



Gender pay gap in public services: an initial report

Introduction

This report¹ examines the gender pay gap, the difference between what men and women earn, in public services.

Drawing on figures from both Eurostat, the statistical office of the European Union, and national statistics offices, it examines the position in 38 separate states.

Starting with the gender pay gap in the economy as a whole the report looks at

- how it varies between countries;
- how it has moved over the last five years; and
- some of the factors that explain the variations.

It examines the overall gender pay gap for the public sector and then looks in turn at each of the main industries of key concern to EPSU:

- electricity and gas;
- water and sewerage;
- education;
- health and social work; and
- public administration, defence and social security,

The gender gap in each of these industries is compared with the gender pay gap overall.

Finally the report examines two other issues:

- the lack of data in some areas, in particular, public administration and the reason for it; and
- the extent to which the current public sector cuts, in both jobs and pay, are leading to a widening of the gender pay gap.

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

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The sources

The statistics from Eurostat

The majority of the figures used in the report come from Eurostat, the statistical office of the European Union. This makes it more likely that they are comparable across countries. As Eurostat says about itself,

“Its task is to provide the European Union with statistics at European level that enable comparisons between countries and regions.”

As part of this work, Eurostat collects and analyses detailed information on earnings which it uses to provide an indication of the gender pay gap – the difference between the earnings of women and men.

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, as Eurostat states in its description of the data,

“The gender pay gap is the consequence of various inequalities (structural differences) in the labour market such as different working patterns, differences in institutional mechanisms and systems of wage setting. Consequently, the pay gap is linked to a number of legal, social and economic factors which go far beyond the single issue of equal pay for equal work”.

The Eurostat figures are collected through the Structure of Earnings Survey, which looks at earnings and labour costs and which member states are required to carry out every four years, with the most recent covering 2002, 2006 and 2010. In addition countries also provide figures for the intervening years, which in some countries are based on their own national annual surveys and in some countries are national estimates.

The Eurostat figures cover all 27 members of the EU (although there are some gaps in some areas) as well as Croatia, Iceland, the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, Norway Switzerland and Turkey (although there is generally less data for the non-EU states).

The Eurostat gender pay gap figures are based on workplaces with 10 or more employees and the cover the whole economy with the exception of agriculture and fishing private households and extra-territorial organisations and bodies.

There is, however, a major problem with Eurostat statistics on public administration, defence and compulsory social security – a key part of public services – as frequently figures for those working in these areas are not included (see below).

Statistics from national statistics offices

In addition to the Eurostat figures the Labour Research Department also looked at the information available from national statistics offices, both for the states covered by Eurostat and 16 countries that were not covered. Of the 16 countries not covered by Eurostat, there was at least partial information on the gender pay gap for six (see Table 1).

Table 1: additional countries examined

Examined	Gender pay gap information available
Albania	No
Armenia	Yes
Azerbaijan	Yes
Belarus	No
Bosnia and Herzegovina	No
Georgia	Yes
Israel	Yes
Kazakhstan	No
Kosovo	No
Kyrgyzstan	No
Moldova	Yes
Montenegro	No
Russia	No
Serbia	No
Tajikistan	No
Ukraine	Yes

It is important to note that the figures for national statistics offices are not as readily comparable across countries as those from Eurostat.

The overall gender pay gap

Before looking at the pay gap in public services and the industries of greatest interest to EPSU (electricity, gas and steam, water and sewerage, public administration, compulsory social security and defence, education and health and social 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 – in the case of the Eurostat figures – permits 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.

However, in examining the Eurostat figures on the overall pay gap, it is 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 below), 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.

The size of the gender pay gap

Bearing this omission in mind, Table 2 sets out the overall gender pay gap in 32 states, either directly from the Eurostat figures on the gender pay gap, or in the case of Croatia, FYR Macedonia and Turkey from the separate figures for men's and women's hourly earnings in 2010.

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. The overall average for the 27 EU states was 16.2%.

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.

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Table 2: Gender pay gap 2007-2011 based on hourly earnings for full-time and part-time employees (excludes public administration, defence, compulsory social security)

Countries	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
European Union (27 countries)	:	17.3	16.6	16.1	16.2
Euro area (17 countries)	:	16.8	16.4	16.4	16.3
Estonia	30.9	27.6	26.6	27.7	27.3
Austria	25.5	25.1	24.3	24.0	23.7
Germany	22.8	22.8	22.6	22.3	22.2
Greece	:	22.0	:	:	:
Czech Republic	23.6	26.2	25.9	21.6	21.0
Slovakia	23.6	20.9	21.9	19.6	20.5
United Kingdom	20.8	21.4	20.6	19.5	20.1
Finland	20.2	20.5	20.8	20.3	18.2
Hungary	16.3	17.5	17.1	17.6	18.0
Netherlands	19.3	18.9	18.5	17.8	17.9
Switzerland	:	18.4	18.4	17.8	17.9
Denmark	17.7	17.1	16.8	16.0	16.4
Cyprus	22.0	19.5	17.8	16.8	16.4
Spain	18.1	16.1	16.7	16.2	16.2
Norway	15.6	17.0	16.5	16.1	15.9
Sweden	17.8	16.9	15.7	15.4	15.8
France	17.3	16.9	15.2	15.6	14.7
Latvia	13.6	11.8	13.1	15.5	13.6
Ireland	17.3	12.6	12.6	13.9	:
Bulgaria	12.1	12.3	13.3	13.0	13.0
Malta	7.8	9.2	13.8	13.4	12.9
Portugal	8.5	9.2	10.0	12.8	12.5
Romania	12.5	8.5	7.4	8.8	12.1
Lithuania	22.6	21.6	15.3	14.6	11.9
Belgium	10.1	10.2	10.1	10.2	10.2
Luxembourg	10.2	9.7	9.2	8.7	8.7
Italy	5.1	4.9	5.5	5.3	5.8
<i>FYR Macedonia</i>				5.5	
Poland	14.9	11.4	8.0	4.5	4.5
<i>Turkey</i>				4.0	
Slovenia	5.0	4.1	-0.9	0.9	2.3
<i>Croatia</i>				-1.8	
Iceland	:	:	:	:	:

