



THE GENDER PAY GAP IN PUBLIC SERVICES



CONTENTS

4	Executive summary
7	Introduction
8	Factors behind the gender pay gap
8	Segregation in the labour market
8	Part-time work
9	Maternity, age and education
9	Structural discrimination
9	The impact of low levels of women's employment
10	Union action to close the gender pay gap
10	The survey
10	Information and awareness
12	The reasons for gender pay inequality and union action to reduce it
12	Labour market segregation
13	Union action on job segregation
18	Pay systems
18	Union action on pay systems
20	Part-time work
21	Union action on part-time work
21	Training
22	Union action on training
22	Maternity and parental leave
24	Union action on maternity and parental leave
25	Outsourcing
26	Union action on outsourcing
27	Working time flexibility
28	The impact of public spending cuts
31	Making progress?
34	The picture from the statistics
34	The overall gender pay gap
34	The size of the gender pay gap
35	Changes in the overall gender pay gap over time
37	The gender pay gap in the public services
37	The public sector as a whole
43	Health and social work
45	Public administration
47	Education
49	National, regional and local government
49	Electricity and gas, water and sewerage
54	Appendix
56	Notes

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

THE OVERALL GENDER PAY GAP Statistics from both Eurostat, the official European statistical office, and the individual national statistical offices make it clear that there is a gender pay gap in Europe as a whole. Defined by Eurostat on the basis of hourly earnings and as the gap between men's and women's earnings as a percentage of men's, this gap averages 16% across the EU. It ranges from a gap of more than a quarter (27%) in Estonia to around a fiftieth (2%) in Slovenia. The latest figures from Eurostat suggest that at least until 2010, the gender pay gap appears to have been narrowing. However, there was no further progress in 2011.

FACTORS BEHIND THE GENDER PAY GAP This report points to some of the key factors: segregation in the labour market, both within industries (including the fact that there are fewer female managers) and between industries, where women are found in low-paid sectors; part time work, which is less-well paid; the impact of maternity, education and age; and structural discrimination. The report also points out that the gender pay gap is not the only indicator of gender equality and that a narrow gap can also occur when women's labour market participation is low.

THE EPSU SURVEY To get a better understanding of union action to narrow the gender pay gap, a survey was undertaken among EPSU's affiliates. In total 36 unions from 19 countries responded.

AWARENESS OF THE SIZE OF THE GENDER PAY GAP Most unions (27 out of 36) said that they had access to figures on the gender pay gap, although these did not always directly relate to the areas they negotiated about.

LABOUR MARKET SEGREGATION Most unions are well aware of the impact that women's segregation in the labour market has on their pay relative to men's, both within industries and between them. In response, unions had taken action to address the concentration of women in traditional or stereotypical jobs and measures to improve the proportion of women in more senior positions. The impact of structural discrimination on pay has been dealt with at a local level through new negotiating strategies or legal action; through increasing the pay of those on the lowest grades; though economy-wide measures to tackle low pay, such as a minimum wage;

and through above average pay rises for the areas in which women predominate.

PAYMENT SYSTEMS THAT ARE UNFAIR TO WOMEN Unions have also dealt with this in a number of ways: through negotiating new pay systems; through removing elements which can become unfair; and through dealing with unfair systems through training for negotiators and in the courts.

PART-TIME WORK For some unions the fact that part-time workers cannot extend their hours is a problem. Unions have negotiated agreements which allow part-time workers to bring their contractual hours more closely in line with their actual working time.

TRAINING Training is seen by unions as offering workers access to better careers and pay. In order to ensure women workers benefit, unions have had to deal with issues such as unfair selection for training and cuts in training budgets.

MATERNITY AND PARENTAL LEAVE AND CHILD-CARE In some countries it appears that taking maternity or parental leave has a negative impact, either directly, as in France and Germany, or indirectly. Unions have negotiated improvements for mothers, but one of the key union demands is that there should be more leave for fathers so that the responsibilities of bring up children are shared more evenly. Unions have also gained improvements in the provision of childcare.

OUTSOURCING Some unions consider that outsourcing has had a particularly damaging effect on women. As well as campaigning against it they have developed other policies, such as calling for guaranteed standards of services and gaining representational right for those who are not directly employed.

WORKING TIME FLEXIBILITY Working time flexibility can be important for employees with caring responsibilities, the majority of whom are women. However, there is a clear tension between flexibility in the interest of the employer and in the interest of the employee and in some unions feel the balance has tipped too much towards the employer. Zero hours contracts and computer based scheduling are seen as particularly troubling.

THE IMPACT OF PUBLIC SPENDING CUTS The impact of austerity measures on the gender pay gap in the public services is still difficult to measure, as although women have suffered, so have men. In some countries pay cuts or freezes have been introduced in a way that hits higher paid workers harder, so closing the gender pay gap. However, in the long term, cuts to equal opportunities programmes intended to improve women's access to higher qualified and better paid jobs seems likely to have the opposite effect. In any case, if jobs and earnings are lost in the public sector, an area which often offered women better opportunities than the private sector, the consequence may well be a widening of the overall gender pay gap.

PROGRESS MADE The indications are that the five percentage point narrowing of the gender pay gap, called for by the 2009 EPSU Congress remains a significant challenge. However, progress has been made, and it is particularly encouraging that where it is possible to examine statistics based on specific levels of government, this becomes clear. There are, however, some countries where the gender pay gap has widened and where it has narrowed the pace has been slow. Overall the figures show that there is much still to do, but also that progress can be and has been made.

THE PAY GAP IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR In principle this should be lower than in the private sector, in part because the public sector should be more influenced by overall public policies in favour of greater gender equality.

THE PUBLIC SECTOR AS A WHOLE The Eurostat figures for the public sector, but excluding public administration, show that the gender pay gap ranges from 21.5% in Bulgaria to minus 2.6% in Belgium and is generally lower than the overall gender pay gap. In half the countries for which information is available it has been closing between 2007 and 2011 and in half it has been widening. National figures which are available for nine of the countries covered by the Eurostat data, and which include public administration, show a similar picture with only five out of nine showing the gap closing.

HEALTH AND SOCIAL WORK The gender pay gap in health and social work (as of 2011, the most re-

cent figures) ranges from 41.5% in Cyprus to 5.1% in Luxembourg and in most cases it is greater than the gender pay gap in the economy as a whole. Looking at trends over the period since 2008, the gap has closed in 20 countries, but grown in eight.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION The gender pay gap ranges from 20.3% for Croatia to minus 4.3% in Latvia, and in most cases the gender pay gap in public administration is smaller than in the rest of the economy. In the period since 2008 the gender pay gap has closed in 17 states, but widened in four.

EDUCATION The gender pay gap in education ranges from 27.8% in Austria (2010 figures) to minus 4.7% in Malta. In the majority of countries the gender pay gap in education is smaller than in the economy as a whole. The trend over time is also positive with 20 states showing a decline and only six showing a rise.

NATIONAL, REGIONAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT A small number of countries provide an indication of the gender pay gap at different levels of government, with separate figures for national, local and sometimes regional government. These permit comparisons over time to see where the gender pay gap has increased or decreased in a particular area of government. The figures are encouraging as, with the exception of Slovakia, all the countries at all the levels show a reduction in the gender pay gap over the period.

ELECTRICITY AND GAS, WATER AND SEWERAGE In electricity and gas, the latest figure ranges from 48.3% in the Netherlands to 2.7% in Romania, and they are generally close to the overall gender pay gap. In water and sewerage, the 2011 gender pay gap ranges from 23.6% in Austria (2010 figures) to minus 19.7% in Luxembourg. And, in contrast to electricity and gas, in almost all cases the gender pay gap in water and sewerage is smaller than the overall gender pay gap. In terms of trends, in electricity and gas 15 states show a narrowing of the gender pay gap, even though in some cases the change is very small, while nine show it widening. In water and sewerage, there are 21 countries where the position of women relative to that of men has improved over the period and just five where it has worsened.



INTRODUCTION

This report examines the gender pay gap, the difference between what men and women earn, in public services.

Consisting of two main sections, the report examines how unions have identified and tackled the problem of the gender pay gap on the basis of a survey circulated by EPSU. It then considers the effect of austerity on the gender pay gap, and tries to establish the extent of progress that has been made. Finally, the report looks at the statistical position, relying on information primarily from Eurostat but also using national data.

The report has been prepared for EPSU by the Labour Research Department.

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Factors behind the gender pay gap

This part of the report examines the findings of a survey of EPSU affiliates that asked about their initiatives to reduce the gender pay gap. There are many factors that contribute to inequality of pay between men and women but the survey focused on a number of specific areas:

- Information on pay and awareness of the gender pay gap – the starting point for union action is an awareness that the pay gap exists and having the data on pay that reveals the scale of the problem;
- Labour market segregation – the fact that women tend to be concentrated in low-paying sectors and/or professions or in non-managerial positions;
- Pay systems may discriminate against women particularly where there are significant elements additional to basic pay such as bonus schemes or large amount of overtime work;
- Part-time work – there is some evidence that many women workers are stuck in part-time work when they would like to work longer hours or full time.
- Training can be important for women workers who want to move into senior positions or into new areas of work;
- Maternity and paternity leave – taking time off work to raise children can have a negative effect on pay and career progression;
- Outsourcing, particularly where workers are transferred from the public to the private sector, can lead to poorer pay and conditions, especially for women who are often in the low-paying jobs that are vulnerable to contracting out and privatisation; and
- Working time flexibility – women still make up the majority of carers and the extent to which they have flexibility in their working hours can be important and make the difference as to whether they stay in work.

SEGREGATION IN THE LABOUR MARKET A report¹ by the Belgian Presidency at the end of 2010 pointed out that “One of the factors that best explains the gender pay gap is segregation in the labour market. Women are often overrepresented in sectors, occupations and positions where pay tends to be moderate.”

There is so-called horizontal segregation between sectors. The industries where large numbers of women are employed are education, health and social work, the retail trade and the catering industry, while the industries with the largest share of men’s employment are construction, transport and communication. As the Belgian Presidency Report notes, “The sectors which account for a large proportion of men’s employment are ... associated with higher average pay than the sectors accounting for the largest share of women’s employment.” In other words women are concentrated in low-paying industries. Indeed it is argued that it is precisely the fact that large number of women work in them that explains why pay is low.

However, there is not just segregation between sectors. Even within sectors, women are concentrated in particular roles. In health, a much higher proportion of women are nurses and paid less than doctors, a profession where, in contrast, men, predominate. In industries like water services or energy, women work in primarily in clerical or other support areas,

while men are found in the (better paid) craft and skilled maintenance areas.

Finally, there is so-called vertical segregation, the fact that women are much less likely than men to be in management positions, with the associated higher earnings. The figures from Eurostat show that almost half (47%) of all employees in the EU are women, but only just over one third (35%) are managers. This does not take into account the level of management that women and men achieve.

PART-TIME WORK Another important factor explaining the gender pay gap is the extent of part-time work. Part-time workers in most countries earn less per hour than full-time workers. In France, for example, part-timers earn 89.1% of what full-time employees earn; in Germany the figure is 79.3%; in the UK it is 73.7%; and in Italy 70.8%. This is significant for the gender pay gap because many more women than men work part time. In the EU as a whole three-quarters of those working part-time are women. While there are some variations there are examples countries where a large majority of part timers are women

– for example: Germany 80.0%, France 79.3%; Italy 77.9%; Spain 77.2% and the UK 74.5%.

MATERNITY, AGE AND EDUCATION There are important differences in the professional life cycle of women and men which are linked to the gender pay gap. Thus, although age is normally at least a partial indicator of a person’s professional experience and therefore earnings, as the Belgian Presidency report points out “this probably applies less to women owing to career breaks for maternity and parental leave”. The report quotes a study, which shows that:

*“Women taking one or two years’ parental or maternity leave have been shown to suffer a significant loss of earnings: taking one year off work per child leads to a reduction in pay of around 7% at the age of 40.”*²

Education too plays a role both in relation to the proportion of women who are employed and to the gender pay gap, although, as the Belgian Presidency Report points out “the effect on the pay gap is not straightforward”, as work quoted in the report shows that some studies “show the fact that women’s and men’s education levels have become closer has led to a narrowing of the pay gap, whilst others show the opposite.”³

STRUCTURAL DISCRIMINATION It is not just these apparently objective factors that cause the gender pay gap. In a paper produced in 2009, the UK Equality and Human Rights Commission suggested that alongside part-time work and occupational segregation, there was also the more subjective element of the “persistent undervaluation of women’s work, as compared to that done by men”, and the specific characteristics of some pay systems.

A major governmental study in the UK study produced in 2006⁴ referred to another factor that should not be forgotten “discriminatory treatment of women at work” – despite legislation to the contrary some employers still treat women unfairly.

The difficulty in dealing with the gender pay gap and the importance of “unexplained” or “unobserved” factors such as discrimination is shown by one of the indicators used in the Belgian Presidency report. It looked at the gender pay gap in 15 countries⁵ and took account, as far as the data were available, of the following factors: part-time working arrangements, the level of education, age, length of service in the enterprise, the sector, the occupation, the hierarchical

position, the size of the enterprise, the type of contract and the type of economic and financial control of the enterprise. However, the report found that even if these factors were taken into account they only explained around half the gender pay gap – ranging for 45.1% of the gender pay gap in Slovenia to 50.5% in Sweden.

