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Subject: Strengthening the commitment and stepping up action to close the gender pay gap, and the review of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action
- Draft Council Conclusions

Delegations will find attached the final version of the Belgian Presidency's report entitled "The gender pay gap in the Member States of the European Union: quantitative and qualitative indicators".

**The gender pay gap
in the Member States
of the European Union:
quantitative and qualitative indicators**

Belgian Presidency report 2010



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Country abbreviations

AT =	Austria
BE =	Belgium
BG =	Bulgaria
CY =	Cyprus
CZ =	Czech Republic
DE =	Germany
DK =	Denmark
EE =	Estonia
ES =	Spain
FI =	Finland
FR =	France
GR =	Greece
HU =	Hungary
IE =	Ireland
IT =	Italy
LT =	Lithuania
LU =	Luxembourg
LV =	Latvia
MT =	Malta
NL =	Netherlands
NO =	Norway
PL =	Poland
PT =	Portugal
RO =	Romania
SE =	Sweden
SI =	Slovenia
SK =	Slovakia
EU =	European Union
UK =	United Kingdom

GENERAL INTRODUCTION

As part of the review of the implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action under the last Belgian Presidency of the European Union in 2001, the Council adopted conclusions on combating the gender pay gap, and took note of a report by the Belgian Presidency containing information on pay inequalities and defining the following six quantitative indicators and three qualitative indicators;

- (1) Ratio for all employees;
- (2) Ratio for the total sum of wages;
- (3) Ratio for part-time work;
- (4) Ratio by age and education;
- (5) Wage penalties in female-concentrated occupations;
- (6) Decomposition of the hourly pay gap between men and women using the Oaxaca technique;
- (7) Indicator on laws, regulations and measures to combat discrimination and inequalities at work;
- (8) Indicator of the influence of public authorities on wage bargaining;
- (9) Indicator relating to part-time work and temporary career breaks.

In the context of its Presidency in 2010, Belgium would like to take stock of the progress made towards the elimination of the gender pay gap. The aim of this report is to provide an overview of the situation regarding the pay gap in the European Union, on the basis of nine indicators approved by the Council of Ministers of the European Union in 2001, and to propose the updating of those indicators to take account of statistical developments and changes to legislation since then.

Without giving all the results of the research away at once, one figure is immediately striking: the gender pay gap nowadays still averages 18 % in the European Union.

The pay gap is partly explained by the persistence of pay discrimination for equal work or work of equal value, despite the fact that European legislation combating this type of gender-based discrimination has existed since the European Community was created, and despite the widespread adoption of national legislation in this area.

This phenomenon is continuing, even though women's employment rates, job opportunities and levels of education have increased in all States, and despite the fact that girls do better than boys at school and make up the majority of those completing higher education.

The pay gap issue is complex, and has many causes. The aim of this report is to highlight the factors explaining the pay gap in the European Union. Those factors mainly reflect inequalities between men and women on the labour market. Eliminating the pay gap, and consequently eliminating professional inequalities between men and women, remains a major challenge, not only in order to achieve the objective of equality between men and women, but also to ensure smart, sustainable and inclusive growth and to attain the European Union's objectives of economic and social cohesion and a high level of employment.

For this reason, the challenge of eliminating the pay gap is a priority in the programme of the Belgian Presidency of the Council of the European Union in 2010. The ambition of the Belgian Presidency is to provide new impetus in this area, with the aim of strengthening commitments and action by all key players in the new context created, in particular, by the implementation of the Europe 2020 strategy, the new European Commission strategy on gender equality (2010-2015), and of course follow-up to the Beijing Platform for Action.

This is the background to the task entrusted to the Department of Applied Economics of the Free University of Brussels (DULBEA)¹ of drawing up this report on the pay gap in the European Union. DULBEA had already cooperated closely in the drawing up of the Belgian Presidency report on pay inequalities in 2001, which led to the definition of the nine pay gap indicators. It also developed a wide-ranging research programme at both Belgian and European level on inequalities and pay gaps.

It should be mentioned that since 2007 Belgium has published an annual national report on the gender pay gap using the six quantitative indicators defined in 2001, which has helped to show their relevance and feasibility.

This report is in two parts: the first covers the analysis and updating of the quantitative indicators, and the second covers data collection and the updating of the three qualitative indicators focusing on public policies aiming to eliminate pay gaps.

The first part of the report consists of three chapters. First, the pay gap is considered as a whole. Then the pay gap is analysed, taking account of a number of important factors which reinforce inequalities between women and men, such as part-time work, age, the level of training, horizontal and vertical segregation and the personal circumstances of workers in terms of their marital status, family situation or country of birth. Finally, the pay gap is broken down to explain pay inequalities in the light of the various factors referred to above, and to measure what proportion of the pay gap is explained by observable factors, and what proportion is not thus explained.

The updating of the quantitative indicators is based on the following principles:

First, developments as regards Eurostat's pay statistics since 2001 have been incorporated into the list of indicators: this includes both the method used to calculate the pay gap as a structural indicator, and the statistical sources used.

¹ Leila Maron, researcher, Danièle Meulders, Professor, Síle O'Dorchai, Professor, Robert Plasman, Professor and Natalie Simeu, researcher.

The second principle is to question the relevance of the set of indicators from 2001: do they still reflect what they are meant to measure, are they still relevant in 2010, are there significant gaps and how should they be filled?

The third principle concerns the availability of data and the feasibility of calculations: the indicators which are already being calculated every year and are therefore available should automatically be kept in the set. Those indicators should also be kept which are achievable but where their calculation requires an additional effort. Finally, there are indicators which are neither available nor calculable given current data and which would require the collection of further data. Such indicators are only kept if they provide significant added value.

The second part of the report analyses the legislation, policies and measures being implemented within the Member States to combat pay gaps. That part of the report was drafted on the basis of replies to a questionnaire sent to the Member States and European social partners, and on analysis of the relevant literature, which was mainly produced by the European Commission and networks of experts in the field of gender equality. The aim of this updating of the indicators is to simplify them and to put more emphasis on the importance of adopting specific and diversified strategies to combat the pay gap effectively, and also on the significant role played by social partners and bodies promoting gender equality.

PART I: QUANTITATIVE INDICATORS

I. Introduction

On average women earn less than men. In statistics, this data can in principle be addressed in two ways: in its adjusted or its unadjusted form. In the first case, an attempt is made not to take into account all those differences in earnings which correspond to particular characteristics of male or female workers, and to represent pay discrimination in as net a fashion as possible. In the second case, differences in earnings are represented in their gross form. In this option, the underlying idea is that even explicable differences in earnings which correspond to objective characteristics are the result of inequality of opportunities on the labour market. In principle, the unadjusted pay gap is always used as a basis. This option was the basis for the set of indicators developed and approved by the Council of Ministers of the European Union in 2001 (see Annex 1). Eurostat's structural indicator is also unadjusted.

Most of the quantitative indicators in this report have been developed in a similar fashion, i.e. based on the difference between the average gross hourly earnings of (certain categories of) women and men, expressed as a percentage of the gross hourly earnings of men. Expressed as a formula, this gives:

$$\frac{M-F}{M} \times 100$$

(where F = average gross earnings of women and M = average gross earnings of men)

In the 2001 indicators, the pay gap is expressed in the form F/M. By using this new formula, we want to adopt the most current method for expressing the pay gap.

By calculating the pay gap for certain categories of women and men, it is possible to gain insight into the impact of particular factors such as age or part-time work. The parallel nature of the indicators also makes them easier to understand.

Indicators 2 and 7 are an exception to this principle. Indicator 2 calculates the total pay gap, ideally on the basis of complete data and not a sample. This is then not average earnings, but the total sum of all earnings taken together. This is a very eloquent and reliable indicator. Indicator 7 may be seen as an adjusted pay gap: it examines the part of the pay gap which may be attributed to known factors, and the part which remains unexplained. This indicator also studies the relative weight of the different factors.

The analyses are always carried out on the basis of *gross* earnings. In the 2001 indicators, the pay gap is calculated on the basis of gross earnings (using the SES) on the one hand, and on the basis of net earnings (using the ECHP) on the other (see below). The calculation of the pay gap on the basis of net earnings produces different results from the calculation on the basis of gross earnings. Net earnings partly reflect a country's policy on tax and social security, and variations on the basis of marital status and family situation (Plasman et al, 2001). The *difference* between the pay gap calculated on the basis of net and gross earnings is very relevant from the point of view of gender. It reveals the extent to which a country's distribution mechanisms increase or decrease gender inequality. However relevant this question may be, it does not involve the pay gap itself. Moreover, it needs to be asked for the different aspects of income². Also, indicators based on net earnings are particularly useful for making comparisons between years, but they are less appropriate for comparisons between different countries (Plasman et al, 2001). Preference is therefore given to calculation based on gross earnings, even though it is possible to calculate the pay gap on the basis of net earnings.

Furthermore, the choice of working with *hourly* earnings was not made at random. It leads to an adjustment of the figures, by neutralising the differences in terms of the average working hours of women and men. The section on indicator 1 will look at this aspect in more detail. A calculation is also made of the extent to which the pay gap increases, when such differences in working time are also included in the calculation.

² A similar exercise was carried out in the project "Belgian Gender and Income Analysis" (BGIA). Meulders and O'Dorchai (2010). *Gender and income: analysis and development of indicators*. Brussels: Institute for the equality of women and men.

Most of the indicators are calculated on the basis of the *Structure of Earnings Survey* (SES) rather than on the basis of the *Statistics on Income and Living Conditions* (SILC) - both surveys are organised at European level and provide data which may be used to compare the pay gap. The 2001 Belgian Presidency report had already highlighted the advantages and disadvantages of each database (at the time, they were the SES and the ECHP, the *European Community Household Panel*). Those observations still apply, nine years later.

The Structure of Earnings Survey (SES) is a survey of local enterprises or units every four years. The data on pay is very reliable, since the gross earnings of employees are accurately transmitted. However, it does not cover all sectors, since it mainly concerns sectors C to K and sectors M, N and O of the NACE Rev.1.1 nomenclature. The public administration sector (NACE section L) is not currently covered in all countries³. For sectors M, N and O the distinction between the private sector and the public sector is made by using information about the public control and/or funding of the enterprise. For some indicators, we have also calculated the pay gap taking account of public administration, so as to see the extent to which the results change for the countries for which data are available: Estonia, Finland, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland, Romania, Slovakia, the United Kingdom, Sweden and the Netherlands. The SES at European level does not take into account those enterprises which employ fewer than 10 workers.

The SILC is a survey of households, which is both its strength and its weakness. It has the advantage of covering all sectors of employment. The main disadvantage is that the data on pay and income are obtained on the basis of declarations by the persons questioned, which is a source of imprecision.

³ The public administration sector is not available for Germany, Belgium, Bulgaria, Spain, France, Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal and the Czech Republic.

The Eurostat structural indicator is based on the SES methodology. The SES is organised every four years in a harmonised manner at European level, i.e. in 2002, 2006, 2010 and so on.

For the other years, national statistical institutes provide figures based on the SES survey - if it has been conducted - and/or based on other sources, on the basis of the SES-methodology. Belgium is one of the EU Member States which carries out an SES every year. This study only uses data from the 2006 SES; no estimate is made for missing sectors and small enterprises. Consequently, there may be some differences between these figures and the Eurostat figures.

An additional obstacle in the drafting of this report was the extent to which data was made available to the researchers. The Member States transmit certain indicators to Eurostat, but not all Member States make their microdata available. This is the case for Austria, Denmark, and Malta. Moreover, access to this data is regulated by legislation on the protection of private life in force in the Member States. Also, there are still some differences between the national surveys, and some survey questions are not used by some of the Member States. Consequently, it has not been possible to calculate all the indicators for all of the Member States. Whenever the researchers did not have data available to them, this is mentioned.

In line with the SES, the figures are limited to earnings in the strict sense of the term. Gross earnings do not in fact include the totality of remuneration, since they do not take into account non-wage benefits. Many benefits take the form of "perks": company cars, mobile phones, laptops, supplementary pensions, shares, luncheon vouchers, gift vouchers, subscriptions, etc. Such benefits, additional to the salary, may be said to represent the "invisible" part of the pay gap.

In practice, it is impossible to take these benefits into account since there is no inventory of all the various benefits which exist in the Member States, nor of their monetary worth. The SILC does cover some non-wage benefits but, for example as regards Belgium, the samples covered are relatively small and the differences between women and men in this area are not significant (Meulders and O'Dorchai, 2010).

First, the differences between countries are simply stated. Sometimes an attempt is made to explain them. Women's employment rate and rate of part-time work are significant elements in explaining differences between countries; they are reproduced in the indicators. The aim of the quantitative chapter is mainly to invite the Member States to examine their own situation, just as the aim of the qualitative chapter is the exchange of best practice.

Detailed data relating to the various quantitative indicators are available in the respective Annexes.

II. General gender pay gap indicators

Two indicators are calculated. The first indicator calculates the differences between the average gross earnings of women and men working full time and part time. After looking at all sectors together, we make a distinction between the public and private sectors. The impact of working time on the pay gap is also illustrated. For this indicator, the pay gap at European level is calculated as the weighted average of national pay gaps, taking account of the size of each country in terms of the number of employees. The second indicator calculates the share between men and women of the total sum of wages.

Indicator 1: Ratio for all employees

The pay gap is a key indicator on the list of Structural Indicators and is one of the indicators used for monitoring of the European Union's Lisbon Strategy and Employment Strategy. This is therefore a high-profile indicator. In 2007 Eurostat changed its calculation method. In 2001, the official indicator was the pay gap calculated on the basis of the gross monthly earnings of men and of women, working full time. It was therefore the first indicator on the 2001 list. In the context of the updating of the indicators, it is evident that this element needs to be adapted, so as to re-establish consistency between this list of indicators and the indicator used by Eurostat. The first indicator then becomes the pay gap calculated on the basis of the gross monthly earnings of men and of women, working full time and part time. The worth of this indicator lies in the fact that the earnings of part-time workers, who are mostly women, are included in the calculation.

1.1. Pay gap on the basis of hourly earnings

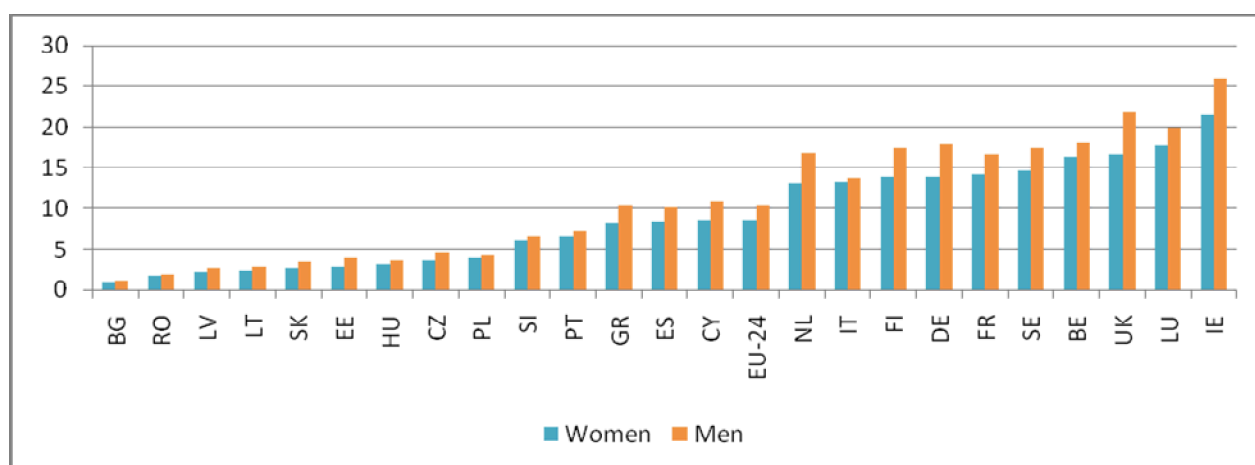
The gender pay gap in terms of gross hourly earnings is calculated for all full and part-time paid employees for all sectors. This is the global indicator which is most often used to compare the pay of women and men and to calculate the pay gap between them. It allows the situation in different countries to be compared, taking account of the large proportion of women working part time.

It provides a more representative indicator for a large number of women than is provided by a calculation based only on the monthly earnings of full-time workers. Part-time employees need to be taken into account because part-time work has become a major component, in some cases the dominant component, of female employment.

Gross hourly earnings levels of women and men vary very considerably from one country to another (Figure 1; see also Annex 2). The lowest hourly earnings are found in Bulgaria (about EUR 1) while the highest are found in Ireland (EUR 21,50 for women and EUR 25,90 for men). The average hourly earnings in 24 Member States of the European Union⁴ are EUR 8,58 for women and EUR 10,43 for men.

In general, earnings are relatively lower in the EU's new Member States, where women and men do not earn more than EUR 5 per hour (except in Cyprus), and in countries in the south of Europe where hourly earnings are between EUR 5 and EUR 10. The calculation of the pay gap is relative; hence the difference in pay levels is neutralised in comparisons between countries.

Figure 1: Average gross hourly earnings of women and men working full time and part time (in euro), countries arranged in increasing order of female earnings (2006)

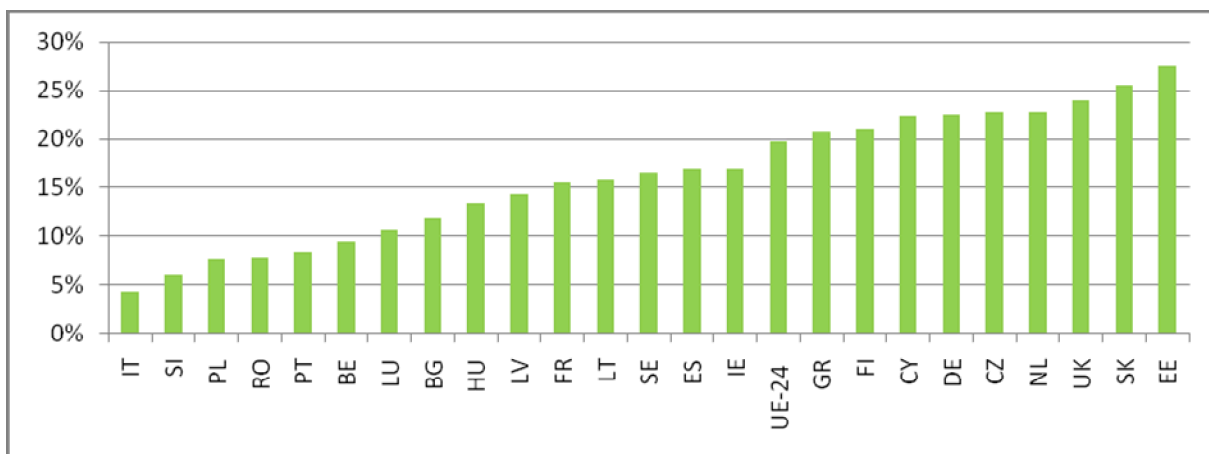


Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

⁴ Although all the Member States collect SES-data and deliver them to Eurostat, not all the existing SES-data are available at the Eurostat Safe Center for research purposes. Without Member States' explicit consent, data are not accessible. As a consequence, some indicators are not calculated for all the Member States. In principle, the figures relate to the 27 Member States; many of the indicators, however, could not be calculated for Austria, Denmark and Malta, as micro-data were not available to researchers about those countries.

The pay gap ranges from 4 % in Italy to 27 % in Estonia, and the European average is 20 % (Figure 2). In Italy, Slovenia, Poland, Romania, Portugal, Belgium, Luxembourg, Bulgaria, Hungary, Latvia, France and Lithuania the gap is less than 16 %. Sweden, Spain, Ireland, Greece and Finland have a pay gap which is nearer to the European average. Cyprus, Germany, the Czech Republic, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Slovakia and Estonia have a wide pay gap of over 22 %.

Figure 2: Average gross hourly pay gaps for women and men working full time and part time (in euro), countries arranged in increasing order of the pay gap (2006)



Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

These results are comparable to those found in other studies. Meulders et al (2005) showed on the basis of the 1995 SES that the pay gap varied between 11 % and 30 % and that it was widest in the United Kingdom, Cyprus, Estonia, Austria, Ireland, Germany, Greece and Spain, where it was wider than the European average for the then 25 Member States.

On the basis of SILC data for 2007, Maron (2010) also found wide pay gaps of over 20 % in Germany, the United Kingdom, the Czech Republic, Slovakia and Cyprus, and narrow pay gaps of less than 10 % in Poland and Italy.

If the pay gap is recalculated to include public administration, for countries where the data exist, it narrows in the majority of those countries (Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland, Sweden, Slovakia and Romania) and widens in two (Cyprus and Hungary).

Rubery et al. (2005), Plantenga and Remery (2006), Meulders et al. (2005), and Plasman et al. (2001) have shown on the basis of a variety of data sources that there is no overall downwards trend in pay gaps. This is confirmed by recent figures published by Eurostat, which show the evolution of pay gaps between 2002 and 2008 on the basis of the SES methodology (Table 1)⁵.

It seems that these gender pay gaps are continuing, despite the changes seen in recent years: an increase in the female employment rate, an increase in job opportunities for women, and an increase in women's education levels, which in many countries equal or even exceed those of men. The data do not show any downwards evolution during the period under consideration in terms of the European average, which remained at 18 % throughout. This has also been noted in other countries such as Austria, Germany and Sweden, and to a lesser extent in Belgium, Finland and Hungary where the pay gap narrowed by less than one percentage point between 2002/2006 and 2008. In Romania, Slovakia, the United Kingdom, Bulgaria, Greece, Spain, Latvia and Denmark, the narrowing was by between seven and two percentage points. In the remaining countries, the pay gap widened over this period, with the increase ranging from one percentage point to nine percentage points in the case of Lithuania.

⁵ The SES is organised every four years in a harmonised manner at European level (Regulation 530/1999/EC), i.e. in 2002, 2006, 2010 and so on. For the other years, national statistical institutes provide figures based on the SES - if it has been conducted - and/or based on other sources. Belgium is one of the few EU Member States which carries out an SES every year. In this study, only data from the 2006 SES is used; there might be slight differences between these calculations and Eurostat data because of adjustments to the figures, data being rendered anonymous, or the analysis method. There are also differences in terms of availability: Eurostat's safe centre does not have all the SES databases of the Member States.

Table 1: Evolution of gaps in the average gross hourly earnings of women and men between 2002 and 2008

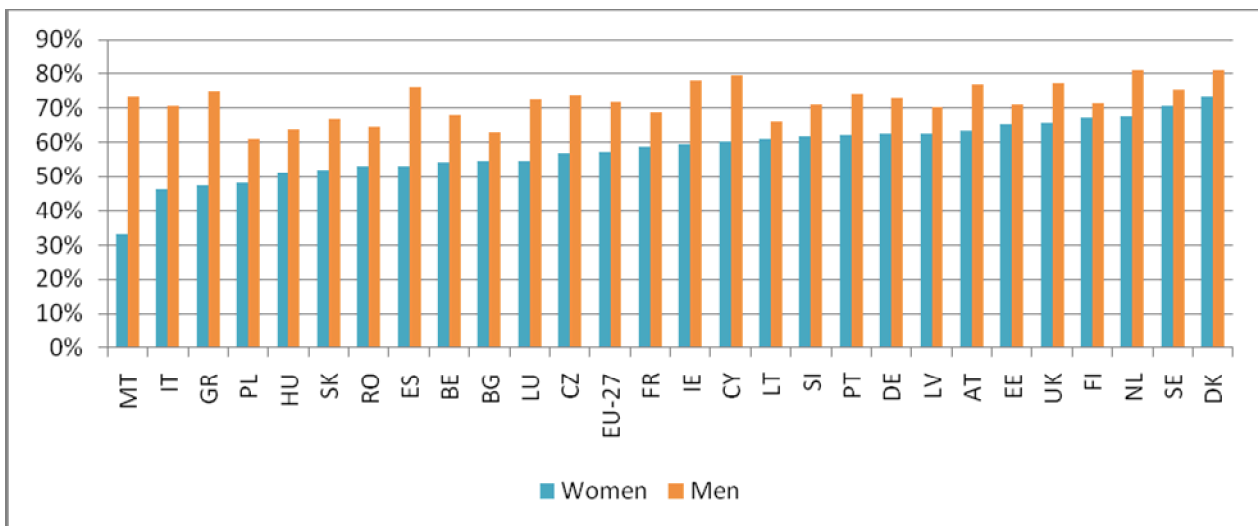
	2002	2006	2007	2008
EU 27	n/a	18 %	18 %	18 %
AT	n/a	26 %	26 %	26 %
BE	n/a	10 %	9 %	9 %
BG	19 %	12 %	12 %	14 %
CY	23 %	22 %	23 %	22 %
CZ	22 %	23 %	24 %	26 %
DE	n/a	23 %	23 %	23 %
DK	n/a	18 %	18 %	17 %
EE	n/a	30 %	31 %	n/a
ES	20 %	18 %	17 %	17 %
FI	n/a	21 %	20 %	20 %
FR	n/a	15 %	17 %	18 %
GR	26 %	21 %	22 %	22 %
HU	19 %	14 %	16 %	18 %
IE	15 %	17 %	17 %	n/a
IT	n/a	4 %	5 %	5 %
LT	13 %	17 %	20 %	22 %
LU	n/a	11 %	13 %	12 %
LV	n/a	15 %	15 %	13 %
MT	n/a	5 %	8 %	9 %
NL	19 %	24 %	24 %	20 %
PL	8 %	8 %	8 %	10 %
PT	n/a	8 %	8 %	9 %
RO	16 %	8 %	13 %	9 %
SE	n/a	17 %	18 %	17 %
SI	6 %	8 %	8 %	9 %
SK	28 %	26 %	24 %	21 %
UK	27 %	24 %	21 %	21 %
Note: n/a = not available				

Source: EUROSTAT, Structure of Earnings Survey methodology

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 (European Commission, 2009). This is confirmed when female employment rates and pay gaps are compared.

The following figure shows the employment rates of women and men aged between 15 and 64 (Figure 3; see also Annex 3). Female employment rates vary greatly from one country to another, from less than 50 % in Malta, Italy and Greece to more than 70 % in Sweden and Denmark. In 2006, 13 of the 27 EU Member States met one of the objectives set by the Lisbon European Council, that the employment rate for women should be 60 % in 2010. In all countries, female employment rates are consistently lower than male ones. In Europe the difference is 14,3 percentage points.

Figure 3: Employment rates for women and men, countries arranged in increasing order of the female employment rate (2006)

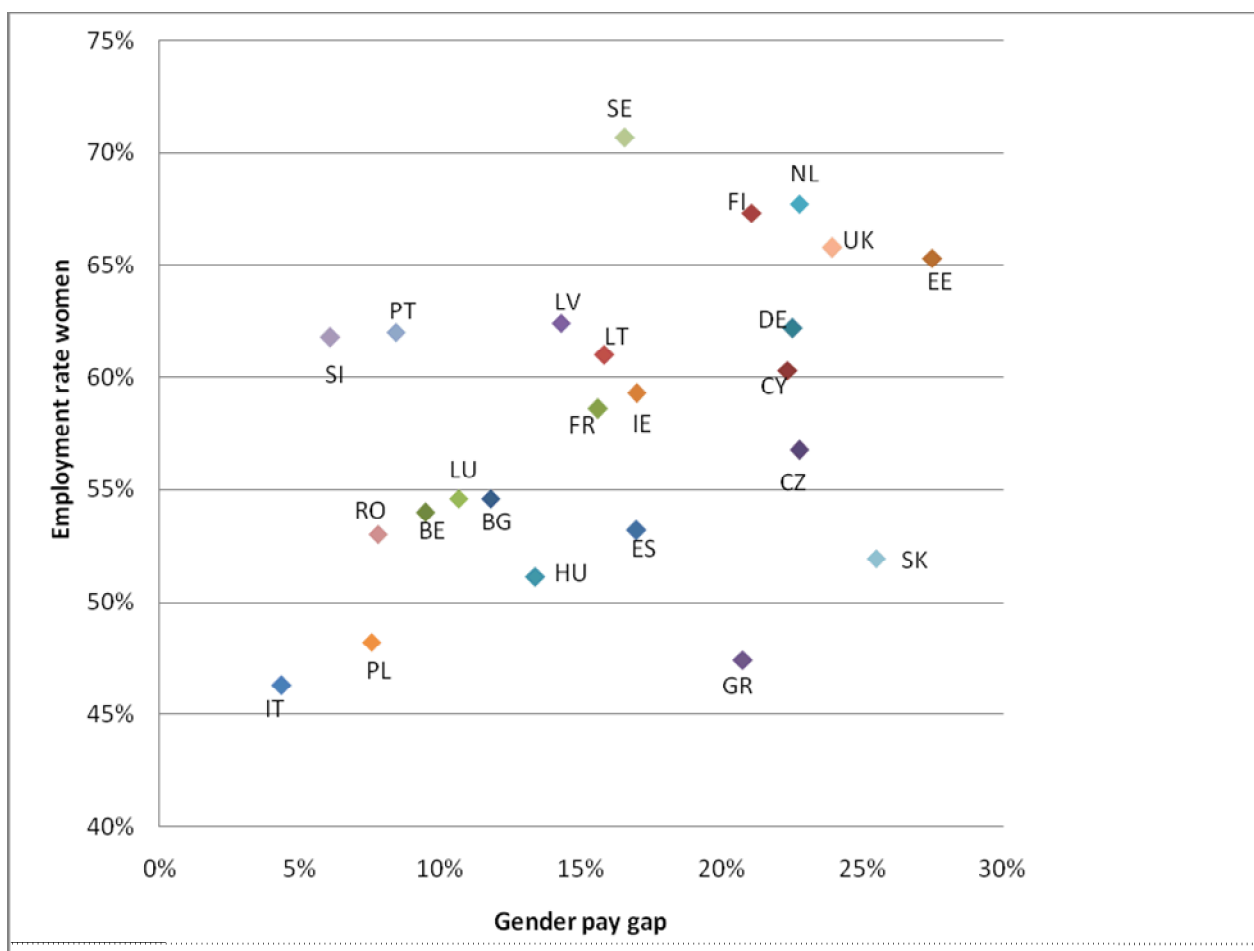


Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

The gross gender pay gap generally increases with the female employment rate (Figure 4). Countries such as Italy and Poland have relatively low female employment rates of less than 50 %, and have a pay gap of less than 10 %. At the other extreme are countries such as Finland, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Estonia where the female employment rate is over 65 % and the gender pay gap is over 20 %.

The case of the United Kingdom and the Netherlands may partially be explained by part-time work, which represents a significant proportion of women's employment, and which may be associated with lower average earnings for women, increasing the pay gap. In Finland and in the other Nordic countries, the health, social care and education sectors have made the greatest contribution to the increase in female employment. These sectors are also characterised by lower pay, which may increase the gender pay gap.

Figure 4: Pay gap and female employment rate (2006)



Source: Structure of Earnings Survey and EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

1.2. Public and private sector employees

A distinction is made between the public sector and the private sector, since the expectation is that wage formation in these sectors may vary markedly, with divergent consequences for the pay gap. The gap is calculated on an hourly basis and on an annual basis.

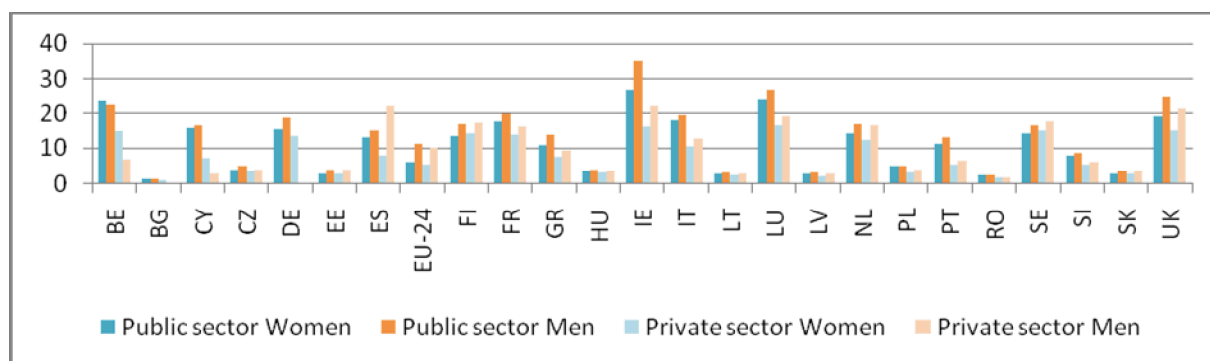
It is generally supposed that pay gaps will be less in the public sector, since the mechanism for setting pay is highly regulated and established in pay scales with few individual salary components. The public sector is heavily represented in female employment.

To calculate these indicators, the distinction between the private and public sectors is based on sectors C to K and sectors M, N and O, using the variable relating to control which indicates whether the authorities have control of the sector and/or finance it. Sector L (public administration) - the public sector in the strict sense of the term - is not covered in this analysis because of a lack of data.

In all countries (except Finland and Sweden) average salaries in the public sector are higher than those in the private sector, for both women and men (Figure 5; see also Annex 4). This result should be interpreted with caution, for the reasons given above, and also because hourly earnings in the teaching sector are calculated on the basis of monthly earnings and working time. Depending on the country concerned, this may only be based on actual teaching hours or may include the hours devoted to lesson preparation and other activities. This may lead to an overestimate of average hourly earnings in the teaching sector for some countries.

In the public sector, female hourly earnings vary between EUR 1,19 in Bulgaria and EUR 27,06 in Ireland. These figures are respectively EUR 0,91 and EUR 16,41 in the private sector. The average female earnings found in 24 countries of the European Union are EUR 10,24 in the public sector and EUR 6,62 in the private sector. Men earn between EUR 1,42 in Bulgaria and EUR 34,91 in Ireland in the public sector, as against EUR 1,06 and EUR 22,57 respectively in the private sector. The European average shows that in the public sector, men earn EUR 11,73 compared with EUR 10,35 in the private sector.

