person at beauty salon but after informing that she is pregnant she was told that job position won’t be saved for her during her maternity leave. Anyway, the respondent ‘E’ does not will to work as administrator whole life as she is finishing her master studies in economics.

Respondent ‘F’ had a baby after graduated her bachelor studies in advertising and got her work experience while studying (was suggested to stay to work after her traineeship). Young mom plans to come back to work as her baby will get 1 year old as her mom can help her growing a baby and she would be able to work from home and see how her daughter is growing up.

Respondent ‘G’ firstly wanted to reach a stabile work position and only then to have a family. During her pregnancy she had heard a lot of unpleasant comments about working mothers at her workplace. To refute this stereotype, respondent ‘G’ had chosen to stay with her baby only for the first year as for the second year her husband was working from home and carrying their baby (the support to climb the career was very strong from her husband and other relatives). As she had more than 10 years of experience, 1.5 year after her maternity leave she was so active in her workplace, as a result she got a leading position – she became a head of a department. Her employer is not afraid if her baby is sick, as the care of baby she is sharing with her husband.

The discrimination while aiming for a successful career is faced by five from seven interviewed woman: they faced barriers while entering labour market, before getting pregnant, being pregnant and already having children. The support of family members to have a successful career is very important.
In this context, Poduval & Poduval (2009) had raised some of the issues that come into play:

- **Employer issues:** maternity, compensated working hours, childcare facilities at the workplace, gender discrimination of working parents, especially in the academic field
- **Employee issues:** fatigue, spousal support, parental support system, child care issues, child health issues (e.g., do children of working mothers have more health problems?)

In Lithuania, there were some ideas of socially responsible business enterprises to establish kindergartens near or at the workplaces. Unfortunately, this nice idea had not come true. It seems that the requirements and expenditures for such projects were too high.

To sum up, the visualisation (see picture 3) provided by OECD (2017) on title page of the book called “The Pursuit of Gender Equality: An Uphill Battle” makes sense.

![The Pursuit of Gender Equality: An Uphill Battle](image)

**Figure 3. The title page of OECD’s (2017) book “The Pursuit of Gender Equality: An Uphill Battle” showing the glass ceiling faced by women**

To better understanding of the situation and clearly indentify the issues in job market it is worth to evaluate not only the personal opinion of women. Moreover, the research could be broadened in the future, interviewing business representatives about the issues faced during the periods of workers maternity, paternity and paternal leave.

**Conclusions and Discussion**

The interview results had exposed that women in society are still recognized as those who are concerned with family issues more than their job position. As a result, women face a "glass-ceiling" while seeking a career, as woman are still seen as unequal workers, especially young (recognized as future moms), pregnant women, and women with small children. This stereotype is hard to change.

The interview was organized with women only from Lithuania. The study could be broadened in the future, interviewing business representatives.

To sum up, the importance of corporate social responsibility and business ethics is essential to achieve the gender equity in career pursuits.
References


Ratifications of C183 - Maternity Protection Convention, 2000 (No. 183)


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