In terms of the relative importance of the various factors in the “explained” part of the gap, the report found that labour market factors, like sector, occupation, working time and type of contract, were much more important than individual characteristics like age, length of service or level of education. Overall the report noted:

“Between 60 and 70% of the explained component may be attributed to characteristics relating to the position of women and men in the labour market and providing evidence of gender segregation. The remaining 30-40% may be attributed to employees’ individual characteristics.”

This, as the report went on to conclude, “underlines the importance of measures, policies and programmes – whether legal and public or resulting from the collective bargaining system – in combating gender pay gaps.”

THE IMPACT OF LOW LEVELS OF WOMEN’S EMPLOYMENT Although the gender pay gap is an important measure of gender equality, it is not the only one. In fact, it may sometimes be the case that a small gender pay gap is an indication of a lack of progress. This is where it is the result of low levels of female employment. As the Belgian Presidency report explains:

“A narrow gender pay gap may be explained by the fact that the female employment rate is low, and that those who are working are also those who have the personal characteristics (level of education, profession and so on) associated with higher salaries. This effect, known as the “selection effect” may give the mistaken impression that there is great equality on the labour market.”

It seems very likely that this selection effect is at work in Europe. Although the average employment rate for women in the EU is 62.3%, there are a number of countries covered by the Eurostat figures, which are well below this. It is striking that many of those who have the lowest level of women’s employment, are also those with small gender pay gaps. Croatia, Italy, Malta, FYR Macedonia and Turkey all fall into this category.

Union action to close the gender pay gap

THE SURVEY To get a better understanding of union action to narrow the gender pay gap, a survey was undertaken among EPSU's affiliates. A questionnaire in 16 language versions was sent to EPSU affiliates in September 2013. In total of 36 unions⁶ from 19 countries completed the questionnaire and they are listed in the table. Their participation is very much appreciated.

INFORMATION AND AWARENESS In order to take effective action on the gender pay gap, and, in particular, to measure the effects of their actions, unions need information on the difference between the pay of men and women. Most unions do have some information. Of the 36 unions responding to the questionnaire, 27 said that they had access to figures on the gender pay gap.

However, there are still some that do not. In the gas industry in Slovakia, for example, the union POZ reported that they did not have statistics "because the employer refused", while in the water industry in Hungary, VKDSZ reported that there was "no data on men's and women's pay."

This question also revealed a more fundamental problem among some of EPSU's affiliates. This is that pay equality was understood as women and men receiving the same pay for the same job – a definition which does not take account of all the other reasons why women earn less than men. Thus one union responded that "There are no gender differences. Men and women are paid equally according to grades". However, this was not the general view, and even when the data was not available, some unions at least recognised the fact that women's and men's pay was not equal. For example, the Ukrainian union, Atomprofspilka, working in the nuclear industry reported: "We know the difference exists but we haven't carried out a gender audit".

The responses also indicated that even where there is currently no data, progress is being made in collecting data for the future. Rotal from Estonia reported that although the figures were not available for the past, figures on pay in the areas the union covers were being collected for the first time, and were expected to be available by the end of 2013.

However, even where unions had access to data, the figures were often problematic. In some cases the only figures available were those from national statistics offices and so did not relate specifically to the areas about which the unions negotiate. This is the case in Germany, for example, where Ver.di points out

COUNTRY	UNION
Austria	GdG-KMSfB
Bulgaria	KNSB Health Podkrepa Medical
Czech Republic	OS-Echo OSZ Statorg (Local government) Statorg (Local finance)
Denmark	3f DSR FOA OAO
Estonia	Rotal
Finland	Pardia
France	CFDT Santé-Sociaux CGT Mines Énergie
Germany	Ver.di
Hungary	VKDSZ
Ireland	CPSU INMO
Netherlands	ABVAKABO
Norway	Delta NTL YS
Romania	Sanitas SED LEX
Slovakia	POZ SOZZASS
Spain	CCOO FSC
Sweden	Akademikerförbundet Kommunal Vision
Switzerland	VPOD
Ukraine	Atomprofspilka
UK	GMB PCS UNISON

that the official industry statistics, for the utilities, but also for health, do not distinguish between private and public sector ownership. In Ireland, two unions, CPSU and INMO, report that there are statistics for the public sector as a whole, but not for the specific areas they organise.

This is not always be the case, in the Nordic countries and Slovakia, the national statistical offices provide information on pay broken down by different levels of government (national, regional and local).

In other cases, the available statistics are incomplete. VPOD in Switzerland, for example reports that figures are available for central government and the cantons (the next tier down), but not for local municipalities. The situation is similar in Spain, where CCOO FSC reports that there is information on pay in the central administration (AGE in Spanish) but not for the autonomous regions or municipalities. As the reply notes, each autonomous region has its own procedures and methods of working and there are 8,100 separate municipalities, each with different pay rates. In addition, the figures for central administration only include basic pay and exclude other key elements.

Where useful statistics are available, the reasons for collecting and disseminating them vary. In some cases, they are now collected on a regular basis by the employers. This is the case, for example, with the figures for pay in central government (the Civil Service) in the UK, which are published every year, as the union PCS reports. In France too, the union CFDT Santé-Sociaux reports that there are pay figures in the annual reports on the civil service.

However, this is not always the case. Frequently, figures on the pay of men and women emerge from broader equal opportunities initiatives or specific exercises. This was the case for pay figures in central government in Spain, for example, where the information comes from the evaluation of the Equality Plan for the central administration agreed in January 2011. In three utilities companies in France, the union CGT Mines Énergie reports that it has details of the gender pay gap in three companies (EDF, GDF-SUEZ and AREVA) and that in EDF, the information emerged as a result of a special enquiry undertaken in response to a demand from the equality commission of the central works council. In Vienna, as the union GdG-KMSfB explains, the figures on the pay of men and women come from a voluntary exercise undertaken by the city council in 2011.

In Finland, Norway and Sweden, on the other hand, access to information on the gender pay gaps seems to be provided on a more systematic basis, as the unions have a right to it as part of their collective agreements. The Norwegian central government union NTL reports that, "It is mandatory in the agreement to provide the information, although sometimes there are difficulties"; the union Pardia in Finland says that, "Unions have a right to request detailed pay information for each agency. This generally works well, although there are sometimes problems"; and from



Sweden the local government union Kommunal reports that "Employers are obliged to provide the statistics as part of the collective agreement. This works well in the public sector, but less well in the private sector."

Including the right to detailed information on the gender pay gap in collective agreements clearly offers significant benefits, as it makes the issue one that is subject to joint regulation rather than a decision by the employer or the national statistical office. It should also ensure that the information provided matches the area covered by collective bargaining, and helps unions assess whether the actions they are taking are effective.

The reasons for gender pay inequality and union action to reduce it

LABOUR MARKET SEGREGATION The responses to the questionnaire revealed clearly that most unions are well aware of the impact that women's segregation in the labour market has on their pay relative to men's.

A number of unions pointed to the fact that women are concentrated in particular types of jobs within an industry or sector. This is very clear in the utilities. For example in the water industry in Hungary, VKDSZ reports that "fewer women than men work in the water sector and they are concentrated in laboratories and offices, where wages are lower." In France in the energy industry, CGT Mines Énergie reports that "In the technical area – the heart of the business – women make up 11% of those employed (2011). In the service area they account for 51% and in the commercial area 59%".

However, the gender division also affects technical jobs in areas of public administration. Thus GdG-KMSfB in Austria reports the results of a study carried out by the City of Vienna for the first time in 2011. This found that women made up just over half (50.4%) of the 56,471 employed full time. (The figures include municipally-run services.) However, "women are almost completely absent from a number of occupations such as sewerage workers, refuse disposal workers and inspectors".

In health and social care the Danish union DSR states that its "members are nurses and there is not a problem between males and female nurses. The problem is in the area of job segregation".

The lack of women in senior positions was reported even more widely. Looking at the health sector in Romania, the union Sanitas notes that, "Although more than 80%

of health and social services employees are women, more than 65% of management positions are held by men". The position is similar in the health service in Slovakia, where "at higher management levels women are much less represented," as the union SOZZASS point out; while in the health service in France, CFDT Santé-Sociaux notes that, "men are more frequently employed in positions of higher responsibility, which partially explains the lower salaries [for women]".

This is not just a problem for the health sector. Another Romania union SEDLEX states that, "The majority of those employed in public administration in Romania are women. However, most top managers are men." And in the French energy company EDF the union CGT Mines Énergie states that "women account for 30.1% of all total employment (2011), but only 27.5% of senior managers, 20% of directors and 15.9% of senior executives".

Figures for municipalities in Denmark, provided by the union 3F for May 2013 show that although women make up just over three quarters of the workforce of 492,000, they only account for half (50.1%) of the 13,500 employees paid more than 50,000 DKK (€6,680) a month.

The fact that women are less likely to be in higher graded and higher paid jobs in central government was also one of the findings in a separate study carried out for the central government administrations Social Dialogue Committee, which looked at men's and women's pay in five countries (see page 00).

Norway may be the only country where the concentration of women in low paid jobs is less evident, as there is a difference of view between two of the unions reporting. While YS considers that "women

are concentrated in the mid-level of the pay scale," NTL believes that "concentration of women in low-paid jobs is a concern shared by all parties involved in the negotiations."

However, women are not just concentrated in lower paid jobs within specific industries. They are also predominantly found in industries which are low paid. The local government section of the Czech Union Statorg recognises this fact when it says "many women work in local government because pay

is low", while another Czech union, OSZ which organises in the health sector, identifies the "feminisation of jobs" as the reason for the gender pay gap.

Unions increasingly recognise that this is not simply a matter of chance. As the UK union UNISON puts it: "Men's work' is generally given a higher value both socially and economically. Jobs traditionally done by women, such as cleaning, catering and caring, are undervalued and paid less than jobs traditionally done by

There is a structural discrimination towards jobs/industries where women are in the majority... women's work is not valued by the same yardstick as men's



men, such as construction, transportation and skilled trades." The Swedish union Kommunal agrees. It states:

"The problem as we see it is that there is a structural discrimination towards jobs/industries where women are in the majority. This is that women's work is not valued by the same yardstick as men's."

UNION ACTION ON JOB SEGREGATION The replies to the questionnaire indicate that unions have responded to each of these aspects of job segregation.

One answer to the concentration of women in traditional or stereotypical jobs, which are normally also low-paying jobs, has been training and this is dealt with in greater detail on page 00. However, there are also others.

At EDF, for example, the current agreement on gender equality, which runs from 2012 to 2014, has a specific section on improving women's access to technical occupations. Among other things it requires material on retraining for technical occupations to be specifically targeted at women and that the material should offer images of women doing the jobs and interviews with women who are doing them. The un-

ion CGT Mines Énergie confirms that this material has been distributed widely.

Another possibility is to set targets to encourage non-traditional employment patterns. As NTL in Norway reports,

"All public sector departments are obliged to encourage genders that are in a minority to apply for vacant positions when advertised. This practice is an effort to ensure that no gender is being discriminated, and are also backed by the Norwegian anti-discrimination legislations. Several departments have fixed gender objectives in recruitment in order to even up gender differences in terms of employees."

Some of the same measures can also be used to improve the proportion of women in more senior positions. Certainly training and encouragement are both useful, as is pressure on the employers. SOZZASS in Slovakia reports that in its negotiations it regularly pushes the employers to appoint women to decision-making positions.

However, in some cases things have gone further. In Austria, GdG-KMSfB reports that example in Vienna, where there has been an Equal Treatment Law since 1996, there has been a targeted attempt to in-

crease the proportion of women in areas where they are under-represented. This has taken the form of a 50% quota and one of its results has been that the proportion of women who are departmental heads (DienststellenleiterInnen) has increased from 5% at the start to the current (2011) level of 36%.

In the health service in France, CFDT Santé-Sociaux reports the use of another approach. This is that employers are first obliged to look at internal candidates before recruiting from outside. Combined with training and recognition of prior learning (see below) this offers opportunities for promotion to employee who might otherwise not be considered.

Dealing with the gender pay gap caused by structural discrimination – the fact that the jobs that women do and the industries they work in are systematically undervalued relative to those where men predominate – is more difficult. However, it is also essential, as increasing the numbers of women working in non-traditional occupations and as managers, although a step in the right direction, will not, on its own solve the problem.

Kommunal makes this very clear when it comments: *“Employers’ organisations tend to argue that if the low wage not good enough for the women, then they can change jobs. But this is an impossible argument, since it does not take into account the fact that these women will always be replaced by other women. Kommunal bases its arguments on this structural pay discrimination and makes this point when the collective demands are formulated and communicated.”*

The responses to the questionnaire indicate that EPSU affiliates have attempted to tackle this structural discrimination in a number of different ways, sometimes using several at the same time.

One approach has been to try to tackle the issue at a local level and try to ensure that there is less discrimination in the way that women are paid. This has been the approach that Kommunal has been taking following a decision at its Congress in May 2013. As the union explains,

“in the latest Congress ... it was decided to invest more in so-called local payroll systems. The idea is taken from industry, and means in practice that it is a step towards increased collectivisation of the local wage formation and empowerment of the members. Local participation also always helps to increase the level of union organisation. Local pay systems include factors such as the content of the work, learning, training and work organisation, linked to a collective pay systems.

The main principle is that all those who have the skills needed to perform a specific task should get the same pay.”