Figure 5: Average gross hourly earnings of women and men working full time and part time in the public and private sectors (in euro) (2006)



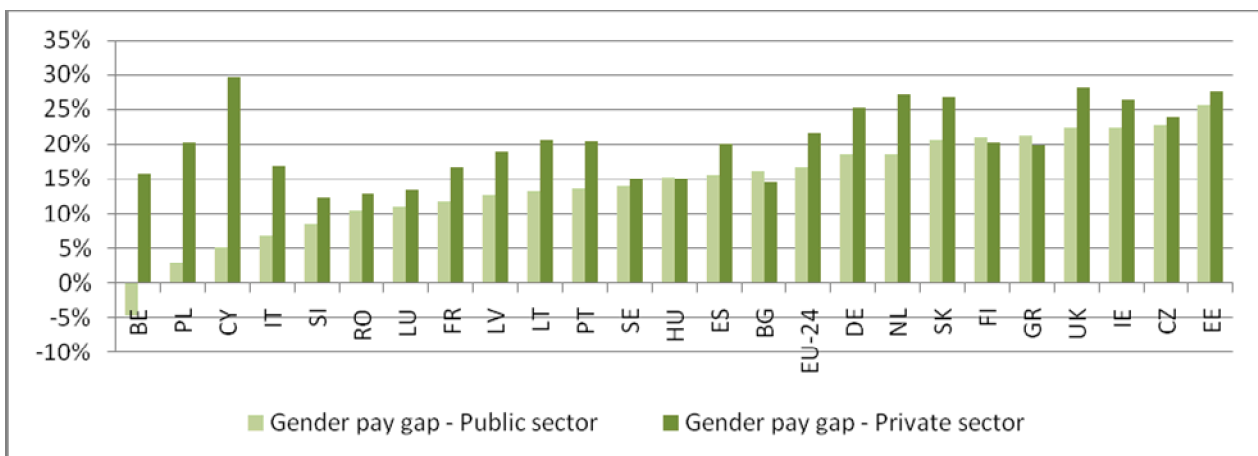
Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

In Europe, the weighted average pay gap is 17 % in the public sector and 22 % in the private sector (Figure 6). The size of the pay gap varies greatly depending on the country and sector concerned. The pay gap found in the public sector is generally less than that found in the private sector, except in Bulgaria, Finland, Greece and Hungary. The pay gap in the public sector ranges from -5 % in Belgium to 26 % in Ireland, whereas in the private sector it ranges from 12 % in Slovenia to 30 % in Cyprus. The case of Belgium is probably explained by the working hours of teachers, which are calculated only on the basis of the hours actually spent in the classroom.

Some countries, which have a narrow pay gap in the public sector, may also be amongst those which have a wide pay gap in the private sector. This is the case with Cyprus, where the pay gap is 5 % in the public sector as against 30 % in the private sector. Other countries, such as the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, Ireland, Slovakia, Germany, the Czech Republic and Estonia, have wide pay gaps in both sectors. On the other hand, some countries such as Romania and Belgium have a narrow pay gap whatever the sector. Other countries stand somewhere in between. Thus there is no clear finding, and it is difficult to establish a correlation between the levels of the pay gap in the public sector and in the private sector.

Several studies have shown that the pay gap was broader in the private sector than in the public sector (EGGE, 2002; Plantenga and Remery, 2006).

Figure 6: Gaps in average gross hourly earnings of women and men working full time and part time in the public and private sectors (in euro), countries arranged in increasing order of the pay gap in the public sector (2006)



Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

When the public administration sector is taken into account for those countries where the data are available, it seems that the pay gap found in the public sector widens everywhere (Cyprus, Finland, Hungary, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Sweden and Slovakia) except in Estonia, Latvia and the United Kingdom. This result puts the hypothesis of greater equality of pay in public administration very much into perspective.

1.3. The effect of working time

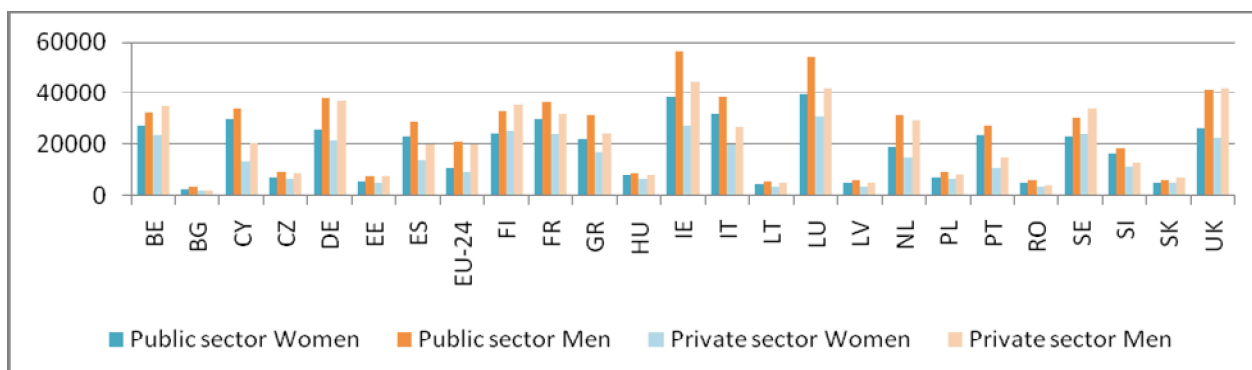
As explained above, the calculation of the pay gap on the basis of hourly earnings does not take into consideration the pay differences between women and men which result from different working time. To highlight this aspect of the pay gap, we can calculate the gap on the basis of annual or indeed monthly earnings, for full-time and part-time workers taken together. If there are more women than men working part time, the pay gap will increase. This indicator reveals what women earn on average per year, or per month, by comparison with men; which comes closer to revealing the gap as experienced by women.

The difference between the public sector and the private sector is defined firstly in terms of annual earnings.

In one year, women in the public sector earn more than those in the private sector everywhere except Finland, Sweden and Slovakia (Figure 7; see also Annex 5). The same applies to men, except in Belgium, Finland, Sweden and Slovakia.

Women working in the public sector earn EUR 2 525 gross per year in Bulgaria, and EUR 39 431 gross per year in Luxembourg. In the private sector, the corresponding figures are EUR 1 668 and EUR 31 000. Average European female earnings are EUR 10 913 gross per year in the public sector as against EUR 9 516 gross per year in the private sector. Men working in the public sector earn EUR 3 188 gross per year in Bulgaria, and EUR 53 901 gross per year in Luxembourg. In the private sector, the corresponding figures are EUR 1 981 and EUR 41 972. At European level, the average male earnings are EUR 21 063 in the public sector as against EUR 19 936 in the private sector.

Figure 7: Average gross annual earnings of women and men working full time and part time in the public and private sectors (in euro) (2006)



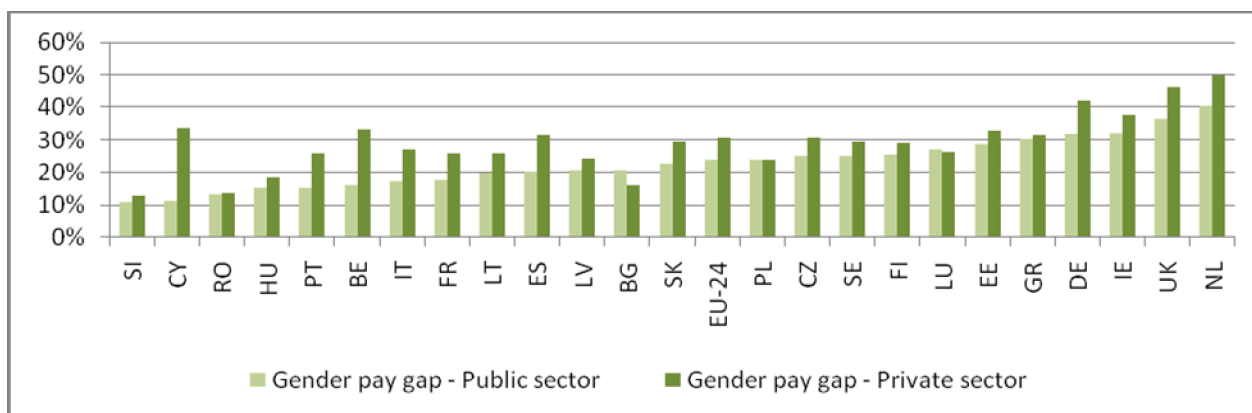
Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

The pay gap between women and men is less pronounced in the public sector than in the private sector, for all countries with the exception of Bulgaria and Luxembourg (Figure 8). In the public sector it ranges from 11 % in Slovenia and Cyprus to 40 % in the Netherlands, and the European average is 24 %. It is narrowest in Slovenia, Cyprus, Romania, Hungary, Portugal, Belgium, Italy, France and Lithuania where it is below 20 %. It is between 20 % and 30 % in Spain, Latvia, Bulgaria, Slovakia, Poland, the Czech Republic, Sweden, Finland, Luxembourg and Estonia. Finally, it is above 30 % in Greece, Germany, Ireland, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands.

The pay gap on the basis of annual earnings in the private sector ranges between 13 % in Slovenia and 50 % in the Netherlands, with a European average of 30 % (EU 24). It is narrowest in Slovenia, Romania, Bulgaria and Hungary where it is below 20 %. It is above 40 % in Germany, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands. In the remaining countries, it is between 20 % and 40 %. The pay gap on an annual basis is most marked in countries where part-time work is very frequent amongst women.

By comparing the results of this indicator with those obtained for the preceding indicator, the pay gap on an annual basis seems greater than that on an hourly basis. This is explained by the fact that gender differences in terms of working time are taken into account in this indicator. The differences between these two indicators are more pronounced in those countries where a large number of women work part time such as the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and also Germany.

Figure 8: Differences between the average annual earnings of women and men working full time and part time in the public and private sectors (in euro), countries arranged in increasing order of the pay gap in the public sector (2006)



Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

The pay gap in the public sector in Cyprus, Finland, Hungary, Lithuania, Sweden, the Netherlands and Slovakia increases by between one and four percentage points when the public administration sector is taken into account, for those countries which collect such information. On the other hand, it decreases in Estonia, Latvia, Poland, Romania and the United Kingdom.

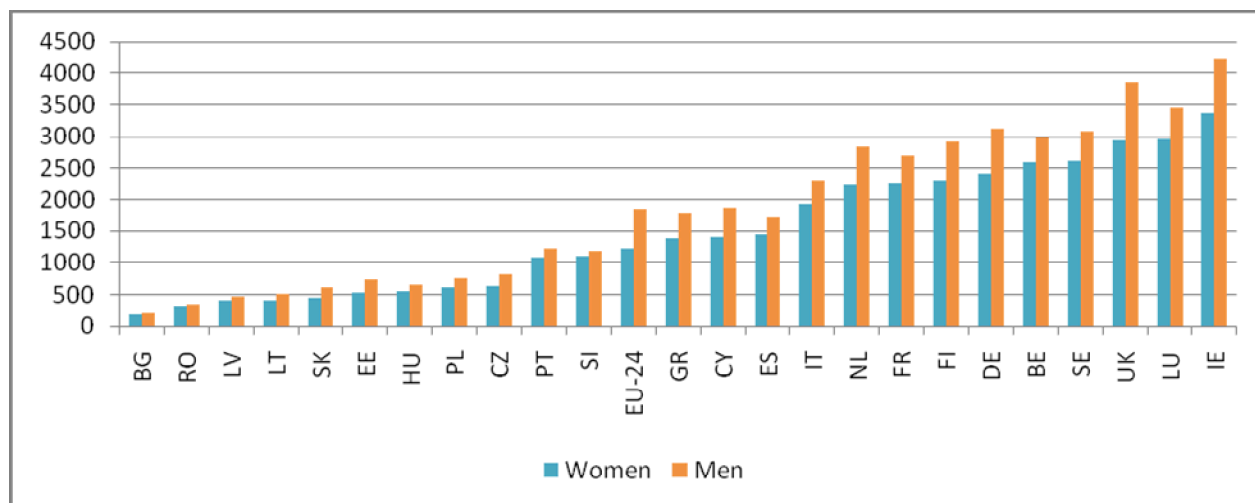
In the 2001 indicators, the effect of part-time work was not reflected in this way.

The indicators were calculated for full-time workers on the basis of gross monthly earnings and for part-time workers (whether or not they are together with full-time workers) on the basis of gross hourly earnings. The monthly earnings of full-time and part-time workers were not compared, so that in fact the completely unadjusted pay gap was not calculated. The pay gap on the basis of the gross monthly earnings of full-time workers was the indicator used by Eurostat in 2001. The advantage of this indicator is that it is very solid. In this report, that indicator is reproduced and compared with the indicator which includes the effect of working time. In this sense, a new indicator is included: it calculates the gender pay gap on the basis of female and male gross monthly earnings, taking account of full-time workers and part-time workers.

The inclusion of this new indicator is justified by the fact that a large part of the gender pay gap is imputable to the greater frequency of part-time work amongst women than amongst men. This reflects the double penalty suffered by women in terms of pay: the penalty owing to the fact that their average hourly earnings are lower than those of men, and that owing to the fact that they more often work part time. The monthly pay gaps are therefore more significant than the hourly pay gaps.

The figures calculated for full-time workers alone show that women's average earnings range from EUR 180 gross in Bulgaria to EUR 3 359 in Luxembourg (Figure 9; see also Annex 6). For men, the figures are EUR 251 gross in Bulgaria and EUR 4 227 gross in Ireland. European average earnings are EUR 1 216 for women and EUR 1 859 for men.

Figure 9: Average gross monthly earnings of women and men working full time (in euro), countries arranged in increasing order of female earnings (2006)

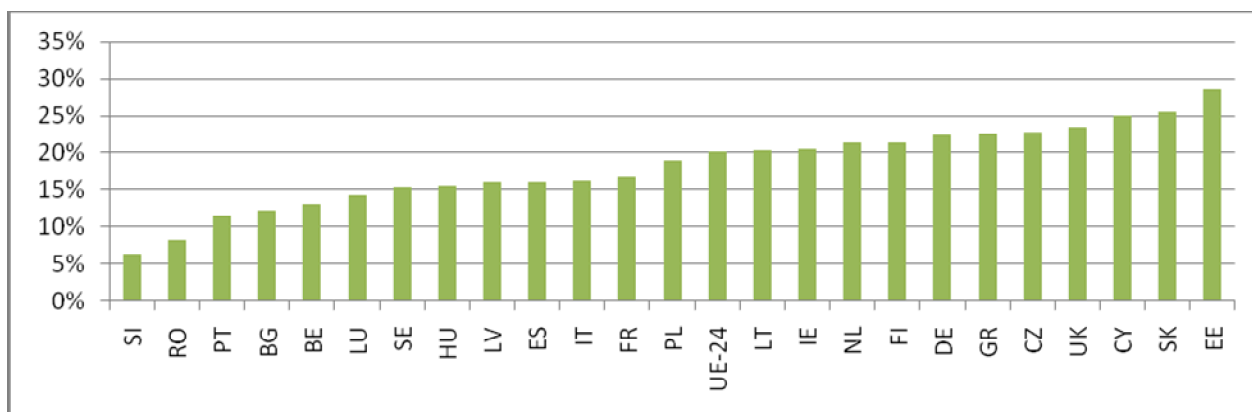


Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

The pay gap varies from 6 % in Slovenia to 29 % in Estonia (Figure 10). At European Union level, the pay gap is 20 % if the gap is based on the average of the gaps for each country.

The countries with gaps much narrower than the European average of 20 % are Romania, Portugal, Bulgaria, Slovenia, Belgium, Luxembourg, Sweden, Hungary, Latvia, Spain and Italy. France, Poland, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Finland, Germany, Greece and the Czech Republic have a gap which is relatively close to the European average. The remaining countries are further from the European average and are characterised by more marked inequalities of earnings.

Figure 10: Average gross monthly pay gaps for women and men working full time (in euro), countries arranged in increasing order of the pay gap (2006)

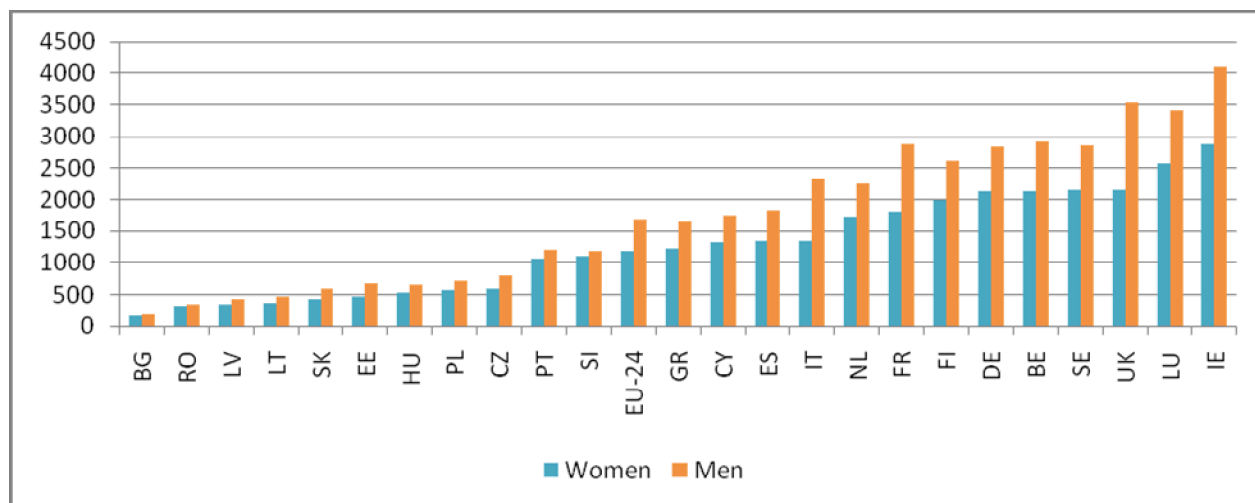


Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

By including public administration for those countries where this information is available, it seems that in a majority of countries, the average gross monthly earnings of women and men are higher. The difference is greater for women, so that the pay gap narrows. This is true for the Netherlands, Poland and Romania, where the pay gap narrows by between one and more than 1,5 percentage points, and also for Finland, Hungary, Sweden, Slovakia and the United Kingdom, where the difference is less and lower than 0,5 percentage points. On the other hand, in Cyprus the pay gap widens by 0,17 percentage points.

By including part-time workers in the calculation of gross monthly earnings, it emerges that women earn an average gross monthly salary which ranges from EUR 172 in Bulgaria to EUR 2 891 in Ireland (Figure 11; see also Annex 7). The corresponding figures for men are EUR 198 and EUR 4 097. The average earnings found for the European Union are EUR 1 190 for women as against EUR 1 696 for men.

Figure 11: Average gross monthly earnings of women and men working full time and part time (in euro), countries arranged in increasing order of female earnings (2006)



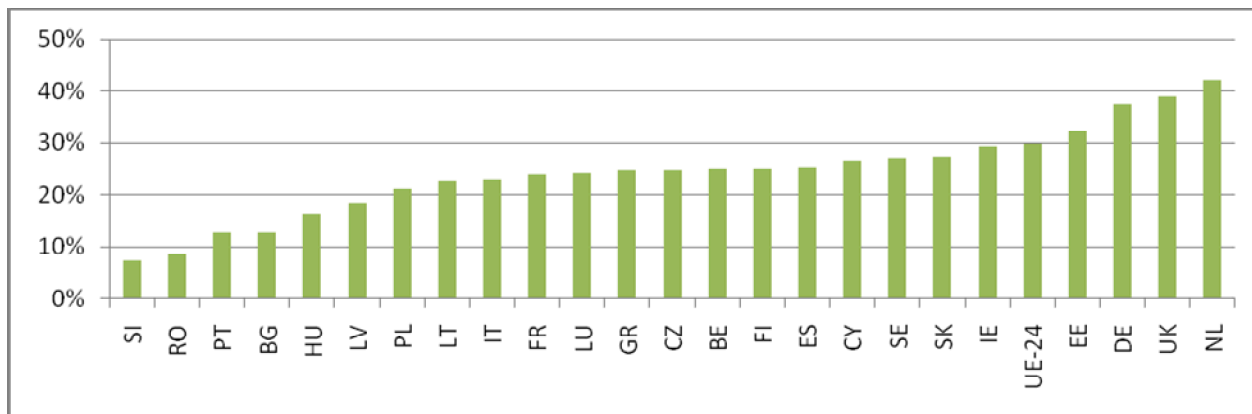
Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

While the pay gap calculated on the basis of full-time workers alone was 20 % in the European Union (EU 24), it is 30 % when part-time workers are included. In the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, where the proportion of women working part time is very high, the gap widens from 21,33 % to 42,22 % and from 23,51 % to 38,87 % respectively.

The pay gap calculated on a monthly basis is also wider than that calculated on an hourly basis (see above). This finding applies to all countries, and more particularly to Belgium, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and Poland where the pay gap doubles. A marked increase (of between five and 15 percentage points) is also found in France, Lithuania, Sweden, Spain, Germany and the United Kingdom. In the remaining countries (Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Hungary, Latvia, Portugal, Romania and Slovakia), the rise is less pronounced and is generally of less than five percentage points.

Whatever the country, women consistently earn less than men: at European level the difference is 30 % (Figure 12). This gap is widest in Germany, the United Kingdom and the Netherlands: women earn between 37 % and 42 % less than men on average. These are countries where part-time work by women is more frequent. On the other hand, the difference is less (but still large), between 7 % and 25 %, in Slovenia, Romania, Portugal, Bulgaria, Hungary, Latvia, Poland, Lithuania, Italy, France, Luxembourg, Greece, the Czech Republic, Belgium, Finland and Spain. Cyprus, Sweden, Slovakia, Ireland and Estonia are close to the European average.

Figure 12: Average gross monthly pay gaps for women and men working full time and part time (in euro), countries arranged in increasing order of the pay gap (2006)



Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

The pay gap is narrower in Estonia, Finland, Lithuania, Latvia, the Netherlands, Poland, Romania, Sweden, Slovakia and the United Kingdom when NACE section L is included in the calculation of this indicator, while the opposite is found for Cyprus and Hungary.

SUMMARY - INDICATOR 1: RATIO FOR ALL EMPLOYEES

The pay gap is expressed in the most current fashion, namely as the difference between average female earnings and average male earnings, as a percentage of average male earnings:

$$\frac{M-F}{M} \times 100$$

M

(where F = average gross earnings of women and M = average gross earnings of men)

The pay gap is calculated on as broad a basis as possible, i.e. on the basis of the gross hourly earnings of full-time and part-time workers for all sectors (insofar as that is possible from the data available). Using gross hourly earnings partly eliminates the effect of working time and the wage penalty connected to the greater frequency of part-time work amongst women.

To take account of this effect, which partly explains the gender pay gap, a new indicator calculates the pay gap on the basis of female and male gross monthly earnings, taking account of full-time workers and part-time workers together.

The pay gap is calculated separately for the public and private sectors, since the pay gap differs markedly from one sector to another. In this respect, it is essential that in due course information concerning the public administration sector (NACE section L) should be available for all countries, since including this sector in the calculation of the indicators changes the results to a greater or lesser extent, depending on the country concerned.

The pay gap calculated on the basis of gross earnings may be underestimated, since it does not take account of other benefits granted by the employer because of the employment relationship.

Currently, there is no shared definition of these benefits in addition to salary, and there is no database enabling account to be taken of them at European level. One recommendation is that an inventory should be drawn up of all non-wage benefits in the Member States, and that they should be quantified to estimate their effect on the pay gap.

Finally, pay gaps must be considered in parallel with female employment rates so as to evaluate the equality, or inequality, of women and men on the labour market in the various Member States.

LIST OF INDICATORS INCLUDED IN INDICATOR 1: RATIO FOR ALL EMPLOYEES⁶

$$\text{Gender pay gap} = \frac{(\text{average gross male earnings} - \text{average gross female earnings})}{\text{average gross male earnings}} \times 100$$

- (a) Gender pay gap based on gross hourly female and male earnings, full-time and part-time employees of all sectors

Source: SES + other sources; Aa

- (b) Employment rate for women and men

Source: Labour Force Survey; Aa

⁶ The pay gap for full-time and part-time workers together for all sectors is available from Eurostat annually, whereas the gross hourly earnings of women and men, for full-time and part-time workers together for all sectors are not available from Eurostat annually but only every four years (source: SES).

- (c) Gender pay gap based on gross hourly male and female earnings, full-time and part-time employees together, private and public sectors separately
Source: SES + other sources; Aa for some countries, A4
- (d) Gender pay gap based on gross annual male and female earnings, full-time and part-time employees together, private and public sectors separately
Source: SES; A4
- (e) Gender pay gap based on gross monthly male and female earnings, full-time
Source: SES; A4
- (f) Gender pay gap based on gross monthly male and female earnings, full-time and part-time together
Source: SES; A4

Aa = available annually; A4 = available every 4 years; N = new data collection to be set up

Indicator 2: Share of the total sum of wages

In the 2001 indicators, indicator 2 calculates the share of the total sum of wages which corresponds to the total remuneration of women in relation to the total sum of wages, and also the relation between the total number of female and male workers. This indicator reflects the "total pay gap", i.e. the inequality in the division of earnings between men and women in one country. This second indicator is reformulated in a more neutral fashion from the gender point of view: it is expressed as the share of the total number of wage-earners by sex⁷.

⁷ Comparing the figure for women with the total in fact conceals that gender concerns women as well as men. See: Hedman, Perucci and Sundström (1996).

An additional calculation is included, to highlight the effect of part-time work for this indicator. It indicates the share of women and of men in the total volume of work, in other words in the number of actual working days or hours worked. This is justified by the need to take account of part-time work, since such work mainly involves women, and is a source of inequality between women and men on the labour market. In this way, the impact of the differences between women and men in terms of working time can be measured, and the total pay gap can be expressed either unadjusted or adjusted for working time. The second general indicator thus calculates the total pay gap on the basis of the share of women and of men in the total sum of wages and on the basis of their participation in the labour market in terms of the number of actual working days as an employee.



Data on total wages broken down by gender are available from administrative sources in some countries, but there is no database containing harmonised data providing exhaustive data for all the Member States. In this report, the total sum of wages is calculated on the basis of the SES. This is therefore an approximation of that information.

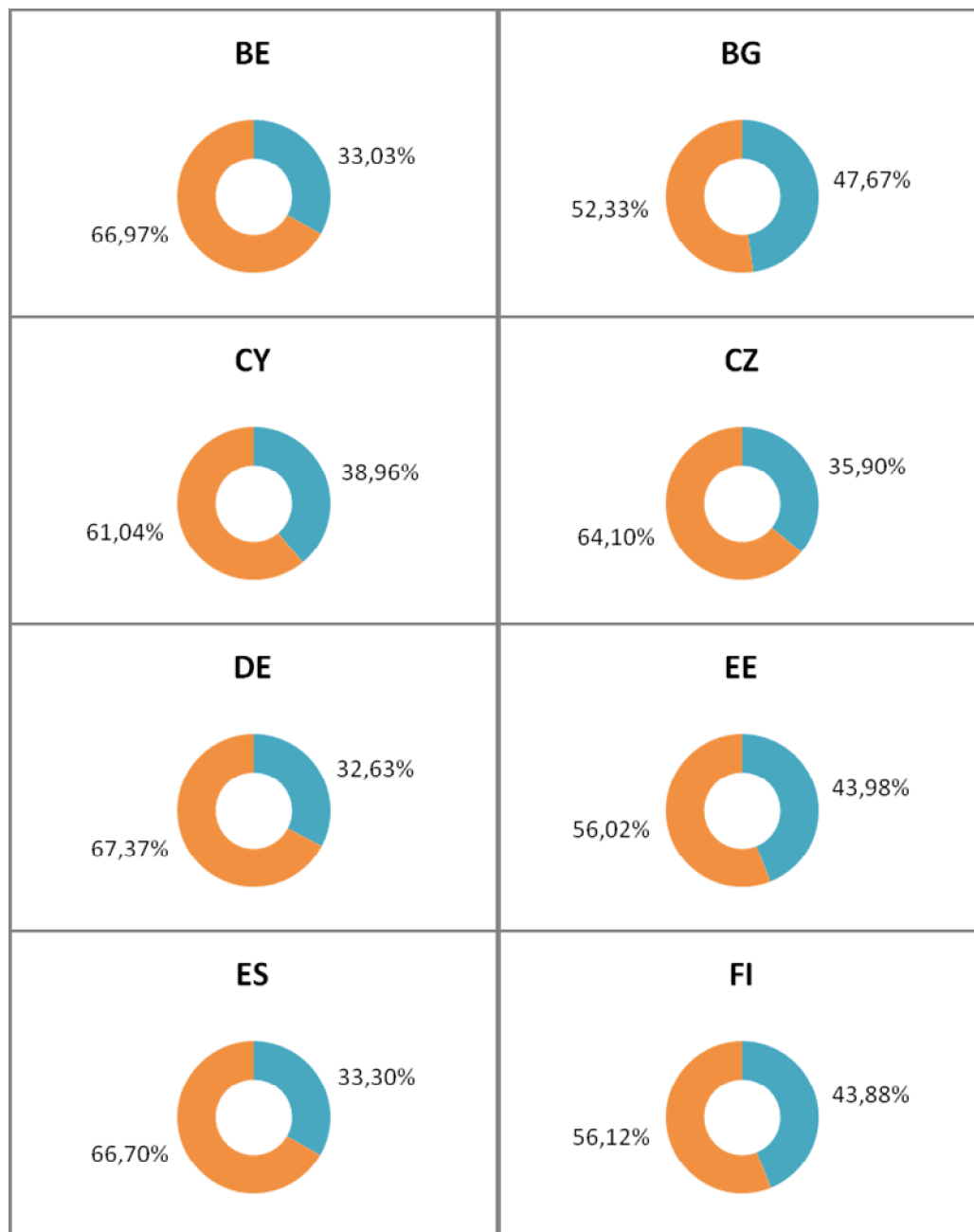
The share of women and of men in the total of actual working days by employees is calculated on the basis of the Labour Force Survey. That might create a bias for countries where many cross-border workers are employed, for example Luxembourg.

The repartition of all wages between women and men varies greatly from one country to another (Figure 13; see also Annex 8). Women's share ranges from 29,34 % in Luxembourg to 49,81 % in Latvia. Portugal, Hungary, Lithuania, Bulgaria and Latvia have women's/men's shares which are relatively close, with the difference between the two being a maximum of five percentage points. On the other hand, the share of total pay is very unequal in Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Germany, Belgium, Spain and Greece, where women's share is between 29 % and 35 %. In the remaining countries, women represent between 36 % and 44 % of the total sum of wages.

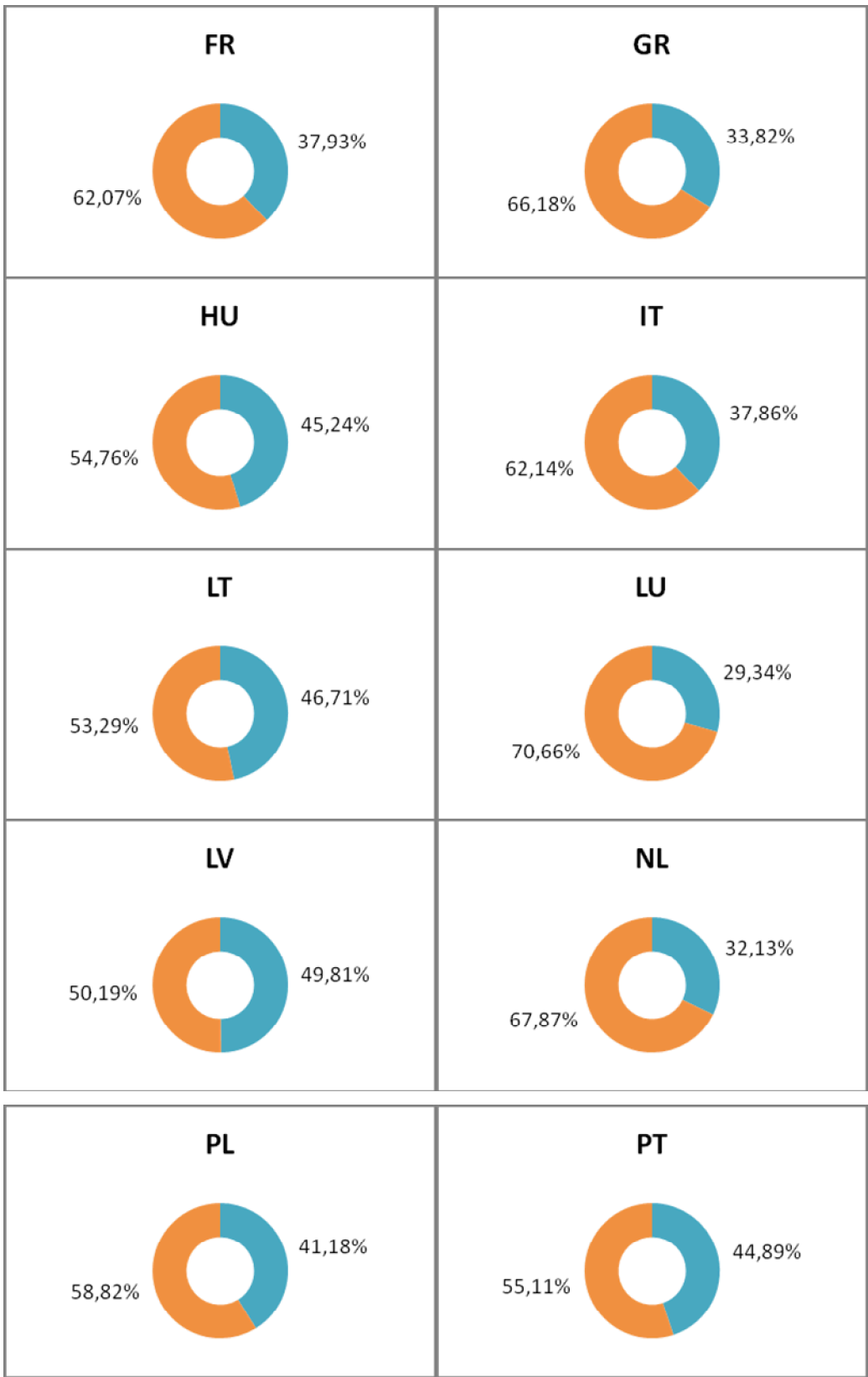
Figure 13: Share of women and men in the total sum of wages (2006) ⁸

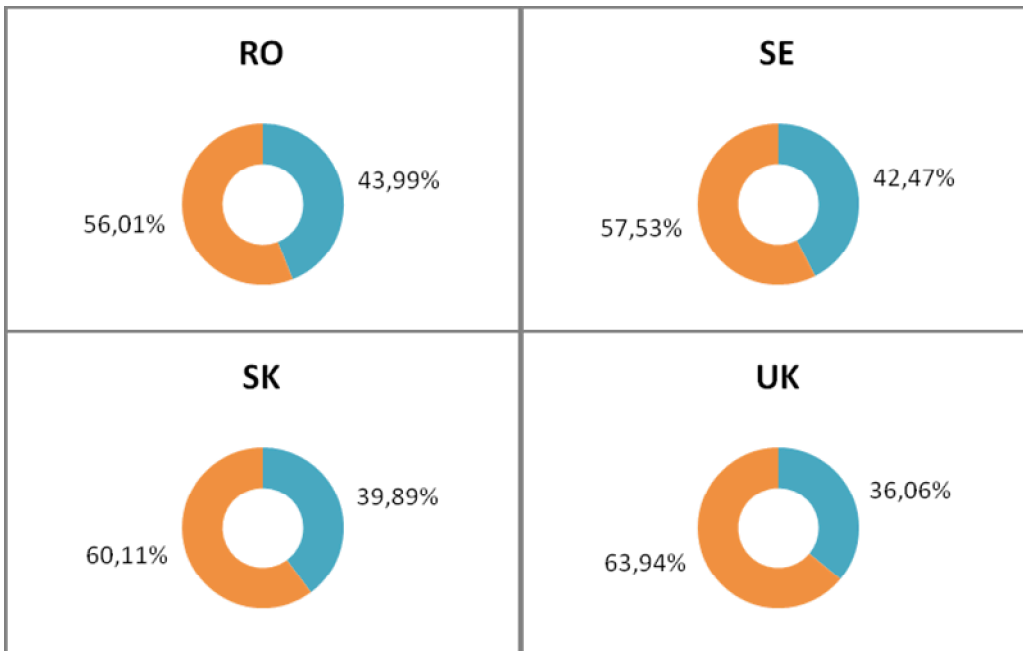
Key:

 Women  Men



⁸ The data for Austria, Denmark, Ireland, Malta and Slovenia necessary for this calculation were not available to researchers.