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

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

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

There is less information on the situation in the states that are not covered by Eurostat, and this is set out in Table 2A. 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

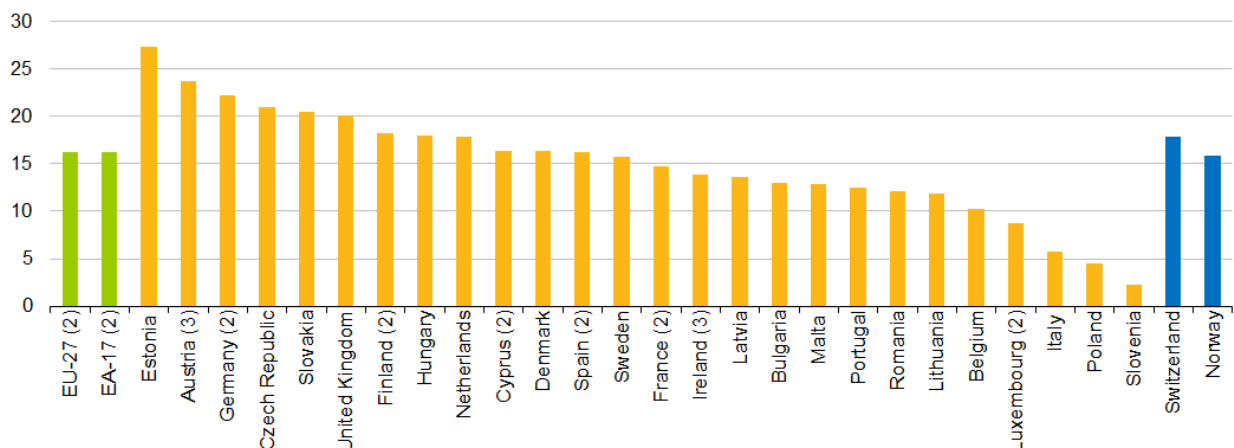
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monthly earnings is also provided. The table shows that with the exception of Moldova and the Ukraine these no-EU countries have larger gender pay gaps.

Table 2A: Gender pay gap 2007-2011. Based on average monthly earnings

Countries	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%
European Union 27 countries				20.4%	

The picture from Eurostat



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

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

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

Source: Eurostat (tsdsc340)

Changes in the 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”.¹ 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 suggest that at least until 2011, the gender pay gap appears to have been declining year on year, with the average gender pay gap for the 27 EU states dropping from 17.3%, in 2008 to 16.6% in 2009 and 16.2% in 2010. However, in 2011 it widened very slightly to 16.2%.

Looking at individual states, in most countries 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. However, there were seven states, Malta, Portugal, Hungary, Bulgaria, Italy, Norway and Belgium, where it widened against the general trend over the period. In Malta – up 5.1 percentage points and Portugal – up 4.0 percentage points – the increases were quite substantial.

These changes in the light of public sector cuts are also examined later in the report.

Factors behind the gap

It is not the scope of this report to examine all of the potential factors that explain the gender pay gap. This has been the subject of intense academic research which it is not possible to undertake here.

It may, however, be useful to draw attention to some of the factors that have been identified as playing a role.

Women's employment rates

It is generally accepted that a low gender pay gap may sometimes be 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. Table 3 sets out Eurostat employment rates and it is striking that many of those who are at the bottom of this table, in other words 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.

However, this certainly does not explain the whole picture. There are countries with average or above-average levels of female employment and relatively small gender pay gaps, like Lithuania, Portugal, Belgium and Luxembourg, as well as countries with below average levels of female employment and a gender pay which is above the EU average. Greece and Hungary are both in this category.

Table 3: Women's' employment rate: 2011

Country	Proportion of women in employment
EU (27 countries)	62.3
Iceland	77.9
Norway	77.1
Sweden	76.5
Switzerland	75.4
Denmark	72.4
Finland	71.9
Netherlands	71.4
Germany	71.1
Austria	69.6
United Kingdom	67.9
Cyprus	67.7
Estonia	67.6
Lithuania	66.6

Latvia	65.3
Portugal	64.8
Slovenia	64.8
France	64.7
Luxembourg	61.9
Czech Republic	61.7
Belgium	61.5
Bulgaria	59.8
Ireland	59.4
Poland	57.6
Slovakia	57.6
Romania	55.7
Spain	55.5
Hungary	54.9
Croatia	50.9
Italy	49.9
Greece	48.6
Malta	43.4
FYR Macedonia	38.8
Turkey	29.7

The employment rate is calculated by dividing the number of persons aged 20 to 64 in employment by the total population of the same age group.