Kommunal has adopted this approach, of trying to get local negotiators more involved in setting pay because it felt that its previous methods of operating, which also involved local decisions on the distribution of a national pay pot, left too much power in the hands of the employers. As the background document introducing the new approach to the 2013 Congress noted with reference to past practice, *“There is much to suggest that the lack of central concrete targets for systematic local pay systems created too much room for discretionary wage setting. This led to the concentration of disproportionate power over individuals’ wages in the hands of employers”.*⁷

If local pay systems are being used, it is certainly important to ensure that local negotiators are aware

of the need to guard against discrimination against women. As FOA in Denmark point out, there can be problems with local negotiations. In its response to the questionnaire FOA comments that *“payroll system can become less transparent as a result of local wage-setting, because funds are no longer earmarked for certain professions. This means that the employer is the one who ultimately chooses which jobs need to be accommodated with local premiums.”*

Another way of dealing with structural discrimination on pay at a local level has been to develop fairer and more structured pay and grading systems, using job evaluation, which then can be applied locally. This has been the approach taken by UNISON and other UK unions, including the GMB and Unite, in both the health service and local government. As UNISON reports:

“UNISON has been instrumental in negotiating Agenda for Change in the National Health Service and

in negotiating the Single Status Agreement in Local Government, which provided greater transparency, eliminated inequalities ... and removed historical inequities.”

In the energy sector in France, CGT Mines Énergie has called for a review of the grading of occupations in which women predominate, but so far without success.

However, as well as trying to reduce the gender pay gap by ensuring that women’s work is valued and paid for fairly unions have also sought to improve the pay of women more directly both within their collective agreements and more widely.

One common approach to be achieved through collective bargaining has been to increase the pay of those on the lowest grades (often women) by more than those higher up the scale. The union responses indicate that has been achieved in a variety of ways in the past:

- Denmark: OAO, the organisation that brings together a number of public sector unions in the LO union confederation, reports that the 2005-08 pay round saw deletion of three lowest grades, leading to pay improvements for those at the bottom of the scale;
- Germany: in 2008 Ver.di was able to negotiate an agreement for some 1.3 million employees in national and local government, which included a flat rate element as well as a percentage increase; in the first year this involved a pay increase of €50 plus 3.1%. The inclusion of the €50 flat payment means that its percentage value varied between grades: it is worth 7.11% for employees at the bottom of the scale, while those at the top get 4.02%;
- Norway: both the Delta and YS unions report that since 2008 there have been higher increases for the lowest paid in central government in order gradually to close the gap. This followed; a report on women’s pay from the Norwegian Gender Equality Commission, which found a continuing pay gap and recommended targeted pay increases for female-dominated occupations in the public sector;
- UK: the GMB points out that the latest local government settlement for 2013/14, which provided a 1% increase overall, also included the deletion of the lowest pay grade (Spinal Column Point 4), which means that those on this grade saw their pay increase by 2.3% because they were transferred onto the next grade above.

However, the responses also indicate that it is not always easy to implement policies which increase the





pay of those at the bottom of the scale by more than those higher up. CPSU, the union which represents lower graded staff in the Civil Service in Ireland, reports that, "The CPSU has always promoted flat rate increases as a fairer way of addressing the pay disparity for low paid workers who are predominantly women but we could never get the support of the other Civil Service unions for whom percentage pay increases were more beneficial."

Ver.di states that, although in the past it has called for a flat rate element in pay increases, "in the most recent pay round this was not attempted as it was feared that it would not be possible to push this through". Similarly Kommunal reports on its attempts to raise the lowest paid to set level that "it has proved difficult to maintain unity on this and the employers' associations have made every effort to block unions and split them". In addition, "in most cases increases for those on the lowest pay rates are funded through worsening working conditions or increasing the length of working time". Kommunal does, however, see it as a success that "generally the lowest rates have increased by at least the same percentage as the overall pay pot".

In view of the difficulty of negotiating larger than average increases for the lowest paid, in at least two countries unions are pushing for economy-wide measures to tackle low pay. In Germany Ver.di is one of the main proponents of the introduction of a national minimum wage for the first time. As the union explains, "the fact that women are over represented in low paid sectors ... has led Ver.di to push for the introduction of a minimum wage, ideally on a national basis, or, if this is not possible, in individual sectors. The union has had some successes, despite the frequent opposition of the employers and government and hopes that the new government will introduce a national minimum wage." The target rate for Ver.di and the other unions in the DGB union confederation is €8.50 an hour and this will be implemented in 2015 if the proposed government coalition agreement is confirmed.

The UK has had a national minimum wage since 1999, largely as a result of union pressure. However, UK unions, including UNISON, the GMB and Unite, are now pushing the idea of a Living Wage. This is cal-

culated independently as the amount that households need in order to have a minimum acceptable standard of living, currently £7.65 (€9.10) nationally and £8.80 (€10.50) in London. As a result of the campaign by unions and other around the Living Wage, UNISON reports that at least 34 Councils in England and Wales have implemented the Living Wage and that UNISON has also recently reached agreement with the Catholic Dioceses of Westminster and Southwark (in London) to help 400 Catholic schools to implement the Living Wage in the education sector.

The final way in which unions have responded to the gender pay gap caused by the fact that the work that women do is undervalued by society has been through calling for above average pay rises for the areas in which women predominate.

The responses to the survey make it clear that in some cases payment systems operate in a way which is unfair to women

This is the policy of Kommunal, which, as has already been noted, "bases its arguments on this structural pay discrimination and makes this point when collective demands are formulated and communicated". It points to figures which show that pay rates agreed with unions

in which women predominate are on average lower than those agreed with unions representing primarily male workers and it calls for larger pay increases for unions in which women predominate. This is, as the union itself accepts, not easy as, "there is ... resistance from employers, government and its agencies and some male-dominated trade unions. There may also be some resistance among those working in the sector".

The same approach can also be seen behind the disputes with municipal authorities and the regional authorities (responsible for health) in Denmark in 2008. In both cases unions with substantial female membership, including the largest FOA and the nurses union DSR, were unwilling to accept the deals signed by other trade unions, arguing that they failed to reward their female members sufficiently. Strike action followed and subsequently the unions involved, including both FOA and DSR, reached separate agreements, which provided some additional money for the staff groups they represented.

Improvements in the pay of predominantly female jobs were also achieved in Bulgaria in 2011. The

KNSB health service federation reports the 2011 agreement, which introduced new basic salaries for all grade of staff employed in the health sector, involved much higher increases for nurses (predominantly women) than for doctors (predominantly men), although the union points out that salaries in the sector, particularly for nurses remain very low.

PAY SYSTEMS The responses to the survey make it clear that one of the reasons for the gender pay gap is that in some cases payment systems operate in a way which is unfair to women.

Ver.di in Germany is clear that this is “a major issue ... as the employers at central (Federal) and regional (Länder) level refuse to agree on new less discriminatory grading arrangements, and the current grading systems reflect previous models of discrimination.” Parts of the municipal workforce are in a slightly better situation – see below).

For UNISON too, this has, at least in the past, been a major concern. In its response it refers to “historical pay and grading systems which were loaded with inequalities, [including] ... bonus, plus and premium payments on the basis of gender.”

The energy union CGT Mines Énergie in France spells out how additional payments can increase the gender pay gap. It states:

“There is a single salary scale in the industry but there are also salary additions such as on-call payments and performance linked payments (these vary from individual to individual depending on the achievement of both individual and group targets), profit sharing and so on. These additional payments make a big difference to pay inequalities. For women in the commercial area, they account for 8% of overall pay; for men in the technical area they account for 53% of overall pay. In addition a very large number of overtime hours are worked.”

However, the situation is complex. Detailed figures provided by the Danish union 3F look at three separate occupations in local government: semi-skilled workers, cleaners and care assistants. The figures show that the proportion of women employed is much lower among semi-skilled workers than among cleaners and care assistants, where women are in a clear majority. In all three occupations full-time basic pay was almost the

Bonuses and other additional payments can increase the gender pay gap

same for both men and women (the gender pay gap as 1.0% for semi-skilled workers, 0.1% for care assistants and did not exist for cleaners). However, calculated on the basis of total pay the gender pay gap was 7.3% for semi-skilled workers, 1.5% for care assistants but -2.1% (in

other words the women earned more) for cleaners. In all three cases men worked more overtime hours than women and were paid more, although this did not explain the difference, with locally negotiated additional payments paying an important role. As 3F comments, “it is in the municipalities and workplaces within the municipalities that something can or should be done.”

In Spain too, the figures for pay in central administration provided by CCOO FSC show that the extent to which men and women receive additional payments varies significantly according to grade. Overall more women than men receive some pay additions, but the proportion of men receiving additional payments increases as they rise up the hierarchy.

UNION ACTION ON PAY SYSTEMS Unions have attempted to deal with unfair payments systems in a number of ways. One very sensible approach has been to negotiate a new pay system which removes discriminatory elements. As the Finnish union Pardia reports,

“A new comprehensive job-evaluation and performance-based pay system was introduced in 2008. This was agreed with the unions and was designed to be gender neutral and transparent, so that developments could be monitored. In addition the Equality Act requires the employer to draw up annual pay surveys. An equality working group has been set up to assess the impact of measures to promote equality over the period 2012 to 2014. It is also looking at the impact on pay.”

In the UK too, the pay and grading systems already referred to – Agenda for Change in the health service and single status agreements in local government – were introduced to eliminate grading and additional payments structures that were unfair.

In Germany, in the municipal social and child care area a nine-week strike and long negotiations in 2009 produced agreement on a new 16-pay scale grading system applying only to those in the public social and educational services, which, in the view of Ver.di, represents progress towards a non-discriminatory pay

and grading structure. However, the union still considers that “the structure is still not free of discrimination” and new negotiations are set to start in 2014.

Another approach is to remove the additional elements which can easily be a source of pay discrimination. NTL in Norway reports that, “Bonuses and performance-related pay do not apply to the public sector in Norway”.

However, even if it is not possible to completely replace discriminatory pay systems, unions can still take action, as the responses show.

One approach is to ensure that negotiators are made aware of the risk of discrimination. This is how Ver.di deals with performance linked payments, which continue to exist at central and municipal level, although they have been abolished following pressure from Ver.di and dissatisfied employers at regional level. These payments are fixed through negotiations at workplace level and Ver.di has produced training to help negotiators recognise and deal with possible discrimination.

Another approach is to use the courts to combat pay inequality, although this can be a slow process. This strategy has been adopted extensively by UNISON

and other UK unions, such as the GMB. Indeed court action, or the threat of it, is a key part of the three-fold approach “educate, negotiate and litigate” adopted by UNISON. There have been a large number of cases, and it is response to the questionnaire UNISON pointed point to two very recent decisions which directly improved the pay of thousands of women workers in local government.

In June 2013, UNISON won an important case in the Supreme Court against a Scottish local authority, Dumfries and Galloway Council, following a seven-year legal battle. The union was successful in its claim that women working as classroom assistants and in other jobs in schools could compare their pay with men working as groundsmen, refuse collectors and drivers and leisure attendants who were based at depots, not in the women’s schools. The men received bonuses; the women did not.

The successful outcome of the case will not just benefit the 251 women working in schools in Dumfries and Galloway, who are directly affected, but also around 2,000 women in schools in other Scottish local authorities who, in future will have to ensure that women have access to the same bonuses as men.



A second case involves Birmingham City Council, where in October 2013 the unions reached an agreement with the local authority to settle around 11,000 equal pay claims, which had been outstanding since 2008. As in Scotland, this related to women not having access to the same bonuses as their male counterparts. The agreement follows a Supreme Court ruling a year earlier, in October 2012, which directly affected 174 women. The settlement avoids lengthy and costly employment tribunal (labour court) hearings, which could have continued for several more years further delaying payments to employees.

However, it is not just in the UK that unions have used the courts to press for fair pay systems. In Ireland, the nurses and midwives union INMO has taken two equal pay cases in recent years, as well as a third on pensions. One of these, which involved directors of public health nursing (predominantly female) claiming equal pay, including performance related pay, with the directors of nursing mental health services (predominantly male) was successful. However, the others were not as the court found that the comparator grades had not been predominantly male.

PART-TIME WORK The questionnaire also asked about part-time work and in particular whether women working part time would prefer to work full time, or to increase their hours in some other way.

It is clear that in some countries this does not appear to be a problem. In the public sector in Estonia, the union Rotal reported that most women work full time, and the situation in the gas industry in Slovakia is the same according to the union POZ. In Austria too the union GdG-KMSfB reports that,

“Most people employed in the public sector are employed on a full-time basis. Part time work is normally found when women return to work after parental leave and is the women’s own choice.” (Women have the right to work part time until the child is seven years old.)

There are also other countries, where, although many women do work part time, there is no indication that they want to increase their hours. In the view of CCOO FSC, this is the case in public administration in Spain and it is also the case in Norway, or at least in parts of central government. In its response to the questionnaire the union YS stated that, “a working group of the unions and the Ministry of Government Administration has found that there are

virtually no part-time workers who want to work full-time”. The response from the NTL appears to support this view, although it is less categorical. While the NTL considers that the extent to which women are stuck in part-time jobs but really want full-time employment or an increase in hours are “important political issues” in the overall context, it agrees that “this seems less of an issue in central government (the state sector)”.

However, in other countries the fact that part-time workers (largely women) would like to increase their hours is seen as a problem. In France in the area of domestic care, the union CFDT Santé Sociaux estimates that 80% of those working part time are doing so unwillingly.