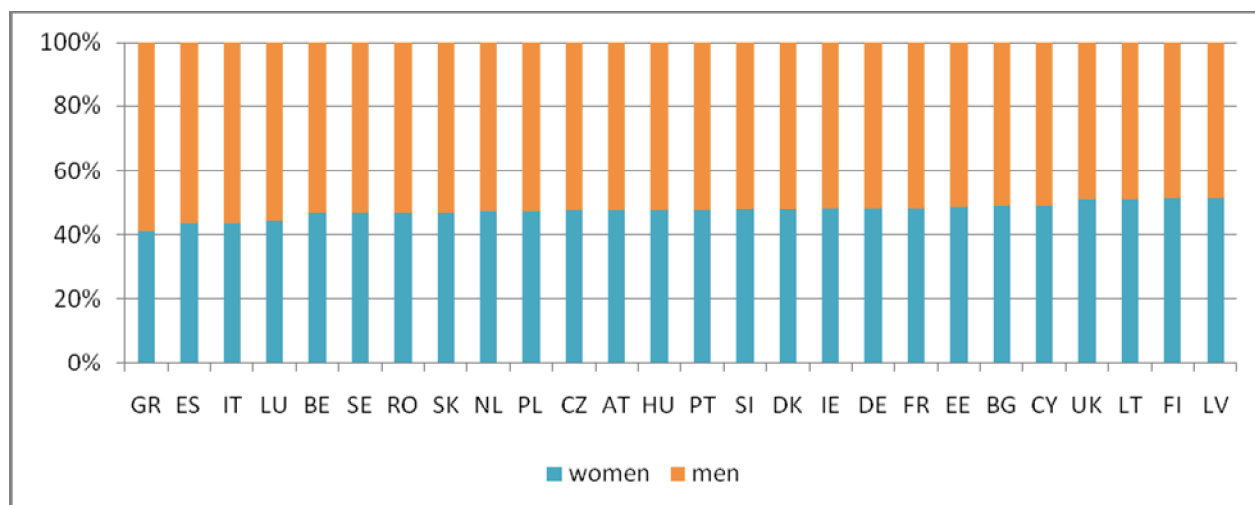


Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

In three countries, the proportion of female and male employees is almost equal, with the difference being less than one percentage point. This is the case in the United Kingdom, Lithuania and Cyprus (Figure 14; see also Annex 9). In Finland and Latvia, the share of women even exceeds that of men, by more than one percentage point. Other countries where number of employees are fairly equal are Ireland, Germany, France, Estonia and Bulgaria. Greece, Spain, Italy and Luxembourg are at the bottom of the range, since women there represent less than 45 % of employees⁹.

⁹ Women's participation in employment is also quite low in Malta. Malta is not included in this indicator because of a lack of data.

Figure 14: Share of female and male employees, countries arranged in increasing order of the proportion of women (2006)¹⁰



Source: Labour Force Survey

To take account of part-time work, the proportion of actual working days worked by women and men on the basis of the number of usual working hours declared¹¹ is calculated using data from the Labour Force Survey (LFS)¹². The sample used to calculate this indicator for the various Member States corresponds to the working population except for the self-employed and carers.

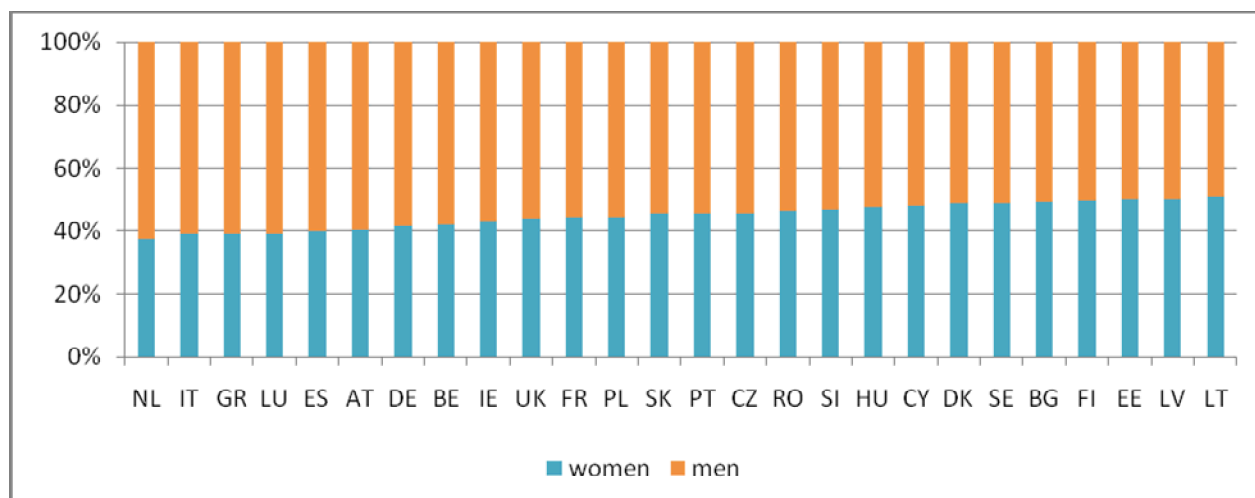
The results show that the proportion of women varies from 38 % in the Netherlands to 51 % in Lithuania (Figure 15; see also Annex 10). The countries where the proportion of women in the total of actual working days is small are those where women's participation in the labour market is lower. These are countries where female part-time work is more frequent, such as the Netherlands, Luxembourg, Austria and Germany (while this type of work is less developed in the new Member States) and in countries where the female employment rate is lower such as Greece, Italy and Spain.

¹⁰ The data for Malta are not presented, because there were no data for the other elements of indicator 2 .

¹¹ Hours of work by part-time workers have been converted into working days of 7 hours 36 minutes per working day (or 7,6 hours).

¹² The data for Malta were not available.

Figure 15: Share of women and men in the total number of actual working days in Europe, countries arranged in increasing order of the proportion of women (2006)



Source: Labour Force Survey

It is then possible to compare the proportions of women and men amongst employees, in the total number of actual working days, and in the total sum of wages, for the various European countries. The total pay gap is obtained from these three pieces of information. This gap is defined as the difference between the share of women in the total sum of wages and their participation as employees in the labour market. This indicator shows what all women should have earned on the labour market, without taking account of differences, including working time. The additional calculation adjusts this amount for the volume of work done, i.e. the greater frequency of part-time work amongst women.

The total pay gap is relatively narrow in Bulgaria, Latvia, Hungary, Portugal and Romania. However, it is quite wide in Luxembourg, Germany, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Belgium (Table 2).

For Bulgaria, Cyprus, Lithuania, Estonia and Romania the adjustment for working days has no impact on the total pay gap.

In the majority of countries, the adjustments made to take account of more widespread part-time work by women produce a narrower pay gap than if the calculation is carried out on the basis of the proportion of employees who are women. Taking the example of France, wages paid to women were EUR 154 billion, or 37,93 % of the total sum of wages¹³. Adjusting for the proportion of employees who are women, women should have received EUR 195,8 billion, or 27,15 % more. Adjusting for women's share of the volume of work done, women should have received EUR 180,2 billion, or 16,98 % more.

¹³ NB The total sum of wages is calculated on the basis of the SES database, not exhaustive administrative information. It is therefore an approximation.

Table 2: Overall pay gap taking account of the proportion of employees who are women, and of women's share of the number of actual working days (2006)

	What women earn	What women should have earned (adjustment for employees)			What women should have earned (adjustment for working days)		
	(in billion euro)	(in billion euro)	(difference in billion euro)	(difference in %)	(in billion euro)	(difference in billion euro)	(difference in %)
AT	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
BE	10,9	15,4	-4,5	40,84 %	13,9	-3,0	27,23 %
BG	2,3	2,4	-0,1	2,36 %	2,4	-0,1	3,16 %
CY	2,1	2,6	-0,5	26,23 %	2,6	-0,5	23,56 %
CZ	11,7	15,4	-3,7	31,48 %	14,9	-3,2	27,42 %
DE	202,0	297,7	-95,7	47,40 %	257,6	-55,6	27,54 %
DK	21,2	23	-1,8	8,72 %	23,5	-2,3	10,88 %
EE	1,4	1,5	-0,1	10,18 %	1,5	-0,1	13,55 %
ES	73,4	95,3	-21,9	29,84 %	87,5	-14,1	19,27 %
FI	17,2	20,1	-2,9	17,12 %	19,4	-2,2	12,70 %
FR	154,0	195,8	-41,8	27,15 %	180,2	-26,2	16,98 %
GR	11,6	14,1	-2,5	21,74 %	13,4	-1,8	15,72 %
HU	7,4	7,7	-0,3	4,57 %	7,8	-0,4	5,25 %
IE	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
IT	106,0	121,4	-15,4	14,54 %	109,2	-3,2	3,06 %
LT	2,3	2,5	-0,2	9,12 %	2,5	-0,2	9,03 %
LU	2,8	4,2	-1,4	50,32 %	3,8	-1,0	33,42 %
LV	1,9	2,0	-0,1	3,29 %	1,9	0,0	0,72 %
MT	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
NL	56,8	82,8	-26	45,77 %	66,4	-9,6	16,89 %
PL	21,1	24	-2,9	14,14 %	22,7	-1,6	7,91 %
PT	16,7	17,6	-0,9	5,63 %	17,0	-0,3	1,56 %
RO	7,1	7,5	-0,4	5,99 %	7,5	-0,4	5,80 %
SE	36,0	41,5	-3,4	9,52 %	39,4	-5,5	15,21 %
SI	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
SK	3,8	4,4	-0,6	17,16 %	4,3	-0,5	14,21 %
UK	265,5	374,0	-108,5	40,87 %	324,6	-59,1	22,24 %

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey and Labour Force Survey

SUMMARY - INDICATOR 2: SHARE OF THE TOTAL SUM OF WAGES

Compared with its 2001 formulation, indicator 2 is reformulated in a more neutral fashion from the gender point of view. The indicator is expressed as the proportion of the total number of workers by gender, and no longer as the relationship between the number of female workers and the total number of workers. Moreover, an additional calculation is added to adjust the total pay gap to highlight the effect of part-time work, based on the share of the total number of actual working days by gender. This then allows for a calculation of the total pay gap on the basis of the share of women and of men in the total sum of wages and on the basis of their participation in the labour market in terms of the number of actual working days as an employee.

Currently, the total sum of wages is calculated on the basis of data from the SES. This information consists of an approximation of total pay since the data come from a sample. The preferred source remains national administrative data which are more precise and exhaustive. A recommendation to this effect could be made, so that Member States make this information available.

LIST OF INDICATORS INCLUDED IN INDICATOR 2

(a) Share of all wages by sex

Source: Administrative data or other sources; Aa for some countries, N

(b) Repartition of the total number of wage-earners by sex

Source: Administrative data, Labour Force Survey or other sources; Aa

(c) Share of the total number of actual working days by sex

Source: Administrative data, Labour Force Survey or other sources; Aa

Aa = available annually; A4 = available every 4 years; N = new data collection to be set up

II. Inequality factors

The impact of part-time work, age and education-level differences and labour-market segregation will be assessed in greater detail since those three factors are largely responsible for the gender pay gap.

Indicator 3: Ratio for part-time work

The additions under indicators 1 and 2 have already shown the impact of part-time work on the pay gap, where the latter is calculated without adjustments for working time. However, part-time work frequently entails differences in hourly earnings too. This type of work often carries a wage penalty and is generally performed more by women than men. It is important to bear that in mind when analysing pay gaps. As with indicator 1, the part-time employment rate has been added in order to put the differences between countries clearly into context.

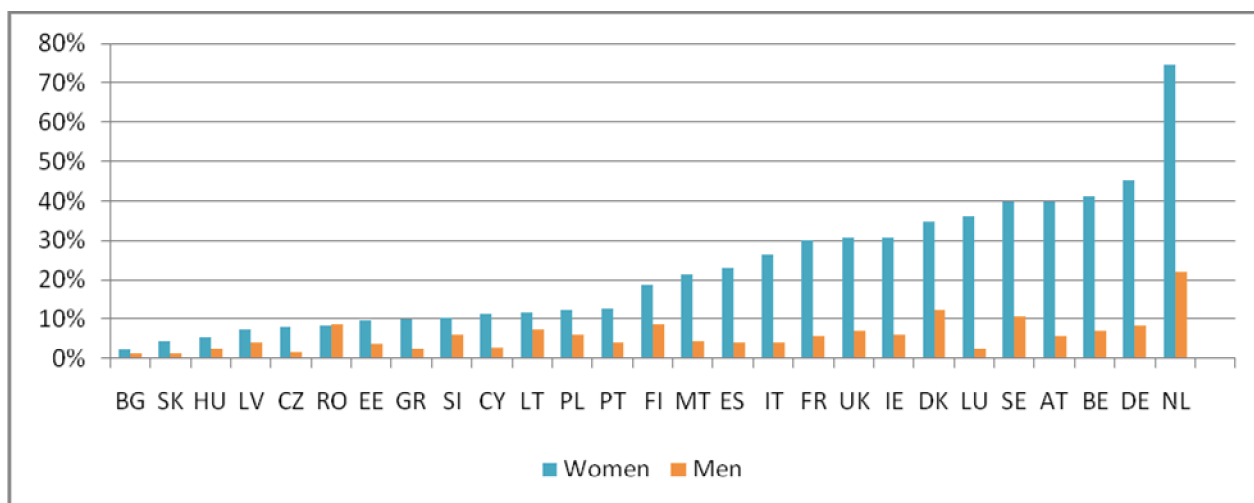
In the 2001 indicators, the ratio for part-time work is analysed on the basis of the relationship between the gross hourly earnings of women working part time and the gross hourly earnings of men working part time; the relationship between the gross hourly earnings of women working part time and the gross hourly earnings of women working full time; and the relationship between the gross hourly earnings of men working part time and the gross hourly earnings of men working full time.

In this indicator one more comparison has been added:

the relationship between the gross hourly earnings of women working part time and the gross hourly earnings of men working full time. That helps show the dual wage penalty suffered by women working part time, as they are penalised in their earnings both as women and as part-time workers.

Generally speaking, female part-time work is more common in the EU-15 countries than in the new Member States (Figure 16; see also Annex 11). The amount of part-time work is very high (in ascending order) in Sweden, Austria, Belgium and Germany, where almost 40 % of the female employed population is working part time, and in the Netherlands, where that is the status of over 70 % of women workers. It is also in these countries that the gender gap in part-time employment rates is highest, with the difference ranging from 29 percentage points in Sweden to 52 percentage points in the Netherlands. Malta, Spain, Italy, France, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Denmark and Luxembourg also have high female part-time employment rates, between 20 and just under 40 %, and the gaps between female and male employment levels are between 16 and 33 percentage points.

Figure 16: Part-time employment rates of women and men (2006)



Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

Gross hourly earnings are calculated for women working full and part time and men working full and part time, so as to be able to make a comparison of the earnings of these different categories by combining the respective figures. Four different pay gaps can be observed: those between women and men working part time, between women working part time and men working full time, between men working part time and men working full time, and, lastly, between women working part time and men working full time.

The pay gap between workers based on working time and on gross hourly earnings varies considerably from one country to the next. Figure 17 shows these gaps, with the long arrows depicting wide gaps.

The pay gap between women working part time and those working full time is narrow in Greece, Romania, Poland and Lithuania, where it is respectively between -1 and 3 %. Conversely, the gap is wide, at above 20 %, in Cyprus, the United Kingdom, Ireland, Bulgaria, Slovenia and Italy (in ascending order). The size of the pay gap therefore appears to be large regardless of the level of the part-time employment rate since there are countries on this list with very differing levels of female part-time workers, as other authors have pointed out previously (Rubery et al., 2002). Bulgaria, for example, has the lowest rate of female part-time employment, whilst the United Kingdom is one of the countries where that form of work is widespread.

In the remaining countries, the gap is between 6 and 20 %, except in Latvia, Luxembourg, Belgium, Hungary and Portugal, where the percentage is negative. In the last five countries, women working part time earn more on average than those working full time. The pay gap between the two groups varies between -4 and 23 % (i.e. between EUR 0,10 and EUR 1,55). These figures should be treated with some caution owing to the large numbers of women in the teaching profession and problems with calculating average hourly earnings in the education sector in some countries. In Belgium, for example, the figure is explained by the teaching profession, which employs over 10 % of the total female workforce. In that sector women working part time are older, on average, and have higher wages than those working full time owing to their greater length of service (on average they earn EUR 33,50 compared to EUR 24,60).

The pay gap between female and male part-time workers is wide in the Netherlands, Slovakia, Spain, Slovenia, Portugal, Ireland, the Czech Republic and Greece, ranging from 20 to 41 %. Such gaps suggest that female and male part-time workers have very different types of job with very variable pay levels.

At the other extreme to those countries are Poland, Bulgaria, Lithuania and Romania, where the gap is narrow at below 5 % (even negative in Romania).

The pay gap between men working part time and those working full time ranges from 15 to 34 % in Finland, Italy, Slovakia, Lithuania, the United Kingdom, Bulgaria, Estonia and Cyprus. In France, Latvia, Spain, the Netherlands, Slovenia and Poland, earning levels are much closer, as the gap is between 1 and 4 %. In Hungary, Luxembourg, Belgium, Greece and Portugal, the pay gap is between -4 and -55 %, in favour of part-time workers. That can be explained, amongst other things, by measures to support older workers, who are able to reduce their working time and switch to part-time work. On average they earn more per hour than full-time workers, owing to their higher average age and greater length of service. In Portugal, for instance, workers over 60 make up 24 % of the part-time workforce as against 5 % of the full-time workforce.

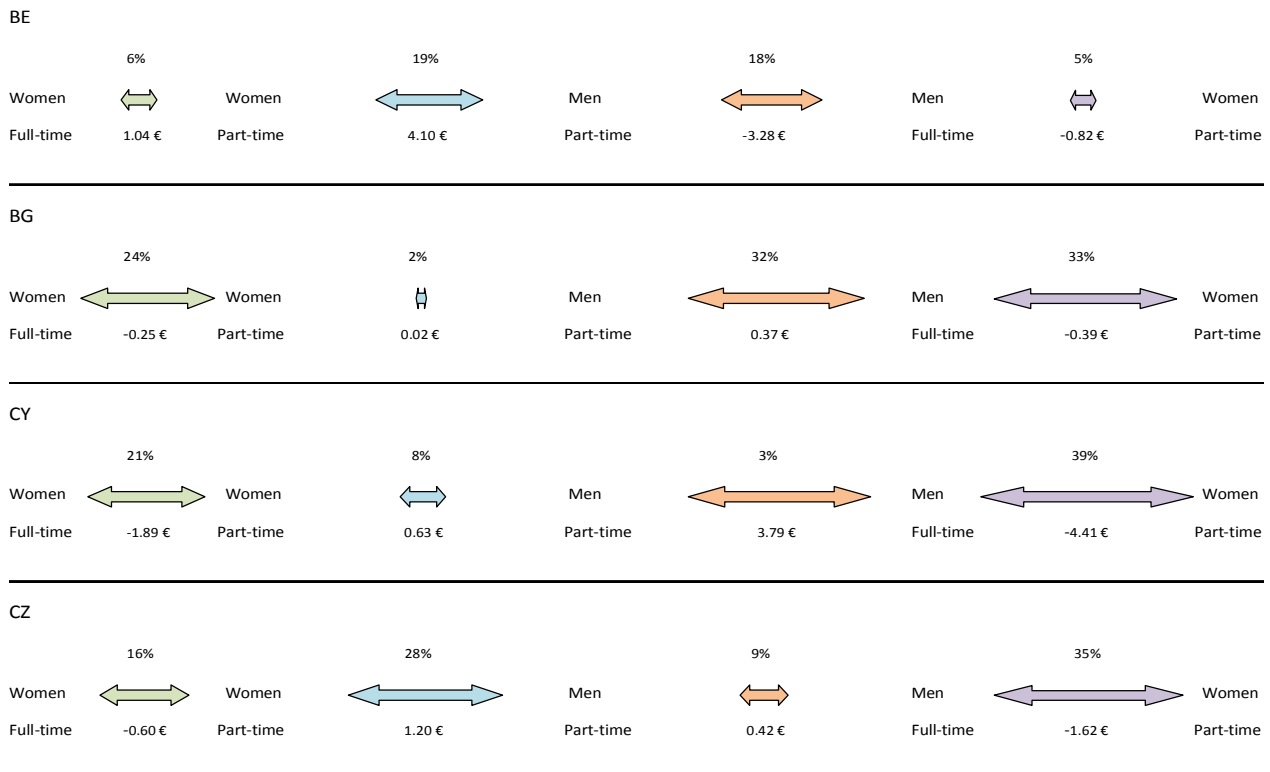
The fact that part-time workers earn more than full-time workers can also be explained by the hourly earnings in the education sector, which are particularly high as they are not adjusted to take account of the number of working hours.

The pay gap between men working full time and women working part time is wider than the three previous gaps in most countries, which shows that the inequalities are greatest between those two groups. This is due to horizontal and vertical segregation: the sectors/professions in which part-time work is most widespread are also those with the lowest hourly pay rates.

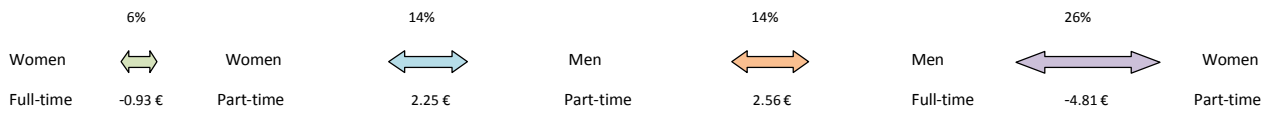
In most countries, women working part time earn on average between 18 and 40 % less per hour than men working full time. Exceptions are Hungary, Belgium, Luxembourg, Romania, Poland and Latvia, where the pay gap is between 3 and 12 %, and Portugal, where the gap is -13 %.

Certain countries, such as Poland and Latvia, have relatively low figures for all four types of pay gap calculated. On the other hand, some countries like Slovakia and the United Kingdom have relatively high figures for all four pay gaps. In other countries, the size of the different gaps varies considerably. In Lithuania, for example, the size of the pay gap between women and men working part time is 1,20 %, compared to a gap of 19,60 % between the gross hourly earnings of women working part time and the gross hourly earnings of men working full time.

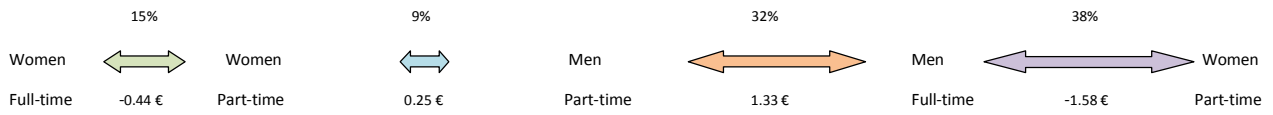
Figure 17: Pay gap for full-time and part-time workers (2006)



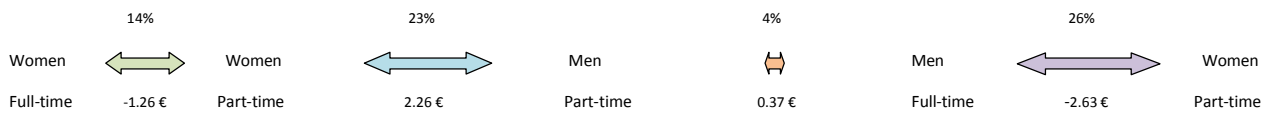
DE



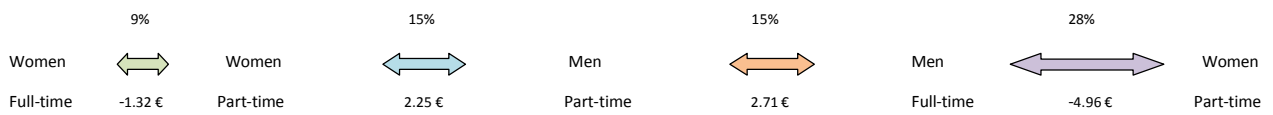
EE



ES



FI



FR

	7%		19%		1%		20%	
Women		Women		Men		Men		Women
Full-time	-1.05 €	Part-time	3.22 €	Part-time	0.15 €	Full-time	-3.37 €	Part-time

EL

	1.07%		41%		39%		18%	
Women		Women		Men		Men		Women
Full-time	0.09 €	Part-time	5.78 €	Part-time	-3.94 €	Full-time	-1.85 €	Part-time

HU

	13%		6%		4%		3%	
Women		Women		Men		Men		Women
Full-time	0.40 €	Part-time	0.24 €	Part-time	-0.13 €	Full-time	-0.11 €	Part-time

IE

	24%		28%		7%		34%	
Women		Women		Men		Men		Women
Full-time	-5.51 €	Part-time	6.79 €	Part-time	1.93 €	Full-time	-8.72 €	Part-time

IT

	26%		10%		18%		26%	
Women		Women		Men		Men		Women
Full-time	-3.66 €	Part-time	1.14 €	Part-time	2.46 €	Full-time	-3.61 €	Part-time

LT

	3%		1%		19%		20%	
Women		Women		Men		Men		Women
Full-time	-0.06 €	Part-time	0.03 €	Part-time	0.55 €	Full-time	-0.58 €	Part-time

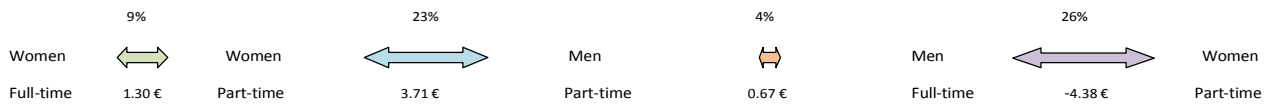
LU

	6%		16%		11%		7%	
Women		Women		Men		Men		Women
Full-time	1.08 €	Part-time	3.49 €	Part-time	-2.14 €	Full-time	-1.35 €	Part-time

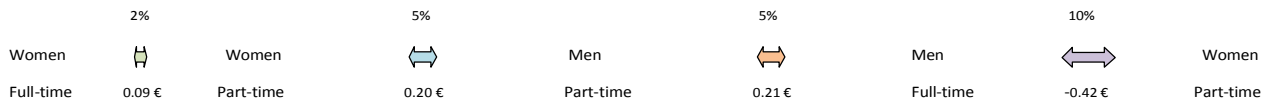
LV

	4%		9%		3%		12%	
Women		Women		Men		Men		Women
Full-time	0.10 €	Part-time	0.25 €	Part-time	0.07 €	Full-time	-0.32 €	Part-time

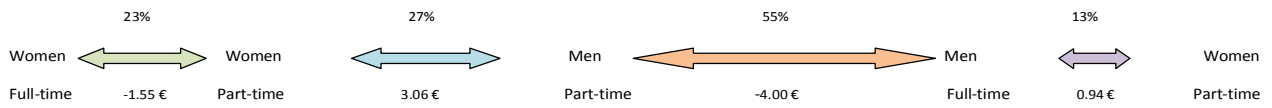
NL



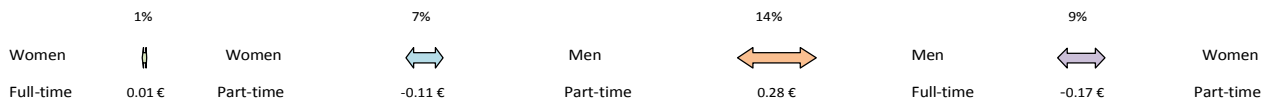
PL



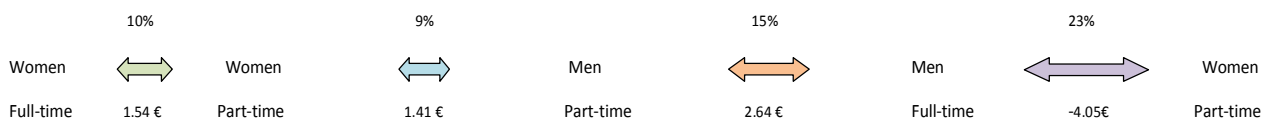
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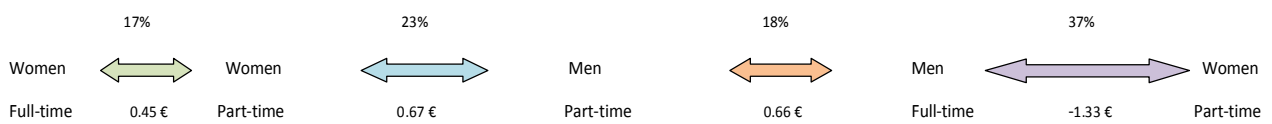
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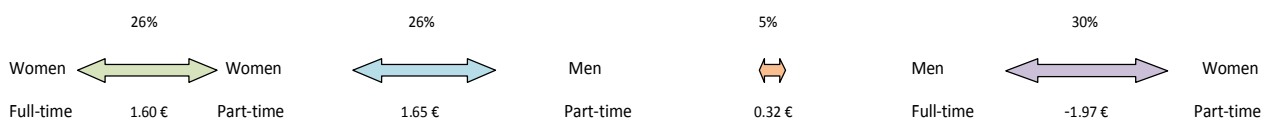
SE



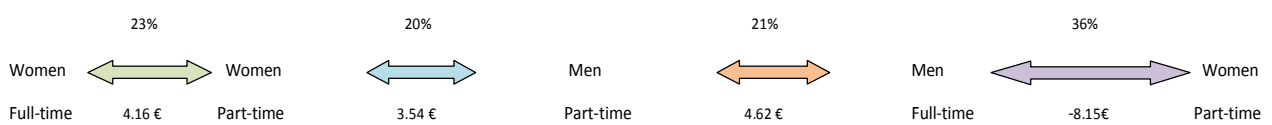
SK



SI



UK



Note: The figure shows the pay gap in the different categories as a percentage and in euros.

In the United Kingdom, for example, the pay of women working part time is EUR 4,16 higher than that of women working full time (i.e. a 23 % gap); men working part time earn EUR 3,54 more than women working part time (i.e. a 20 % gap); men working full time earn EUR 4,62 more than men working part time (i.e. a 21 % gap); and women working part time earn EUR 8,15 less than men working full time (i.e. a 36 % gap). Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

SUMMARY - INDICATOR 3: RATIO FOR PART-TIME WORK

This type of work is generally performed to a greater extent by women and often carries a wage penalty. It is therefore important to bear this in mind when analysing pay gaps.

The additions in indicators 1 and 2 already show the impact of part-time work on the pay gap, where the latter is calculated without adjustments for working time. However, part-time work frequently entails differences in hourly earnings too.

Compared to the 2001 indicator, one comparison has been added: the relationship between the gross hourly earnings of women working part time and the gross hourly earnings of men working full time. The aim is to highlight the dual wage penalty suffered by women working part time, which appears to be a vital factor since the findings show wide gaps between these two groups.

As in indicator 1, part-time employment rates have also been added in order to put the findings from different countries in context and allow for the clearest possible comparison of the situations in the Member States.