It is noticeable that all of the non-EU states for which figures are available have women's employment rates which are below the EU average, although not below all EU states.

Table 3A: Women's' employment rate: 2011

Country	Proportion of women in employment
Armenia	49%
Azerbaijan	62%
Georgia	56%
Israel	53%
Moldova	not available
Ukraine	53%

Source: UN <http://unstats.un.org/unsd/demographic/products/socind/Dec.%202012/5a.xls>

Part-time work

Another key cause of the gender pay gap is the extent of part-time work. Part-time work is not distributed evenly between women and men. In the EU, around three-quarters of those working part time are women. It is therefore useful to look at the gender pay gap for full-time and part-time workers as a potential contributory factor to the overall gender pay gap.

Unfortunately Eurostat figures are not available for all EU states – there are no figures for the Czech Republic, Estonia, Greece or Slovenia – and as already noted the statistics do not include public administration, defence and compulsory social security.

Looking first at the gender pay gap for full-time work, the figures that are available indicate first that the variation, between the countries with the largest gender pay gap and those with the smallest, is slightly less than for all employees, both full-time and part-time. While the range for all employees in EU states is 25 percentage points between 27.3% in Estonia and 2.3%, for full-time employees it is between 21.6% in Austria and minus 1.2% (in other words men earn less than women) in Italy, although neither Estonia nor Slovenia – the top and bottom of the all employees table – provide full-time employees figures. (For full-time and part-time employees, the figures used are for 2010, as a large number of countries have not produced figures for 2011.)

It is also the case that in most countries, although not all, the gender pay gap is smaller for full-time employees than for all employees. In some countries the difference is quite substantial, more than 5 percentage points in Malta, Belgium, Italy and Spain, and 3.8 percentage points in the UK. However, there are some countries, where the gender pay gap is larger for full-time employees than all employees. These are Romania, Lithuania, Bulgaria, Denmark, Hungary, Latvia, Switzerland and Luxembourg.

Figures for the gender pay gap for full-time employees, ranked by the values for 2010, are set out in Table 4.

Table 4: Gender pay gap: Full-time employees

Country	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Austria	:	:	:	21.6	:
Germany	:	21.3	20.8	20.4	20.4
Finland	:	:	:	19.8	:
Switzerland	:	20.5	20.5	19.6	19.5
Hungary	17.2	18.5	18.2	18.9	19.1
Slovakia	:	20.5	21.3	18.8	19.6
Latvia	13.4	12.8	14.3	17.3	15.4
Denmark	:	:	:	17.0	17.3
Cyprus	:	:	:	16.3	:
Netherlands	18.2	17.4	16.7	15.8	15.5
United Kingdom	16.7	17.4	16.7	15.7	16.4
Lithuania	22.2	21.8	15.5	15.1	15.0
Bulgaria	12.5	12.9	14.1	14.0	13.9
France	:	:	:	13.5	:
Sweden	:	14.4	13.6	13.5	13.2
Norway	:	:	14.0	13.5	13.4
Portugal	8.6	9.4	10.3	11.1	13.0
Luxembourg	11.8	11.5	11.2	10.8	:
Ireland	:	9.8	9.2	10.7	:
Spain	11.5	11.4	11.6	10.2	10.2
Romania	:	:	:	8.9	:
Malta	:	:	4.4	4.8	3.7
Poland	15.2	11.6	8.1	4.5	4.5
Belgium	3.8	3.8	3.6	3.6	3.2
Italy	0.3	-0.1	-0.3	-1.2	-0.2

Gender pay gap in unadjusted form by working time in % - NACE Rev. 2, B-S excluding O (Structure of Earnings Survey methodology) [earn_gr_gpgr2wt]

Looking at the gender pay gap figures for part-time employees (see Table 5) it is clear that the range between the countries with the largest and the smallest gender pay gaps is much greater than the overall gender pay gap.

In Spain, the country with the worst performance in this area, the gender pay gap for part-time workers is 34.6%. In Ireland, in contrast, the Eurostat figures show the gender pay gap for part-time workers to be an astonishing minus 16.6%. In other words part-time women workers in Ireland earn one sixth more than male part-time workers.

It is also the case that, perhaps surprisingly, in most countries the gender pay gap is smaller for part-time workers than for full time workers, although there are exceptions like Spain and Portugal where it is much higher.

The likely explanation for both the wide variation in the gender pay gap and the lower gender pay gap for part-time workers in some countries is the much smaller numbers of men working part time and the differences between the work done by part-time men and part-time women.