In Denmark the union FOA undertook a survey⁸ of its membership in March and April 2012 which found that more than a quarter of those who current-

ly work part time would like to work longer hours. Among these workers, 68% would like to work full time and 28% would like some additional hours. The survey found that more than two thirds (68%) of those who wanted to work longer hours had asked their managers whether this would be possible but of these, 79% had been refused.

The fact that part-time workers are unable to increase the hours they work as they would like to, is not the only problem linked to part-time working. The Czech health service union OSZ points to the fact that women who need to work part time are frequently forced into worse jobs, while UNISON in the UK points out that on average part time workers earn 37% less per hour than full time workers. It also identifies the growth of zero hours contracts, where employees are given no guarantees on the number of hours they will work or whether they will work

at all as a particularly damaging development (see below).

UNION ACTION ON PART-TIME WORK The responses to the questionnaire indicate that unions have found ways of dealing with the problems produced by some aspects of part time working.

In France in the area of domestic care, CFDT Santé Sociaux reports that it has ensured that there are no part-time contracts of fewer than 70 hours a month – the threshold for sickness insurance – which means that part-time workers have some social protection. It has also agreed a closer link between actual and contractual hours (see below).

In Germany, Ver.di reports that the possibility of preferential return to full-time employment after a period of part time working is an issue at workplace level and has been covered in equal opportunities arrangements in the public sector.

In Norway, the union Delta states that, “There is new legislation which allows part-time employees working more than their contracted hours over a year to get their contract extended in line with their actual hours”. Something similar has also been negotiated by CFDT Santé Sociaux in France, although in this case in domestic care, it is only 10% of the additional hours worked over a year that can be added to future contractual hours.

TRAINING In their responses to the questionnaire the unions make it clear that in most cases training is seen as important and beneficial in opening up career paths for women and so tackling one aspect of the gender pay gap.

In Finland, Pardia points out that training can help more women move into management: In France, CGT Mines Énergie draws attention to the way that training gives women access to non-traditional areas.

In some countries training for women is offered by the union as well as by the employer. This is the case in local government in Austria, where GdG-KMSfB provides training, and in the health service in Romania, where Sanitas states that, “It provides training for all categories of staff and leadership training specifically for women to prepare them to take over higher positions in the system”. In the UK UNISON says that, although training and promotion are a key negotiating priority, its own Return to Learn courses and training opportunities are in demand. However, in the Czech Republic, the health union OSZ tries to



ensure that the cost of life-long learning is covered by either the employer or the state.

The context in which training is provided can also vary. It is often an important part of overall equal opportunities plans and policies. The equal opportunity agreement at EDF in France, for example, includes a section on women's access to training, although the fact that, in 2010 women in EDF had on average 12.8 hours of training a year, while men had 16.4, indicates that there is still a substantial gender difference.

Training can also be included in wider collective agreements and the two are not mutually exclusive, as Ver.di points out in its response:

"Training and qualification are both part of the public sector's equal opportunity plans. In addition the both main framework agreements for the public sector contain clauses on training which are intended to make it easier for women to access training – in particular for those working part-time or returning after a period of absence."

UNION ACTION ON TRAINING However, there are problems related to training and unions have found a number of ways to deal with them. One is the fact that employers may give proportionately more training to higher grade staff, something which, almost by definition disadvantages women. As Kommunal in Sweden states, "historically women in manual jobs were treated as interchangeable and thus offered considerably fewer training opportunities".

This issue is also raised by CFDT Santé Sociaux in relation to the health service in France, where it states "management has a tendency of favouring more senior staff". In response, when drawing up local training plans local union representatives are urged to ensure that "training is provided on an equal basis". The situation is also monitored nationally within the framework of the annual report on training and every three years the union is involved in setting priorities for the sector.

A second problem, which CFDT Santé Sociaux also identifies, is that it may be difficult for women to have time off for courses, because of their family responsibilities. One partial solution that the union

has found has been recognition of prior experience (VAE in French), where it be given equivalent status to formal qualifications. As the union explains:

"We are developing schemes of recognition of prior experience (VAE) which enable women to progress to higher grades and avoid the need to take part in external courses which may be difficult for some women."

The issue of experience versus formal qualifications is also raised by Kommunal. It is concerned that there is a fixation on academic and formal qualifications rather than experience and training on the job. It gives the example of childcare, where it says that employers prefer to hire graduates. The consequence it argues is that "salary costs go up, but there is no improvement in quality".

Another clear concern is that training is being reduced because of financial cuts backs. This seems to be particularly clear in the UK. UNISON states that "cuts to public spending and training budgets are having a huge impact on access to opportunities," while the central government union PCS refers to the impact of austerity across a range of equal opportunities issues, including the provision of training.

MATERNITY AND PARENTAL LEAVE The questionnaire asked about the impact of maternity and parental leave on women's pay and prospects.

In some countries it appears that taking this leave does not have a negative impact, or at least that there is no clear evidence that it does. In Austria the GdG-KMSfB states that "Taking maternity and parental leave has not had a negative impact leave on pay or career progression".

However, in other countries the negative impact is clear, and in some countries very direct. For example, in France, CFDT Santé Sociaux reports that, "Women are penalised through taking maternity or other leave to bring up their families as their career does not progress over this period." More precisely, during the three years per child that parental leave can last in France only the first year is treated as normal service, with only half of subsequent years counting towards career progression. As regular increments linked to service are a key part of pay progression in the public sector in France,

Taking maternity and parental leave can result in loss of training and promotion opportunities





this can have a significant impact, and, as the union also points out, it also has a damaging impact on their pensions in later life”.

In Germany, Ver.di reports that the situation is even worse. Although generally, maternity leave, which is relatively short, does not have an impact, parental leave halts service related progress. In addition, in central and municipal government (although not in regional government) taking more than five years’ parental leave result in a loss of seniority. The union has for years attempted to end this loss of seniority through negotiations – without success. It has now taken the case to the courts.

Even if there is no automatic impact on future pay or prospects, taking maternity and parental leave can result in the loss of training and promotion opportunities, and perhaps pay. As YS in Norway comments,

“There is formally total equality in the state sector in terms of access to training and promotion. In practice, as women take more time off for maternity leave, they have fallen slightly behind ... Historically, absence for maternity and parental leave has resulted in women falling behind their male colleagues in

terms of pay, particularly in local agreements. However, recent years have produced a change in this.”

Kommunal too considers that the fact that mothers take a greater share of parental leave than fathers “leads to lower wages for women than for men”, while in the Czech Republic, the OSZ is clear that “taking this leave damages career prospects”. In UK, UNISON believes that there is a “motherhood penalty. In its response it states that:

“A lack of flexible working opportunities often means that women pay a penalty at work for their caring roles and lose out on promotions, training opportunities and job progression more generally. Added to this women are often faced with negative attitudes, discrimination and even dismissal in the workplace because of their roles, actual or potential, as mothers and carers.”

UNION ACTION ON MATERNITY AND PARENTAL LEAVE Unions have adopted a variety of responses to deal with these difficulties.

One is to improve the situation for mothers. In Denmark the FOA reports that the fact that, women are paid throughout the period of maternity and parental leave, continue to build up seniority and have access

to state subsidised childcare, means that maternity and parental leave does not have a negative effect on women’s pay and career prospects. In addition, as the OAO reports from Denmark, since the collective agreement for the period 2005 to 2008 employers have paid full pension contributions on extended parental leave, up to a maximum of 32 weeks, and as mothers are much more likely to take extended parental leave than fathers, they are the main beneficiaries.

However, one of the key union demands is that there should be more leave for fathers so that the responsibilities of bring up children are shared more evenly. The OAO reported that increasing non-transferable paternity leave was part of the policy of Danish unions to promote gender equality Norway has made significant progress in this area through legislation that has the deliberate aim of increasing equal opportunities.

As NTL notes, “Parental leave in Norway is an instrumental tool to ensure gender equality and reduce the gender pay gap”. What this means is that as well as the three weeks before birth provided to mothers, legislation provides for each parent to take 14 weeks leave, which they cannot transfer between them. There is then 18 weeks further leave – extendable to 28 week at a lower rate of pay – which can be transferred between the parents. Excluding the three weeks before the birth, this means a total parental leave of 46 weeks, 56 if extended. Parents are paid an amount equivalent to their normal salary during parental leave, although this is reduced to 80% over the whole period, if they have opted to extend the leave to 56 weeks.

Kommunal in Sweden, along with the other unions in the LO union confederation, has recently been able to negotiate moves in the same direction. The settlement which comes into force in 2014 doubles the length of time during which employees receive additional payments from the employed on top of state-provided parental leave pay. Kommunal believes this will aid gender equality as, “It is expected that fathers will take more responsibility under the new agreement because they get more money when they are on parental leave”.

The responses to the survey also produced a number of examples of good practice in relation to child-

care, which unions had negotiated or campaigned for:

- Norway central government: 10 days’ paid leave per year for children under 12 – 20 days for single parents (NTL);
- Finland central government: four days’ paid leave per year for children under 10 (Pardia);
- Germany: childcare is normally negotiated at workplace level, generally in equal opportunities plans. Negotiations covering at least one private clinic group have resulted in agreement of a payment for childcare; (Ver.di)
- Sweden local government: improved child care for those working at night following a campaign by Kommunal;
- Denmark: some municipal nurseries, which provide subsidised childcare are now also open in the evening and at night which benefits mothers who have to work at these times (FOA);
- Slovakia: childcare is available in the company head office (POZ);
- Austria, Vienna: free kindergartens now provided by local authority (GdG—KMStB); and
- France energy sector: EDF and GDF have provided financial support for parents of children between three months and three years since 1 January 2009.

Outsourcing has led to redundancies and a worsening of working conditions

The company also contributes to childcare costs when employees are being trained. (For parents of disabled children this has no age limits.) There is also a part-financed inter-company crèche, although this has not been widely used. Men also have the right to time off where a child is ill;

· France health service: up to three months’ unpaid leave to

care for sick dependents (CFDT Santé Sociaux).

OUTSOURCING The responses on outsourcing indicate that in a number of countries unions consider that shifting public services to private sector providers has had a particularly damaging effect on women. Pardia in Finland considers that outsourcing had had a particularly severe impact on the support functions often provided by women, while UNISON in the UK states that “outsourcing is having a disproportionate adverse impact of women’s employment in the public sector”, because of the high proportion of women it employs.

The consequences of the policy are clear – that employers are able to cut employees’ pay and conditions.

Kommunal in Sweden explains why this is the case:

“Many politicians have seen that they can save money through outsourcing activities and thereby deliver low taxes. Because public services such as care for the elderly and child care are labour intensive businesses, it is the staff who pay the bill through lower staffing levels and lower average wages, more part-time work and otherwise worse employment conditions than public employees.”

This has also been the experience in other countries. In the Czech Republic the health union OSZ states that, “Outsourcing has led to redundancies and a worsening of working conditions.” In Denmark, FOA reports that employees who are outsourced are no longer covered by the collective agreement for the sector and as a result have inferior terms, particularly in relation to maternity pay, sick pay and leave for family reasons such as paid bereavement leave. In Germany too, employers use outsourcing to escape from the obligations included in the collective agreement, as Ver.di explains.

UNION ACTION ON OUTSOURCING The main union responses to outsourcing have been to cam-

aign against it and draw attention to its impact on services as well as employees, as well as fight to maintain decent employment conditions within the activities that have been outsourced. However, a number of unions have also developed other approaches.

In Sweden, Kommunal fears that the services delivered by local authorities are under threat, irrespective of how they are delivered because of a lack of funding. In a document produced in September 2012,⁹ Kommunal calls, among other things, for fixed staffing standards for services. For example in the area of care for the elderly this would not just mean a minimum number of full-time workers but also that 90% of staff should be permanent employees, 90% should be employed on a full-time basis and all staff should be either qualified or in training.

In Norway, NTL, is concerned at what it sees as the “escalating use of outsourcing and contracting of third party workers to solve what we consider as core tasks for civil servants”. It is attempting to tackle the issue through negotiation at all levels and the revision of the Wage Agreement Regulations in 2012 included a new clause giving union represent-

atives the right to represent contracted workers and ensuring that their wages at least are on the same level as other employees in the department, excluding pension benefits. NTL believes that, “This new clause makes the gender pay gap between contracted and permanent staff less likely and provides the union representatives influence on all paid workers’ conditions”. However, as this is a fairly new clause in the central agreement the union will continue to monitor its effectiveness.

In Germany, Ver.di has tried to counteract the move to employment by private companies on non-agreed terms and conditions by allowing local authorities to introduce new lower paid grades into existing agreements. While this means that wages are lower, other condition are maintained. Although the union has attempted to control the process by limiting the circumstances under which these new lower paid grades can be introduced, Ver.di accepts that some local authorities have tried to introduce these grades more widely and acknowledges that the approach remains controversial within the union.

WORKING TIME FLEXIBILITY The responses to the questionnaire reflect the tension between flexibility in interest of the employer – paying for as little time as possible to get the job done – and flexibility in interest of the employee – having greater ability to arrange work to meet their own needs.

The response from Ver.di in Germany is a good example of the clash between these two approaches. It states:

“The collective agreements contain arrangements that provided for flexible working, including time banks and working time corridors. The intension is that this should permit a better work-life balance. However, employers are increasingly trying to misuse this flexibility in their own interests to increase the exploitation of their employees.