LIST OF INDICATORS INCLUDED IN INDICATOR 3

- (a) Gross hourly earnings and pay gap:
female (part-time) - male (part-time)
female (part-time) - female (full-time)
male (part-time) - male (full-time)
female (part-time) - male (full-time)

Source: SES; A4

- (b) Part-time employment rate by gender

Source: Labour Force Survey; Aa

Aa = available annually; A4 = available every 4 years; N = new data collection to be set up

Indicator 4: Ratio by age and education level

Two factors that heavily influence wage formation, and hence the pay gap, are the individual's age and level of education. A person's age is relevant as an indicator of professional experience, career development and vertical segregation. It also indicates to what extent seniority and professional experience are reflected in pay.

In the 2001 indicators, separate ratios were given for full-time work and part-time work. That distinction has been removed so that all workers (part-time as well as full-time) are covered as in indicator 1. In addition, as in indicators 1 and 3, the employment rates by age and education are listed.

4.1. Age

As regards the employment rate of the youngest group, it should be borne in mind that many of the people in that category are still doing their studies and so are not looking for a job.

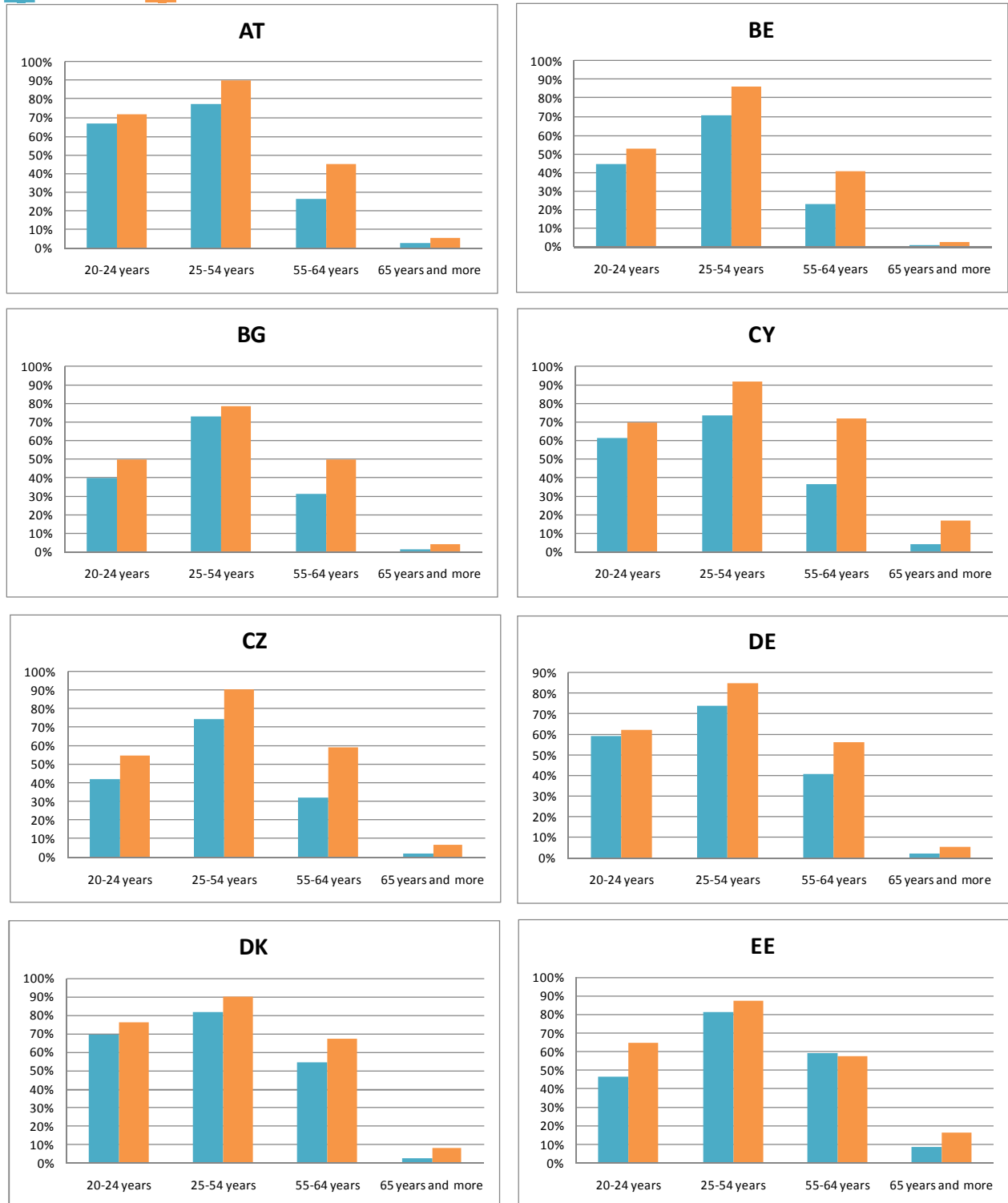
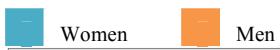
Regardless of the country, employment rates are highest in the age range from 25 to 54 and then fall afterwards (Figure 18, see also Annex 12). That trend is particularly marked in Belgium, Bulgaria, France, Hungary, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Poland, Romania and Slovakia. In those countries the employment rates of people aged 20-24 and 55-64 are low, at no more than 55 %, whilst the rate for those aged 25 to 54 is high, at over 70 %.

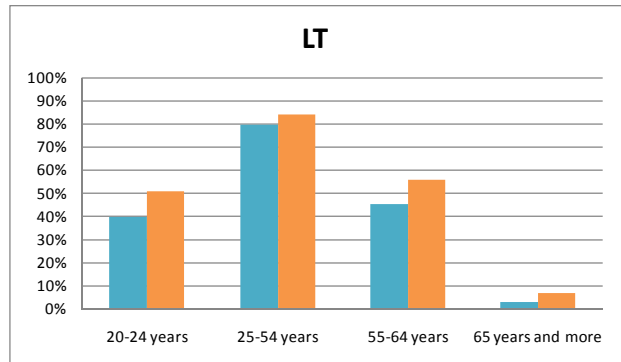
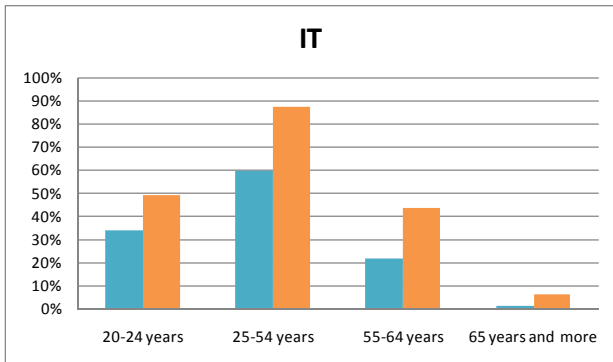
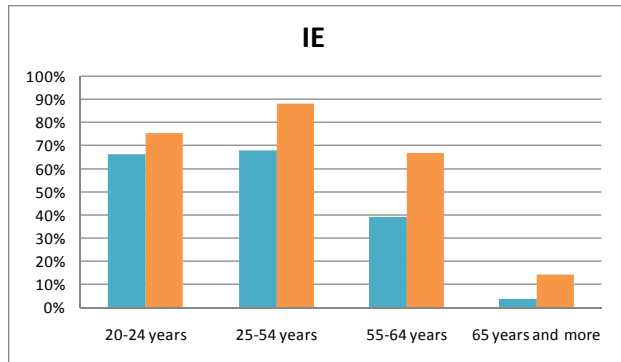
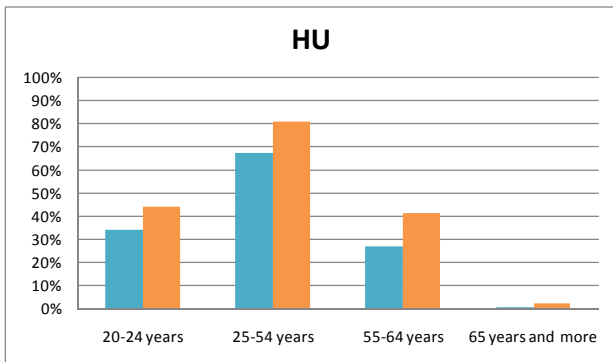
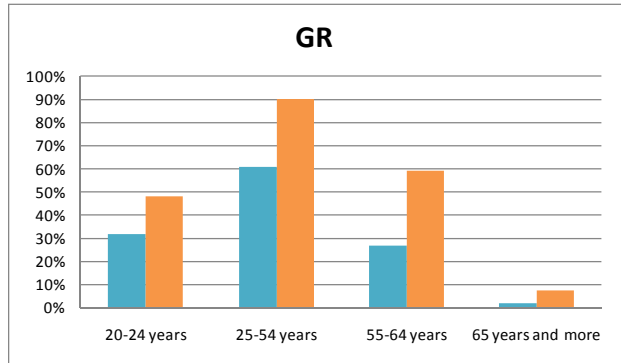
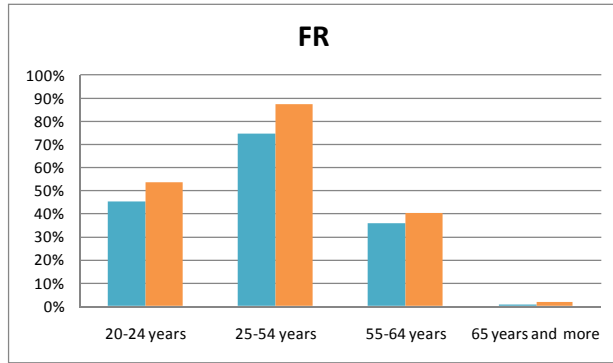
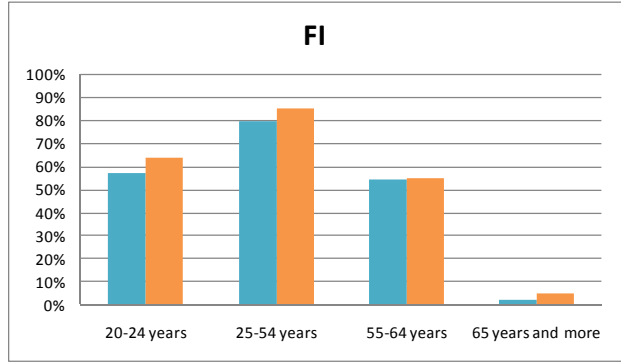
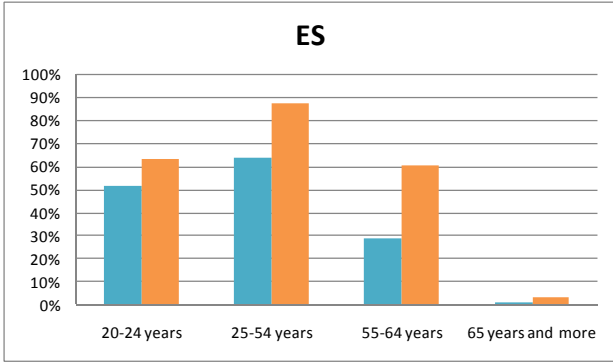
Women's employment rates are consistently lower than those of men in all age ranges, except in Estonia for people aged 55-64 (though the difference is only 1,7 percentage points). In Finland, the employment rates of women and men aged between 55 and 64 are equal.

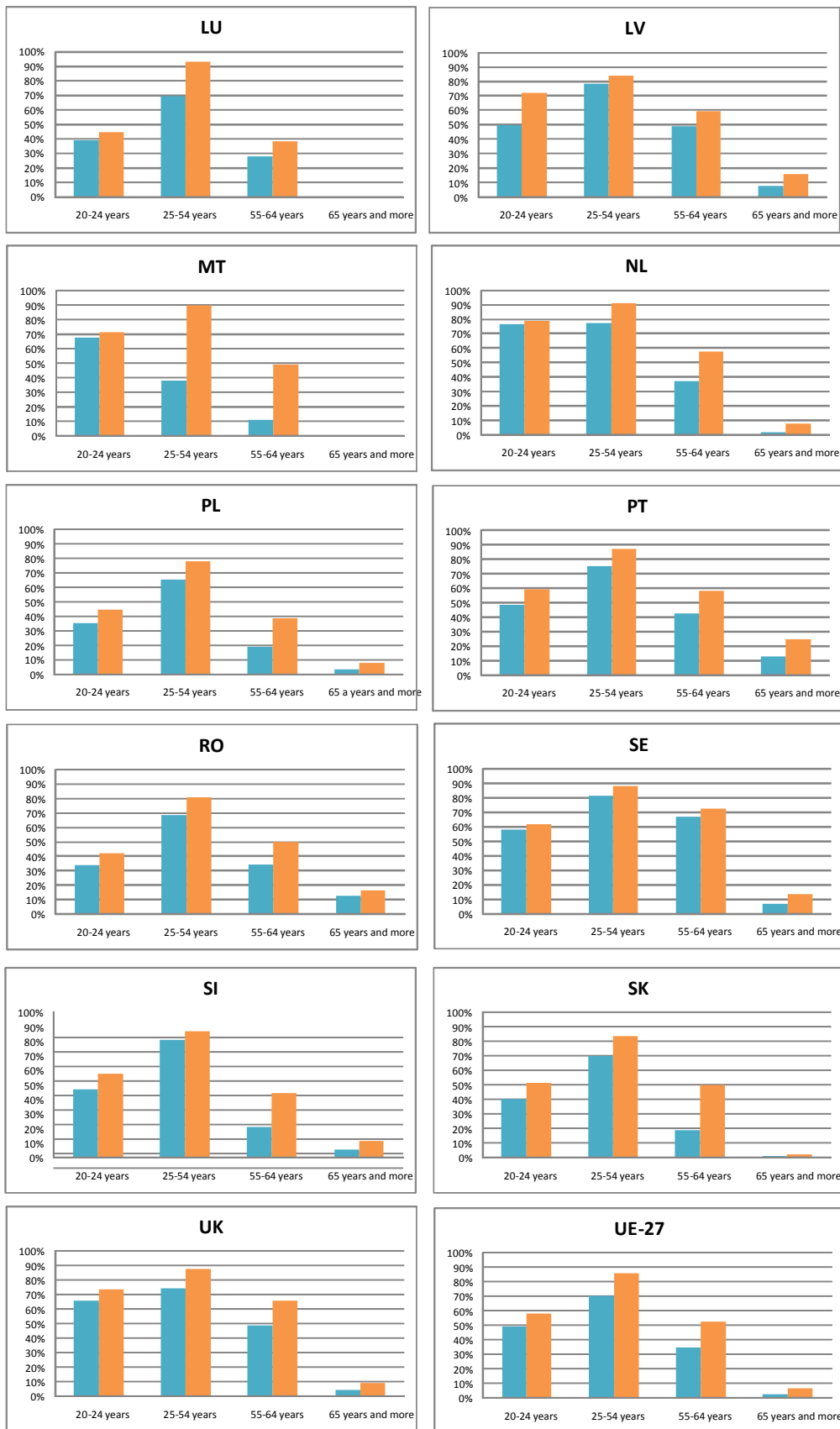
The widest gap in female and male employment rates is amongst those aged 55-64 in most countries and the indicator shows that employment rates fall quicker with age for women than for men. The gap reaches 39 percentage points in Malta. In France, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta and Sweden the employment gap is widest amongst people aged 25-54. It ranges from 6,3 percentage points in Sweden to 30 percentage points in Italy. In Finland, the gaps are widest amongst people in the 20-24 age range, though they are still relatively low compared to other countries. Countries such as the Netherlands, Germany, Malta and Sweden have relatively low employment gaps (below 5 percentage points) for people in the youngest age range. That may reflect a generation factor: the youngest women are entering employment more than their seniors and are better integrated in the labour market. Lower employment gaps amongst young people can also be found where education systems are better adapted to labour market requirements, since girls and boys leaving the school system can then find a job more easily and the employment rates of both groups are high. In addition, both girls and boys frequently find it necessary to combine work with studies.

Figure 18: Employment rates of women and men by age (2009)

Key:







Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

The pay gap generally increases with age (Figure 19; see also Annex 13). In most countries, regardless of gender, average earnings rise with age, with the exception in certain countries of people over 65 years old ¹⁴.

That finding confirms the positive correlation between age and the pay gap highlighted by some authors including Blau and Kahn (2000). Age is a partial indicator of a person's level of professional experience, though this probably applies less to women owing to career breaks for maternity and parental leave, etc. Beblo and Wolf (2000) and Datta Gupta et al. (2002) have demonstrated that career breaks, particularly on maternity or parental leave, have a negative short- and medium-term impact on women's earnings. Taking a one-year career break at the age of 30 results in a pay cut of EUR 0,10 per hour (Beblo and Wolf, 2000). 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 (Datta Gupta et al. 2002). Datta Gupta et al. (2006) have also demonstrated that in countries with the most generous systems for career breaks, maternity leave and paternity leave (essentially the Nordic countries) there is a "boomerang effect" on women's position in the labour market, particularly for those with the highest level of education. In a sense, the Nordic system may have created a sort of glass ceiling in sectors, as opposed to enterprises, since the public sector provides more opportunities in terms of parental leave and other working arrangements but at lower wage levels.

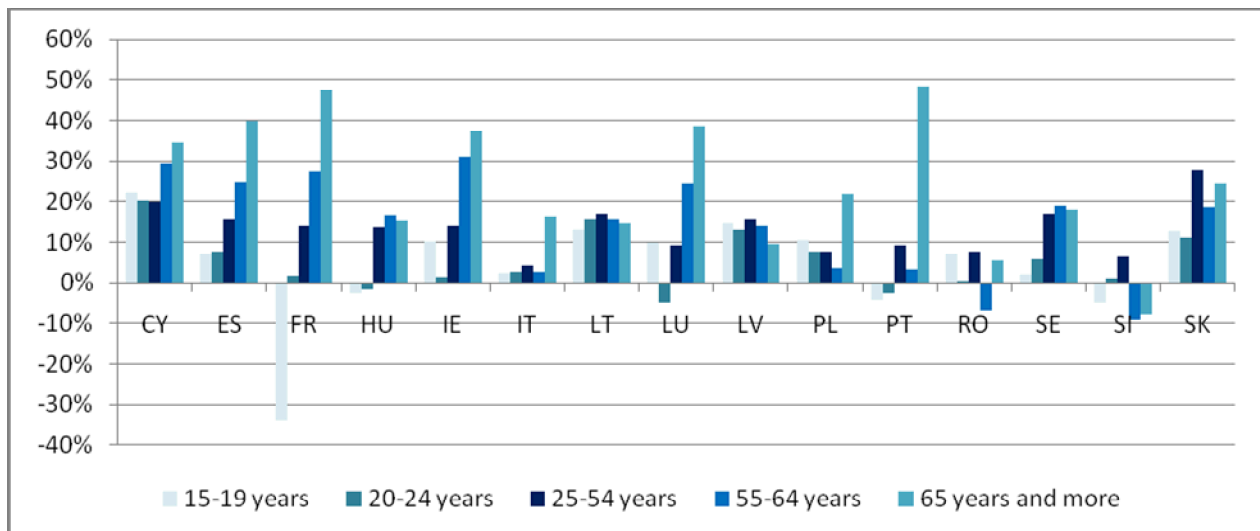
The tendency for the pay gap to rise with age has not been constant in all countries. For example, in Ireland, Luxembourg, Latvia, Poland, Romania and Slovakia the pay gap is close to 10 % for the age group from 15-19, then narrows for the next age group before generally increasing afterwards. That finding needs to be qualified, however, since the employment rates of women and men in that age group are low. In Lithuania the pay gap rises up to and including 25-54 years old and then falls. The lower amount of statistics available for the age group of 65 and above also needs to be taken into account.

¹⁴ The data on workers aged 65 and above are only available for Cyprus, Spain, France, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Sweden, Slovenia and Slovakia.

In some countries and age groups, women average higher gross hourly earnings than men. That applies to people between 15 and 19 years old in France, Hungary, Portugal and Slovenia, where the gap is between -34,13 % and -2,50%. The same applies to those aged 20-24 in Hungary, Luxembourg and Portugal; those aged 55-64 in Romania and Slovenia; and those aged 65 and above in Slovenia.

The large variations in the pay gap based on age in France and Luxembourg, and the smaller variations noted in Sweden, have been highlighted in a study based on SES data for 1995 (Rubery, 2002).

Figure 19: Differences between the average gross hourly earnings of women and men by age (in euro) (2006)



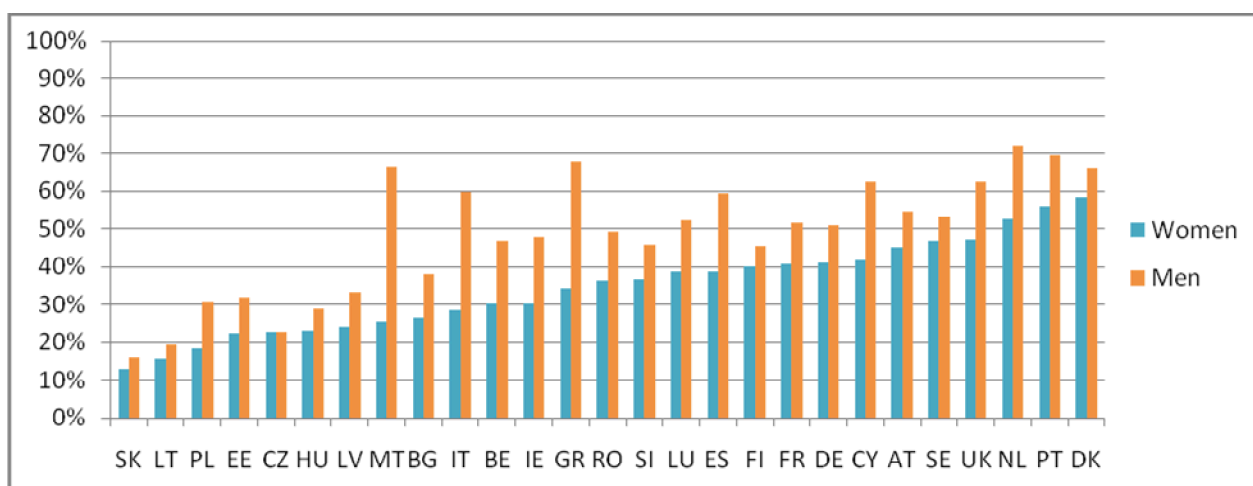
Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

4.2. Education level

As was the case for age, participation in the labour market depends heavily on the level of education: the employment rate generally rises in line with the level of education. This is particularly true for women. In Belgium, for example, the employment rate of women with little education is 30,1 % compared to 79,4 % for those with high qualifications, which represents a difference of 49,3 percentage points, whilst the difference for men is 38 percentage points. This results in a gap in the employment rate, which falls in line with rising education levels. The employment rate is being calculated here for the age group between 15 and 64.

The employment rate of men with a low level of education¹⁵ is consistently higher than the corresponding one for women in all countries apart from the Czech Republic (though the difference is only one percentage point) (Figure 20; see also Annex 14). The male employment rate ranges from 15,9 % to 66,3 % whilst the female one is between 12,9 % and 58,3 %, with the lowest rates in Slovakia and the highest in Denmark. The gender gaps in employment rates are narrowest in Slovakia and Lithuania, at below five percentage points. They are widest in Spain, Cyprus, Italy, Greece and Malta, at over 20 percentage points.

Figure 20: Employment rates for women and men with a low level of education (2009)

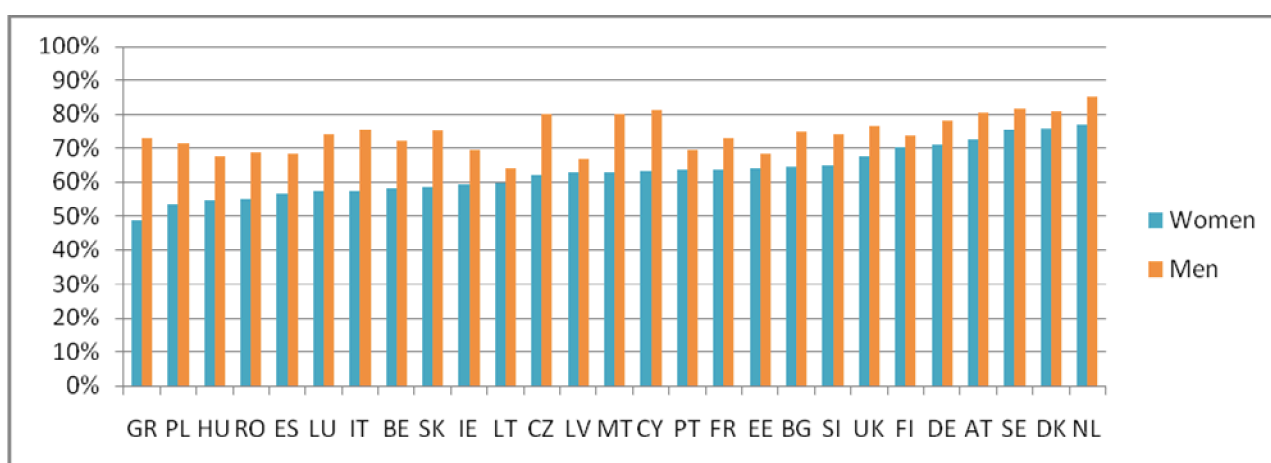


Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

¹⁵ The "low" education level means a level below higher secondary education.

The employment rates of people with a medium¹⁶ level of education are higher than those of people with a lower education level, in all countries (Figure 21; see also Annex 14). The gender gaps in employment rates are narrower than those for people with the lowest qualifications in all countries apart from Lithuania, Luxembourg, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Slovakia. They range from 24 percentage points in Greece to 8 percentage points in the Netherlands.

Figure 21: Employment rates for women and men with a medium level of education (2009)



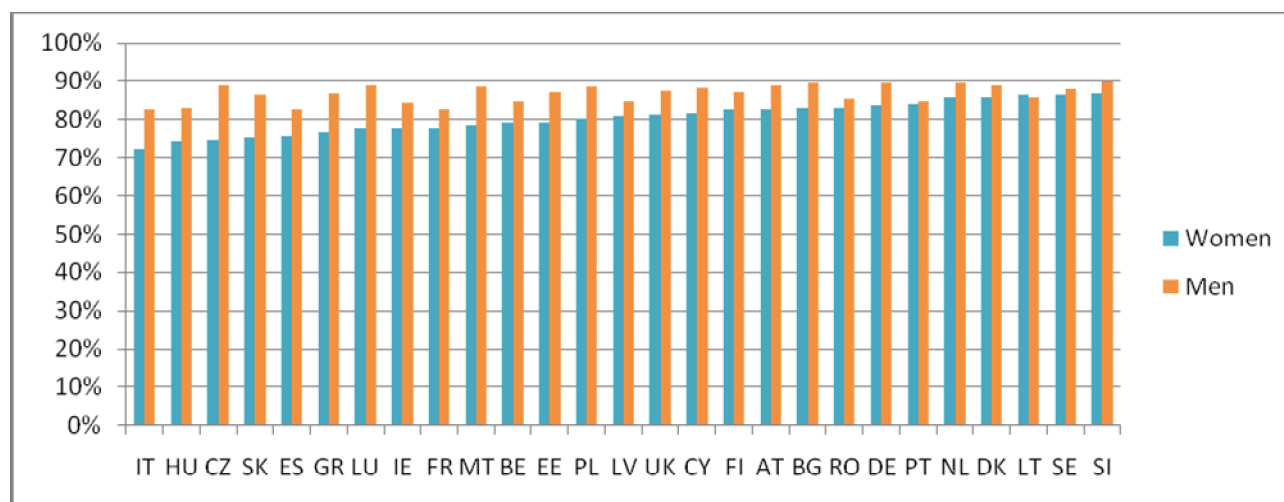
Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

Employment rates are over 70 % where the education level is highest¹⁷, both for women and men and in all countries (Figure 22; see also Annex 14). As the increase in the employment rate in line with the level of education is more marked for women, this leads to a narrowing of the gender gaps in employment rates. Those gaps range from 11,4 percentage points in Luxembourg to 0,9 percentage points in Portugal (whilst in Lithuania the gap is even in women's favour).

¹⁶ The "medium" education level is equivalent to higher secondary education and a short course of post-secondary education.

¹⁷ The "high" education level is equivalent, at least, to a long type of higher education course.

Figure 22: Employment rates for women and men with a high level of education (2009)



Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

As a general rule, earnings increase in line with a person's level of education, with men's earnings always being higher than those of women with the same education level. The effect on the pay gap is not straightforward, however (Figure 24; see also Annex 15).

The pay gap is higher amongst people with the highest qualifications in Germany, the, Czech Republic, Finland, France, Greece, Hungary, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Sweden, Slovakia and the United Kingdom. It ranges from 19,22 % in Luxembourg to 32,30 % in Slovakia. These findings concur with those of Barth et al. (2002), which had already highlighted larger pay gaps amongst the most highly educated people in the Netherlands and Germany. In those countries, the pay gap between those with the lowest education level ranges from 8,45 % in Germany to 23,75 % in the Netherlands. The narrower pay gap amongst those with lower education levels may partly be explained by women's participation in the labour market. The employment rates presented above have shown that women who have received little education join the labour market less frequently and are also more likely to take career breaks or give up all paid work in order to look after children. The average earnings of women in this group are higher than they would be if more less-educated women were in the labour market.

An additional factor is the important role played by career-building and individual pay negotiations amongst those with the highest qualifications, since they often cause a widening of the pay gap. Such findings may also underline the professional segregation suffered by women. Despite women's high level of education, which equals or is even superior to men's, women find it harder to obtain jobs with the best salaries and come up against the "glass ceiling". In addition, remuneration systems and job evaluation and classification systems are major contributors to pay gaps (Datta Gupta et al. 2001; Rubery 2005).

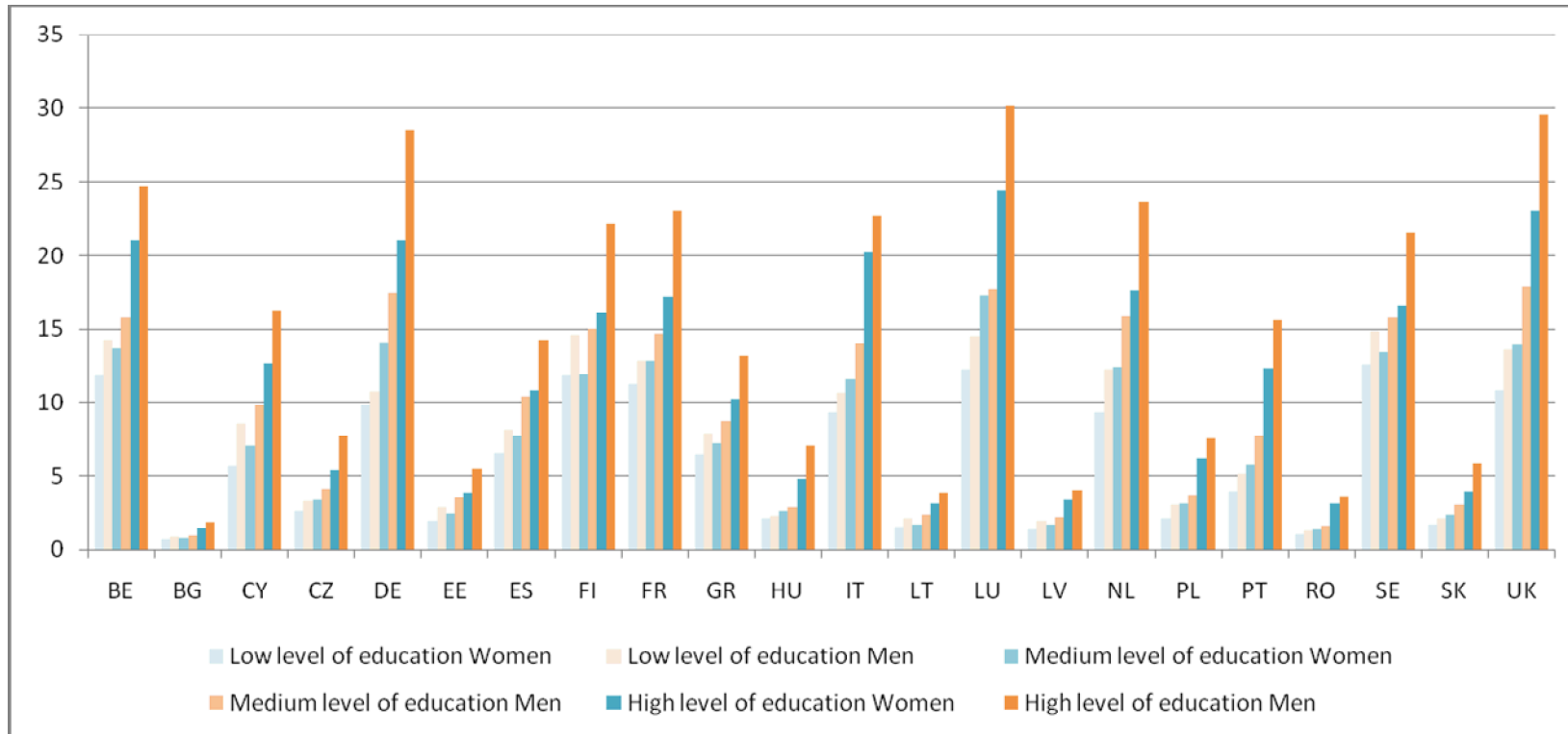
In contrast, the gender pay gap is narrowest where the level of education is high in Belgium, Cyprus, Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland and Romania. In that group of countries the gap ranges from 13,97 % in Romania to 29,37 % in Estonia.

In Bulgaria, Spain, Italy and Portugal, women suffer a larger wage penalty than men in the population group with a medium level of education. They are paid on average between 16,71 % and 25,27 % less than men in Bulgaria and Spain, respectively.