Table 5: Gender pay gap: Part-time employees

Country	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
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Spain	35.6	35.0	35.0	34.6	34.6
Portugal	29.9	30.7	31.6	32.4	31.4
Slovakia	:	17.4	24.2	25.7	23.4
France	:	:	:	19.1	:
Austria	:	:	:	17.6	:
Finland	:	:	:	15.9	:
Switzerland	:	14.5	14.5	13.4	13.5
Germany	:	16.8	12.8	11.3	11.3
Luxembourg	14.4	12.8	11.3	9.8	:
Belgium	9.0	9.1	9.2	9.3	8.9
Hungary	9.1	15.1	13.5	9.1	13.3
United Kingdom	11.3	13.7	11.0	8.8	8.8
Poland	9.2	9.0	8.9	8.7	8.7
Norway	:	:	0.6	7.9	6.3
Sweden	:	9.0	6.8	6.6	6.7
Italy	6.6	5.4	10.4	5.9	8.2
Latvia	10.5	12.1	10.5	5.4	3.7
Cyprus	:	:	:	5.2	:
Netherlands	5.0	4.5	4.2	3.7	4.2
Denmark	:	:	:	3.5	2.6
Lithuania	3.7	3.9	3.1	3.2	3.6
Malta	:	:	2.6	1.3	-2.3
Bulgaria	-11.5	-11.6	-2.6	-4.7	-3.5
Romania	:	:	:	-7.1	:
Ireland	:	-13.1	-8.6	-16.6	:

Gender pay gap in unadjusted form by working time in % - NACE Rev. 2, B-S excluding O (Structure of Earnings Survey methodology) [earn_gr_gpgr2wt]

However, the fact that in some countries there is a reverse gender pay gap for part-time workers – in other words, women part-timers earn more than men, does not mean that the gender gap is not deepened through part-time work. On the contrary, part-time work has substantial impact, first because in the majority of countries part-time workers earn less than men, in some countries substantially less, and second because very many more women than men work part-time.

In the EU as a whole three-quarters of those working part-time are women, although there are some variations between countries as Table 6 indicates. However, what is also striking is the similarity of the position in the largest EU member states. There is only a 5.5 percentage point variation between Germany, France, Italy, Spain and the UK in terms of the proportion of part timers who are women: 80.0% of part-time workers are female in Germany and 74.5% in the UK. The countries at the bottom of the table, where women, although still in a majority make up less than 60% of the part-time workforce, Latvia, Slovenia, Turkey, Croatia, Bulgaria, Romania and FYR Macedonia, are all countries in Central and Eastern Europe.

They are all countries, where part-time working itself is found less frequently as Table 6 also shows. While on average in the EU just under one-fifth (19.3%) of all employees work part time, there are again substantial differences, with almost half of all employees (48.9%) in the Netherlands working part-time, while in Bulgaria it is only one employee in forty (2.4%).

Table 6: Proportion of part-time workers who are women: 4Q 2010

Country	Proportion of	Proportion of
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	part-time workers who are women	all employees who are work part time
European Union (27 countries)	75.0%	19.3%
Euro area (17 countries)	77.2%	20.5%
Luxembourg	84.2%	17.4%
Austria	81.1%	25.0%
Germany	80.0%	25.9%
France	79.3%	17.8%
Belgium	79.0%	24.5%
Italy	77.9%	15.4%
Switzerland	77.7%	35.5%
Spain	77.2%	13.4%
United Kingdom	74.5%	26.9%
Czech Republic	73.2%	5.7%
Iceland	72.7%	26.6%
Netherlands	72.1%	48.9%
Sweden	71.5%	27.1%
Norway	71.4%	28.0%
Ireland	71.2%	23.4%
Denmark	69.0%	25.7%
Estonia	67.9%	11.2%
Malta	65.3%	12.3%
Finland	64.4%	15.2%
Hungary	63.2%	6.0%
Slovakia	62.8%	3.9%
Poland	62.6%	8.3%
Portugal	62.4%	11.5%
Greece	62.3%	6.5%
Cyprus	62.0%	10.1%
Lithuania	60.9%	8.3%
Latvia	59.6%	9.9%
Slovenia	58.6%	11.0%
Turkey	58.1%	11.8%
Croatia	55.6%	9.7%
Bulgaria	52.3%	2.4%
Romania	45.3%	10.5%
FYR Macedonia	44.9%	6.2%

Total - All NACE activities

The fact that a higher proportion of women work part time is important because part-time workers in most countries earn less per hour than full-time workers as Table 7 shows. The average figure for the EU as a whole is 92.8% but there are important differences. Some of these differences may be explained by something similar to the selection effect – in other words where there are small numbers working part-time, those doing so may not be typical of the whole workforce. This is likely to be the case for most those countries where part-time

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hourly earnings are higher than those for full-time workers. This is the case in Croatia, Hungary and Poland, which all have below average rates of part-time work – 9.7% in Croatia, 6.0% in Hungary and 8.3% in Poland. Luxembourg, however, is a clear exception. Part-timers earn slightly more than full-timers but while the proportion of part-time workers in the workforce is below the EU average it is not much lower – 17.4% compared with the EU average of 19.3%.

What is also striking is that the gap between full and part-time hourly earnings can vary substantially even between countries where the proportion of part-time employees is relatively high and broadly similar. For example, both Germany and the UK have a similar proportion of part-time employees 25.9% in Germany and 26.9% in the UK. However, while part-timers earn 79.3% of what full-times employees earn in Germany, the figure is only 73.7% in the UK. The divergence is even greater between Belgium, where 24.5% of all employees are part-timers, and Ireland, where 23.4% work part time. However, Irish part-timers only earn 71.0% of what full-timers earn, while in Belgium they earn 80.7%.