The NTL in Norway indicates a similar tension. It explains that the national agreement includes clauses on working hours and the use of flexibility, but that individual departments in central government are free to seek local solutions within fixed limits. As a result, the use of flexitime is quite widespread in central government. It sees the consequences as follows:

“The use of flexitime makes it to a certain extent possible for the employees to prioritise their tasks and combine a career and family life. On the oth-

er hand, the use of flexitime has also seen a growing demand to be online and available at all hours, ready to please the employer or clients/customers whenever there is a need.”

For Pardia in Finland, the balance is positive. It says that,

“There is increasing flexibility in working hours including the use of time banking. This has made it easier to reconcile work and family life.”

For OSZ in the Czech Republic the position is less certain: “Flexible working is sometimes used fairly by the employers, but sometimes it is abused”.

However, for UNISON in the UK, zero hours contracts, which are increasingly being introduced, mean that all the benefits of flexibility accrue to the employer, as the unions explains:

“Local authorities are using zero hours or variable hours contracts. These contracts are increasingly being introduced in other services for example Police and Universities. They mean that employers do not have to provide specific hours or days of work to staff or specific work location. The legal implications for our women members are very serious especially in terms of maternity, national insurance, redundancy, holiday and sickness rights. Employers are using this as a means of avoiding their responsibilities with huge financial implications for our women members, including for their pensions.

“Women members who are reliant on paid employment are being faced with difficult decisions. Do they continue with no guarantee of paid employment but not being made redundant or being eligible to claim unemployment benefits, or do voluntarily leave their employment and have to wait to be eligible to claim state benefits and possibly claim constructive dismissal.”

In other countries it seems that such brutal methods are not being used. However, Kommunal does point to the use of computer-based scheduling to control working time as another worrying development. It says that,

“To save money, employers are increasingly spending resources on computer programs to control working time minute by minute. Members today are more controlled by computer-based scheduling than ever and personal and trade union influence is reduced. In some cases ... the system produces schedules that are impossible to meet. This is a large and growing issue, which the union will have to address at both local and national level”



The impact of public spending cuts

The impact on the gender pay gap in the public services of the austerity measures that many European governments have introduced is still difficult to measure.

Women's pay and employment have certainly been severely damaged by some of the actions taken – in Greece for example, 28,600 women in the public service lost their jobs between July 2010 and February 2013 and there have been further cuts since then, while their pay has fallen by around 40%. Similar though less disastrous figures could also be found in many other countries, like Romania, Ireland, Spain, Latvia or the UK (See the EPSU report *Cuts in public sector pay and employment: the impact on women in the public sector*, May 2013.)

However, these cuts have also affected men, although not necessarily as severely, so the impact on the gender pay gap – which measures the relative position of both men and women – is less clear. In addition, in some countries pay cuts or freezes have been introduced in a way that hits higher paid workers harder. This has been the case in Ireland, the UK and Portugal, for example, and the UK union PCS reports that the result has been a reduction in the gender pay gap in the civil service (central government) from 16% in 2011 to 14% in 2012. Nevertheless it is noticeable that Romania, Hungary and Latvia, which are all countries, which faced significant austerity over the period, are also all countries where the public sector gender pay gap (excluding public administration) has widened.

In the longer term, however, where any temporary improvement has occurred, this may well be more than offset by cuts to equal opportunities programmes intended to improve women's access to higher qualified and better paid jobs. And this will have a long-term impact. PCS, the same union which reported a narrowing of the gender pay as a result of the freeze on higher paid staff, made this point very clearly in its response to the questionnaire. It stated:

"The UK civil service has excellent policies in most of the areas outlined above [training, childcare, maternity leave and others]. Some offices are almost entirely staffed by part time staff. Good maternity and paternity policies and until recently childcare support help women. However, government cuts have meant the closure of offices, relocations, redundancies and outsourcing which means women's jobs go and managers don't have the incentives to support female staff. It is not policies but what happens in practice that matters."



In addition, the drive to increase outsourcing, which is directly linked to cutting costs and so a partial consequence of austerity, appears from the union responses to be having a damaging impact on women.

However, although within the public services the short term position may not be entirely clear, as both men and women face declining real incomes, the impact of austerity on the gender pay gap across the whole economy seems likely to be negative.

This is because, although women in public services earn less than men, they nevertheless generally earn more than women in other industries in which women are concentrated. On average across the EU, women in public administration earn a third (32.1%) more than women in retail; women in health and social services earn 43.1% more and women in education earn more than half as much again (53.1%).

The gap is even greater if the comparison is made with women's earnings in hotels and catering.

If jobs and earnings are lost in the public sector, an area which often offered women better opportunities than the private sector, the consequence may well be a widening of the overall gender pay gap. A recent report to the European Parliament,¹⁰ found that well-qualified women are not being taken on by the public sector in Greece and are unlikely to find jobs elsewhere:

"Applying the hiring to attrition ratio [only one new employee for every five going] will make it harder for well qualified women to find employment as they are mostly qualified for jobs in the public sector. Women's employment prospects will consequently be determined by the job hiring potential of the private sector which hitherto lagged seriously behind regarding gender balance in application procedures."

The report by the Commission's experts on gender equality published at the end of 2012, found that the gender pay gap was closing and suggested that the economic crisis might have played a part in this process by reducing the size of extra wage components, overtime pay, bonuses and so on, "since [these] are typically more important for men's pay".

However, since this conclusion was reached, later figures for 2011 have been published, as set out in Table 0 in Annex. These show that for the EU as a whole the process of closing the gender pay gap has at least stalled with no change between 2010 and 2011. Of the 27 countries reporting, in 10 the overall gender pay gap had increased, and in five there had been no change.

It is particularly striking that many of those states where the overall gender pay gap has opened up are countries that have faced particularly severe public sector spending cuts either in pay or jobs or both. They include:

- Romania, where the gender pay gap has grown from 7.4% in 2009 to 12.1% in 2011;
- Hungary, where the gender pay gap has grown fairly steadily from 16.3% in 2007 to 18.0% in 2011;
- Ireland, where in 2010, the year cuts were imposed, the gender pay gap grew to 13.9% up 1.3 percentage points on the previous year; and
- Latvia, where between 2008 and 2010 the gender pay gap increased from 11.8% to 15.5%, although it has subsequently fallen back to 13.6%.

In Greece, which has faced the most drastic cuts, there have been no gender pay gap figures since 2008.

It should also be remembered that these overall figures from Eurostat do not include public administration, which in many countries has been subjected to particularly severe cuts in the numbers employed. As the inclusion of public administration in the statistics generally narrows the gender pay gap across the economy (see Table 0) in Appendix, disproportionate reductions in the numbers employed in it are likely to lead to it widening again.

There are certainly other factors at work, as shown by the fact that the gender pay gap has increased in countries where the public sector squeeze has been less severe. In addition, in countries like Spain and Portugal, which have also seen cutbacks, the gender pay gap has not increased.

However, if public sector cuts are reducing the numbers and the pay of these relatively better paid jobs for women, it can be no surprise if the overall gender pay gap is growing.



Making progress?

At its 2009 Congress EPSU adopted a resolution on equal pay, which drew attention to some of the reasons why women earned less than men and reaffirmed a target for its affiliates “of reducing the gender pay gap by, at least, 5% by 2014”.

It is too early to say definitely if this target will be achieved anywhere. Although they are the latest available, most of the statistics in this report relate to 2011, with only a handful of more up-to-date figures. However, the indications are that the five percentage point narrowing of the gender pay gap will not be achieved across the whole of the public sector in any country, with the possible exception of Poland.

This is not to deny that progress has been made. Eurostat figures for the public sector as a whole, although unfortunately excluding public administration, show that in half out of the 25 countries, for which comparable information is available, the gender pay gap in the latest year in the period 2007 to 2011 for which there is data is narrower than for the earliest year. National figures for the public sector as a whole including public administration are only available for nine of the EU states plus Norway. Unfortunately they are only slightly more positive with just five showing a smaller gender pay gap at the end of the period than at the start.

In individual industries, the picture appears generally more positive, with a clear majority of countries

The gap is narrowing in all industries across a clear majority of countries

in all industries showing the gap narrowing. The position is, however, better in education and water and sewerage than it is in health and electricity and gas. Fewer countries provide details on the gender pay gap in public administration, but more progress seems to have been

made than in health, although less than in education.

One particularly encouraging fact is that where it is possible to examine statistics based on specific levels of government (central, regional and municipal/local) clear progress has been made. Of the six countries where this can be done, five – Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden and Switzerland – show progress in all areas, and only in Slovakia is the gap widening. However, the gains made are slow. The largest gains have been made in central government in Sweden, where the gap has closed by four percentage points, from 13% to 9% between 2007 and 2010.

These detailed figures also emphasise the importance of access to accurate information on the gender pay gap, which is the case in Sweden. Unfortunately it is not the case more widely and the fact that pay data for those working in public administration is not collected for many countries clearly distorts the position and makes it more difficult to obtain a clear understanding of the gender pay gap.

Overall, while the figures show that there is much still to do, they also indicate that progress can be and has been made.

ROSENDALSGA



NO TO CUTS
in public spending

NO TO CUTS
in public spending

NO TO CUTS
in public spending

NO TO CUTS
in public spending

NO TO CUTS
in public spending



The picture from the statistics

THE OVERALL GENDER PAY GAP Before looking at the pay gap in public services, it is useful to look at the gender pay gap in the economy as a whole. This provides a national context against which the public sector and particular industries can be judged. It also allows a more detailed analysis of some of the main factors, such as the difference between full-time and part-time work, which may explain the gender pay gap.

The majority of the figures used in this report come from Eurostat, the EU's official statistical agency. Eurostat calculates the gender pay gap by finding the difference between average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees and of female paid employees as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of male paid employees. These figures are the so-called unadjusted gender pay gap, as they take no account of the individual characteristics, such as age, qualifications or experience, which may explain part of the earnings difference.

However, in examining the Eurostat figures on the overall pay gap, it important to be aware of an important weakness they have in relation to the public sector and indeed more widely. This is that the Eurostat figures do not automatically include employees in public administration, compulsory social security and defence. Although for some countries it is possible to use the Eurostat figures to produce a gender pay gap which includes this group of workers (see table 2), this is not possible for all the countries. In addition the published Eurostat figures looking at factors such as full-time and part-time exclude those working in public administration, compulsory social security and defence.¹¹

THE SIZE OF THE GENDER PAY GAP Table 14 in the appendix and the chart set out the overall gender pay gap in 30 states. The overall average for the 27 EU states was 16.2%. The figures show a wide range, with the latest figures directly from Eurostat, for 2011, ranging from a gap of more than a quarter (27.3%) in Estonia to around a fiftieth (2.3%) in Slovenia.

There were seven states where the gender pay gap was above 20%: Estonia, Austria, Germany, Greece (using the latest 2008 figures), the Czech Republic, Slovakia and the UK; and four states, where it was below 10%: Luxembourg, Italy, Poland and Slovenia. Of the remaining 18 states, half had a gender pay gap of between 15% and 20%: Finland, Hungary, Netherlands, Switzerland, Denmark, Cyprus, Spain, Norway and Sweden; and in the other half the gender pay gaps was between 10% and 15%: France, Latvia, Ireland (using the latest 2010 figures), Bulgaria, Malta, Portugal, Romania, Lithuania and Belgium.

Although there are some cases where countries with apparently similar characteristics in their industrial relations structures are close together in the table – for example, the Czech Republic is close to Slovakia and Germany is close to Austria – in general it is hard to see obvious groupings. The Baltic states, for instance, are spread across the table, and the UK is not close to Ireland.

There is less information on the situation in the states that are not covered by Eurostat, and this is set out in Table 15 in the appendix. It is important to note that these figures are based on monthly rather than the hourly earnings used for the Eurostat gender pay gap. To provide a comparison with other countries the average gender pay for the EU based on average monthly earnings is also provided. The table shows that with the exception of Moldova and the Ukraine these non-EU countries have larger gender pay gaps.

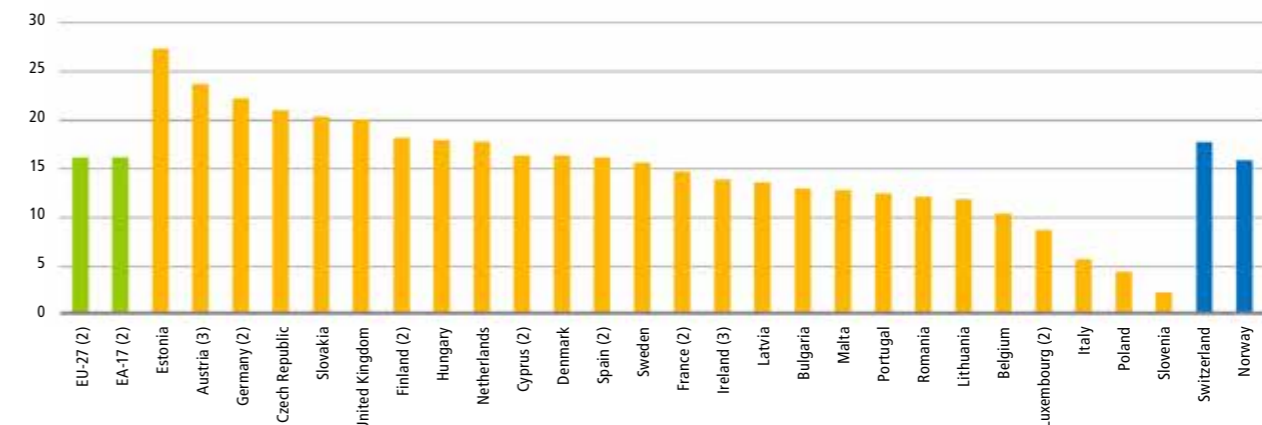
CHANGES IN THE OVERALL GENDER PAY GAP OVER TIME A report by the Belgian Presidency at the end of 2010 quoted a number of sources to conclude that “that there is no overall downwards trend in pay gaps”.¹² However, a more recent report by the Commission's network of experts on gender equality was more optimistic. It found that “the gender wage gap decreased in the EU as a whole, as well as in the majority of member countries for which data are available,” although it suggested that this might be in part a result of the economic crisis, see below.