Seeking to cover education levels in 3 main groups (low, medium and high) masks major differences in study paths: women and men do not do the same studies and this might be reflected in the pay gap as each branch of learning is rated differently in the labour market.

Rubery et al. (2002) have also presented some conflicting findings based on different studies concerning women's education levels: some show that 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.

Figure 23: Average gross hourly earnings of women and men by education level (in euro) (2006)



Source: Structure of Earnings Survey – SES

SUMMARY - INDICATOR 4: RATIO BY AGE AND EDUCATION LEVEL

This indicator helps analyse pay gaps whilst bearing in mind the different life and career paths of women and men.

Compared to the 2001 indicator, the distinction between full-time and part-time work has been removed so as to cover all workers (part-time as well as full-time) as in indicator 1.

In addition, as with the previous indicators, the employment rates by age and education level are listed, in order to put the findings for the different European countries in context.

LIST OF INDICATORS INCLUDED IN INDICATOR 4

- (a) Employment rate by age and gender

Source: Labour Force Survey; Aa

- (b) Pay gap by age group (< 24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64 and 65+) based on hourly earnings of female and male workers, full-time and part-time workers

Source: SES; A4, Aa for some countries, but with the age classes: -25, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, 65+.

- (c) Employment rate by education level (ISCED, 3 levels)

Source: Labour Force Survey; Aa

- (d) Pay gap by education level (ISCED, 3 levels) of full-time and part-time workers

Source: SES; A4

Aa = available annually; A4 = available every 4 years; N = new data collection to be set up

Indicator 5: Segregation in the labour market

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.

Indicator 5 aims to illustrate this segregation.

There are two types of segregation. Firstly, horizontal segregation, which relates to the high concentration of women in certain occupations and certain sectors and which is gender based. Secondly, vertical segregation which refers to the high concentration of women in lower-ranking positions. Despite equal qualifications, women do not have the same career opportunities and less often hold management posts. In the literature, vertical segregation is represented by the image of a "glass ceiling", i.e. the full range of visible or invisible barriers that can explain why so few women hold high-level positions. Women are often excluded from the more prestigious occupations that involve greater responsibility and higher pay.

The mirror image of the "glass ceiling" is the "sticky floor", in representing the barriers that could prevent women from moving up the ladder. That concept describes the forces that tend to keep women at the bottom of the organisational pyramid.

Among the 2001 indicators, indicator 5 relates to the wage penalty in female-dominated occupations. In point of fact, studying segregation solely on the basis of the pay gap in male/female dominated sectors/occupations can mask the reality in the labour market. A typically "female" sector may be characterised by low pay levels in which case all employees in the sector (including men) are on lower pay. That results in a relatively narrow pay gap in that sector.

This report updates indicator 5: an initial calculation is based on the NACE sectoral classification and a second calculation is based on the ISCO occupational classification (two-digit breakdown). A third calculation has been added: the gender pay gap in management.

The first calculation proposed includes the average gross hourly earnings of women and men in the five occupational sectors accounting for the largest share of women's employment and in the five sectors accounting for the largest share of men's employment (two-digit NACE classification).

The second calculation proposed includes the average gross hourly earnings of women and men in the five occupational categories accounting for the largest share of women's employment and in the five occupational categories accounting for the largest share of men's employment (two-digit ISCO classification).

The third calculation proposed includes the gender pay gap in management; i.e. administrative and commercial managers and production and specialised services managers (ISCO codes 12 and 13).

5.1 Horizontal segregation: sectors

Horizontal segregation is first calculated according to a sector-by-sector classification based on the two-digit NACE classification.

The five sectors where female employment is highest are education, health and social work, the retail trade and repair of household goods, provision of services to enterprises, intermediary financing and, lastly, the catering industry (Horeca).¹⁸ The sectors where male employment is highest are construction, transport and communication, education, the wholesale trade, trade services and, lastly, services provided mainly to enterprises.

¹⁸ "Horeca" is the Belgian acronym for hotels, restaurants and cafés.

In most countries, men earn more than women irrespective of whether the sector is one of the five main sectors accounting for the largest share of women's employment (Figure 24, see also Annex 16). In the sectors accounting for the largest share of women's employment, women's average earnings are between EUR 1,74 (in Romania) and EUR 23,62 (in Ireland) while men's average earnings are between EUR 1,97 and EUR 29,31 (in the same two countries respectively). If we now look at the five sectors accounting for the largest share of men's employment, women's earnings vary from EUR 1,97 (in Romania) to EUR 23,77 (in Ireland) and men's earnings vary from EUR 1,61 to EUR 28,72 (in the same two countries).

In a majority of countries, women employed in the five sectors where male employment is highest earn on average more than if they worked in the five sectors where female employment is highest. Studying the gender pay gap reveals a bigger difference in the sectors where female employment is highest - the gap is up to 23,97 % (e.g. in Slovakia). The gender pay gap is also wide and over 20 % in Portugal, Cyprus, Ireland and France. In contrast, it is narrower and under 10 % in Latvia and Slovenia. Vertical segregation may underlie those pay gaps: in the same sector, men are more likely to occupy a post with greater responsibility and higher pay than women working in the same sector.

In sectors where male employment is highest, the gender pay gap is narrower than in female employment sectors with Italy showing the widest gap of 20,81 %. The size of the gender pay gap varies from one country to another. It is comparatively narrower in female employment sectors in Spain, Sweden and Slovenia and wider in Cyprus, France, Poland and Portugal. Moreover, it is worth noting that in Poland, Portugal, Latvia, Romania and Cyprus, women working in the five main male employment sectors earn on average between 2,27 % (in Cyprus) and 16,59 % (in Poland) more than men. This is probably a consequence of inverse vertical segregation: women working in typically "male" sectors may be directors, managers, etc., whereas the workforce is made up of men.

Figure 24: Average gross hourly earnings of women and men according to the five large sectors (in euro) (2006)



Source: Structure of Earnings Survey - SES

5.2 Horizontal segregation: occupations

Horizontal segregation is also calculated according to an occupational classification based on the two-digit ISCO classification.

It is mainly women who are employed as clerical support workers, other intermediary occupations, teaching professionals, personal service workers and protective service workers, unqualified service and sales workers.

It is mainly men who are employed as craft and related trades workers e.g. metal, machinery and related trades workers, building and related (inter alia extraction) trades workers, or as plant and machine operators and assemblers, e.g. drivers and mobile (inter alia heavy lifting) plant operators, stationary plant and machine operators, as well as in other intermediary occupations.

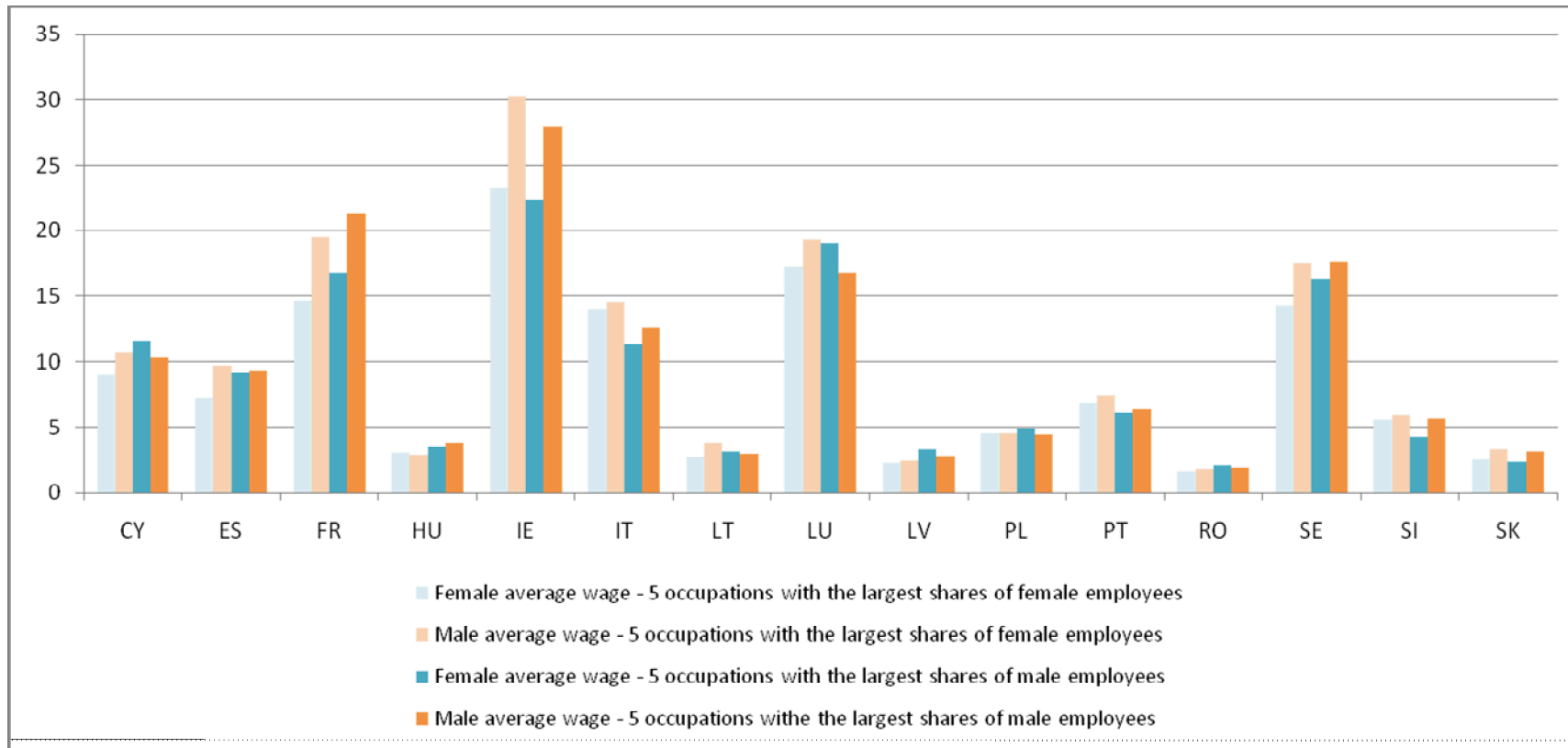
In the five occupations where female employment is highest, women's pay ranges between EUR 1,63 (in Romania) and EUR 23,25 (in Ireland) while men's pay is between EUR 1,82 and EUR 30,23 (in the same two countries respectively) (Figure 26, see also Annex 17). In the five occupations where male employment is highest, the average gross hourly earnings for women varies from EUR 2,05 (in Romania) to EUR 22,33 (in Ireland) and for men from EUR 1,91 and EUR 27,93 (in the same two countries).

In most countries, women's average earnings are higher when they work in one of the five occupations where male employment is highest than when they work in one of the five occupations where female employment is highest. One of the reasons for this may be that average earnings in these five occupations are lower than in the five occupations accounting for the largest share of men's employment.

On the other hand, men's average pay is higher if they work in one of the five occupations where female employment is highest. That result is evidence of vertical segregation: men have access to better paid jobs than women. This may go some way towards explaining why the gender pay gap is consistently lower in occupations where male, and not female, employment is highest.

The gender pay gap is wide in certain countries, in all five occupations where male and female employment is highest e.g. in France, Ireland and Slovakia where it exceeds 20 %. In other countries such as Italy and Portugal, it is narrower and under 10 %. The gender pay gap is negative in Hungary and Poland in the five occupations accounting for a high proportion of women's employment and in Latvia, Luxembourg, Cyprus, Poland, Romania and Lithuania in the five occupations where male employment is highest. In those cases, women's average gross earnings are higher than men's, with a difference of nearly as much as 20 % in Latvia.

Figure 25: Average gross hourly earnings of women and men according to the five main occupations (in euro) (2006)



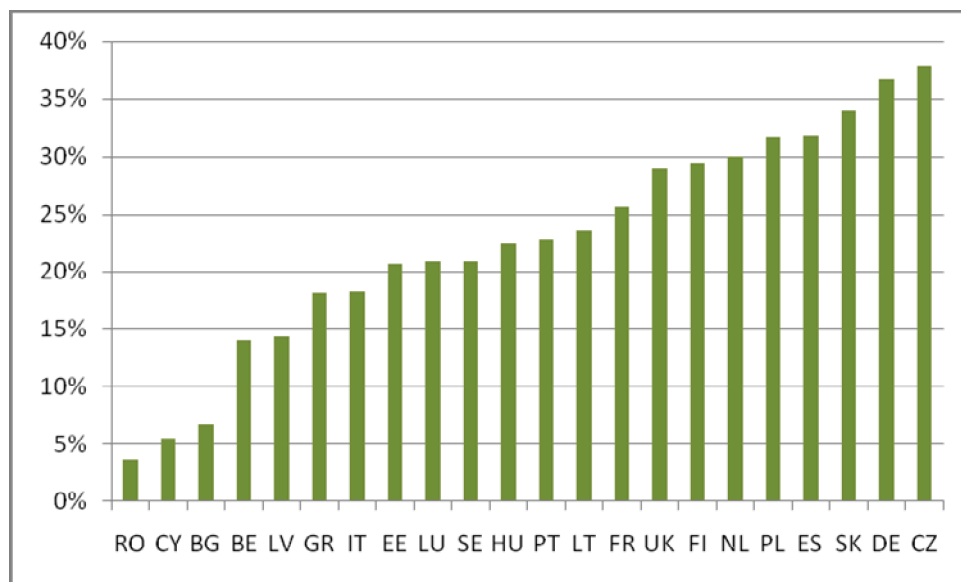
Source: Structure of Earnings Survey - SES

5.3 Vertical segregation: managers

Vertical segregation causes pay gaps based on pay dispersion: it has a variable impact at the top and bottom of the distribution of pay and refers to the concepts of "glass ceiling" and "sticky floor" mentioned earlier. The idea is that women are hampered by "invisible" obstacles which prevent them from reaching the highest levels of responsibility and this phenomenon is observed at different stages of their careers. Drawing up an indicator reflecting that fact is not easy. There was no such indicator in the set of indicators from 2001. The ISCO groups broadly reflect a hierarchy of posts: Group 1 covers managers. As Group 11 includes public sector officials and that group is not given for all countries, it is not included in the calculation either.

Consequently, the gender pay gap is calculated for the ISCO 12 and ISCO 13 occupations (Figure 26, see also Annex 18). This shows that the gap is between 4 % in Romania and 38 % in the Czech Republic. There are quite significant differences between countries, which do not coincide with the pay gap in general. The "glass ceiling" - measured as the gender gap at management level - is significant in the Czech Republic, Germany, Slovakia, Spain, Poland and the Netherlands where the gender pay gap is over 30 %. In Romania, Cyprus and Bulgaria it is under 10 %.

Figure 26: Gap between the average gross hourly earnings of women and men in management (2006)



Source: Structure of Earnings Survey – SES

SUMMARY - INDICATOR 5: SEGREGATION IN THE LABOUR MARKET

Gender-based pay inequalities are partly explained by segregation in the labour market; women working more frequently in sectors and posts where the pay is lower.

Segregation already informed indicator 5 in 2001, and its title has now been adapted to reflect the actual content better and to make it more relevant. The indicator has also been readjusted. In 2001 it was the gender pay gap for the 10 most female and the 10 most male occupations and sectors.

Studying the effect of segregation solely on the basis of the pay gap in male/female dominated sectors/occupations can mask the reality in the labour market. What might be considered a female sector can be characterised by low pay for both women and men and can result in a narrow gender pay gap. To remedy that, the segregation indicator compares the pay levels of women and men. Moreover, the indicator confines itself to the five sectors/occupations accounting for the largest share of women/men's employment.

To better assess vertical segregation i.e. the "glass ceiling", the pay gap is also calculated for managers.

LIST OF INDICATORS INCLUDED IN INDICATOR 5

(a) Average gross hourly earnings of women and men in the five sectors (two-digit NACE classification) with the highest number of female workers and the highest number of male workers.

Source: SES; A4

(b) Average gross hourly earnings of women and men in the five occupations (two-digit ISCO classification) with the highest number of female workers and the highest number of male workers.

Source: SES; A4

(c) Gender pay gap in management (ISCO codes 12 and 13)

Source: SES; A4

Aa = available annually; A4 = available every 4 years; N = new data collection to be set up

Indicator 6: Ratio according to personal circumstances

In the 2001 set of indicators, no indicator looked at the gender pay gap in terms of certain personal circumstances such as family composition, marital status or country of birth. Nevertheless, each of these factors plays a key role in women and men's earnings and may partially explain the gender pay gap.

Family composition and marital status generally affect the earnings of women and men in opposing ways and can therefore exacerbate the gender pay gap. The earnings of women who have children and/or are married are generally lower than those of women who have no children and/or are unmarried, and lower than the earnings of men. Conversely, men who have children and/or are married on average earn more than men who have no children and/or are unmarried, and more than women.

That phenomenon may inter alia be explained by discrimination and gender stereotypes that assign certain tasks to women and others to men according to a gender-based division of labour whether it is unpaid work undertaken in a private capacity or remunerated work in the labour market.

The same is true for the country of birth, which can negatively impact on pay and together with gender have a cumulative effect in the case of women. This results in dual discrimination.

Indicators for the gender pay gap according to family composition, marital status and the country of birth are therefore calculated, as are the rates of employment according to family composition and marital status (combining the two) by analogy with previous indicators.

It is currently not possible to make these calculations on the basis of the SES data because this information is not included in the database. Dupuy et al (2009) have already highlighted this information gap. Their report recommends extending the SES as the best solution. An alternative would be the SILC survey although the data on earnings are less reliable than in the SES (see above)¹⁹. All the same, the data in the SILC survey do make it possible to present the (preliminary) results of the new indicator.

6.1. Employment rate of women and men by family situation and marital status

Male employment rates are always higher than female employment rates irrespective of the family situation and marital status (Figure 27, see also Annex 19). Gender gaps are very often more pronounced among married persons although this is less true of the new Member States where the widest gaps are often found among unmarried couples with a child/children.

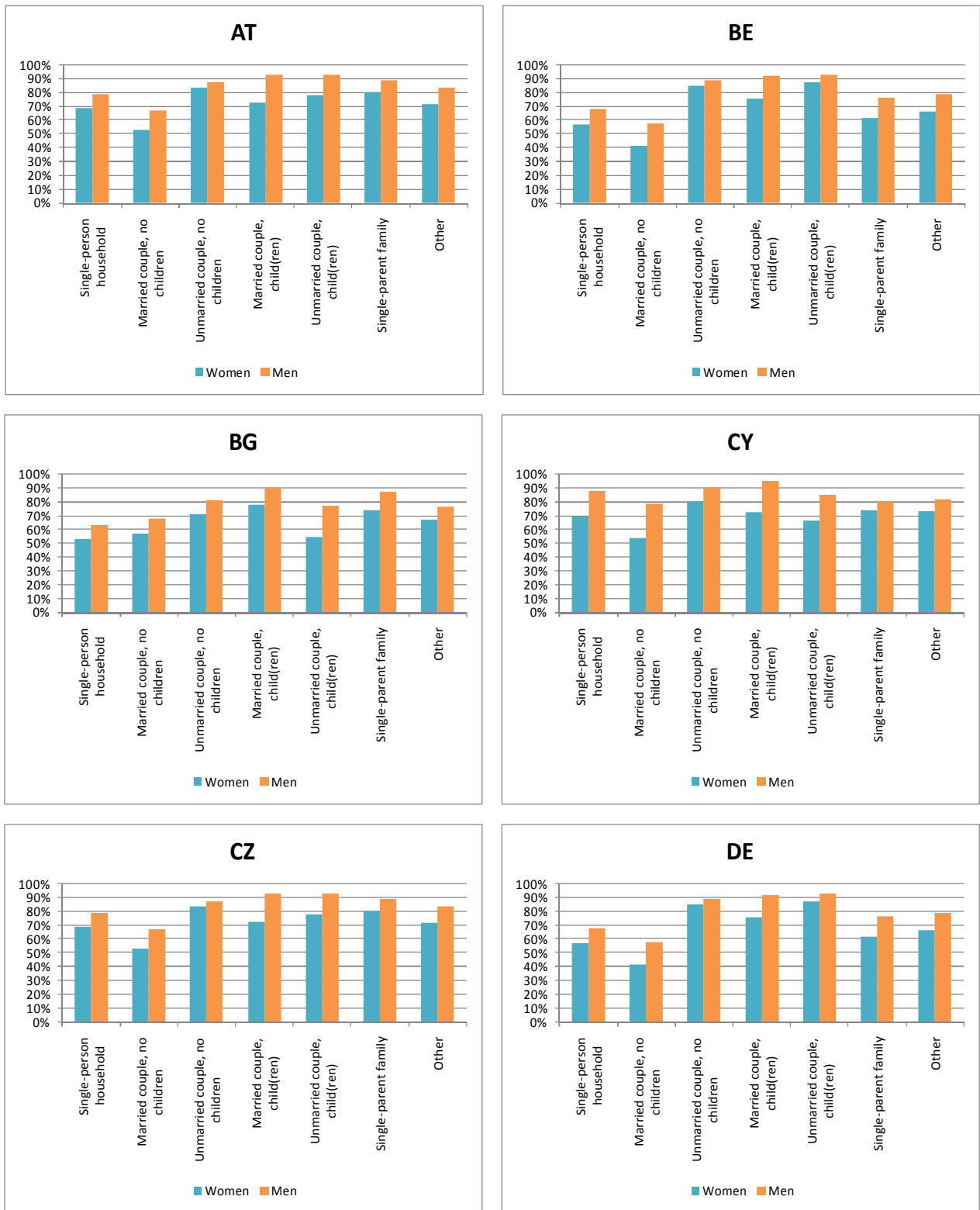
¹⁹ The SILC survey takes as its basis declared earnings for the reference period, i.e. the year preceding the interview.

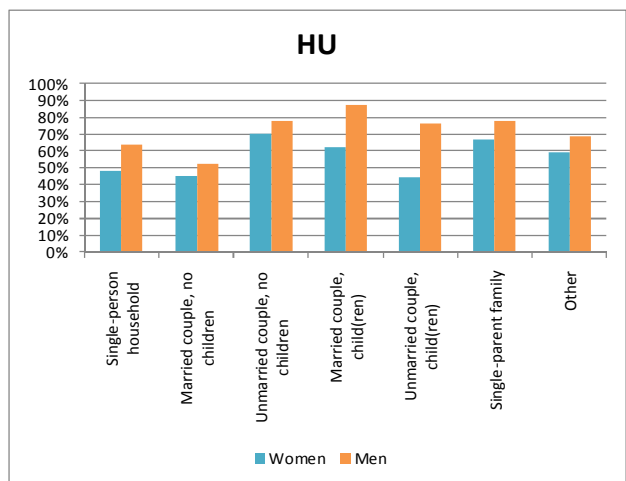
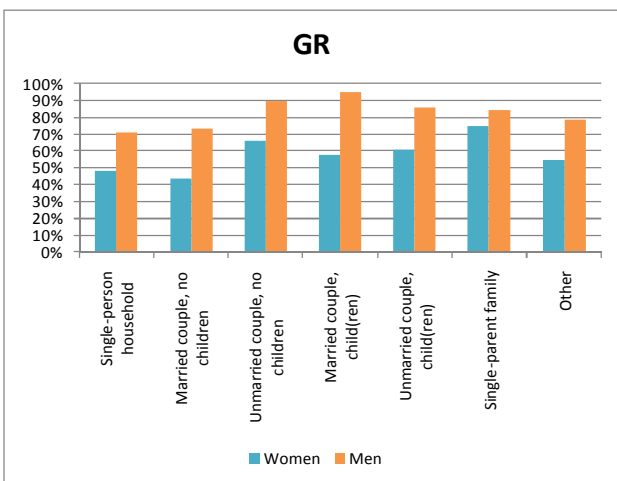
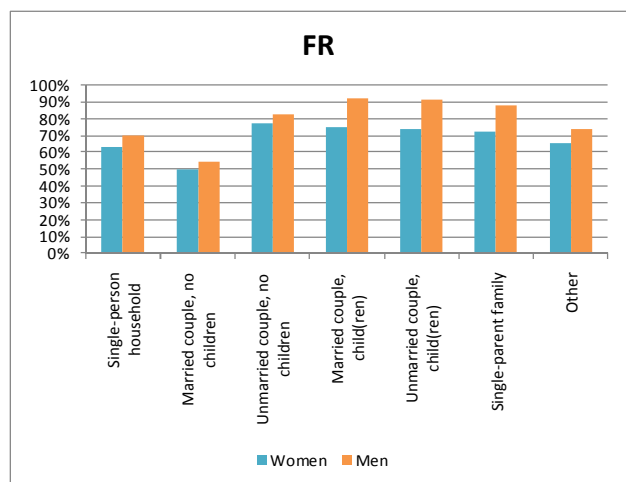
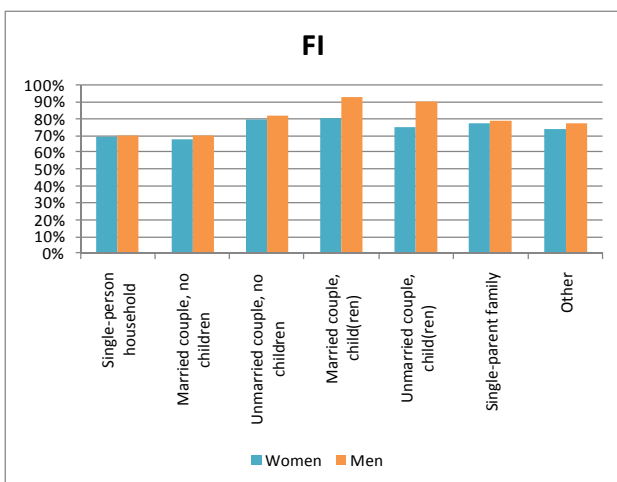
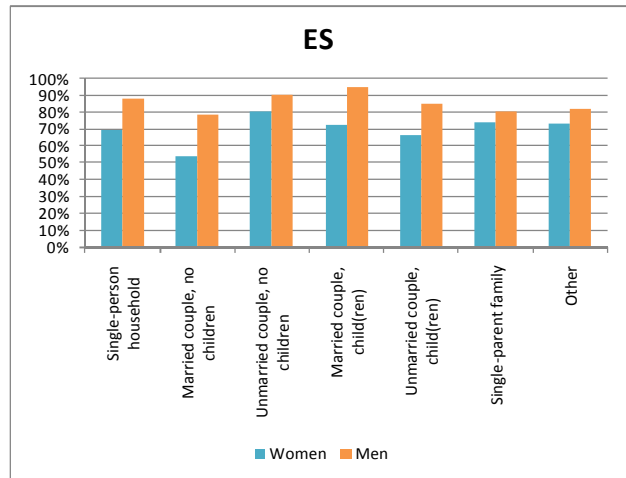
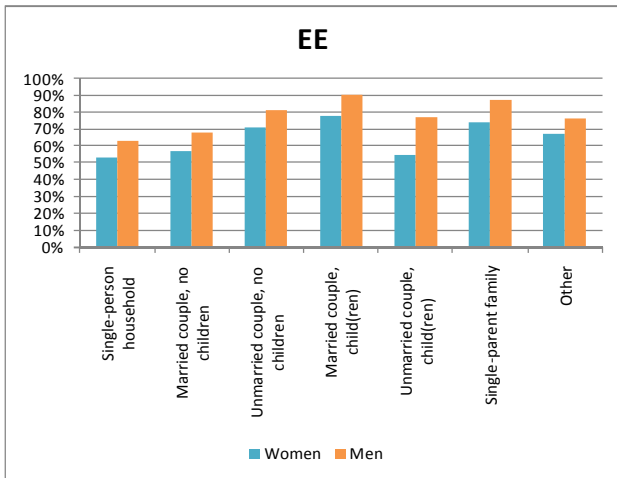
In all countries, male employment rates are consistently at their highest when men are married and have a child/children, except in Belgium and Luxembourg where this is observed when they are unmarried and have a child/children. The employment rates for married men with a child/children range from 85 % in Romania to 96 % in the Czech Republic. Male employment rates are, conversely, at their lowest in the case of married childless couples and one-person households. They range from 52 % in Hungary to 80 % in the United Kingdom for married men without children; and from 58 % in Malta to 88 % in Cyprus for men in one-person households. That phenomenon can be explained by the fact that the age when people have children is also the age when people are most likely to be in work. The employment rates of people with no children are generally lower because they record inter alia younger generations who have not yet had children and older generations whose children have left home.

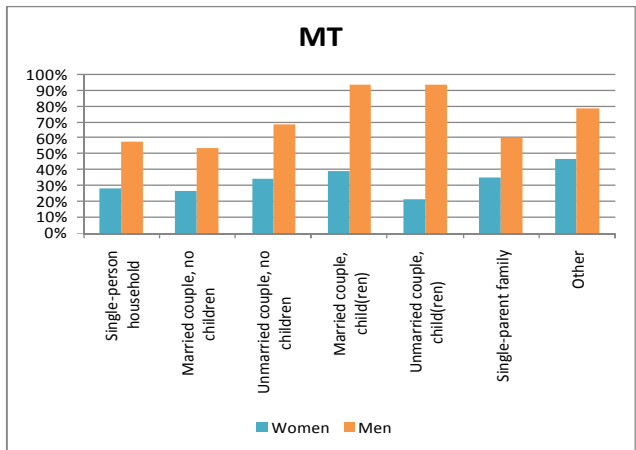
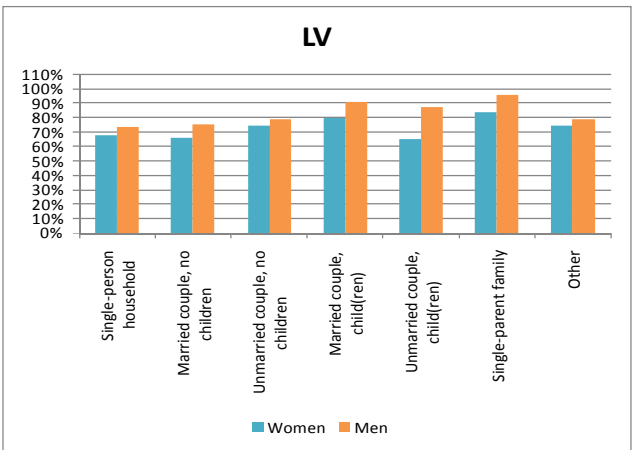
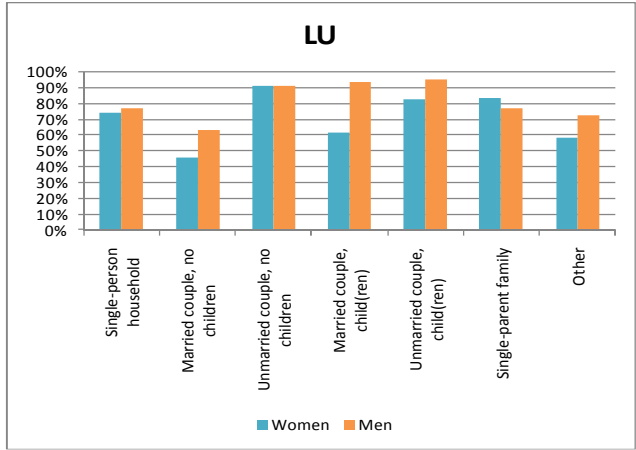
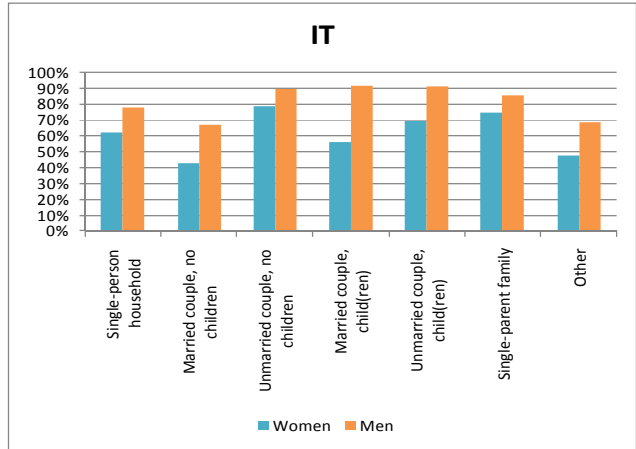
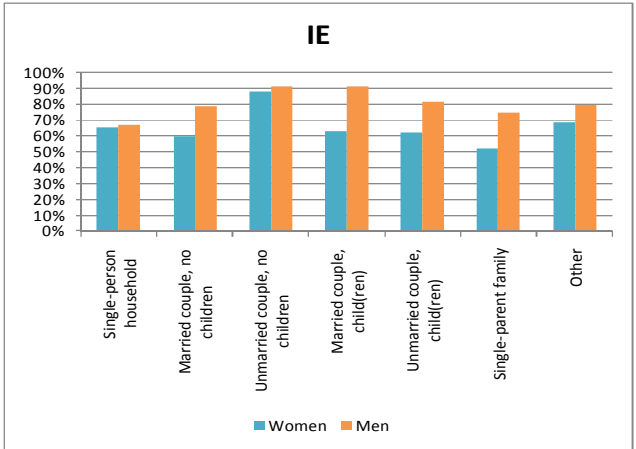
The same observation does not, however, apply to women since their employment rates are in most countries highest when they are single and have no children. Those rates range from 66 % in Greece to 91 % in Luxembourg, with the exception of Malta where the employment rate is 35 %. In general, married women are less likely to be employed than single women.