Table 7: Part-time earnings as percentage of full-time earnings 2010 (Euros)

Country	Part-time	Full-time	Part-time as %age of full-time
European Union (27 countries)	13.19	14.21	92.8%
Euro area (17 countries)	13.72	15.63	87.8%
Croatia	7.35	6.29	116.9%
Hungary	4.83	4.56	105.9%
Poland	5.32	5.10	104.3%
Luxembourg	22.04	21.94	100.5%
Portugal	7.04	7.76	90.7%
Switzerland	24.16	26.75	90.3%
France	14.81	16.63	89.1%
Slovenia	8.09	9.12	88.7%
Lithuania	3.05	3.52	86.6%
Slovakia	4.14	4.78	86.6%
Spain	10.14	11.81	85.9%
Finland	15.76	18.47	85.3%
Estonia	4.15	4.95	83.8%
Czech Republic	4.43	5.30	83.6%
Sweden	14.48	17.42	83.1%
Denmark	22.33	27.54	81.1%
Belgium	16.00	19.82	80.7%
Austria	12.43	15.58	79.8%
Germany	14.37	18.11	79.3%
Norway	23.16	29.33	79.0%
Netherlands	15.26	19.37	78.8%
Latvia	3.12	3.99	78.2%
Iceland	9.29	12.08	76.9%
Romania	2.03	2.69	75.5%
United Kingdom	13.28	18.02	73.7%
FYR Macedonia	2.10	2.85	73.7%
Malta	6.42	8.84	72.6%

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Bulgaria	1.49	2.09	71.3%
Ireland	16.56	23.33	71.0%
Italy	10.69	15.09	70.8%
Cyprus	7.20	12.29	58.6%
Turkey*	51.22	3.63	1411.0%

* Although these are the figures provided by Eurostat it seems impossible that they are correct
Hourly earnings by economic activity and contractual working time (enterprises with 10 employed persons or more) [earn_ses10_hftpt]
Industry, construction and services (except public administration, defence, compulsory social security)

Other objective factors

These differences indicate that the rate of women's employment and the extent of part-time work cannot alone explain the gender pay gap. There are many other factors at work, in particular the sectors where women work. As the Belgian presidency report states:

"Differences in the sectors of activity and occupations also explain the pay discrepancies between women and men. Generally speaking, the sectors accounting for the largest share of women's employment are education, health and social work, the retail trade, the catering industry, etc., while the sectors accounting for the largest share of men's employment are construction, transport and communication, education, etc. This horizontal segregation gives rise to stark differences in the average earnings of women and men."

This horizontal segregation affects the gender pay gap because:

"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's employment is concentrated in low paying sectors.

In addition, there are important differences in the professional life cycle of women and men. 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

Unexplained factors

Nor is this the end of the 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.

Finally, 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 so-called “unexplained” or “unobserved” factors such as discrimination is shown by one of the indicators used in the Belgian Presidency report. It looked the gender pay in 15 countries (Belgium, France, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Sweden, Slovenia, Slovakia and Spain) and took account, as far as the data was 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 gender pay gap in the public sector

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.

Table 8 sets out the gender pay gap in the public sector. In 2010, the year for which a larger number of countries have provided data, it ranges from 21.5% in Bulgaria to -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 (see Table 2). 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 has closed from around 6 to around 4 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, in most countries the gender pay gap in the public sector has been falling, or at least not increasing 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%.

However, there are some countries, where the public sector pay gap has increased, notably Romania – up from 10.9% in 2007 to 22.8% in 2011, Hungary – up from 15.9% in 2007 to 20.5% in 2011 and Latvia – up from 12.7% in 2007 to 17.5% in 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.

Table 8: 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	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
Iceland	:	:	:	:	:

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]

The situation in the two states that are not covered by Eurostat, where information is available is as follows. It is important to note that these figures are based on monthly rather than hourly earnings.

Table 8A: Gender pay gap in the public sector including public administration

Country	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Armenia	33%	33.8%	33.6%	33.2%	32.7%
Georgia		54.5%	50.2%	47.9%	47.1%

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.

Electricity and gas

Table 9 set out the gender pay gap in electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply and compares it with the gender pay gap for the whole economy (excluding public administration, defence and compulsory social security). There are no figures for Greece, Iceland or Ireland. Across the EU as a whole 23.2% of electricity and gas the workforce was female in 2010.

The gender pay gap in this industry 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.