The latest figures from Eurostat (table 14 in the appendix) suggest that at least until 2010, the gender pay gap appears to have been narrowing, with the average for the 27 EU states dropping from 17.3%, in 2008 to 17.2% in 2009 and 16.2% in 2010. However, in 2011 it remained stuck at 16.2%. (These figures have been revised and may be subject to further revision.)

Looking at individual states, in most countries (21 of the 28 states for which figures over several years are available) the gender pay gap closed between 2007 and 2011, with major reductions in Lithuania – down 10.7 percentage points, Poland – down 10.4 percentage points, Cyprus – down 5.6 percentage points, Estonia – down 3.6 percentage points and Slovakia – down 3.1 percentage points. (In Ireland the gender gap narrowed by 3.4 percentage points between 2007 and 2010 but figures for 2011 are not available.)

However, there were six states, Portugal, Hungary, Bulgaria, Italy, Norway and Belgium, where it widened against the general trend over the period, and one state, Latvia, where, after both narrowing and then widening, the gender pay gap was the same in 2011 as it had been in 2007. In most of the states where the gender pay gap widened the increases were under one percentage point, but in Hungary the gap widened by 1.7 percentage points and Portugal by 4.0 percentage points. In Croatia, where only two years of figures are available, the overall gender pay gap grew by 2.1 percentage points between 2010 and 2011.

The overall average gender pay gap for the 27 EU states was 16.2%



(1) Enterprises employing 10 or more employees; NACE Rev. 2 B to S (-0)

(2) Provisional data; EU/EA aggregates excluding Greece

(3) (IE) 2010 data; (AT) estimated data

Source: Eurostat (tsdsc340)

The gender wage gap decreased in the EU as a whole, as well as in the majority of member countries

**TABLE 1
GENDER PAY GAP IN PUBLIC SECTOR, EXCLUDING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

The figures are ranked by 2010 values as there are a number of gaps in 2011

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Bulgaria	21.7	20.3	22.4	21.5	19.9
Romania	10.9	11.3	12.8	21.0	22.8
Czech Republic	:	23.3	22.1	20.0	19.5
Hungary	15.9	17.5	17.9	20.0	20.5
Austria	:	:	:	19.6	:
Finland	:	20.7	20.3	19.4	20.9
United Kingdom	18.1	19.0	20.2	18.9	20.3
Netherlands	19.4	18.6	18.6	18.4	18.1
Latvia	12.7	13.3	13.7	16.8	17.5
Norway	:	14.5	14.6	15.9	14.8
Slovakia	:	16.1	15.8	14.9	16.7
Sweden	:	15.0	14.3	14.5	13.6
Lithuania	13.7	17.3	13.1	14.2	12.1
Germany	:	16.0	14.4	13.9	13.9
Denmark	:	15.1	15.1	13.6	13.5
France	:	:	:	13.2	:
Switzerland	:	12.8	12.7	13.0	13.3
Spain	12.4	11.6	11.4	12.3	12.3
Ireland	:	12.5	13.2	12.1	:
Portugal	10.8	10.0	12.1	10.1	10.8
Luxembourg	10.2	9.8	9.3	:	:
Italy	6.2	6.7	6.5	4.5	3.8
Slovenia	4.5	4.8	1.7	2.3	6.4
Cyprus	:	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.3
Poland	10.5	7.0	3.6	0.1	0.1
Malta	:	-3.6	-1.6	-1.3	:
Belgium	-3.5	-3.0	-3.0	-2.6	-2.9

There are no figures for Croatia, Estonia or Greece.

Source: Eurostat – Gender pay gap in unadjusted form by economic control in % - NACE Rev. 2, B-S excluding O (Structure of Earnings Survey methodology) [earn_gr_gpgr2ct]

**TABLE 2
GENDER PAY GAP IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR, INCLUDING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Czech Republic*			7.3	8.2			
Germany**	9.0	8.0	7.0	7.0	7.0	6.0	
Iceland		21.2	18.0	16.5	16.3	16.2	
Ireland*			7.1	7.3			
Latvia		21.2	19.3	22.0	22.1	23.3	
Lithuania		20.6	15.4				
Norway		12.0	11.8	11.6	11.7	11.1	
Slovakia	21.2	19.7	25.6	24.9	22.4		
Sweden	17.0	16.0	15.0	15.0	14.0		
United Kingdom***		16.4	19.9	20.4	18.1	18.2	15.6

The figures are for monthly earnings with the following exceptions: * Hourly earnings ** Hourly earnings but the public sector in Germany is defined only as public administration and education *** Weekly earnings

Source: National statistics offices

The gender pay gap in the public services

There is a certain expectation that the gender pay gap will be smaller in the public sector. This is in part because the public sector should be more influenced by overall public policies in favour of greater gender equality. As the Commission's network of gender equality experts noted in their report on the impact of the economic crisis:

"Gender equality policies often start in the public sector and are always implemented much more strictly in the public sphere due to visibility, employment stability, the strength of the unions and – very often in the past – soft budget constraints."

The report by the Belgian Presidency made a similar point, stating that,

"It is generally supposed that pay gaps will be less in the public sector, since the mechanism for setting pay is highly regulated and established in pay scales with few individual salary components."

The available Eurostat statistics suggest that this is in fact the case, although it should be borne in mind that the figures do not include public administration, defence and compulsory social security. There are also no figures broken down by type of ownership for Estonia and Greece.

THE PUBLIC SECTOR AS A WHOLE Table 1 below sets out the gender pay gap in the public sector mostly using the Eurostat data (in other words the figures exclude public administration, except in the case of Iceland). In 2010, the year for which a larger number of countries have provided data, it ranges from 21.5% in Bulgaria to minus 2.6% in Belgium – in other words male worker in Belgium in the public sector earned slightly less than their female counterparts.

In most countries and for most years, the gender pay gap in the public sector is smaller than in the economy as a whole. Examples include Germany, where the gender pay gap in the public sector has consistently been between 7 and 8 percentage points below that in the economy as a whole, Spain, where the gap

Gender equality policies tend to be more strictly applied in the public sector



**TABLE 3
GENDER PAY GAP IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR INCLUDING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Armenia	33	33.8	33.6	33.2	32.7	
Georgia		54.5	50.2	47.9	47.1	45.2
Moldova					12.6	

Source: National statistics offices

**TABLE 4
HEALTH AND SOCIAL WORK: GENDER PAY GAP**

AREA	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Austria	:	:	:	12.0	:
Belgium	9.4	9.4	9.3	9.2	9.0
Bulgaria	26.0	30.2	30.5	27.2	26.1
Croatia	:	:	:	22.5	28.6*
Cyprus	:	32.7	35.4	37.6	41.5*
Czech Republic	:	25.6	27.1	25.6	27.6
Denmark	:	14.3	8.9	10.0	10.2
Estonia	:	31.3	33.0	34.8	30.3
Finland	:	30.2	30.2	29.6	17.6*
France	:	18.6	18.7	18.2	16.9*
Germany	24.3	24.4	24.5	24.6	24.7*
Hungary	:	18.6	17.0	16.1	16.4
Iceland	:	18.5	16.2	13.3	13.8
Ireland	:	23.7	21.4	16.8	:
Italy	:	:	:	28.5	24.3
Latvia	:	:	:	11.1	9.7
Lithuania	24.2	25.1	26.1	24.3	22.8
Luxembourg	5.7	5.6	5.4	5.2	5.1*
Malta	:	8.5	10.5	12.4	11.2
Netherlands	:	17.2	17.0	16.5	16.4
Norway	:	13.4	12.8	12.7	12.7
Poland	25.3	22.8	20.3	17.8	17.8
Portugal	30.9	31.4	33.0	35.9	35.7
Romania	19.7**	9.4**	11.3**	8.6	10.7
Slovakia	:	17.4	17.5	23.8	24.1
Slovenia	20.4	20.0	20.0	19.0	16.9
Spain	24.9	23.6	24.7	24.2	24.2*
Sweden	:	16.0	14.0	13.3	15.2
Switzerland	:	20.9**	20.8**	19.1	19.5
United Kingdom	32.7	29.9	31.6	30.9	29.3

There are no figures for Greece. * Provisional figures **Based on different definition

Source: Eurostat – Gender pay gap in unadjusted form by economic control in % - NACE Rev. 2, (Structure of Earnings Survey methodology) [earn_gr_gpgr2] and Statistics Iceland



has closed from around six to around four percentage points and Poland, where the difference between the public sector and the economy as a whole has been 4.4 percentage points over five years, despite the fact that the whole economy gender pay gap has dropped from 14.9% to 4.5% over the same period.

There are, however, some countries where over the last four or five years the gender pay gap is consistently higher in the public sector than in the private sector. These are Romania, Bulgaria, Slovenia, Latvia and Hungary (three years). In addition in Finland, in 2011 the public sector gender pay gap was 2.7 percentage points greater than the overall gender pay gap and in the Netherlands, Lithuania and the UK it was 0.2 percentage points greater.

The lack of figures for some countries for some years makes it difficult to track progress. However, the picture is very mixed.

In half the countries (13 out of the 25 for which several years' figures are available) the gender pay gap in the public sector has fallen over the period. In Sweden, for example, it fell from 15.0% in 2008 to 13.6% in 2011 and in Denmark from 15.1% to 13.5%. The best performance was recorded by Poland, where the gender pay gap closed by more than 10 percentage points, moving from 10.5% in 2007 to 0.1% in 2011.

However, in the other half (12 out of 25), the public sector pay gap has increased, notably in Hungary – up from 15.9% in 2007 to 20.5% in 2011, Latvia – up from 12.7% in 2007 to 17.5% in 2011 and Romania – up from 21% to 22.8% between 2010 and 2011. And it is noticeable that these are all countries where there have been significant public sector cuts. Similarly in the UK pay trends seem to be moving in the wrong direction, with the gender pay gap in the public sector increasing from 18.1% in 2007 to 20.3% in 2011.

Only in Portugal showed was the gender pay gap the same in 2011 as it had been in 2007, although there was some fluctuation over the period.

There are 10 countries where there is some national as well as Eurostat data

The gender pay gap has widened in countries suffering major public spending cuts

**TABLE 5
HEALTH AND SOCIAL WORK: GENDER PAY GAP – MONTHLY EARNINGS**

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Armenia	28.1	27.8	28.8	24.9	35.1	
Azerbaijan					58.9	
Georgia	39.1	42.9	42.6	50.2	42.0	35.3
Israel	46.9				46.8	
FYR Macedonia				13.2		
Moldova					14.8	
Turkey				32.0		
Ukraine		12.0	11.6	9.9	10.0	9.5

Source: national statistics offices plus Eurostat for FYR Macedonia

**TABLE 6
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION GENDER PAY GAP**

AREA	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Bulgaria	4.9	10.8	13.0	12.5	10.3
Croatia	:	:	:	11.7	47.8*
Cyprus	:	20.4	18.8	16.0	16.3*
Czech Republic	:	18.1	17.0	16.3	14.3
Denmark	:	5.0	11.0	9.7	8.7
Estonia	:	16.0	13.4	10.6	10.2
Finland	:	18.0	17.6	18.3	19.6*
France	:	:	:	11.6	11.1*
Germany	:	:	:	8.5	8.4*
Hungary	:	15.1	7.0**	3.7	3.9
Iceland	:	16.5	15.6	14.5	13.2
Ireland	:	11.4	8.6	7.0	:
Latvia	:	:	:	-3.4	-4.3
Lithuania	5.5	7.4	8.7	7.2	6.2
Netherlands	:	15.9	15.3	13.7	11.8
Norway	:	:	:	20.9	18.0
Poland	17.6	17.3	17.1	16.8	16.8
Romania	-0.8**	-2.1**	3.7**	-0.2	2.4
Slovakia	:	19.6	21.2	23.2	19.1
Slovenia	4.9	6.7	8.5	5.5	4.7
Spain	:	12.0	11.1	10.1	10.1*
Sweden	:	12.2	10.7	10.1	9.0
Switzerland	:	17.5**	17.4**	17.2	17.2
United Kingdom	20.8	19.8	17.7	17.0	16.1

There are no figures for Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta or Portugal. * Provisional figures **Based on different definition

Source: Eurostat – Gender pay gap in unadjusted form by economic control in % - NACE Rev. 2, (Structure of Earnings Survey methodology) [earn_gr_gpgr2] and Statistics Iceland

on the whole public sector (in Iceland there are only national figures) and, in contrast to the Eurostat numbers, these figures also include employees working in public administration. (There are also more detailed figures on separate parts of the public sector in Denmark and Finland – see table 10).