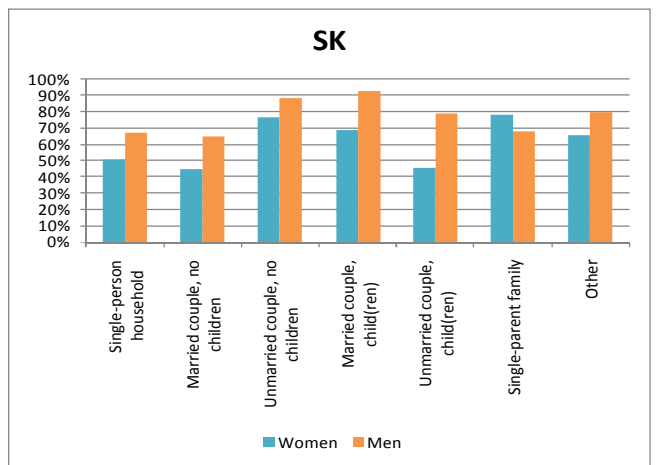
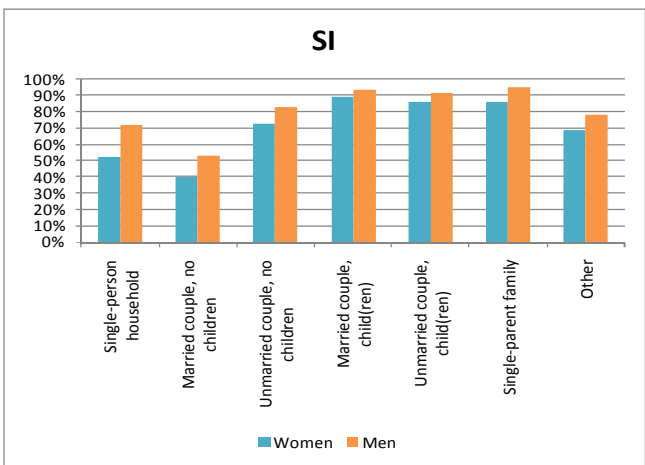
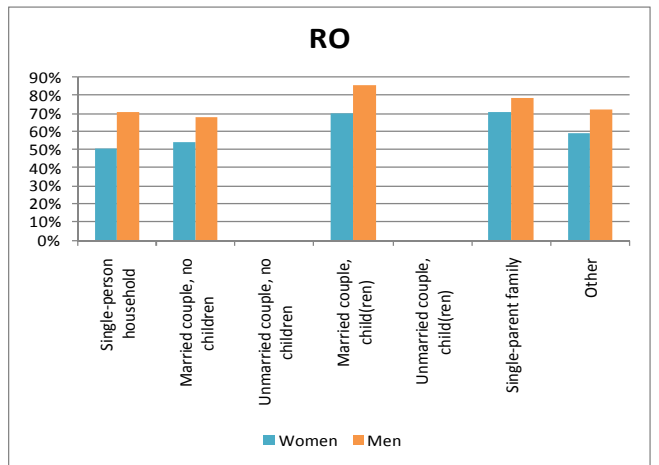
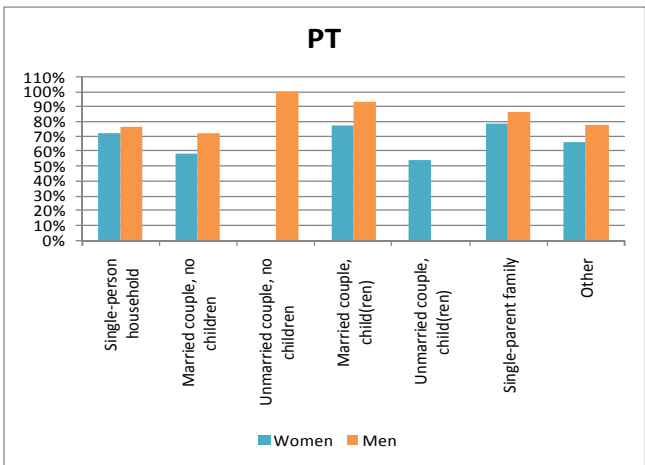
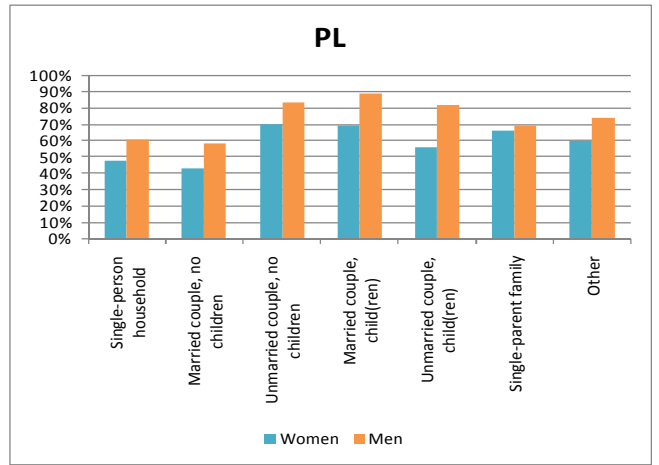
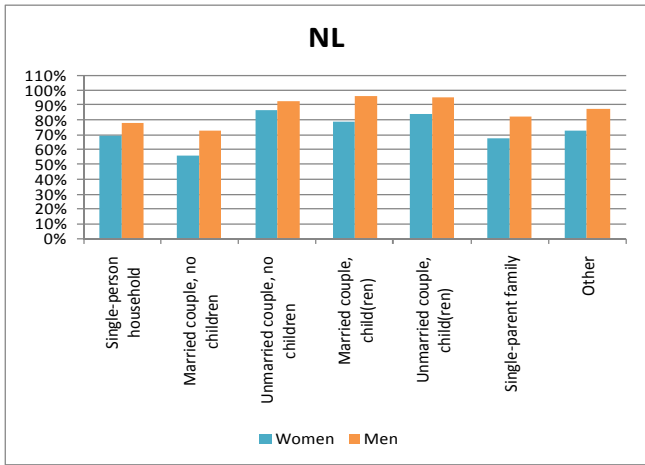
The gender employment-rate gaps are often most pronounced in the category of married couples with children. In Malta, this employment-rate differential is even as high as 55 percentage points. The other countries showing a gap of over 20 percentage points are Greece, Italy, Luxembourg, Spain, the Czech Republic, Ireland, Hungary, Slovakia, Cyprus, Germany and Austria. In contrast, these gaps are much narrower in the case of one-person households.

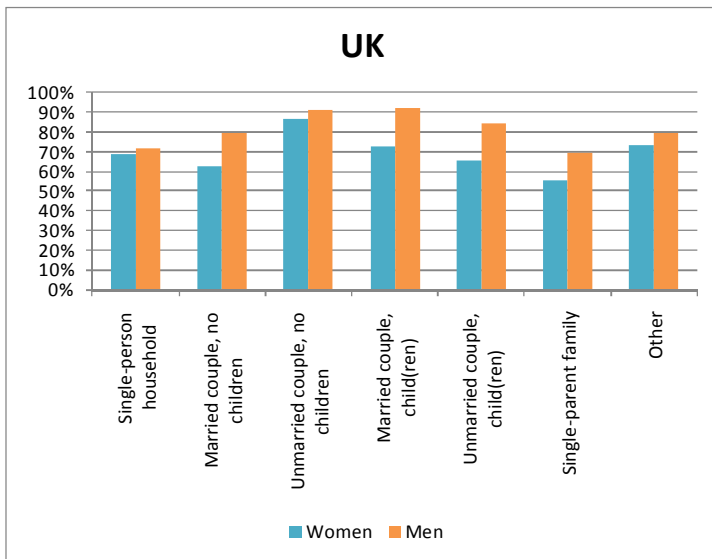
Figure 27: Employment rate by family situation and marital status (2008)











Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

6.2. Pay gap by family situation and marital status

Family situation and marital status have a fairly important impact on women's and men's pay and have an effect on the pay gap.

The table illustrating the ratio for the differences in earnings²⁰ by combining these two pieces of information shows that, in the majority of cases, women earn less than men (Table 4). The difference is generally more marked for married couples and is even more pronounced for married couples with a child/children in half the countries (Austria, the Czech Republic, Germany, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, Hungary, Ireland, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Poland, Sweden, Slovenia, Slovakia and the United Kingdom).

²⁰ Here the pay gap is calculated as a Female/Male ratio to avoid confusion because these data are based on another source (the SILC) which is very different from the SES.

Conversely, the gender pay gap is lower in the case of one-person households (Belgium, Denmark, Spain, Finland, France, Lithuania, Latvia and Sweden) or unmarried couples without a child/children (Austria, the Czech Republic, Greece, Hungary, Poland, Slovakia and the United Kingdom).

In a majority of countries therefore, marital status and the presence of a child/children work against women; both factors widen the gender pay gap.

In certain countries, the pay gap is in favour of single women (Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Poland, Slovenia), married women without any children (Ireland), unmarried women in a relationship without children (Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, Slovenia), unmarried women in a relationship with a child/children (Austria, Spain, Italy, Portugal), women who are in single-parent family situations (Austria, Cyprus, Greece, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal) and, lastly, women in other household situations (Hungary, Slovenia) although some of the results should be interpreted with caution because the number of observations is low.

Table 3: Ratio for differences in earnings according to family situation and marital status (2007)

	One- person household	Married couple without children	Unmarried couple without children	Married couple with a child/children	Unmarried couple with a child/children	Single-parent families	Others
AT	0,92	0,80	0,93	0,79	1,02	1,39	0,84
BE	0,99	0,86	0,95	0,86	0,90	0,98	0,94
BG	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
CY	0,78	0,61	0,80	0,78	0,96	1,06	0,78
CZ	0,81	0,76	0,91	0,69	0,74	0,72	0,83
DE	0,95	0,76	0,97	0,73	0,99	0,98	0,86
DK	1,00	0,86	0,91	0,80	0,94	0,85	0,90
EE	0,82	0,72	0,88	0,60	0,61	0,94	0,77
ES	0,90	0,86	0,88	0,89	1,02	0,81	0,88
FI	0,94	0,79	0,91	0,76	0,75	0,86	0,84
FR	0,99	0,79	0,96	0,85	0,87	0,95	0,81
GR	1,15	0,61	0,98	0,79	0,84	1,39	0,94
HU	1,19	0,90	0,99	0,83	0,98	0,76	1,01
IE	1,05	1,01	1,06	0,87	0,87	0,90	0,97
IT	0,88	0,93	1,07	0,98	1,05	0,89	0,94
LT	0,91	0,86	1,21	0,72	0,75	0,83	0,84
LU	0,80	0,80	0,76	0,78	0,88	0,93	0,93
LV	0,94	0,72	0,79	0,79	0,85	0,86	0,83
MT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
NL	0,99	0,65	0,90	0,74	1,00	1,03	0,84
PL	1,19	0,99	1,29	0,87	0,89	1,21	0,91
PT	0,81	0,83	1,19	0,84	1,13	1,32	0,94
RO	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
SE	0,95	0,78	0,84	0,73	na	0,89	0,88
SI	1,06	0,92	1,16	0,84	0,89	0,99	1,01
SK	0,93	0,81	0,98	0,70	0,79	0,93	0,82
UK	0,82	0,79	0,98	0,70	0,92	0,94	0,88

Note: na = not available

Italics: Data somewhat unreliable (number of observations < 100)

The lightly shaded cells indicate the categories for which the pay gap is in favour of women.

Source: Statistics on income and living conditions

6.3. Pay gap by country of birth

Gender inequality is often reinforced when we consider the country of birth. Differences vary according to the country of birth and these can be explained by the different individual characteristics (education, experience, employment, etc.) of those belonging to these groups and/or by discrimination. It is therefore necessary to include this variable when we take account of the pay gap because women can be doubly penalised in the labour market if, in addition to being a woman, they are foreign ²¹.

In the SILC survey, the country-of-birth variable indicates whether the person lives in the country where she is born, if she was born in another Member State of the European Union or if she was born in another third country. For Germany, Estonia and Slovenia, it is not possible to distinguish between the last two variables in the database: whether or not the person is born in the country of residence.

The ratio for differences in earnings is calculated on the basis of these three pieces of information (Table 5). The number of observations for certain countries and certain categories is very low and can pose a problem in terms of the sample's representativeness. These statistics are shown in italics in the table. It is therefore difficult to interpret meaningful results; the pay gap widens for workers from a non-EU 27 country in the case of some countries but narrows for others.

²¹ Here the pay gap is calculated as a Male/Female ratio to avoid confusion because these data are based on another source (the SILC) which is very different from the SES.

Table 4: Ratio for differences in earnings according to country of birth (2007)

	Country of birth		
	Country of residence	Other EU 27	No EU 27
AT	0,86	<i>0,67</i>	1,04
BE	0,90	0,80	0,96
BG	na	na	na
CY	0,81	<i>0,94</i>	0,49
CZ	0,77	<i>0,79</i>	<i>1,01</i>
DE	0,84	na	0,78
DK	0,88	<i>1,02</i>	<i>0,89</i>
EE	0,74	na	0,64
ES	0,90	<i>0,99</i>	0,86
FI	0,82	<i>0,90</i>	<i>0,99</i>
FR	0,90	0,98	0,65
GR	0,85	<i>1,07</i>	0,67
HU	0,95	<i>1,54</i>	<i>0,80</i>
IE:	0,93	<i>0,82</i>	<i>0,85</i>
IT	0,94	<i>0,99</i>	1,00
LT	0,81	1,41	0,99
LU	0,82	<i>0,82</i>	0,79
LV	0,81	na	0,85
MT	na	na	na
NL	0,80	<i>0,93</i>	0,81
PL	0,95	<i>1,12</i>	<i>0,99</i>
PT	0,91	<i>0,96</i>	<i>1,31</i>
RO	na	na	na
SE	0,81	0,83	0,95
SI	na	na	na
SK	0,79	<i>0,73</i>	<i>0,72</i>
UK	0,81	<i>0,81</i>	0,83

Note: number of observations < 100

Italics: Data somewhat unreliable (number of observations < 100)

The lightly shaded cells indicate the categories for which the salary gap is in favour of women.

Source: Statistics on income and living conditions

SUMMARY - INDICATOR 6: RATIO BASED ON PERSONAL CIRCUMSTANCES

Family composition and marital status have a major influence on women's and men's pay and it is important to take account of these factors in the set of indicators.

Another personal circumstance is the country of birth, which often has a negative impact on pay. Moreover, this impact seems to be greater for women than for men.

By analogy with previous indicators, the rate of employment according to family composition and marital status (combining the two) is also incorporated to put into context the pay gaps identified.

The SES database does not allow calculation of these indicators because this information is not included in the database. Extending the SES survey is therefore recommended. At present the alternative lies in the SILC survey although the reliability of data on earnings is less good than that provided by the SES.

LIST OF INDICATORS INCLUDED IN INDICATOR 6

- (a) Employment rate by family situation and marital status (combined factors)
Source: Labour Force Survey; Aa
- (b) Gender pay gap by family situation, marital status and gender
Source: SES (desirable in future); N
- (c) Gender pay gap by country of birth and gender
Source: SES (desirable in future); N

Aa = available annually; A4 = available every 4 years; N = new data collection to be set up

III. Decomposition of pay gap

Indicator 7: Decomposition of pay gap using the Oaxaca-Blinder technique

Indicators 1 to 6 are descriptive in nature: they show how the pay gap varies depending on certain characteristics (age, education, sector, occupation, household composition, nationality, type of contract, etc.). Indicator 7 examines the influence of each factor on the pay gap and hence the relationship between the pay gap and those variables. It decomposes the pay gap into various components by means of econometric techniques. Such a method gives an indication of how far the variation in salaries between women and men may be attributed to a number of known factors.

The decomposition divides the pay gap into two components: an explained component and an unexplained component.

The first component represents those pay gaps which are associated with the average differences between women and men in terms of the characteristics observed. It indicates the extent to which the pay gap can be accounted for by the various characteristics associated with the position of women and men in the labour market; for example, a strong presence of women in lower-paid sectors or their shorter length of service in the labour market. Such differences may indeed be observed, but this does not mean that they are justified. "The position of women before they enter the labour market and outside it explains the differences in characteristics which constitute the explained component" (Meulders et al., 2005). If girls are systematically channelled into training schemes which offer fewer employment opportunities, and if women occasionally have no choice other than to work on a part-time basis or in certain less attractive sectors, this may indeed explain the pay gap, but does not justify it.

All characteristics being equal (same length of service, same age, working in the same sector, same occupation and same level of education, etc.), women generally earn less than men.

The second component of the pay gap corresponds to that part of it which does not result from identifiable differences in characteristics observed in the database used. On the one hand, this component comprises discrimination *per se*, i.e. the fact that identical characteristics are remunerated differently, generally to the detriment of women: women being paid less on average than men with the same level of education, a lower value being placed on length of service, slower age-related advancement, etc. On the other hand, it also covers the effect of unobserved variables or characteristics on pay gaps.

The model used for decomposing the pay gap is the Oaxaca-Blinder base model (1973). The reason for choosing this method is that it was included in the list of indicators approved by the Council of the European Union in 2001. Consideration could be given to the use of other methods which are more complex but take account of the effect of the structure of employment and the distribution of earnings.

The pay gap will be decomposed into an initial component identifying the respective influence of each variable with respect to the total pay gap. Relative contribution to the total pay gap:

- of part-time working arrangements
- of the level of education
- of age
- of length of service in the enterprise
- of the sector
- of the occupation
- of the hierarchical position
- of the size of the enterprise
- of the type of contract
- of the type of economic and financial control of the enterprise.

The second component, the balance of the pay gap, takes account of discrimination and the effect of unobserved variables.

The pay gap was decomposed in respect of those countries whose individual data are available at EUROSTAT²². The countries concerned are France, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Latvia, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Sweden, Slovenia, Slovakia and Spain. The data relating to Belgium were supplied directly by the competent statistical body.

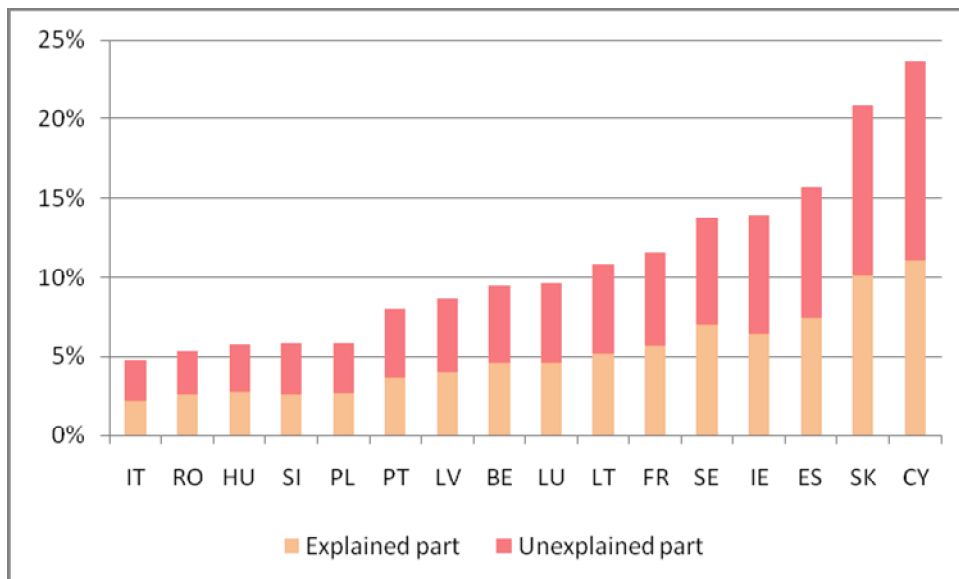
Of the variables absent from the decomposition, those linked to marital status, number of children and country of birth might be relevant, according to the indicators calculated above. It would be useful to have access to such data in future, either by including them in the SES questionnaire or by merging databases, e.g. with data from administrative sources.

In all the countries concerned, the explained component is smaller than the unexplained component except in Sweden (Figure 28; see also Annex 20). The part of the pay gap due to the first component varies from one country to another. Some of these differences may be due to the fact that it was not possible to include all the contributing factors for all the countries. For example, it was not possible to include the relative influence of the "post involving responsibility" variable for Belgium, France, Italy, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland, Sweden, Slovenia and Slovakia. For Belgium, Italy and Sweden, no data were available concerning the size of the enterprise. Finally, it was not possible to include the type of contract in the case of Sweden. In each instance, the maximum number of explanatory variables have been included in the analysis so as to be able to provide the best possible explanation of the pay gaps on the basis of the information available.

²² The non-anonymous SES micro-data may be accessed via Eurostat's safe centre in Luxembourg covering (CY-CZ-ES-FR-HU-IE-IT-LT-LV-LU-PL-PT-RO-SE-SI-SK and NO), on the basis of those countries' user authorisation.

However, the range of variation of this first component is relatively small: the explained component of the gap in gross hourly earnings between women and men is smallest in Slovenia (45,07 %) and largest in Sweden (50,47 %). In ascending order, the other countries are: Italy, Portugal, Ireland, Poland, Cyprus, Latvia, Hungary, Luxembourg, Slovakia, Romania, France and Belgium. However, this division of the pay gap into two components applies to pay gaps which vary widely in extent, as shown by the general indicators (indicator 1). The various contributory factors account for no more than half of the gender pay gap. Those results are presented in the figure below, expressed as percentage points of the total pay gap.

Figure 28: The explained component and the unexplained component of the gap in gross hourly earnings (in percentage points); countries arranged by increasing order of the pay gap (2006)

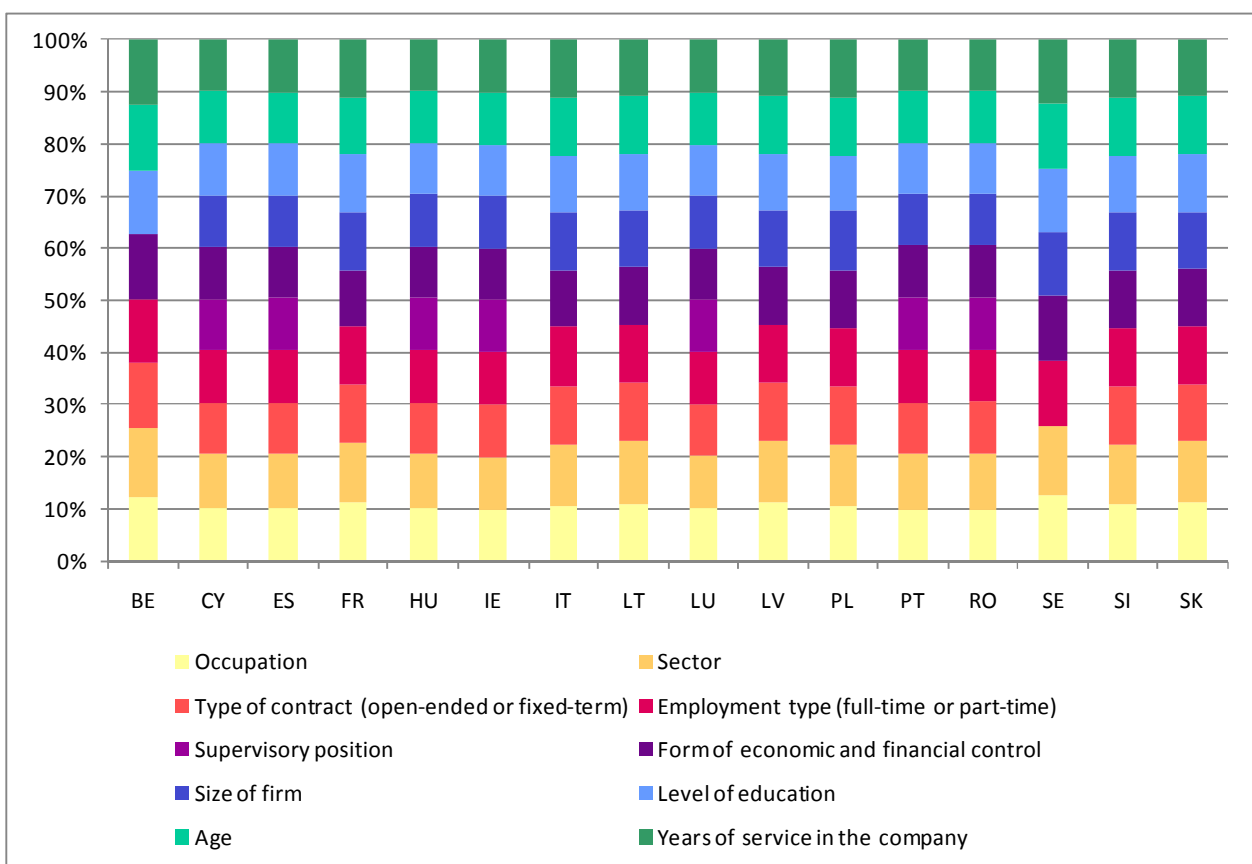


Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

The first component of the pay gap may in turn be subdivided in order to identify the contributory effect of each of the factors included in the analysis (Figure 29; see Annex 21).

Taken individually, each of those factors makes a uniform contribution, with none of them really standing out from the others to explain the gender pay gap. They each contribute to around 10-12 % of the pay gap. The sector of activity is generally the most influential factor. Conversely, the level of education is in many cases one of the weakest factors.

Figure 29: Decomposition of the pay gap – subdivision of the explained component (2006)

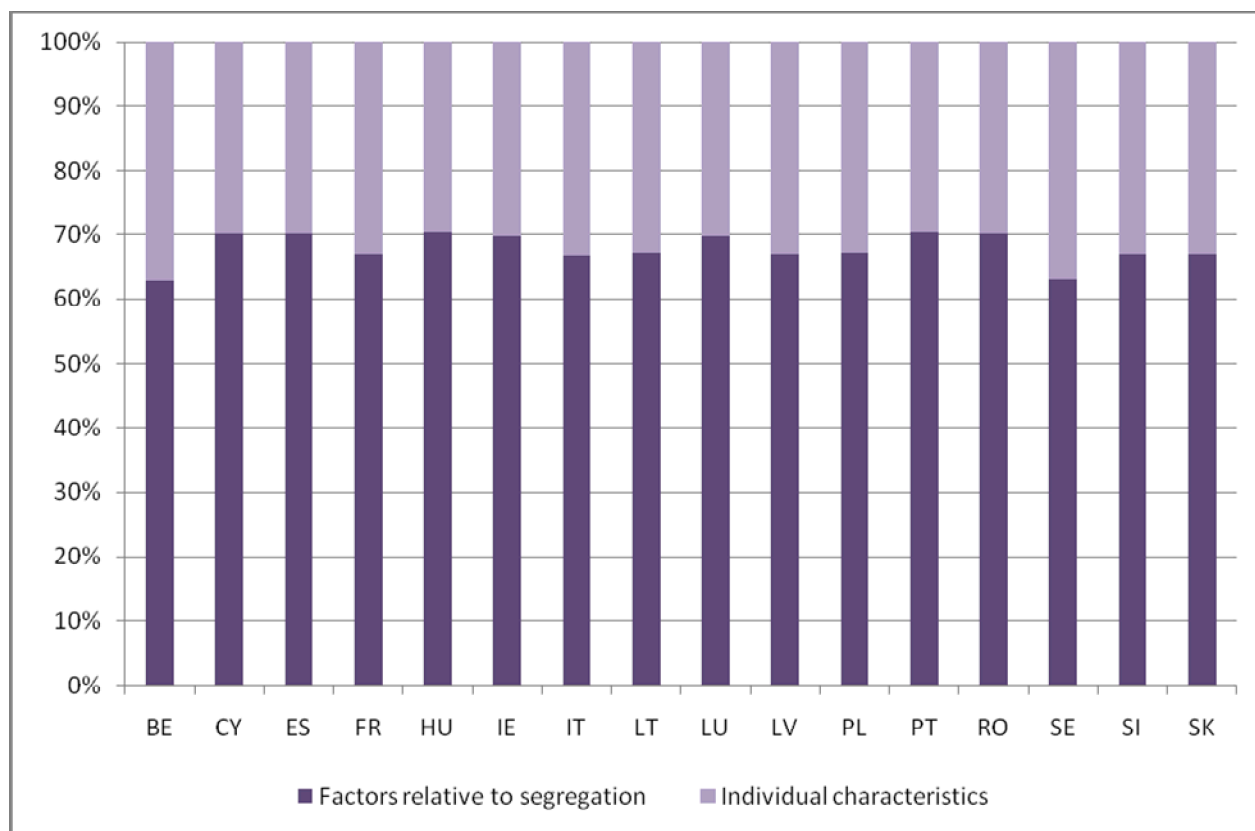


Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

The various characteristics may be grouped together into two categories: the characteristics relating to occupational segregation (sector, occupation, post involving responsibility, type of contract, working time, size of the enterprise, type of economic and financial control) and the individual characteristics (age, length of service in the enterprise, level of education) (Figure 30).

The occupational characteristics account for between 62,74 % (Belgium) and 70,38 % (Hungary) of the pay gap. In other words, 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.

Figure 30: Decomposition of the pay gap – subdivision of the explained component into a component relating to segregation and a component relating to individual characteristics (2006)



Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

These results confirm the overriding importance of vertical and horizontal segregation in pay gaps, as well as the differences in the structure of employment for women and men in terms of working time: the importance of part-time work, even in countries with relatively narrower pay gaps. This 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 following part of the report, which is devoted to these qualitative indicators, will enable the efforts made by the Member States to be assessed and quantified.

SUMMARY – INDICATOR 7: DECOMPOSITION OF THE HOURLY PAY GAP BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN USING THE OAXACA TECHNIQUE

This indicator is essential in order to explain the influence of the various causes of the gender pay gap. It calculates the ratio between the pay gap and the various factors examined previously (age, education, sector, occupation, type of contract, etc.). It enables the pay gap to be decomposed into different parts in order to identify the extent to which those factors account for the variation in earnings between women and men.

The indicator remains unchanged with respect to 2001, except for the fact that additional explanatory factors are proposed. The size of the enterprise is one aspect of segregation between women and men on the labour market. This variable is available in the SES survey and is included as an explanatory factor. Personal characteristics, i.e. household composition, marital status and country of birth, are not available. Such variables are merely proposed. If the SES survey were to be expanded in future – as recommended in indicator 6 – these variables could also be included in indicator 7 as explanatory factors.

This indicator is obtained using an econometric technique based on the methodology proposed by Oaxaca-Blinder (1973), since this method was included in the list of indicators approved by the Council of the European Union in 2001.

LIST OF INDICATORS INCLUDED IN INDICATOR 7

Decomposition of the pay gap between women and men using the Oaxaca technique

- (a) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the part-time factor
- (b) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the education factor
- (c) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the age factor
- (d) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the length of service in the enterprise factor
- (e) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the sector factor
- (f) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the occupation factor
- (g) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the enterprise size factor
- (h) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the family situation factor
(desirable in the future); N
- (i) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the marital status factor
(desirable in the future); N
- (j) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the country of birth factor
(desirable in the future); N
- (k) Part of the pay gap unexplained by identifiable factors

Source: SES; A4

Aa = available annually; A4 = available every four years; N = new data collection to be set up

PART II: QUALITATIVE INDICATORS

The aim of this part is to analyse the qualitative indicators of the pay gap in the European Union. In order to obtain the information necessary for achieving that objective, a questionnaire (see Annex 22) was sent to the 27 Member States and the European social partners (UEAPME, CEEP, ETUC). The following 26 Member States replied to the questionnaire: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom. The social partners of several Member States also replied: ETUC (BE, BG, CZ, DK, FI, FR, NL, LV, PL, PT), CEEP (DE, DK, FI, NO, SE) and UEAPME (AT).

The questions concerned the following three indicators:

- 1) measures to promote equal pay and to combat the gender pay gap;
- 2) the influence of collective bargaining on the promotion of equal pay and the elimination of the gender pay gap;
- 3) the effects of part-time work, parental leave, time credit systems and career breaks on the gender pay gap.

These indicators have been reworded with respect to the three qualitative indicators for 2001, but deal with a very similar content for analysis. The three 2001 indicators were as follows:

- indicator of laws, regulations and measures to combat discrimination and occupational inequalities;
- indicator of the influence of public authorities on wage bargaining (collective and individual bargaining where applicable);
- indicator relating to part-time work and temporary career breaks.

The relevant data enabling information to be provided for each indicator have therefore been slightly adjusted with respect to 2001, taking account of legislative changes (e.g. the creation of bodies promoting gender equality) but also of the policies and strategies put in place to combat the pay gap at European and national level. (For example, action plans and legislation comprising specific measures to eliminate the pay gap.)

For each indicator (except the last one), the respondents had to present the measures taken and the means by which the objectives pursued were evaluated.

The analysis was based not only on the replies to the questionnaires (together with the evaluation of those replies, where applicable), but also on the existing literature, and in particular the publications of the European Commission and the Network of Legal Experts in Gender Equality²³.

²³ The part relating to legislative and regulatory measures is based on the publications of the Network of Legal Experts and the European Commission:
European Network of Legal Experts in the Field of Gender Equality, 2009. *Gender Equality Law in 30 European countries*, 2009 update, European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Unit EMPL/G/2.
European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Unit G.2, 2009. *EU Rules on Gender Equality: How are they transposed into national law?*

I. Indicator on the measures to promote equal pay and combat the gender pay gap

The first qualitative indicator concerning measures to promote equal pay and combat the gender pay gap (indicator 8; see Annex 22) incorporates the following as principal data:

- the parties involved in the issue of the gender pay gap and their role;
- the measures taken by the public authorities to eliminate the gender pay gap;
- best practice for eliminating the gender pay gap.

Member States were requested to provide the main conclusions of their evaluations of legislation and other measures to combat the gender pay gap. Other data relating to the implementation of measures concern the system for compiling data on complaints about gender pay discrimination, the body responsible for that system and the number of complaints filed in relation to gender pay discrimination (both in absolute terms and in relation to the total number of complaints about gender discrimination in the field of employment).

The first indicator has been reworded with respect to 2001 in order to target measures relating to the pay gap rather than occupational inequality in the wider sense. However, they still include direct and indirect measures which take account of multiple factors explaining that gap. The indicator also includes equality bodies which did not exist in 2001, given their potential role in dealing with complaints filed by victims of pay discrimination. The data relating to the number of complaints have been retained with respect to 2001. The data concerning the evaluation of measures (both legislative and non-legislative) have been simplified in order to take greater account of specific effects on the pay gap.