Table 9: Gender pay gap in electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply as compared with overall gender pay gap (whole economy excluding public administration)

Country	Electricity, gas and steam	Whole economy except public administration 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
<i>Austria (2010)</i>	23.6	24.0	-0.4
Belgium	29.3	10.2	19.1
Bulgaria	19.6	13.0	6.6
<i>Croatia (2010)</i>	15.2	-1.8	17.0
Cyprus	18.2	16.4	1.8
Czech Republic	14.2	21.0	-6.8
Denmark	18.6	16.4	2.2
Estonia	19.3	27.3	-8.0
Finland	19.6	18.2	1.4
France	7.1	14.7	-7.6
Germany	21.4	22.2	-0.8
Greece	:	:	
Hungary	17.0	18.0	-1.0
Iceland	:	:	
Ireland	:	:	
<i>Italy (2010)</i>	8.2	5.3	2.9
Latvia	21.0	13.6	7.4
Lithuania	13.1	11.9	1.2
Luxembourg	4.2	8.7	-4.5
<i>FYR Macedonia (2010)</i>	2.7	5.5	-2.8
Malta	13.9	12.9	1.0
Netherlands	48.3	17.9	30.4
Norway	9.4	15.9	-6.5
Poland	9.4	4.5	4.9
Portugal	12.6	12.5	0.1
Romania	2.7	12.1	-9.4
Slovakia	9.4	20.5	-11.1

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Slovenia	2.9	2.3	0.6
Spain	14	16.2	-2.2
Sweden	9.7	15.8	-6.1
Switzerland	16.1	17.9	-1.8
<i>Turkey (2010)</i>	4.9	4.0	0.9
United Kingdom	27.3	20.1	7.2

The situation in the states that are not covered by Eurostat, where information is available is as follows. It is important to note that these figures are based on monthly rather than hourly earnings.

Table 9A: Gender pay gap in electricity, gas and steam as compared with overall gender pay gap

Country	Electricity, gas and steam	Whole economy 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
Azerbaijan	15%	48.9%	-33.9%
Moldova	8.5%	12.2%	-3.7%
Ukraine	20.8%	25.1%	-4.3%

Water and sewerage

Table 10 sets out the gender pay gap in water and sewerage and compares it with the whole economy. As with electricity and gas, there are no figures for Greece, Iceland or Ireland.

The percentage of female employees in the EU as a whole is 21.3%, very similar to that for the electricity and gas industry and the gender pay gap ranges from 23.6% in Austria (2010 figures) to -22.2% in FYR Macedonia and -19.7% in Luxembourg.

However, 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. 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.

Table 10: Gender gap in water and sewerage as compared with overall gender pay gap (whole economy excluding public administration)

Country	Water and sewerage 2011	Whole economy except public administration 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
<i>Austria (2010)</i>	23.6	24.0	-0.4
Belgium	-0.8	10.2	-11.0
Bulgaria	2.8	13.0	-10.2
<i>Croatia (2010)</i>	6.5	-1.8	8.3
Cyprus	-6.3	16.4	-22.7
Czech Republic	-3.9	21.0	-24.9
Denmark	8.9	16.4	-7.5
Estonia	14.1	27.3	-13.2
Finland	2.5	18.2	-15.7
France	-12.3	14.7	-27.0
Germany	4.7	22.2	-17.5
Greece	:	:	
Hungary	-0.9	18.0	-18.9
Iceland	:	:	
Ireland	:	:	
<i>Italy (2010)</i>	8.2	5.3	2.9
Latvia	12.5	13.6	-1.1
Lithuania	6.6	11.9	-5.3
Luxembourg	-19.7	8.7	-28.4
<i>FYR Macedonia (2010)</i>	-22.2	5.5	-27.7
Malta	-5.0	12.9	-17.9
Netherlands	15.8	17.9	-2.1
Norway	-0.5	15.9	-16.4
Poland	1.6	4.5	-2.9
Portugal	-9.5	12.5	-22.0
Romania	2.7	12.1	-9.4
Slovakia	-2.1	20.5	-22.6
Slovenia	-17.2	2.3	-19.5
Spain	17.5	16.2	1.3
Sweden	-0.2	15.8	-16.0
Switzerland	8.8	17.9	-9.1
<i>Turkey (2010)</i>	4.5	4.0	0.5
United Kingdom	-6.6	20.1	-26.7

The situation in the states that are not covered by Eurostat, where information is available is as follows. It is important to note that these figures are based on monthly rather than hourly earnings.

Table 10A: Gender pay gap in water supply as compared with overall gender pay gap

Country	Water supply	Whole economy 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
Azerbaijan	30.6%	48.9%	-18.3%
Moldova	8.5%	12.2%	-3.7%

Table 10B: Gender pay gap in water and electricity supply as compared with overall gender pay gap

Country	Water and electricity supply	Whole economy 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
Armenia	24.0%	35.3%	-11.3%

Education

Education is a much larger employer of women than either electricity and gas or water and sewerage, employing some 8.8 million women across the EU. 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 11 sets out the gender pay gap in education in 2011 and as for other industries, there are no figures for Greece, Iceland and Ireland. Turkey, which has the smallest proportion of women employed – 50.7%, is a clear outlier: the figures show a gender pay gap of 70.5%, meaning that women’s earnings are less than a third of men’s. Apart from Turkey the gender pay gap ranges from 27.8% in Austria (2010 figures) to minus 4.7% in Malta.

It is also striking that in the majority of countries – 22 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.

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Table 11: Gender pay gap in education 2011 as compared with overall gender pay gap (whole economy excluding public administration).