Only the data for the Czech Republic, Germany, Iceland and Ireland are based on hourly earnings and are therefore comparable to the Eurostat statistics. The figures for Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Slovakia and Sweden are monthly and are greatly affected by the fact that men normally work longer hours than women. The figures for the UK are for full-time weekly earnings and are also affected by the number of hours worked.

As with the Eurostat figures excluding public administration, these statistics show that the gender pay gap is narrower in the public sector than in the economy as a whole.

Comparing the countries providing figures on monthly earnings, it is clear that the gender pay gap is lowest in Norway and Sweden, with Lithuania fairly close behind, although recent figures are not available. The figures for the Czech Republic, Germany and Ireland are all close, although they are distorted for Germany as they only include public administration and education, not the rest of the public sector. The gender pay gap in Iceland is higher.

Looking at trends over time, Germany, Iceland, Norway and Sweden all show a steady if slow narrowing of the gender pay gap, although in Iceland there is a sharp fall at the start of the period. However, this is not the case for the other countries and, in the case of the Czech Republic, Ireland, Latvia and Slovakia, the most recent figures are higher than the oldest, although for the Czech Republic and Ireland only two years of data are available.

The situation in the three states that are not covered by Eurostat, is set out in table 3. It is important to note that these figures are also based on monthly rather than hourly earnings, making the gap much larger.

The gender pay gap tends to be lower in the public sector than the economy as a whole



**TABLE 7
PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION: GENDER PAY GAP – MONTHLY EARNINGS**

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Armenia	33.7	38.1	33.7	32.1	29.2	
Azerbaijan					36.6	
Georgia	24.9	23.6	10.3	15.4	12.4	11.1
Israel	26.2				25.3	
FYR Macedonia				5.2		
Moldova					10.7	
Ukraine		16.4	15.5	12.2	13.6	12.8

Source: national statistics offices plus Eurostat for FYR Macedonia; there are no figures for Turkey

**TABLE 8
GENDER PAY GAP IN EDUCATION**

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Austria	:	:	:	27.8	:
Belgium	3.7	3.6	3.5	3.4	3.2
Bulgaria	13.4	11.9	14.5	13.2	11.1
Croatia	:	:	:	21.8	32.6*
Cyprus	:	13.0	11.3	11.4	11.0*
Czech Republic	:	25.4	24.8	21.7	21.9
Denmark	:	8.6	8.7	8.8	8.5
Estonia	:	24.0	23.9	23.8	25.3
Finland	:	16.9	15.4	15.8	11.1*
France	:	15.8	13.1	13.9	13.5*
Germany	14.7	12.8	11.1	9.6	9.2*
Hungary	:	20.6	18.9	20.7	17.6
Iceland	:	21.8	17.3	15.9	15.4
Ireland	:	26.0	25.9	25.3	:
Italy	:	:	:	12.6	13.6
Latvia	:	:	:	0.8	:
Lithuania	-0.1	2.0	-3.2	1.0	-1.8
Luxembourg	15.5	12.5	9.6	6.7	6.8*
Malta	:	7.2	1.2	-3.0	-4.7
Netherlands	:	22.2	21.8	21.2	19.3
Norway	:	10.6	9.8	8.8	8.6
Poland	6.4	4.6	2.8	1.0	1.0
Portugal	18.3	17.2	17.5	12.4	10.8
Romania	19.6**	16.9**	12.5**	11.5	13.5
Slovakia	:	10.7	14.9	14.5	15.8
Slovenia	9.5	9.2	9.0	9.7	9.3
Spain	11.5	10.5	10.8	10.5	10.5*
Sweden	:	12.0	11.3	11.2	11.8
Switzerland	:	13.7**	13.6**	12.5	13.0
United Kingdom	17.5	19.2	18.5	16.6	18.3

* Provisional figures **Based on different definition

Source: Eurostat – Gender pay gap in unadjusted form by economic control in % - NACE Rev. 2, (Structure of Earnings Survey methodology) [earn_gr_gpgr2] and Statistics Iceland

It is also possible to look at the gender pay gap in the main industries that make up the public sector, although it is not possible to distinguish between privately and publicly owned entities.

HEALTH AND SOCIAL WORK Health and social work is an extremely important employer of women. In total 12.7 million women in the EU work in health and social work and they make up more than three-quarters of the total workforce (77.8%).

Table 4 sets out the gender pay gap figures for health and social work. The most recent gender pay gap (2011) ranges from 41.5% in Cyprus to 5.1% in Luxembourg and in most cases the gender pay gap in health and social work is greater than the gender pay gap in the economy as a whole – from 30 countries for which the figures are available, 17 had a larger gender pay gap in health and social work than the average. This is almost certainly explained by the occupational segregation in health and social care, with women concentrated in less well-paid jobs.

Looking at trends over the period since 2008, the gap has closed in 21 countries, but grown in eight, although the fact that in many countries the figures for 2011 are provisional means that for some countries the final position may change. The countries which show consistent improvement over the period are:

- Belgium, where the gap has closed only slightly but consistently, moving from 9.4% in 2007 to 9.0% in 2011;
 - Ireland, where the gap is down from 23.8% to 16.8% although only over three years;
 - the Netherlands, where the gap has narrowed from 17.2% in 2008 to 16.4% in 2011;
 - Poland, with the gap moving from 25.3% to 17.8%; and
 - Slovenia, down from 20.4% to 16.9%, although the final figure is provisional.
- Other countries, including France, Germany, Spain and the UK have fluctuat-

Occupational segregation in the health sector leaves women concentrated in lower-paid jobs



TABLE 9
EDUCATION: GENDER PAY GAP – MONTHLY EARNINGS

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Armenia	16.6	16.6	17.1	18.7	18.7	
Azerbaijan					31.2	
Georgia	25.7	18.8	20.1	21.5	23.2	23.6
Israel	31.4				27.4	
FYR Macedonia				1.5		
Moldova					2.8	
Turkey				-4.2		
Ukraine		14.6	12.2	12.0	10.2	9.0

Source: national statistics offices plus Eurostat for FYR Macedonia

TABLE 10
GENDER PAY GAP IN DIFFERING LEVELS OF GOVERNMENT

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Denmark						
Central			15.3	15.2	15.0	
Regional (county)			26.2	25.0	24.8	
Local			10.6	9.8	9.6	
Finland						
Central		16.3	15.9	15.8	14.6	
Local		16.0	15.6	15.6	14.6	
Norway						
Central		8.7	9.1	8.7	8.4	7.8
Municipalities and counties		7.1	7.1	6.8	7.1	6.5
Slovakia						
Central	19.6	16.9	23.2	22.8	19.4	
Local	14.4	14.9	16.4	15.2	13.5	
Sweden						
Central	13.0	12.0	11.0	11.0	9.0	
Regional (county)	28.0	27.0	27.0	27.0	26.0	
Local	9.0	8.0	7.0	6.0	6.0	
Switzerland						
Central		12.9		12.1		
Regional (cantonal)		17.4		16.4		
Local		8.9		6.7		

Source: national statistical offices

ed, showing no steady downward trend, and in Cyprus Portugal and Slovakia the trend seem to be moving in the wrong direction.

The situation in the states that are not in the European Economic Area plus Switzerland, where information is available is as set out in table 5. It is important to note that these figures are based on monthly rather than hourly earnings. As with the Eurostat figures the relationship between the gender pay gap in health and social work and the overall gender pay gap is mixed, with half the states showing a smaller gap, and half a larger.

Looking at the latest figures for each country, the gender pay gap in health and social work ranges from 58.9% in Azerbaijan to 9.5% in Ukraine. The lack of figures for many countries makes it difficult to see a trend over time. For those countries providing figures for several years, the gender pay gap has widened in Armenia, but has closed in the Ukraine, and is fractionally narrower in Israel. There has been greater fluctuation in Georgia, although the gap is smaller in 2012 than it was in 2007.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION As already noted, pay in public administration, defence and compulsory social security is not automatically collected and analysed by Eurostat. This means that many fewer countries provide details. As a result, in addition to Greece and Turkey, details for other countries – Austria, Belgium, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta and Portugal – are missing from Table 6, which sets out the gender pay gap for public administration.

The gender pay gap ranges from 20.3% for Croatia to minus 4.3% in Latvia, and in most cases the gender pay gap in public administration is smaller than in the rest of the economy. The clearest exceptions are Croatia, where the gender pay gap in public administration is 22 percentage points greater than in the economy as a whole and Poland where it is 12.3 percentage points greater but in 19 out of the 25 states providing this information the gap between men's and women's earnings is smaller in public administration than elsewhere.

The trend over time seems slightly more encouraging in public administration than it is in health and social work. In the period since 2008 the gender pay gap has closed in 18 states, but widened in six, although for two of these, Romania and Croatia, there are only two years of comparative figures.

The only countries where the gender pay gap was wider in 2011 than 2007 or 2008 are:

- Bulgaria, where the gap has gone from 4.9% in 2007 to 10.3% in 2011;
- Denmark, where it has apparently widened from 5.0% in 2008 to 8.7% in 2011 (although the 5.0% for 2008 seems startlingly low and since 2009 there has been a steady narrowing of the gap);
- Finland, where it has increased from 18.0% in 2008 to 19.6% in 2011, although this figure is provisional and
- Lithuania, where the gap has widened slightly compared with 2007, although it has been closing since 2009.

Steady progress in narrowing the gender pay gap appears to have been made in the Czech Republic, Estonia, Iceland, Ireland, The Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Sweden and the UK.

In all the non-EEA states for which information is available (table 7), the gender pay gap is smaller than in the economy as a whole. The latest figures show that the gap is widest in Azerbaijan at 36.6% and lowest in Moldova at 10.7%. In all cases where there are figures for more than one year the gender pay gap

In public administration the gender pay gap narrowed in 18 countries, but widened in six

**TABLE 11
GENDER PAY GAP ELECTRICITY AND GAS**

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Austria	:	:	:	23.6	:
Belgium	31.1	30.8	30.4	29.6	29.3
Bulgaria	9.2	15.9	17.0	15.7	19.6
Croatia	:	:	:	20.7	28.8*
Cyprus	:	22.5	20.4	19.3	18.2*
Czech Republic	:	18.4	18.5	18.4	14.2
Denmark	:	21.6	17.4	20.1	18.6
Estonia	:	24.8	23.4	21.9	19.3
Finland	:	20.3	20.3	20.4	19.6*
France	:	11.8	11.2	11.2	8.7*
Germany	21.5	21.4	21.5	21.4	21.4*
Hungary	:	13.0	14.4	17.4	17.0
Iceland	:	19.1	14.0	11.0	14.4
Italy	:	:	:	8.2	:
Latvia	:	:	:	17.7	21.0
Lithuania	20.1	20.1	18.9	15.4	13.1
Luxembourg	:	:	:	5.1***	4.2*
Malta	:	4.4	3.1	6.8	13.9
Netherlands	:	52.2	53.7	49.2	48.3
Norway	:	11.8	12.7	11.4	9.4
Poland	7.2	7.9	8.7	9.4	9.4
Portugal	15.6	15.0	14.4	13.8	12.6
Romania	4.1**	7.0**	7.8**	1.3	2.7
Slovakia	:	9.1	12.5	15.9	9.4
Slovenia	11.9	10.5	7.5	5.6	2.9
Spain	18.9	14.2	17.6	14.0	14.0*
Sweden	:	11.5	11.5	10.3	9.7
Switzerland	:	18.6**	18.6**	15.8	16.1
United Kingdom	28.8	32.1	26.5	28.9	27.3

No figures for Greece or Ireland * Provisional figures **Based on different definition *** Low reliability

Source: Eurostat – Gender pay gap in unadjusted form by economic control in % - NACE Rev. 2, (Structure of Earnings Survey methodology) [earn_gr_gpgr2] and Statistics Iceland



In education 21 countries saw a closing of the pay gap, with an increase in seven

has closed – steadily but significantly in Armenia and the Ukraine, dramatically in Georgia, and very slightly in Israel. It is important to note in making comparisons with the Eurostat statistics that these figures are based on monthly rather than hourly earnings.

EDUCATION A large number of women work in education which employs some 8.8 million women across the EU, although figures also include large numbers of teachers. Overall more than two-thirds (69.1%) of the education workforce in the EU is female and in every EU state women account for more than half of all education employees.

Table 8 sets out the gender pay gap in education in from 2008 to 2011. The gender pay gap ranges from 27.8% in Austria (2010 figures) to minus 4.7% in Malta. Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Luxembourg and Norway, all have a gender pay gap under 10%.

It is also striking that in the majority of countries – 23 out of 30 – the gender pay gap in education was smaller than in the economy as a whole – substantially smaller in some countries such as Belgium, Finland, Norway and Denmark, where it was between seven and eight percentage points smaller, as well as Germany – 13 percentage points, Lithuania 13.7, Latvia 14.7 and Malta 17.6. Those at the other end of the scale, with a bigger gender pay gap in education than elsewhere were Croatia, Italy, Slovenia, Austria, the Netherlands, Romania and the Czech Republic.

The trend over time is also positive with 21 states showing a decline and only seven, Croatia, Estonia, Italy, Romania, Slovakia, Switzerland and the UK, showing a rise on the basis of comparable figures. Indeed in only in Estonia, Slovakia and the UK, is there a longer run of figures. For the other states there are only comparable figures for two years.