Discrimination against women in the labour market has a long history, as do efforts to eliminate it. One of the key principles in this area – the right to equal pay for equal work – is already enshrined in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the 1957 Treaty of Rome establishing the European Community. This entitlement was later clarified, and the right to equal pay for equal work or work of equal value was incorporated into the 1975 European Community Directive on that subject, as well as subsequent directives.

1.1. Legislative and non-legislative measures to promote equal pay

While laws are essential, they are not sufficient to overcome the differences in pay between women and men. Government initiatives to tackle the pay gap directly go beyond legislative provisions and comprise the creation of institutional mechanisms, the adoption of action plans and the development of initiatives.

1.1.1. Legislative background

All Member States have introduced national legislation to combat gender-based discrimination, and in particular pay discrimination between women and men. The laws adopted in this area in the different Member States are clearly based on binding European law, via the Treaty and Directive 2006/54/EC repealing *inter alia* Directives 75/117/EEC and 2002/73/EC.

1.1.1.1. Legislation on equal pay

The principle of equal pay is fully reflected in Member States' laws by the requirement for the same pay for the same work or work of equal value. This principle may be enshrined at constitutional or legislative level, within the framework of either general labour law (BG, CZ, FR, HU, LT, PT, PL, SK) or legislative acts specifically targeted at combating discrimination. It is incorporated into some countries' Constitutions, e.g. in the case of Greece and Portugal²⁴, or in other countries' employment codes, e.g. in the case of Bulgaria, France, Hungary, Lithuania, Poland, Portugal, the Czech Republic and Slovakia. In Hungary, the legislative system places particular emphasis on equal pay:

²⁴ http://www.europarl.europa.eu/compar/libe/elsj/charter/art23/default_fr.htm

equal pay for equal work is guaranteed by the Constitution and the Law on equality of treatment (2003), while the employment code includes an Article 142/A (added when the code was amended in 2006) requiring "compliance with the principle of equal treatment when setting pay for work assessed as being of equal value". In Bulgaria, equality of pay is governed by the employment code (which entered into force in 1987 and was amended in 2007) and the Law on protection from discrimination (which entered into force in 2004 and was amended in 2007). Certain laws define the measures which enterprises must adopt in order to combat the pay gap: in particular, taking account of the gender factor in pay negotiations, defining systems for classifying gender-neutral functions and ensuring transparency in pay-related matters. In 2006, France adopted a Law on equal pay for women and men²⁵ requiring enterprises to take the steps necessary to eliminate the gender pay gap by 31 December 2010 and to adopt the principle of pay adjustment following maternity or adoption leave. Under that Law, pay negotiations in the various sectors and enterprises must take account of the gender factor. In Denmark, the Law on transparency in information on pay, which entered into force on 1 January 2007, requires enterprises with a total of more than 35 employees and more than ten employees of each gender in the same department to publish annual statistics on men's and women's pay. Those statistics must then be the subject of discussions between the management and employees.

²⁵ <http://www.legifrance.gouv.fr/affichTexte.do?cidTexte=JORFTEXT000000816849&dateTexte=>

The concept of pay is interpreted very loosely in most Member States since it covers not only pay *per se*, but also a range of additional benefits (bonuses, tips, housing bonuses, marriage bonuses, severance pay, sickness benefits, compensation for overtime, etc.). Several Member States, including Germany, Hungary and the Czech Republic, have defined criteria for establishing the "same value" of the work performed. For example, account should be taken of the complexity of the work, the level of responsibility, the strenuousness (including physical and psychological stress), working conditions, efficiency, experience and the skills and qualifications required.

<i>Measures</i>	<i>Member State</i>
Principle of equal pay for women and men enshrined in national legislation	All
Principle of equal pay for women and men enshrined in the Constitution	EL, HU, PL, PT
Specific Law on equal pay for women and men	CY, DK, FR, LU, UK
Principle of equal pay for women and men enshrined in the employment code	BG, CZ, FR, HU, LT, PT, PL, SK

In accordance with European legislation, the principle of equal pay for women and men has been incorporated into the legislation of all 27 Member States. In some countries, this principle is enshrined in the Constitution (EL, HU, PL, PT). In others, a special Law is devoted to equal pay for women and men (CY, DK, FR, LU, UK). The principle of equal pay is also in many cases included in a general Law on gender equality. The same principle may also be incorporated into an employment code (BG, CZ, FR, HU, LT, PT, PL, SK).

In that connection, it should be noted that some countries have provided for certain proactive obligations in their legislation on the subject (e.g. an obligation to publish annual statistics on women's and men's pay within an enterprise, a requirement for collective bargaining on measures aiming to eliminate the pay gap, a requirement for enterprises to develop an action plan, systematic checks on the practical implementation of the legislation, etc.).

1.1.1.2. Legislation on access to employment and working conditions

Legislation on equality between men and women in the workplace (access to employment, promotion, access to vocational training and working conditions) also clearly has a role to play with regard to equal pay. All the Member States have legislation laying down the principle of equal treatment of women and men as regards access to employment and working conditions, with some of them making specific legal provisions as regards the pay gap.

In Slovakia, while Law No 125/2006 both increases the number of labour inspectors and expands their powers in terms of equal pay for women and men, the 2007 amendment to the employment code strengthens the entitlement of women and men to equal pay for work of the same value.

One of the aims of the Equality Act adopted by the United Kingdom Parliament on 8 April 2010 is to reduce the gender pay gap. Article 110 of the employment code adopted by the Czech Republic in 2006 provides a detailed list of the components of earned income. On the basis of that detailed list, all employees are able to demonstrate that they have carried out equal work or work of equal value and hence assert their rights before the competent authorities. Three years later (on 23 April 2009), the Czech Republic adopted an anti-discrimination Law pursuant to which any person who is the victim of pay discrimination may take their case to court.

In Malta, the 2004 legislation on equal treatment for women and men as regards employment also requires the employer to ensure that equal work or work of equal value is not subject to any direct or indirect discrimination based on gender with regard to all aspects and conditions of remuneration. Under that legislation, the employer is obliged to ensure in particular, when using a job classification system for determining pay, that the system applies the same criteria to men and women and is drawn up in such a way as to exclude any discrimination on grounds of gender.

Legislation concerning equality in the workplace can also have an indirect impact on equal pay if consideration is given to certain explanatory factors: stereotypes leading to occupational segregation, the reconciliation of professional and private life (which is always more of an issue for women), etc. In Bulgaria, for example, the Law on protection from discrimination, which entered into force on 1 January 2004, states that persons responsible for training or education and the authors of school textbooks or educational material are obliged to provide information and apply training and educational methods in such a way as to overcome stereotypes of male and female roles in all areas of public and family life. Spain adopted a new Law on gender equality in March 2007²⁶. It contains specific provisions on combating discrimination, introducing positive action measures in collective agreements, promoting the reconciliation of professional and family life, supporting plans to ensure equality and encouraging best practice.

Legislation concerning equality between men and women in the workplace clearly also has a role to play with respect to equal pay. All the Member States have legislation laying down the principle of equal treatment of women and men as regards access to employment and working conditions, with some of them making specific legal provisions as regards the gender pay gap.

1.1.2. Implementation of legislation

In most cases, the courts responsible for implementing laws concerning equality between women and men are the employment tribunals. Examples include the Industrial Disputes Tribunal in Cyprus, the Equality Tribunal in Ireland, the special employment and social security tribunals in Poland and the employment tribunals in the United Kingdom. In general, such specialised tribunals exist primarily to provide easy access for employees, as reflected in particular by their relatively informal nature and the low cost of proceedings. However, it should be noted that they do not have a monopoly on implementing rights relating to equality between men and women: the civil and even the criminal courts may also be involved.

²⁶ http://www.inmujer.migualdad.es/mujer/politicas/Ley_Igualdad.pdf

Failure to comply with the ban on discrimination must give rise to effective penalties, which may include the payment of compensation to the victim. In disputes relating to equal pay in Denmark, the most common penalty is the payment of the difference between the amount paid to the woman concerned and her male counterpart. In several Member States, including Germany, Cyprus and France, the employer may be ordered to reinstate the employee in the case of discriminatory dismissal.

Under EU law protecting victims of discrimination from reprisals, Member States must take measures to protect from dismissal or any other unfavourable treatment on the part of the employer persons who have lodged complaints asserting their rights.

All Member States provide for the reversal of the burden of proof and penalties, in particular in the case of gender-based and pay discrimination (whereby the victim generally receives compensation). Employment tribunals and civil and criminal courts all play a part in implementing laws concerning gender equality. Victims are protected from reprisals under EU law to combat discrimination.

1.1.3. Non-legislative measures

Eliminating persistent inequalities between women and men through gender equality policies may be seen as a factor promoting growth. Gender equality in the labour market enables Member States to take full advantage of the potential supply of labour.

In a Europe which would like to be seen as modern and competitive rather than merely symbolic, combating the pay gap is a major challenge which calls for the mobilisation of several stakeholders. According to the information received, in addition to the institutional mechanisms and bodies promoting equality, the trade unions, employer organisations, associations, universities

(BE, BG, PT), research centres (DE, DK, FI, IE) and national statistical institutes (BE, BG, CZ, DK, EE, FI, MT, PL, SI, SK) all make an important contribution towards combating the gender pay gap and promoting equality. The latter in particular play a key role in compiling and analysing data on pay gaps. Associations, and in particular women's associations, constitute pressure groups which place special emphasis on awareness-raising and communication.

Non-legislative measures form an integral part of effective policies on equal pay and comprise institutional mechanisms and bodies promoting equality, action plans and awareness-raising and information campaigns, educational and training programmes, publications (reports, research, studies, guides, etc.) and the development of instruments and initiatives.

1.1.3.1. Institutional mechanisms and equality bodies

Institutional mechanisms promoting gender equality may take the form of departments, units, services, committees and working groups, etc., which may be accountable to a State Secretary or Minister (generally whoever is in charge of social affairs, and in particular labour and employment issues (AT, DE, DK, CZ, EE, FR, LU, NL, PL, SI, SK)). Luxembourg, Belgium and Denmark each have a ministry whose main task is to promote gender equality. The tasks of such bodies focus mainly on drafting and implementing laws and policies promoting equality.

Under Directive 2002/73/EC, as revised by Directive 2006/54/EC, Member States are obliged to designate one or more "equality bodies" for the promotion, analysis, monitoring and support of equal treatment of women and men with regard to employment and labour. They must be able to provide independent assistance to victims of gender-based discrimination, conduct independent surveys concerning this form of discrimination and publish reports and make recommendations.

<i>Institutional mechanisms</i>	<i>Member State</i>
Body within the Ministry with responsibility for labour or employment	AT, DE, DK, CZ, EE, FR, LU, NL, PL, SI, SK
Ministry with special responsibility for gender equality	DK, LU, BE
National equality bodies	All
Body promoting equality with particular regard to gender-based discrimination	BE, FI

The institutional mechanisms for promoting equality can take the form of a body placed under the responsibility of a ministry or a minister – generally whoever is in charge of labour and employment issues. Denmark, Belgium and Luxembourg each have a ministry whose main task is to promote gender equality. Institutional mechanisms may also take the form of an equality body present in all the Member States. Such bodies are responsible for both gender-based and pay discrimination.

1.1.3.2. Role of equality bodies in combating the gender pay gap

Providing assistance to victims is a key task of equality bodies. They can therefore play an important role, according to their competences, in cases of pay discrimination. Beyond the three responsibilities established by the applicable European Directive – assisting victims, conducting surveys, publishing reports and drafting recommendations – the mandate of such bodies may be broader and cover aspects such as training, cooperation with the players involved, preparation of codes of conduct, dissemination of good practice, positive obligations.²⁷

²⁷ European network of experts in non-discrimination, European Commission, 2006. *Catalysts of change? Bodies promoting equality under Directive 2000/43/EC: Existence, independence and efficiency*, European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, U.G2.

Aware of the key role they can play in preventing discrimination, certain bodies place emphasis on training which can be geared either to a specific audience or to a broader public. Certain equality bodies draw up codes of conduct. These codes clarify the binding rules which must be followed by enterprises, institutions or individuals likely to practise discrimination. They therefore refer at times to the gender pay gap. They may also serve as a basis for the evaluation of the impact and the effectiveness of the measures used by the bodies promoting equality in order to exercise their competence in this field.

In parallel with the codes of conduct designed to assist the players involved in developing their own equality policies and action plans, certain States collect and disseminate the initiatives they consider to be good examples: good practice. All players who wish to become involved in combating discrimination and promoting equality may thus obtain concise and specific information about existing good practice and initiatives launched.

Several Member States impose positive obligations on public authorities and private enterprises. The national equality body may then be competent to contribute to the process of implementing and checking the observation of these obligations by a given institution. A positive obligation requires the authorities or private organisations to promote equality and diversity in all aspects of their work vis-à-vis employees and employers as well as users. Supervised by strict implementing measures, this approach requires that concrete results be obtained.

In Sweden, employers in both the public and private sectors are required to set measurable targets and to undertake concrete measures in order to ensure equality between men and women in working life²⁸.

²⁸ European Network of Equality Bodies (Equinet), 2008. *Promotion of equality: An overview of the practices of national bodies combating discrimination.*

Some equality bodies, in addition to the duties legally entrusted to them (such as victim assistance, including in the case of gender-based pay discrimination) have also developed training programmes, drawn up codes of conduct, collected and exchanged best practice, etc., particularly in the area of combating the gender pay gap, and imposed positive obligations.

1.1.3.3 Action Plans

Although certain States had action plans for equality prior to the Beijing Conference, and sometimes even several plans in succession, it is mainly since 1995 that such plans have been adopted virtually everywhere. Today, a majority of countries have set up action plans for equality between women and men. Institutional mechanisms usually play a decisive role in the drafting and implementation of these plans, which are generally prepared in cooperation with the social partners, NGOs, etc. The elimination of the gender pay gap is generally one of the specific objectives of action plans aimed at gender equality as a whole.

The drafting of the first Cypriot national action plan on gender equality (2007-2013) is the fruit of close cooperation between all the departments of the State, local authorities, women's organisations, NGOs, academic institutions and bodies specialised in human rights. This plan aims to increase the presence of women on the labour market and in the civil service, and to guarantee equal treatment of men and women, particularly equal pay for work of equal value.

In Greece, the action plan entitled *Priorities and main work themes of national policy for gender equality (2004-2008)* defined several strands of strategic intervention: the mainstreaming of equal opportunities for men and women in all government instruments, policies and actions; combating inequality on the labour market and in labour relations - with the main objective being the best possible use of human resources and the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women; and combating stereotyped perceptions of the role of women and men in the education system.

In Ireland, *the national strategy for women* conveys the government's priorities in relation to the promotion of women for the period 2007-2016. One of the aims of this plan is to ensure equal opportunities for women in the social and economic field by: increasing the participation of women in the labour market, reducing the gender-based pay gap, promoting women in the labour market, increasing the number of women entrepreneurs, using the education system as an instrument enabling women and girls to show the full extent of their abilities and increasing the supply of childcare facilities.

In order to put into practice its commitment to achieving gender equality in law and in fact, the Luxembourg government adopted its first national action plan on gender equality in 2006. The "dual approach" chosen consisted of gender mainstreaming in all policies and specific actions in favour of a particular gender when this proved necessary to eliminate persisting inequalities. Under this programme a detailed survey of the causes of the pay gap was conducted. The government decided to extend the National Equality Action Plan 2006-2008 to cover the period 2009 to 2014 with the particular aim of continuing to tackle the pay gaps between women and men, making available free of charge to social partners a pay structure self-evaluation instrument for enterprises with more than 50 employees and the publication of a guide to equal pay.

For its part, Finland prepared an action plan for the period 2008-2011, one aim of which is to combat the pay gap by tackling occupational segregation.

In Germany, the action programme *Perspektive Wiedereinstieg* (vocational reintegration outlook) was launched in 2008 to help women who, after several years of absence, wish to re-enter the labour market. Lithuania has adopted 3 national programmes on equal opportunities for women and men since 2003 (2003/2004, 2005/2009, 2010/2014). The programme objectives are to guarantee gender equality in a systematic, integrated and consistent manner, to promote an integrated approach to equality and to resolve specific gender problems. In 2010, Bulgaria adopted a national action plan to promote gender equality. Under this programme a detailed survey of the causes of the pay gap will be conducted.

In addition to general plans, specific plans to combat the pay gap have sometimes been developed. In 2009, Spain adopted an action plan to combat gender pay discrimination.

The importance of work done by institutional mechanisms in connection with action plans is recognised, whether they were the initiators and the main bodies responsible for implementing them or their job was to promote and/or coordinate and monitor the activities involved in meeting the gender equality objectives.

<i>Measures</i>	<i>Member States</i>
Equal pay included in a general action plan on gender equality	BG, CY, DE, EL, FI, IE, LT, LU
Action plan devoted essentially to equal pay	ES, FI

The issue of equal pay is generally included in the action plans aiming at overall gender equality. Two action plans devoted essentially to equal pay for women and men (ES, FI) exist.

1.1.3.4. Awareness-raising, training, instruments and other initiatives

A. Awareness-raising and training

Awareness-raising, information and training programmes - to promote gender equality in general and equal pay in particular - may be conducted separately or be incorporated into action plans.

In Luxembourg, the government's declaration of 29 July 2009 confirmed the desire to continue awareness-raising measures. The National Action Plan for gender equality 2009-2014 provides in particular for continuing introduction of awareness-raising measures to promote a change of mentality and behaviour, centred round events organised throughout the year, and by disseminating publications and brochures on topics relating to gender equality ²⁹.

In France, a communication kit has been sent to the 1 500 largest cities. The kit, presented on a CD, makes available information and communication tools (panels for exhibitions, posters, radio and TV ads, etc.) which cities can in turn disseminate in local publications and urban display areas in connection with combating discrimination. 3,5 million copies of a brochure explaining forms of discrimination have also been printed, to be disseminated by local authorities.

In Greece, raising public awareness of equality and pay discrimination has centred round the organisation of seminars, publication of a newsletter and research.

In several States (such as Germany, Austria, Belgium, France, Luxembourg, Poland), a day is devoted to equal pay.

Training days to promote gender equality may be intended for a specific group or a broader public. In France, *e-learning* training modules for employers and the general public have been developed. These courses, which can be downloaded, enable all Internet users to acquire training in the law on discrimination and in stereotypes and portrayals. The multimedia content places Internet users in specific situations by depicting a cartoon world. The user must then decide whether the dialogues of the characters portrayed contain discriminatory remarks.

²⁹ 2009 activity report by the Luxembourg Ministry of Equal Opportunities
http://www.mega.public.lu/publications/0_rapports_activites/rapport_annuel_2009/index.html

According to the replies received from the Member States, the awareness, information and training programmes on equal pay for women and men may be incorporated into action plans (EL, LU) or used independently. In several countries (AT, BE, DE, FR, LU, PL), a special day is devoted to equal pay for women and men, during which awareness activities are key instruments for promoting such equal pay. The training modules may be intended for a specific group or for a wide audience.

B. Instruments and initiatives

Pay gaps are linked to a number of independent factors which may go far beyond just the question of equal pay for the same work or work of equal value. The Member States therefore take account of this proliferation and complexity when they develop instruments and initiatives for combating the gender pay gap.

From the replies to questionnaires it has been possible to identify a number of initiatives and instruments: the setting up of gender-neutral systems for job classification, tools for detecting pay discrimination within enterprises, the creation of labels and prizes, the publication of studies and reports on the pay gap, days dedicated to countering stereotypes.

A significant proportion of the pay gap can be accounted for by the undervaluation of the jobs typically done by women. The introduction of an analytical job classification is the most appropriate way to develop an objective, transparent and gender-neutral pay system. The principle of "equal pay for work of equal value" thus becomes the basis of a fair wage policy.

In Belgium (2001-2005), the *EVA* (Analytic Evaluation) project was centred round 3 main areas: Firstly, the training package *Job assessment and classification: tools for equal pay* was updated. Secondly, the social partners were trained and made aware in the course of introduction of a gender-neutral system for job classification. The third area was an analysis of the impact of an analytical job evaluation system on equal pay for women and men within the sector. An evaluation instrument was prepared in this context: the *Check-list "Non-sexism in job evaluation and classification"*. It enables gender-based discrimination in job classification to be identified and provides for further reduction in unequal treatment of women and men.

In Luxembourg, an analytical job evaluation system has been developed: *ABAKABA (Analytische Bewertung von Arbeitsfunktionen nach Katz und Baitsch)*. It allows for fair pay scales to be drawn up in relation to activities carried out by men and women.

The Netherlands has developed a scheme for rapidly checking equal pay: *Quickscan equal pay*. Employers can use this tool to gain an overview of differences in the earnings of workers of both sexes. In Luxembourg, a new tool was introduced in 2009: *LOGIB* (Excel programme) is an instrument for assessing equal pay, which makes it possible to analyse whether an enterprise guarantees equal pay for work of the same value. If the results reveal that discrimination exists, the enterprise can receive advice. A similar tool, *LOGIB-D*, has existed in Germany since 2009. Enterprises which use it also receive a set of guidelines with the aim of encouraging employers to look into the issue of pay inequality between men and women.

In support of employers' efforts to combat the gender pay gap, certain States encourage initiatives to promote equality at the workplace by creating labels and prizes. A Workplace Equality label was launched in France at the end of 2004. It aims to increase the standing of gender equality and provide a better balance between the sexes in enterprises, administrations and associations. The labelling criteria apply to 3 areas: equality in the workplace, administration of human resources and management, parenthood in the context of the workplace. The label is issued for a 3-year period, with an intermediate check after 18 months. 42 enterprises had received this label as at 11 January 2010.

Traditions and stereotypes influence educational and professional choices made by girls and boys and, indirectly, their future earnings, which is why some States have launched programmes to combat stereotypes among young people. In Luxembourg the *GDBD (Girls' Day and Boys' Day)* is a measure which forms part of the career guidance offered to pupils, and enables girls and boys to discover for one day occupations which are atypical for their gender. A similar programme has been introduced in Austria. In Germany the *Girls' Day* and the *New Approach for Boys* are initiatives which also aim to modify female and male stereotypes in the field of education and careers, by encouraging girls and boys to make non-traditional educational and professional choices.

Publications are also used as instruments to combat the pay gap. Austria has published a survey entitled *Gender pay gap: indicators for monitoring* in 2008. The objective of this report was to present quantitative indicators of the gender pay gap which can be used to monitor changes in the gap over time. In Belgium, the *Report on the gender pay gap* published in 2007 measures changes in the gender pay gap and proposes the measures required to eliminate inequalities. In 2010, Greece published the first special report on *Gender equality in employment and industrial relations*. Denmark has produced a guide (2006) intended for enterprises in connection with the promotion of equal pay for women and men. In 2008, another guide on gender-based occupational segregation was produced.

Under a twinning project (*Equality between men and women: principle and goal for effective and sustainable enterprises*) with France in 2007-2008, Estonia published a report on best practices and tools concerning gender equality in enterprises in EU countries and a set of guidelines called : *Gender equality in your company - recipes for success*. Even if women have a degree of expertise, they may suffer from a lack of visibility, and that is why Belgium produced a guide to female expertise in 2009: *VEGA* (Valorisation des Expertes et de l'Approche Genre – Enhancing the value of female experts and of the gender approach). The aim of this inventory is to help public institutions, media players and NGOs etc. in search of specific profiles to find competent and specialised women. Germany and the Czech Republic have also launched a twinning project (2006): *Equal treatment of the sexes - the role of the social partners at work*, one of the aims of which was to combat the pay gap between women and men.

The instruments and other initiatives have been grouped into 6 categories: the setting up of gender-neutral systems for job classification (BE, NL), tools for detecting pay discrimination within enterprises (BE, LU, NL), the organisation of awareness or training programmes to counter stereotypes, in particular among young people (AT, DE, LU), the creation of labels and prizes (FR, MT, PT), the publication of studies and reports on the pay gap so that changes in the pay gap at national level can be measured (AT, BE, DK, EE, EL, FR) and twinning projects (CZ, DE, EE, FR).

There are obviously a number of measures designed to ensure equal pay for women and men in each of the Member States of the European Union. The diversity of the approaches used emphasises the complexity of the phenomenon and of the response to it.

1.2 Effectiveness of measures

1.2.1 Evaluation of measures

By evaluating the measures aiming to eliminate the gender pay gap, their effectiveness can be gauged. By quantifying pay discrimination the relevance of the policies introduced can also be assessed. The replies to the questionnaires reveal that some States have evaluated certain measures so as to assess their relevance and their capacity to promote progress on equal pay for women and men.

1.2.1.1. Evaluation of legislation

The laws evaluated are those relating to gender equality in general or those focusing essentially on equal pay. In France, the Law of 9 May 2001, known as the "*Loi Génisson*", establishes an obligation to negotiate equality in the workplace at enterprise and sectoral level whilst making this a cross-cutting factor in compulsory consultations. Most enterprises have not embraced the issue of equality in the workplace in their annual negotiations. According to the *REPONSE* survey (conducted in 2004-2005 among 3000 establishments with more than 20 employees), management stated in 30 % of cases that it had held negotiations on this matter in its enterprise between 2002 and 2004, and in 12 % of cases had reached an agreement. An examination of the agreements lodged shows that at enterprise level the number of agreements dealing with the issue of equality in the workplace has regularly increased over the last few years. 295 agreements were signed in 2005 on this subject, compared with 129 in 2004. From a qualitative point of view, the agreements vary very widely in their form and content.

On the one hand, a distinction can be made between agreements specifically dedicated to this subject and wage agreements in the context of the compulsory annual negotiation which include a paragraph or a clause relating to gender equality. On the other hand, the contents of such clauses or texts are very diverse: some describe precise measures in order to reduce inequalities (often by focusing on specific points such as earnings or recruitment), while others do not.

According to a Finnish report (2010) on the effectiveness of the Law on gender equality, this Law promoted an increase and diversification of equality plans. However, the quality of such plans and income surveys should be improved.

In Sweden, several enterprises carry out pay surveys in accordance with the Law on discrimination (2009).

In Denmark, the 2010 report evaluating the Law on gender equality reveals that the pay gap between women and men is mainly due to segregation on the labour market, accounting for 70-80 % of this gap.

In the United Kingdom, an evaluation carried out in 2004 reveals that despite progress made in the legislative framework and in the training and retraining of women, measures still need to be taken to combat stereotypes in the educational system and in order to reconcile work and family life.

An evaluation of the French Law of 23 March 2006 on equal pay for women and men reveals that the quality of the sectoral agreements examined improves each year; the proportion (almost two-thirds) of agreements which are subject to reservations, either because they do not comply with the set requirements or because they do no more than refer to the Law, is nevertheless very high. The problems encountered at sectoral level are reflected in enterprises' negotiations, whether they involve difficulties in making a diagnosis or in planning operational measures to eliminate the gaps.

<i>Measures evaluated</i>	<i>Member States</i>
Legislation on gender equality	DK, EL, FI, FR, SE, UK
Legislation on equal pay	FR

An evaluation of the legislation reveals that, despite the progress it has made possible, equal pay for both sexes remains an objective that has not yet been attained. The laws evaluated relate to gender equality in general (DK, EL, FI, FR, SE, UK) or to equal pay in particular (FR). The adoption of laws therefore remains a necessary, but inadequate condition, for eliminating the gender pay gap.

1.2.1.2. Evaluation of action plans

Certain States have presented the results of the evaluations of their national action plans. In Luxembourg, the final report of the National Gender Equality Plan (2006-2008) reveals that it has not been possible to transpose in full the objectives set out in the Plan and proposes that the programme be extended. The report recommends that emphasis be placed on the areas in which action urgently needs to be taken, especially compulsory gender training for civil servants and employees at federal and local level. An evaluation of the Finnish equal pay programme (2006-2007) reveals positive results, but the programme only lasted a year, making it difficult to assess the effectiveness of the measures taken.

<i>Measures evaluated</i>	<i>Member States</i>
Action Plans	CZ, FI, LU

Although the implementation of action plans has not eliminated the gender pay gap, the progress which they have made possible has prompted some countries such as Luxembourg and the Czech Republic to extend them.

1.2.1.3. Evaluation of instruments and initiatives

Among the instruments and other initiatives evaluated are programmes intended for enterprises to counter stereotypes and labels. Some States have presented the results of surveys published in connection with combating the pay gap.

The results of Luxembourg's *Girls' Day - Boys' Day* in 2010 highlighted the fact that participation by 844 young people represented a further increase of 8% compared with 2009. In parallel, the business community, institutions and administrations faithfully supported the initiative by proposing a total of 258 different activities for girls and boys. In Germany a record was achieved with the participation of 122 588 girls and the holding of 9618 events throughout the country on the occasion of the 10th *Girls' Day* which was held on 22 April 2010.

An evaluation of the Equality label in France has led to an easing of the situation for enterprises with fewer than 50 employees, harmonisation and simplification of the general conditions for applicants for that label.

According to the study *The million inspection* conducted in Sweden, out of a sample of 600 employers 44 % adopted measures to combat the gender pay gaps. A survey conducted in 2008-2009 by Poland reveals that there is virtually no gender pay gap within the Ministry of Labour. A survey conducted in 2009 in the Netherlands reveals that the part of earnings determined by non-neutral factors (such as negotiation, for example) is higher for men than for women.

<i>Initiatives and instruments evaluated</i>	<i>Member States</i>
Countering stereotypes	DE, LU
Labels and prizes	FR
Publications	NL, PL, SE

An evaluation of the days devoted to countering stereotypes in Germany and in Luxembourg reveals that the number of participants – young people and enterprises – has grown steadily over the years. In France, the general conditions have been harmonised to enable small enterprises to claim the label of equality in the workplace. Surveys carried out in connection with combating the pay gap show that, despite progress, the pay gap persists.

1.2.2. Quantification of pay discrimination

The absence of any data on particularly vulnerable groups renders invisible the situation of victims and reinforces the idea that discrimination does not occur. This is also an obstacle to identifying appropriate solutions to discrimination. However, there is a limit inherent in data on complaints in that, at best, only those cases of discrimination reported are brought to light. There are two main reasons for this situation: firstly, it would appear that people are sometimes not aware that they are being discriminated against and it is therefore not to be expected that they should lodge a complaint. Furthermore, following the increase in legislative and non-legislative measures in this area, discrimination may take increasingly subtle and less obvious forms. In addition, even if an individual is aware of having been discriminated against, for various reasons that person may not take legal action or lodge a complaint. The collection and publication of data on complaints concerning pay discrimination prove useful for evaluating the effectiveness of laws and policies and for helping to draft them. They give an idea of the population exposed to discrimination and illustrate the changes made in policies and practices as well as their impact.³⁰

³⁰ International Labour Organisation, 2007. *Equality at work: taking up the challenges*, Global report under the follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, International Labour Conference, 96th Session.

The data relating to complaints provide information on the extent and type of discrimination, and can come from several sources. The replies to the questionnaires show that several States have a data collection system relating to complaints regarding gender pay discrimination. Although the collection can be made by several bodies in certain States, it is generally the equality body that is most often mentioned (AT, BE, BG, CY, DE, DK, EE, EL, FR, LV, LT, NL, PT, SE, SI). The other bodies cited are: the Labour Inspectorate (PL, PT, SI, SK), the Ministry of Labour (BE, DK), the Ministry of Justice (AT, EL), the courts (DK, UK), the trade unions (BE), the Equal Treatment Commission (AT), the government plenipotentiary for equality (PL), the general secretariat for gender equality (EL).

Not all States practice systematic data collection by establishing official statistics on complaints regarding gender-based pay discrimination. In some, such as France and Ireland, complaints against discrimination based on gender are registered, but it is not possible to single out complaints of pay discrimination. The availability and reliability of data on discrimination differ considerably among the Member States; this makes comparison difficult and may penalise those which have highly-developed data collection systems (the United Kingdom, for example) by giving the impression that they encounter more serious problems. Thus, a high number of recorded complaints does not necessarily signify a high level of discrimination, but could instead reflect a high degree of awareness and the existence of an efficient and credible mechanism³¹. The figures presented in the table below (Table 5) must be interpreted with caution. Whatever the year under consideration, the United Kingdom is the country registering the most complaints linked to gender-based pay discrimination in absolute terms (169 735) and as a proportion (66 %). Although Lithuania declared the lowest number of complaints between 2005 and 2010 (4), the lowest ratio is held by Slovakia (0,4 %).

³¹ International Labour Organisation, 2007. *Equality at work: taking up the challenges*, Global report under the follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, International Labour Conference, 96th Session.

Table 5: Data on complaints concerning pay discrimination between women and men

Year	A T	BE	B G	C Y	C Z	D E	D K	EE	EL	FI	IT	LT	L V	N L	PL	SE	PL	SK	UK
2005	8	5		1	0		4	1						15	3	65	3		
2006	7	5		2	5	8	3	3						18	10	53	10		17268
2007	12	11	1	1	0	23	2	1						6	14	49	14		44013
2008	8	16	2		4	52	2	1					2	11	14	15	14	23	62706
2009	18	13	2	2		30	9	0					2	9	12	40	12	11	45748
2010						7	3												
Total	53	50	5	6	9	0	23	6	3	14	8	15	4	59	53	2	53	34	5
Ratio *	23 %	16 %		3% %	64 %	13 %		11 %	6 %			10 %	19 %	15 %	27 %	28 %	27 %	0.4 %	66%

**This is the ratio between complaints about pay discrimination between women and men and complaints about gender discrimination in general.*

Data collection system on pay discrimination complaints	Member States
Equality body	AT, BE, BG, CY, DE, DK, EE, EL, FR, LV, LT, NL, PT, SE, SI
Labour inspection	PL, PT, SI, SK
Ministry of Labour	BE, DK
Trade unions	BE
Ministry of Justice	AT, EL
Courts of Law	DK, UK
Governmental body responsible for gender equality	AT, EL, PL

According to the results of our survey, data relating to pay discrimination is generally collected by the equality body (AT, BE, BG, CY, DE, DK, EE, EL, FR, LV, LT, NL, PT, SE, SI); the other institutions cited are: the Labour Inspectorate (PL, PT, SI, SK), the ministry in charge of employment (BE, DK), the ministry of justice (AT, EL), the courts (DK, UK), and the government bodies responsible for gender equality (AT, EL, PL). Several Member States have issued statistics on complaints about pay discrimination. However, comparisons between States on this basis are not reliable.