Country	Education 2011	Whole economy except public administration 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
<i>Austria (2010)</i>	27.8	24.0	3.8
Belgium	3.2	10.2	-7.0
Bulgaria	11.1	13.0	-1.9
<i>Croatia (2010)</i>	21.1	-1.8	22.9
Cyprus	11.0	16.4	-5.4
Czech Republic	21.9	21.0	0.9
Denmark	8.5	16.4	-7.9
Estonia	25.3	27.3	-2.0
Finland	11.1	18.2	-7.1
France	12.4	14.7	-2.3
Germany	9.2	22.2	-13.0
Greece	:	:	
Hungary	17.6	18.0	-0.4
Iceland	:	:	
Ireland	:	:	
Italy	13.6	5.8	7.8
<i>Latvia (2010)</i>	0.8	15.5	-14.7
Lithuania	-1.8	11.9	-13.7
Luxembourg	6.8	8.7	-1.9
<i>FYR Macedonia (2010)</i>	1.6	5.5	-3.9
Malta	-4.7	12.9	-17.6
Netherlands	19.3	17.9	1.4
Norway	8.6	15.9	-7.3
Poland	1.0	4.5	-3.5
Portugal	10.8	12.5	-1.7
Romania	13.5	12.1	1.4
Slovakia	15.8	20.5	-4.7
Slovenia	9.3	2.3	7.0
Spain	10.5	16.2	-5.7
Sweden	11.8	15.8	-4.0
Switzerland	13.0	17.9	-4.9
<i>Turkey (2010)</i>	70.5	4.0	66.5
United Kingdom	18.3	20.1	-1.8

The situation in the six states that are not covered by Eurostat, where information is available is as follows. It is important to note that these figures are based on monthly rather than hourly earnings. In all cases they show, as for the countries covered by the Eurostat figures, that the gender pay gap in education is smaller than in the economy as a whole.

Table 11A: Gender pay gap in education as compared with overall gender pay gap

Country	Education	Whole economy 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
Armenia	18.7%	35.3%	-16.6%
Azerbaijan	31.2%	48.9%	-17.7%
Georgia	21.0%	40.3%	-19.3%
Israel	31.0%	33.9%	-2.9%
Moldova	2.8%	12.2%	-9.4%
Ukraine	10.2%	25.1%	-14.9%

Health and social work

Health and social work is an even more important employer of women than education. 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 12 sets out the gender pay gap figures for health and social work, including Ireland, although not Greece, Iceland, FYR Macedonia or Turkey. The gender pay gap ranges from 41.5% in Cyprus to 5.1% in Luxembourg and in contrast to education, in health and social care the gender pay gap is in most cases greater than the gender pay gap in the economy as a whole – from 29 countries for which the figures are available, 17 had a larger gender pay gap in health and social care 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.

Table 12: Gender pay gap in human health and social work activities as compared with overall gender pay gap (whole economy excluding public administration)

Country	Human health and social work activities 2011	Whole economy except public administration 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
<i>Austria (2010)</i>	12.0	24.0	-12.0
Belgium	9.0	10.2	-1.2
Bulgaria	26.1	13.0	13.1
<i>Croatia (2010)</i>	22.7	-1.8	24.5
Cyprus	41.5	16.4	25.1
Czech Republic	27.6	21.0	6.6
Denmark	10.2	16.4	-6.2
Estonia	30.3	27.3	3.0
Finland	17.6	18.2	-0.6
France	18.4	14.7	3.7
Germany	24.7	22.2	2.5
Greece	:	:	
Hungary	16.4	18.0	-1.6

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Iceland	:	:	
Ireland (2010)	16.8	13.9	2.9
Italy	24.3	5.8	18.5
Latvia	9.7	13.6	-3.9
Lithuania	22.8	11.9	10.9
Luxembourg	5.1	8.7	-3.6
Malta	11.2	12.9	-1.7
Netherlands	16.4	17.9	-1.5
Norway	12.7	15.9	-3.2
Poland	17.8	4.5	13.3
Portugal	35.7	12.5	23.2
Romania	10.7	12.1	-1.4
Slovakia	24.1	20.5	3.6
Slovenia	16.9	2.3	14.6
Spain	24.2	16.2	8.0
Sweden	15.2	15.8	-0.6
Switzerland	19.5	17.9	1.6
United Kingdom	29.3	20.1	9.2

The situation in the states that are not covered by Eurostat, where information is available is as follows. 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 more mixed than in education, with half the states showing a smaller gap, and half a larger.

Table 12A: Gender pay gap in health and social work as compared with overall gender pay gap

Country	Health and social work	Whole economy 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
Armenia	35.1%	35.3%	-0.2%
Azerbaijan	58.9%	48.9%	10.0%
Georgia	37.5%	40.3%	-2.8%
Israel	42.1%	33.9%	8.2%
Moldova	14.8%	12.2%	2.6%
Ukraine	10.0%	25.1%	-15.1%

Public administration

As already noted, pay in public administration, defence and compulsory social security is not automatically collected and analysed by Eurostat (see below for explanation). This means that many fewer countries provide details. As a result, in addition to Greece, Iceland and Turkey, details for other countries – Austria, Belgium, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta and Portugal – are missing from Table 13, which sets out the gender pay gap for public administration.

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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 rest of the economy and Poland where it is 12.3 percentage points greater but in 18 out of the 24 states providing this information the gap between men's and women's earnings is smaller in public administration than elsewhere.