Several countries show steady progress in narrowing the gender pay gap in education. They are Germany, Iceland, the Netherlands, Norway, Poland and

**TABLE 12
GENDER PAY GAP WATER AND SEWERAGE**

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Austria	:	:	:	12.2	:
Belgium	1.7	1.1	0.0	-0.5	-0.8
Bulgaria	14.5	12.2	8.2	8.2	2.8
Croatia	:	:	:	3.2	21.2*
Cyprus	:	0.3***	-6.5***	-6.3***	-6.3*
Czech Republic	:	3.8	4.0	-1.2	-3.9
Denmark	:	11.1	7.8	8.0	8.9
Estonia	:	14.9	17.2	18.5	14.1
Finland	:	5.8	8.0	7	2.5*
France	:	-4.4	-8.2	-11.5	-12.3*
Germany	8.3	7.3	5.4	4.7	4.7*
Greece	:	:	:	11.2	:
Hungary	:	1.9	0.0	-1.7	-0.9
Ireland	:	18.2	16.9	18.9	:
Italy	:	:	:	4.0	:
Latvia	:	:	:	11.5	12.5
Lithuania	10.2	10.2	9.7	9.0	6.6
Luxembourg	:	:	:	-21.0	-19.7*
Malta	:	4.7	3.5	-3.1	-5.0
Netherlands	:	20.7	15.3	15.8	15.8
Norway	:	1.9	0.2	-0.5	-0.5
Poland	6.3	4.7	3.2	1.6	1.6
Portugal	2.1	-6.7	-8.0	-5.0	-9.5
Romania	14.4**	7.1**	2.4**	-5.3	2.7
Slovakia	:	-5.7	-2	-9.1	-2.1
Slovenia	-15.1	-14.7	-16.8	-16.3	-17.2
Spain	20.3	17	16.4	17.5	17.5*
Sweden	:	2.0	2.0	2.8	-0.2
Switzerland	:	5.6**	5.5**	8.4	8.8
United Kingdom	-0.3	-2.5	-8.9	-2.8	-6.6

No figures for Iceland * Provisional figures **Based on different definition *** Low reliability

Source: Eurostat – Gender pay gap in unadjusted form by economic control in % - NACE Rev. 2, (Structure of Earnings Survey methodology) [earn_gr_gpgr2]

Portugal. Others show greater fluctuation, although only Slovakia seems to be moving clearly in the wrong direction.

In all the non-EEA states for which there is information (table 9), the gender pay gap in education is smaller than in the economy as a whole. The latest figures show it varies between 31.2% in Azerbaijan and minus 4.2% in Turkey. This is a very low figure considering these figures are based on monthly earnings, which normally show a larger gap than hourly earnings. Between the start and the end of the period, the gap has widened in Armenia, but narrowed in Georgia (with major fluctuations), Israel and the Ukraine.

NATIONAL, REGIONAL AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT A small number of countries provide an indication of the gender pay gap at different levels of government, with separate figures for national, local and sometimes regional government. The available statistics are set out in Table 10. The figures cannot be compared between countries or between different levels of government within countries, as there are variations in terms of which of the public services (public administration, health and social work and education) are included in the different levels of government.

However, it is possible to make comparisons over time to see where the gender pay gap has increased or decreased in a particular area of government. From this point of view the figures are encouraging as, with the exception of Slovakia, all the countries at all the levels show a reduction in the gender pay gap over the period.

ELECTRICITY AND GAS, WATER AND SEWERAGE Many fewer women are employed in the energy utilities and water and sewerage. Across the EU as a whole 23.2% of the workforce in electricity and gas was female in 2010, while for water and sewerage the figure was very similar at 21.3%.

There are, however, differences between the gender pay gap in two industries.



Women make up less than a quarter of the workforce in energy and water

**TABLE 13
ELECTRICITY AND GAS AND WATER AND SEWERAGE: GENDER PAY GAP – MONTHLY EARNINGS**

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Armenia (Energy & water)	23.8	23.9	24.8	20.4	24.0	
Azerbaijan (Electricity & gas)				15.0		
Azerbaijan (Water & sewerage)				30.6		
Georgia (Electricity, gas and water)	15.8	11.4	7.9	15.7	4.3	3.6
Israel (Electricity & water)	21.9				32.3	
FYR Macedonia (Electricity & gas)				3.4		
FYR Macedonia (Water & sewerage)				-21.7		
Moldova (Electricity & gas)					8.5	
Turkey (Electricity & gas)				11.9		
Turkey (Water)				10.2		

Source: national statistics offices plus Eurostat for FYR Macedonia

In electricity and gas (table 11), the latest figure ranges from 48.3% in the Netherlands to 2.7% in Romania. Although there are some countries – the Netherlands, Belgium and Croatia at one end and Romania and Slovakia at the other – where the gender pay gap in electricity and gas is very different to the over gender pay gap, in around half of the countries it is within three percentage points. (See Table 11)

In water and sewerage (table 12), the 2011 gender pay gap ranges from 23.6% in Austria (2010 figures) to -19.7% in Luxembourg. And, in contrast to electricity and gas, in almost all cases the gender pay gap in water and sewerage is smaller than the overall gender pay gap. In addition, in 13 countries the gender pay gap is negative – in other words women earn more than men. It seems likely that this is a result of the so-called selection effect, that only women with higher skills are attracted into the industry.

In Luxembourg, where there is a negative gender pay gap – that is the women earn more than men – only 10.7% of the industry's employees are women. However, there are other countries with negative gender pay gaps – like the UK and France, where 20% of the workforce is female.

In terms of trends, in electricity and gas 18 states show a narrowing of the gender pay gap on comparable figures, even though in some cases the change is very small, while nine show it widening. (For Romania and Switzerland only the last two years have been counted because of the break in the figures). In water and sewerage, on comparable figures there are 20 countries where the position of women relative to that of men has improved over the period and just seven where it has worsened.

In electricity and gas, one striking aspect about the figures is their relative stability at a high level in many countries. For example, the gender pay gap in Germany has fluctuated between 21.5% and 21.4% every year between 2007 and 2011; and in the Netherlands it has fallen from 52.2% to 48.3% over four years. Those countries where the gender pay gap in electricity and gas appears to be on a fairly clear and steady downward trajectory are Cyprus, Lithuania, Portugal, Slovenia and Sweden.

In water and sewerage the most striking thing about the figures is the progress for women that almost all the countries report. Where things have worsened, with the exception of Romania between 2010 and 2011, the changes have been small. In many countries progress has meant that the negative gender pay gap (the fact that women earn more per hour than men) has widened. In France, for example, it has increased from -4.4% in 2008 to -12.3% in 2011, and in the UK it has grown from -0.3 in 2007 to -6.6% in 2011.

In the non-EEA states (table 13) the gender pay gap is smaller in electricity, gas, water and sewerage than the gender pay gap in the economy as a whole. The largest gender pay gap is in Israel, where in electricity and water women earning 32.3% less than men. In contrast in FYR Macedonia, they earn 21.7% more in water and sewerage, although these industries employ very small number of women are particularly affected by the selection effect. There are only three countries providing figures for more than one year. In Georgia, the gender pay gap has narrowed, but in Armenia it is almost unchanged (very slight up at the end of the period) and in Israel it has widened. As with the other non-EEA statistics, the fact that these are based on monthly earnings means that they are almost certainly higher than the EEA gender pay gap figures.

For most countries there has been progress on closing the pay gap in the water sector

APPENDIX

**TABLE 14
GENDER PAY GAP 2007-2011**

Hourly earnings for full-time and part-time employees, excluding public administration, defence, compulsory social security

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
European Union*	:	17.3	17.2	16.2	16.2
Euro area**					
Estonia	30.9	27.6	26.6	27.7	27.3
Austria					
Germany	22.8	22.8	22.6	22.3	22.2
Greece					
Czech Republic	23.6	26.2	25.9	21.6	21.0
Slovakia					
United Kingdom	20.8	21.4	20.6	19.5	20.1
Finland					
Hungary	16.3	17.5	17.1	17.6	18.0
Netherlands					
Switzerland	:	18.4	18.4	17.8	17.9
Croatia					
Denmark	17.7	17.1	16.8	16.0	16.4
Cyprus					
Spain	18.1	16.1	16.7	16.2	16.2
Norway					
Sweden	17.8	16.9	15.7	15.4	15.8
France					
Ireland	17.3	12.6	12.6	13.9	:
Latvia					
Bulgaria	12.1	12.3	13.3	13.0	13.0
Portugal					
Romania	12.5	8.5	7.4	8.8	12.1
Lithuania					
Belgium	10.1	10.2	10.1	10.2	10.2
Luxembourg					
Malta	7.8	9.2	7.7	7.2	6.0
Italy					
Poland	14.9	11.4	8.0	4.5	4.5
Slovenia					

Gender pay gap in unadjusted form in % - NACE Rev. 2 (structure of earnings survey methodology) [earn_gr_gpgr2]

*27 countries

**17 countries

Figures for FYR Macedonia and Turkey taken from hourly earnings for 2010

Sectors covered: industry, construction and services (except public administration, defence, compulsory social security)

**TABLE 15
GENDER PAY GAP 2007-2011 – AVERAGE MONTHLY EARNINGS**

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Armenia	40.8	41.8	39.2	35.9	35.3
Azerbaijan	:	:	:	:	48.9
Georgia	:	45.8	42.3	42.6	40.3
Israel	35.8	:	:	34.3	33.9
Moldova	:	:	:	:	12.2
Ukraine	:	24.8	22.8	22.2	25.1
EU 27 countries				20.4	

**TABLE 16
THE GENDER PAY GAP FOR THE WHOLE ECONOMY, INCLUDING PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION**

COUNTRY	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Estonia	29.5	26.6	25.4	26.1	25.8
Germany	:	:	:	20.8	20.8
Czech Republic	23.3	25.4	25.0	20.9	20.3
Slovakia	22.7	20.4	21.7	19.6	20.2
United Kingdom	20.8	21.3	20.4	19.3	19.8
Finland	20.1	20.2	20.3	20.0	19.1
Netherlands	19.7	19.3	18.9	18.0	18.0
Switzerland	:	18.4	18.4	17.9	17.9
Cyprus	21.7	19.6	18.0	16.6	16.3
Norway	:	:	:	16.7	16.2
Denmark	17.3	15.1	15.7	15.7	15.9
Hungary	16.1	16.7	15.5	15.9	15.9
Spain	:	15.4	15.8	15.3	15.3
Sweden	14.5	15.3	15.0	15.6	15.3
France	:	:	:	15.5	14.7
Bulgaria	10.6	11.4	12.5	12.3	12.2
Lithuania	21.2	20.5	15.0	14.3	11.6
Ireland	17.6	12.5	12.3	13.3	
Latvia	:	:	:	13.2	11.4
Romania	10.5	6.9	6.7	8.4	11.4
FYR Macedonia*				6.5	
Poland	14.2	11.1	8.0	4.9	4.9
Slovenia	4.9	4.1	-0.3	0.7	1.9
Croatia*				-0.6	

Gender pay gap in unadjusted form in % - NACE Rev. 2 (structure of earnings survey methodology) [earn_gr_gpgr2]

*Figures for Croatia, and FYR Macedonia taken from hourly earnings for 2010

Sectors covered: Industry, construction and services (except activities of households as employers and extra-territorial organisations and bodies)

NOTES

¹ *The gender pay gap in the Member States of the European Union: quantitative and qualitative indicators*, Brussels, 23 November 2010 See <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/10/st16/st16516-ad02.en10.pdf>

² The study quoted is Datta Gupta, N. and N. Smith, 2002. "Children and career interruptions: The family gap in Denmark", *Economica*, n°69, pp. 609-629.

³ The study quoted is Rubery, J., Grimshaw, D. and H. Figueiredo, 2002, *The gender pay gap and gender mainstreaming pay policy in EU Member States*, November 2002

⁴ *Shaping a Fairer Future*, Women and Work Commission, 2006

⁵ These were Belgium, France, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Sweden, Slovenia, Slovakia and Spain

⁶ The union total includes two sections of the Czech union Statorg,

⁷ *Rätt lön återblick och utmaningar: Bakgrundsrapport till Lönepolitiska utredningen 2013*, Kommunal

⁸ <http://www.foa.dk/~media/Faelles/PDF/Rapporter-undersogelser/2012/Det%20siger%20medlemmerne%20af%20FOA%20om%20deres%20arbejdstidpdf.ashx>

⁹ *Vägval välfärd.*, Kommunal 2012, http://www.kommunal.se/PageFiles/142538/Rapport_Vagval_Valfard_121217.pdf

¹⁰ Analysis of five national reform programmes 2012 regarding the pursuit of the union's gender equality objectives: Study 2012, European Parliament http://www.lrsocialresearch.at/files/pe462510_en_FINAL_REPORT.pdf

¹¹ It is possible to do this, because of the legal basis of the structure of earnings statistics, used for the gender pay gap figures, (Council Regulation EC No 530/1999 of 9 March 1999 concerning structural statistics on earnings and on labour costs). It does not include Sector O of the NACE code (public administration, defence, compulsory social security) as one of the sectors on which data must be collected. As there is no legal obligation for Eurostat to collect and publish this data more than a quarter of the EU states (Austria, Belgium, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, and Portugal) plus Iceland and Turkey do not provide it

¹² *The gender pay gap in the Member States of the European Union: quantitative and qualitative indicators*, Brussels, 23 November 2010 See <http://register.consilium.europa.eu/pdf/en/10/st16/st16516-ad02.en10.pdf>





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