Table 12: Gender pay gap in public administration as compared with overall gender pay gap (whole economy excluding public administration)

Country	Public administration 2011	Whole economy except public administration 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
Austria	:		:
Belgium	:		:
Bulgaria	10.3	13.0	-2.7
<i>Croatia (2010)</i>	20.3	-1.8	22.1
Cyprus	16.3	16.4	-0.1
Czech Republic	14.3	21.0	-6.7
Denmark	8.7	16.4	-7.7
Estonia	10.2	27.3	-17.1
Finland	19.6	18.2	1.4
France	11.6	14.7	-3.1
Germany	8.4	22.2	-13.8
Greece	:	:	:
Hungary	3.9	18.0	-14.1
Iceland	:	:	:
<i>Ireland (2010 figures)</i>	7.0	13.9	-6.9
Italy	:		:
Latvia	-4.3	13.6	-17.9
Lithuania	6.2	11.9	-5.7
Luxembourg	:		:
<i>FYR Macedonia (2010)</i>	4.6	5.5	0.9
Malta	:		:
Netherlands	11.8	17.9	-6.1
Norway	18.0	15.9	2.1
Poland	16.8	4.5	12.3
Portugal	:		:
Romania	2.4	12.1	-9.7
Slovakia	19.1	20.5	-1.4
Slovenia	4.7	2.3	2.4
Spain	10.1	16.2	-6.1
Sweden	9.0	15.8	-6.8
Switzerland	17.2	17.9	-0.7
Turkey	:		
United Kingdom	16.1	20.1	-4.0

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The situation in the states that are not covered by Eurostat, where information is available is as follows. Here the position is clearer. In all six states the gender pay gap is smaller than in the economy as a whole. It is important to note in making comparisons with the Eurostat statistics that these figures are based on monthly rather than hourly earnings.

Table 12A: Gender pay gap in public administration as compared with overall gender pay gap

Country	Public administration	Whole economy 2011	Difference (minus means gender gap is less than overall)
Armenia	29.2%	35.3%	-6.1
Azerbaijan	36.6%	48.9%	-12.3
Georgia	12.4%	40.3%	-27.9
Israel	28.5%	33.9%	-5.4
Moldova	10.7%	12.2%	-1.5
Ukraine	13.6%	25.1%	-11.5

National local and regional government

A small number of countries provide an indication of the gender pay gap in different parts of public administration, with separate figures for national, local and sometimes regional government. The available figures are set out in Table 13. The differences are almost certainly partially explained by the varying roles of different levels of government, but the overall small size of the gender pay gap in Norway is striking.

Gender pay gap in differing levels of government: 2011

Country	Central level	Regional/ county level	Local/ municipal level
Denmark	15.0%	24.8%	9.6%
Finland	14.4%		14.6%
Norway	8.4%		7.1%
Slovakia	19.4%		13.5%
Sweden	9%	26%	6%

In addition, as part of its attempt to reduce the gender pay gap, the European Social Dialogue Committee for the Central Government Administrations, in which EPSU is the centrally involved is currently collecting data in the gender pay gap in national governments. As well as looking at the overall figures, the survey is also looking at the gender pay gap by educational qualifications and position in management. So far there is data from 10 states.

Other issues

Problems with the data

The bulk of this report relies on data from Eurostat, although the LRD also examined data from national statistical offices, particularly for the non-EU states.

From the point of view of the public sector, the main weakness of the Eurostat data, which is generally not corrected in national data, is the absence of figures on the gender pay gap in public administration, defence and compulsory social security. This is a crucial part of the public sector and it makes up a significant proportion of overall employment in the economy, particularly for women.

Around five million women work in public administration in the EU, and they account for around half (51.1%) of those employed in this area. In most countries, those working in public administration, defence and compulsory social security make up between six and ten percent of the total workforce and in a majority, they account for an even larger proportion of women who work, for example 13.9% of all women working in France, 11.1 % of women working in Spain, 10.5% of women working in Germany and 9.0% of women working in Poland.

Leaving this important group out of the calculations clearly distorts the position and makes it more difficult to obtain a clear understanding of the gender pay gap.

However, 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

This omission has potentially damaging implications for policy formation, as without adequate data it is impossible either to establish the extent of the problem or to measure progress towards overcoming them. Figures for the overall gender pay gap including public administration for those countries which publish them are set out in Table 14.

Table 14: 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

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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
<i>FYR Macedonia</i>				6.5	
Poland	14.2	11.1	8.0	4.9	4.9
Slovenia	4.9	4.1	-0.3	0.7	1.9
<i>Croatia</i>				-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)

The other main problem with the data, particularly at national level is the lack of a gender breakdown, particularly for pay in the public sector. Italy, Austria, Portugal and Greece, are all countries which do not provide a gender breakdown covering the public sector.

The impact of public spending cuts on the overall gender pay gap

The recent 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 2. These show that for the EU as a whole the process of closing the gender pay gap has at least stalled with a slight increase from 16.1% to 16.2%. Of the 27 countries reporting, in 10 the gender pay gap had increased, and in five there had been no change.

It is particularly striking that many of those states where the 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.

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, it is not surprising if the gender pay gap is increasing because of public sector cuts. 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 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.

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