Data collection is a tool which is still underused in combating gender-based pay discrimination in the European Union. It is probable that in the absence of the necessary data, a considerable amount of discrimination goes unnoticed or is not called into question.

Decision-makers need full and reliable information on effective laws and remedies for dealing with the problem of discrimination, in order to respond by way of appropriate policies. The other players committed to promoting equal pay for women and men (bodies promoting equality, associations with a legitimate interest, social partners, etc.) also need such data to monitor the situation at national level and to plan and channel their work in an appropriate manner. Relevant and up-to-date data is also required for the purpose of raising awareness.

II. Indicator on the influence of collective bargaining on the promotion of equal pay and the elimination of the gender pay gap

The second qualitative indicator (indicator 9: see Annex 22) is based on the measures and good practice concerning the gender pay gap implemented under collective bargaining. At the evaluation level, it takes into account the measures aimed at combating the gender pay gap under collective bargaining as well as the number of collective agreements concluded in connection with the pay gap and the players responsible for the system for collecting such data.

This indicator has been somewhat extended compared to 2001, to take into account not only the initiatives devised by the public authorities but also those coming directly from the social partners themselves. The type of measures, the players concerned and the scope are always covered, even if they are presented in a simplified manner. As in the case of the first qualitative indicator, the data relating to evaluation have been simplified in order to take greater overall account of specific effects on the pay gap, whilst eliminating comparisons with the quantitative indicators which were not realistic.

This indicator, although fundamental, is not the simplest to deal with as the systems differ greatly between the States, making comparisons difficult.

Determining earnings is often at the centre of collective bargaining systems. The gender pay gap, the distribution of pay, and the general level of earnings are the result of the system of collective relations and its inherent characteristics. Closing the pay gaps cannot be effective without the strong involvement of the social partners: trade unions and employers. The influence of the system of collective labour relations on pay inequalities between women and men has been stressed in a number of studies (Rubery et al., 2005; Plasman et al., 2008; Plantenga and Remery, 2006). When collective bargaining is strong, pay inequalities between women and men are less great³².

³² European Trade Union Confederation (ETUC), 2008. Resolution "Closing the gender pay gap".

Three important factors are underlined by certain authors (Rubery et al., 2005):

1. The existence and the level of salary thresholds: minimum wages

Women are more likely than men

- to be concentrated in poorly paid jobs and therefore to be receiving the minimum wage,
- to be employed in enterprises or sectors where collective bargaining is weaker, which increases the importance of the existence of salary thresholds at the centralised or sectoral level,
- to be more concentrated in jobs escaping - either formally, or in practice - the minimum salary standards;

2. The level and the coordination of the system for determining earnings between occupations, firms and sectors.

The level of negotiations has an influence on the place occupied by equality on the agenda. The probability of gender equality issues being discussed, as well as the range and type of questions debated, are closely related to the level of negotiations - central (in Sweden, for example), sectoral (as is the case in Belgium) or within the enterprise (in the United Kingdom, in particular). Centralised negotiations have traditionally tended to favour concerns for equality.

The decentralisation of the context of professional relations has an adverse effect on negotiations relating to gender equality, particularly equal pay. Consequently, the pay gap is generally narrower in the States with centralised collective bargaining which attaches importance to equal pay policies. It tends to be widest in those States which emphasise the non-egalitarian traditional role of women in the labour market or which have a decentralised and market-oriented wage-setting system.³³ Individualised pay systems, which by their very nature escape the collective determination of pay, also favour gender pay gaps.

3. The impact of job classification and evaluation standards and systems

Job classification and evaluation systems are one of the sources of pay inequalities. This is particularly the case for jobs, trades or sectors of activity characterised by a high degree of female or male participation. Although the impact of this factor is frequently acknowledged, little progress has been made in revising classification and evaluation systems with a view to gender equality, even when this item is on the social partners' agenda.

The diversity of systems of collective relations in the Member States of the European Union is very definitely one of the factors accounting for the differences in terms of the gender pay gap. The European system of collective relations, which has emerged progressively within the European Union, has at this stage little direct effect on gender pay gaps.

³³ International Labour Organisation, 2003. *Time for equality at work*. Global report under the follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, International Labour Conference, 91st Session.

From the point of view of gender-related pay inequalities, the most significant development is the desire of the social partners to promote gender equality, which was conveyed in the form of the adoption of a Framework for actions in 2005.

The *Framework for actions on gender equality* adopted by the European social partners (UNICE/UEAPME, CEEP, ETUC³⁴) gave rise to different measures at national level. It focuses on four priority areas: addressing gender roles, promoting women in decision-making, supporting the work-life balance, and tackling the gender pay gap. These four priorities have an impact on equal pay for women and men, either directly or indirectly. The measures implemented by the social partners in the context of collective bargaining to eliminate the gender pay gap will be presented, before the effectiveness of these measures is discussed.

2.1. Measures taken by the social partners in the context of collective bargaining to eliminate the gender pay gap

Collective agreements can contain provisions on pay *per se* that are linked to the question of equal pay for women and men. Since 2002 the Danish social partners have incorporated clauses aimed at equal pay for women and men into their collective agreements. In a joint declaration, the social partners at central level encourage their colleagues negotiating new pay arrangements at local level to ensure that those arrangements are balanced and do not give rise to gender pay gaps. Moreover, following collective bargaining, the Danish government in 2009 established a committee on pay for the public sector, which takes a particular interest in gender segregation on the labour market and equal pay. The Danish Confederation of Trade Unions and the Danish Employers' Confederation are both represented on this committee. In Sweden, collective agreements on workers' pay were signed in 2007.

³⁴ UNICE: Union of Industrial and Employers' Confederations of Europe, UEAPME: European Association of Craft, Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises, CEEP: European Centre of Enterprises with Public Participation, ETUC: European Trade Union Confederation.

The trade unions representing "blue collar" employees deliberately insisted on higher pay increases in low-pay female-dominated sectors. In Bulgaria, Article 71 of Chapter 10 of the collective agreement for the transport sector stipulates that employers must guarantee equal pay for women and men. In Austria, the Austrian government and the social partners agreed on the adoption in 2011 of a Law requiring employers, at national level, to be transparent as regards information on pay. In Belgium, collective agreement No 25 ter of 9 July 2008 (made binding by Royal Decree) guarantees equal pay for work of equal value and the adoption of non-discriminatory job classification systems.

It could be argued that a minimum wage, with adequate determination and adjustment mechanisms, helps to reduce wage dispersions, and the gender pay gap tends to be narrower where wage dispersion is lower.³⁵ According to replies to the questionnaires, certain States have adopted a minimum wage policy in collective bargaining. In 2007 the Austrian social partners agreed that all sectoral collective agreements involving their members should provide for a minimum wage of EUR 1 000 for a full-time job up to 1 January 2009. Successful negotiations took place between the Polish trade unions and government to increase the minimum wage.

Another approach is to consider that equal pay is covered by more general provisions on gender equality addressed in collective bargaining. In France, the 2004 agreement on professional gender equality in the banking sector provides for specific measures aimed at closing the gender pay gap. The signatories committed themselves to achieving an intermediate objective of 40 % of management posts for women by 2010. The banking and insurance sector has introduced measures aimed at reducing the pay gap for employees absent for long periods on maternity leave, paternity leave or unpaid child-rearing leave.

³⁵ International Labour Organization, 2003. *Time for equality at work*. Global report under the follow-up to the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work, International Labour Conference, 91st Session.

In Cyprus, the government and the social partners agreed in 2005 to use collective agreements as an instrument for combating discrimination. In Slovenia, a special collective agreement for the industrial sector authorises women to work in conditions that entitle them to qualify for bonuses.³⁶ In 2008 the Austrian social partners published a common position document which also referred to the Framework of actions on gender equality. This document outlines the measures adopted to promote economic equality and to reduce the pay gap between women and men:

atypical training and career choices for girls and boys, cooperative sharing of childcare responsibilities between mothers and fathers, promoting women to executive positions, improved conditions for reconciling work and family life, coherent salary calculation and, lastly, as an implementation tool, the Equal Treatment Act. This document is the starting point for the development of the National Action Plan for Gender Equality.

Apart from collective agreements, trade unions and employers' organisations can develop or participate in initiatives aimed at combating the gender pay gap. The Portuguese social partners carried out a project on revalorising work to promote equality (2007-2009). As part of this project, a gender-neutral function analysis grid and a training reference system on pay equality were developed. Since 2006, the Finnish social partners have been participating in a tripartite equal pay programme.

The programme aims to implement the equal pay principle and to bridge the gender pay gap with the help of various measures in a range of fields. The following issues are discussed as part of the programme: the role of collective bargaining in reinforcing equal pay, measures to dismantle gender-based occupational segregation, ways to support women's career development and female leadership, the development of wage systems and parental leaves in relation to reconciliation of work and family life.

³⁶ BUSINESSSEUROPE, CEEP, ETUC, UEAPME, 2009. *Framework of actions on gender equality, Final evaluation report.*

Many of the actions have concentrated on improving the quality and quantity of gender equality planning and pay surveys in the workplace. In 2006 a new social partnership agreement, *Towards 2016*, was adopted following collective bargaining negotiations in Ireland. The Irish national agreement contains a large number of commitments in the field of gender equality. In 2009 the Luxembourg social partners adopted a common action plan (2009-2012) on gender equality with a view to reducing, or even eliminating, stereotypes in the work environment, and which addresses the roles of women and men on the job market, the reconciliation of professional and private life, and the balance between women and men as regards decision-making and pay equality.

In 2009, the Austrian trade unions adopted a *Strong Trade Unions* resolution which required gender equality to be taken into account in collective bargaining. Also in 2009, a joint statement highlighting the importance of equal pay for women and men in pay negotiations was adopted by the Spanish trade unions. The Polish trade unions (2007) and the Austrian trade unions (2010) have published guidelines for their members on including gender equality in collective bargaining. In Belgium, the trade unions signed a *Charter on Gender mainstreaming* in 2004 to give shape to their commitment to promoting gender equality. Reducing the pay gap and adopting neutral function classification systems are two important issues addressed by this Charter.³⁷

<i>Measures</i>	<i>Member States</i>
Collective agreement on equal pay for women and men	AT, BE, BG, DK, FR
Collective agreement on equal treatment for women and men	AT, CY, SI
Collective agreement on a minimum wage	AT, PL
Creation of a body responsible for workplace equality between women and men	DK
Action plan on gender equality in general	FI, FR, IE, LU, PT
Joint statements or resolutions from trade unions	AT, BE, ES

³⁷ Plantenga and Remery's study (pp. 34-36) outlines other measures adopted by the trade unions to combat the wage gap in Europe. Plantenga and Remery, 2006.

According to the replies received, a number of measures promoting equal pay have been adopted within the framework of collective bargaining. Examples include: the adoption of collective agreements incorporating the principle of gender equality in general (AT, CY, SI) or equal pay in particular (AT, BE, BG, DK, FR), the adoption of a minimum wage policy (AT, PL), the creation of a body responsible for the question of equal pay for the public sector made up of trade union and employers' representatives (DK), implementation of joint action plans by the social partners (FI, FR, IE, LU, PT). Some unions have also made specific commitments in the fight against the gender pay gap (AT, BE, ES).

2.2. Effectiveness of collective bargaining

To combat gender inequalities effectively, it is necessary, on the one hand, to check and evaluate the intervention measures and, on the other, to establish benchmarks that allow progress towards greater equality to be measured. Systems must therefore be put in place to gather regular information on the number and nature of collective agreements and the effects of all the measures adopted as a result of collective bargaining.

2.2.1. Evaluation of measures taken in the context of collective bargaining

Some Member States have provided information about the evaluation of measures adopted in the context of collective bargaining. In the Czech Republic, there is a growing tendency to include the principle of gender equality in collective bargaining. A study shows that collective agreements have a positive impact in terms of reducing the gender pay gap. According to a 2009 report on *Equal treatment for women and men* in industrial relations, direct discrimination is practically non-existent in Greece and wage inequalities persist only in a number of private enterprises, particularly those where the pay structure is not transparent and where employees are not members of trade unions.

<i>Evaluations</i>	<i>Member States</i>
Impact of collective agreements on the pay gap	EL, FI
Collective agreements and gender equality	CZ

According to the Member States' replies, the question of gender equality is increasingly being taken into consideration in collective bargaining and the adoption of collective agreements that incorporate the principle of equal pay for women and men is having a positive impact in terms of reducing the pay gap.

2.2.2. System for collecting data on collective agreements relating to equal pay for women and men

In each Member State, information on collective agreements and their essential provisions should be compiled and published in summary form at appropriate intervals.³⁸ It is important to have accurate and reliable statistics on collective agreements that include the principle of equal pay for women and men.

The nature of collective bargaining varies considerably among EU Member States. With regard to the level of negotiations, for example, there are three separate groups of countries. In countries such as the United Kingdom, negotiations are decentralised and are conducted essentially at the level of individual enterprises. Austria and Finland, on the other hand, have a relatively centralised structure: negotiations are generally held at national level. In most Member States, however, including Germany, France, Italy, Belgium and the Netherlands, negotiations are mainly conducted at an intermediate (i.e. sectoral) level (Plasman and Rycx, 2001). Although a survey of collective agreements on gender pay equality needs to be carried out, it would not be objective to classify Member States on the basis of the number of collective agreements adopted, given the different levels of negotiations.

³⁸ International Labour Organization, 1926. *Resolution on collective agreements adopted by the Third International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS)*.

A number of Member States have provided information on the number of collective agreements that deal with the issue of equal pay. Such information is collected by the Ministry of Labour (BE, FR), a tripartite body (BE), or the body responsible for mediation between the social partners (SE).

In Luxembourg, 168 collective agreements concerning the gender pay gap were adopted between 2005 and 2009, while in Finland and Sweden there were over 400. There was a decline in the number of such agreements in France between 2005 and 2009, with totals of 277 and 4 786 at sectoral and enterprise level respectively. In Belgium, the years from 2006 to 2009 were marked by the revision of certain collective agreements in order to incorporate the principle of equal pay for women and men; 2008 saw the adoption of a collective agreement on equal treatment and of revised collective agreement No 25 ter.

Table 6: Data on collective agreements on equal pay for women and men

Year	BE	FI	FR		LU	SE
			Branches	Enterprises		
2005	0/2		108	1290	26	
2006	0/1 (+1 revision)		54	1540	32	
2007	0/6 (+4 revisions)		39	1113	43	
2008	1/2 (1 revision)		35	548	37	
2009	0/5 (+ 1 revision)		41	295	30	
Total	1 (+7 revisions)	Over 400	277	4786	168	600

<i>System for collecting data on collective agreements relating to equal pay for women and men</i>	Member States
Ministry of Labour	BE, FR
Tripartite body	BE
Body responsible for mediation between the social partners	SE

Information on collective agreements on equal pay is collected by different institutions: the Ministry of Labour (BE,FR), a tripartite body (BE), the body responsible for mediation between the social partners (SE). It is not realistic to compare Member States on the basis of the number of collective agreements on the gender pay gap in view of differences in terms of population, the level of negotiations, etc.

III. Indicator relating to the effects of part-time work, parental leave, time credit systems and career breaks on the gender pay gap

Qualitative indicator 3 (indicator 10, see Annex 22) concerns evaluations of, or research into, the effects (short and long term) of part-time work, parental leave, time credit systems and career breaks on the gender pay gap. A specific question relates to information provided by the public authorities to raise awareness of the effects of these flexible forms of employment on the gender pay gap.

The choices made by men and women to reconcile the professional, private and family aspects of their lives fall primarily within the private sphere. However, the solutions they find to balance these conflicting demands have consequences in terms of the actions of the public authorities. The reconciliation of work and family life is a challenge that can promote the development and quality of employment, but can also make it possible to achieve fertility and employment rates compatible with economic development, and the financing of social protection systems.

These challenges do not exist in isolation and are often interdependent. Conversely, actions by the public authorities also have an impact on the choices made. Strategies aimed at facilitating such choices are based on a whole range of factors: different policies have been adopted by different countries to influence the balance between professional and family life (Adema and Thévenon, 2008).

Female employment is characterised by long career breaks for family reasons and a high level of part-time work. This is because family responsibilities are not always shared fairly. Women experience more difficulties than men in reconciling their professional and private lives, as the task of looking after children and dependent family members is largely borne by women. Combined with the lack of childcare infrastructure, this situation often forces women to reduce their hours of work, to opt for parental leave or to abandon the labour market in order to look after their children. The career development and promotion prospects of women can be negatively affected. This is reflected in less financially rewarding careers.³⁹ As long as men do not play their part in family responsibilities, this situation will continue to be disadvantageous for women.

3.1. Policies to reconcile working and family life

National policies aimed at facilitating reconciliation of working and family life typically cover the systems governing childcare and various types of childcare leave, particularly parental leave.

³⁹ European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, 2009. *Opinion on the effectiveness of the current legal framework on equal pay for equal work or work of equal value in tackling the gender pay gap.*

3.1.1. Measures relating to parental leave

The duration of parental leave (granted to biological and adoptive parents) varies from one Member State to the other. The 1996 Directive on parental leave introduced a minimum period of 3 months. Following a Framework Agreement, signed by the social partners in 2009, which increased the minimum duration of parental leave (from 3 to 4 months), the revised Directive was adopted on 8 March 2010. The leave can be taken in a single instalment or in a piecemeal way. It is generally unpaid, though certain allowances may be granted under the social security system (as is the case in Belgium and Bulgaria). In other Member States, parental leave may be partially paid by the employer pursuant to a collective agreement (e.g. Denmark, France and Sweden).

While the right to parental leave is often transferable between parents, it is generally used by women, one of the reasons probably being that it is not always paid. Several Member States have adopted measures aimed at encouraging fathers to take parental leave: in Italy, for example, parental leave increases from ten to eleven months if the father takes at least three months. Norway offers a contrasting model, as the father's right to six weeks (soon to be increased to ten weeks) of paid parental leave cannot be transferred to the mother: if the father does not exercise it, the right to the leave is lost. In Greece, leave is not transferable in the private sector, but it can be transferred in the public sector. In Finland, there is a non-transferable "father's month" and a parental allowance is granted provided that the "other" parent takes at least 2 of the 14 months' leave. Slovenia has opted for fairly generous paternal leave of 90 days. As in the cases of pregnancy and maternity, dismissal is completely forbidden if it is linked to parental leave. Likewise, an employee returning to work after parental leave is protected against less favourable treatment.⁴⁰

⁴⁰ European Commission, Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, Unit G.2, 2009. *EU Rules on Gender Equality: How are they transposed into national law*

<i>Measures</i>	<i>Member States</i>
Right to parental leave	All
Remuneration of parental leave ⁴¹	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - unpaid: CY, ES, EL, IE, MT, NL, PT, UK - flat-rate amount: AT, BE, BG, CZ, FR, LU, PL, SK - amount proportional to pay: DE, DK, FI, HU, IT, LT, LV, RO, SE - amount equal to salary: EE, SI

Parental leave exists in all Member States, its minimum duration is four months and it is generally taken by mothers. Where an allowance is paid during parental leave, it can take the form of a flat-rate amount (AT, BE, BG, CZ, FR, LU, PL, SK), an amount proportional to pay (DE, DK, FI, HU, IT, LT, LV, RO, SE) or the full salary (EE, SI).

3.1.2. Childcare

There is still a huge imbalance between men and women in the sharing of domestic and family responsibilities, leaving women – much more so than men – to opt for flexible working arrangements or even give up work altogether. Although these working arrangements may in part reflect personal preferences, they have an impact on women's career development, on the continuing wage gap between men and women, and on the accumulation of pension rights.

There is a direct link between availability of childcare facilities and the scope for parents to engage in paid employment. Childcare facilities allow parents to take a job and keep it, thereby improving their quality of life and removing a major obstacle to their freedom to organise their time.

In the EU, many women are forced into not working, or can only work part-time, because of their family responsibilities.

⁴¹ http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/emplweb/families/index.cfm?langId=en&id=1

The lack of availability of childcare facilities, or the cost of such facilities, is one of the causes of this situation. If this demand were met, the overall rate of female employment could be increased.⁴² The importance of appropriate childcare structures, which are an essential factor in achieving gender equality and improving female participation in the labour market, is recognised by the European Council and the European Commission. Targets as regards childcare facilities were set at the Barcelona summit in 2002.

The Barcelona objectives identify two age-groups of children (0-3 years of age and between 3 years old and the mandatory school age), each with different needs and requiring different types of service. For the under-3s, the demand is primarily for crèches or other childcare services. These are usually paying facilities, with only a handful of countries (Finland, Denmark and Sweden) offering guaranteed access. As regards the over-3s, however, many children begin pre-school education in nursery school, in systems that are usually at least subsidised if not entirely free, and may combine this with attending an after-school childcare centre. Some countries (BE, DK, ES, SE) have achieved (and exceeded) the Barcelona objectives as regards the level of coverage of children by the childcare systems (33 % for the first age-group and 90 % for the second). Indissociable from the issue of childcare availability is the issue of cost. In most Member States, childcare facilities are subsidised in some way, though there are significant differences between Member States. With regard to the distribution of costs at macroeconomic level, the financial contribution of parents ranges from 8 % in Sweden to 80 % in Poland. In most Member States, the cost of childcare depends on family income. The Nordic countries have established a ceiling for childcare expenses, while in some countries childcare is free for low-income groups (FI, IT).⁴³

⁴² European Commission 2008. *Childcare services in the EU*, MEMO/08/592.

⁴³ European Commission, 2008. *Implementation of the Barcelona objectives concerning childcare facilities for pre-school-age children*, Report from the Commission to the European Parliament, the Council, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, COM (2008) 638 final.

European Commission, 2009. *The provision of childcare services: a comparative review of 30 European countries*, Directorate General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities.

Some countries (BE, DK, ES, SE) have achieved (and exceeded) the Barcelona objectives as regards the level of coverage of children by the childcare systems. Generally speaking, the childcare services are subsidised and their cost depends on the parents' income. In some countries childcare is free for low-income groups (FI, IT).

3.1.3. Working time and flexibility for workers

The regulation of working hours is fundamental to our society and lies at the heart of Social Europe. Public intervention to promote flexible working hours can take various forms. The most widespread form concerns the legislative framework governing working hours, leave and the provisions governing part-time work. One of the approaches adopted by public authorities in recent years aimed to guarantee that the social rights of part-time workers were identical to those of full-time workers. State intervention can also take other forms such as information campaigns and awarding prizes to enterprises with family-friendly practices. In France, a family tax credit is available to enterprises and members of the liberal professions for expenditure aimed at enabling their employees to better reconcile their work and family lives. This tax credit may be granted for expenditure on setting up company crèches, subsidies for other childcare services, pay during parental leave, and training for employees during parental leave. Other Member States allow enterprises to conduct the prior evaluation and subsequent follow-up necessary to introduce such practices. Austria and Germany, for example, subsidise audits carried out by enterprises to design the arrangements which suit them best and to follow up their effects over time.

Certain Member States resort to legislative measures which entitle employees to adjust their timetables and working hours. Such measures generally aim to create incentives for the introduction of arrangements and practices that facilitate reconciliation of work and family life by requiring employers and employees to negotiate.

In the Netherlands, employees of enterprises with over ten employees can adjust their working hours without having to provide justification, unless the employer's objections are accepted by the courts. In Sweden, parents can reduce their working day by nearly two hours (i.e. to six hours a day) until their youngest child starts primary school (i.e. until the age of 8), without changing their employment contract and with proportional pay. The introduction of such rights is becoming more widespread, e.g. in Germany, where the employees of enterprises with at least 15 employees are entitled to work part-time, or in Belgium where such employees can work 80 % of normal working hours. Under UK legislation, parents with a child of less than six years of age are entitled to flexible working hours (Adema and Thévenon, 2008). The importance of measures to help reconcile private and professional life is undeniable. However, progress needs to be evaluated by following up the measures adopted.

In several Member States, legislative measures have been adopted to enable workers to arrange their working hours (BE, DE, NL, SE, UK). Prizes and subsidies can also be awarded to encourage companies to adopt policies favourable to reconciling family and working life (AT, DE, FR).

3.2. Evaluation of policies to reconcile family life/working life

According to replies to the questionnaire, a number of governments are taking steps to make the whole of society aware of the effects of flexible forms of employment on the gender pay gap (AT, BE, CZ, FI, LU, SI). Member States were asked to present the conclusions of their evaluations of the effects of flexible forms of employment on the gender pay gap. Some Member States presented the results of studies on the pay gap between women and men who work part time. In Austria the report *Quality of part-time employment and the improvement of the position of women in the labour market – analysis and examples of implementation* revealed that the proportion of women working part time rose from 27,2 % to 41,9 % between 1995 and 2007. Women who work part time earn on average 8,5 % less than their male colleagues, and 14 % less than women who work full time. In Ireland, the report *Gender Wage Gap in Ireland: Evidence from the National Employment Survey 2003*, published in 2009, indicated that working part time increased the gender pay gap by 1,9 %.

Other studies show that women, who are more likely to reduce their working hours or to take career breaks for family reasons, are more heavily penalised from a financial standpoint. In France, the 2006 *Survey of professional activity* made it possible to examine the situation of employees who had interrupted their career for various reasons (unemployment, children, health, etc.) and to compare their pay with that of colleagues with a continuous career. It established that the longest interruptions (between three months and four years) were for childcare reasons.

In private-sector enterprises with at least 10 employees, those who had not experienced any career interruptions had higher average gross hourly earnings (EUR 16,9 in 2006) than those of their colleagues who had stopped working as a result of unemployment (EUR 14,2) or to look after their children (EUR 12,7). Part-time work concerns a third of women but only a tenth of men. The employment rate is 12,4 points lower for women with a dependent child under 12 years of age, while it is 7,3 points higher for men in the same situation. In Germany, the research report *Pay Inequality between women and men in Germany*, which is based on 2008 figures, shows that 97 % of men, but only 6 % of women, do not take parental leave. The wage penalty experienced by women when they return to work after parental leave could be explained, on the one hand, by the preference for part-time work of many women after parental leave and, on the other, by human capital depreciation. In the United Kingdom, part-time work does not seem to have an impact on pay in the short-term, if account is taken of factors such as sector, post and level of education. In the long term, however, an individual who works mainly part time throughout his/her career is more heavily penalised in terms of pay than one who works mainly full time. According to the Austrian report *Gender Pay Gap: Indicators 2007*, the wage gap between mothers and women without children was 40 % in 2007. 27,7 % of this gap can be explained by the family responsibilities of mothers. In Cyprus, working part time or taking a career break has a negative impact on pay for women. This is also the case in Finland and Belgium.

The replies to the questionnaire were completed by a review of the literature.⁴⁴ Temporary or definitive withdrawal from the labour market has negative consequences in terms of pay (Fagnani, 1994, 1995; Blau and Khan, 1997; Ruhm, 1998; Moss and Deven, 1999; Jaumotte, 2003; Edin and Gustafsson, 2004; Math and Meilland, 2004 a, b, c, d), although the impact on pay can be ambiguous (Blau and Ehrenberg, 1997). Time spent looking after children is equivalent to a loss of work experience, and mothers are discriminated against because employers assume that they are less motivated and less committed to their work. According to a study carried out in 2000 with German data (Beblo and Wolf, 2000), human capital depreciation is between 50 % and 33 % for a year's career break; however, those working part time do not suffer any human capital depreciation. Moreover, if parental leave is used only by women, it can turn into a real employment trap by slowing down their career progression (Killingsworth, 1983; Blau and Kahn, 1992) and reinforcing discriminatory practices against women in the labour market. Parental leave, which can be interpreted in specific ways by employers or result in a loss of competence, gives rise subsequently to pay gaps and vertical segregation. According to some authors (Datta Gupta et al., 2006), the Nordic model for reconciling family and working life could have negative effects if it encourages women to take very long paid leave to look after their children. The resulting vertical segregation affects not only mothers, but all women. In practice, employers take account of the high probability of young female employees (as potential mothers) taking parental leave and may consider that parental leave indicates a reduced commitment by employees to their work. This results in lower pay, promotion prospects, etc. A vicious circle is established, whereby the wage gap between women and men encourages more women to make use of their right to parental leave, resulting in absences from the labour market which lead in turn to lower pay for women (owing to their lesser experience) and reduced promotion prospects.

⁴⁴ Review of the literature based on the work of Maron (2010) and supplemented by a number of other studies.

The duration of parental leave also has significant implications for pay (Rhum, 1998).

Three months' leave has little impact on women's pay, but parental leave of 9 months can reduce hourly earnings by up to 3 %. The longer the parental leave (e.g. Austria, Germany, Spain, Estonia, France and Lithuania), the more significant the negative impact on career progression and on pay inequalities between women and men (Klerman et Leibowitz, 1999).

Beblo and Wolf (2000) analysed the effects of career breaks in Germany and found that, for persons aged 30 years of age, career breaks of one or two years entailed pay decreases of 0,2 and 1 German marks respectively. If a career break of 3 years occurs at the beginning of a person's career, the wage penalty will be barely 1 %, whereas if the career break occurs after 10 years, the wage penalty will be 9 %. According to a study carried out in 2002 in Denmark (Datta Gupta et Smith, 2002), a year-long career break results in a 7 % drop in hourly earnings for mothers; in the long term, however, the pay of mothers catches up and returns to the level of women without children. The longer the parental leave, the longer it takes to catch up. In Belgium, Portugal, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, the duration of parental leave corresponds exactly to the minimum required by the European Commission. This aspect of the system is positive in terms of protecting the career prospects of women.

Part of the gender pay gap (17 % in Denmark (Meilland, 2001)); 27 % in France (Meurs and Ponthieux, 2000); 14 % in the United Kingdom (Chambaz, 2003)) is explained by career breaks in the form of parental leave, which are more frequent in the case of women (Pylkkänen and Smith, 2003).

Certain authors (e.g. Bergmann, 1989) have indicated that family policies involving paid leave to look after children represent an obstacle to more equal opportunities for women since the reduced opportunities available to women on the labour market (lower pay, segregation, glass ceiling) mean that mothers are more likely than fathers to interrupt their careers to look after children since the financial loss involved is less.

Although a high proportion of women eligible for parental leave take it (Plantenga and Remery, 2006; De Henau et al., 2007), the proportion of fathers who take parental leave remains low, and the gender inequalities on the labour market are in fact reinforced by such arrangements (Hardy and Adnett, 2002). To achieve progress towards equality, it would appear essential for a greater proportion of childcare and education responsibilities to be transferred to men (Vogel, 1993).

Moreover, inequality on the labour market is a major obstacle to the sharing of parental leave between the two parents. "*Existing inequality also gives fathers a more powerful voice than mothers in family negotiations about the use of leave, and contributes to a situation where it may seem self evident that the mother should take the leave.*" (Moss and Deven, 1999). The low take-up of parental leave by men can be seen as a matter of concern insofar as it illustrates the segregation between men and women as regards childcare, and indeed it contributes to segregation in the sense that the major imbalance in the taking of leave by mothers and fathers reinforces traditional roles and hinders the sharing of family tasks (Dermott, 2001). The availability of good-quality and affordable childcare services, paternity leave and incentives for fathers to take parental leave tend to reduce the gender pay gap in Europe, while longer parental leave reinforces the pay gap (Maron, 2010).

The promotion of equality between women and men requires better reconciliation of professional and private life since women are more affected by the lack of balance between these two aspects. The fact that far more women than men make use of such arrangements creates a gender imbalance which has a negative impact on women's position in the labour market and their economic independence.⁴⁵

⁴⁵ European Commission, 2006. Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions, *A Roadmap for equality between women and men 2006-2010*, COM(2006), 92 final.

In the light of the results of the studies, priority should be given to arrangements which:

- 1) reduce the need to take parental leave or career breaks or to work part time. This requires greater availability and accessibility of childcare services, development of the childcare infrastructure, and adjustments to school timetables;
- 2) promote a balanced sharing of parental leave between the father and the mother.

The information provided to analyse the effects of flexible forms of employment on the gender pay gap has been shown to be of limited utility. There are many studies on the organisation of flexible forms of employment, but very few on their impact on pay. It is recommended that Member States carry out more research and studies in this field.

This indicator was simplified to only include the effects (development) of flexible forms of employment on the pay gap. The descriptive data are analysed in other studies or form part of other indicators. Flexible forms of employment were also more clearly defined. Lastly, comparisons with unrealistic quantitative indicators were eliminated.

CONCLUSIONS

The remit of this report is two-fold: it aims, on the one hand, to give a more detailed presentation of the data regarding the pay gap in the different Member States and, on the other, to offer an evaluation and an update of the 2001 indicators, so as to be able to incorporate the recent legislative and statistical developments.

1. Description

Despite considerable efforts by the Member States, there is still a pay gap.

A large proportion of the pay gap is attributable to the fact that more women than men work part time. Part-time jobs are often clustered in certain sectors and occupations where salaries are lower and opportunities for training and career progression more limited. Since it is mainly women who occupy this type of job, it inevitably widens the pay gap between women and men. Women working part time earn on average between 18 and 40 % less per hour than men working full time, although this is not the case in some countries. If the calculation of women's pay is adjusted to take account of women's share in the volume of work performed (in terms of working days), it is clear that in most countries women's pay needs to increase and the difference is as much as 30 % in some countries.

In terms of pay women are therefore penalised in the labour market on two fronts compared with men: first of all because they have lower average hourly earnings than men and secondly because they more frequently work part time. The result is that their monthly pay is considerably lower than men's.

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.

The figures show that in all sectors and in most countries, men's pay is higher than women's pay in the five main sectors with the largest share of women or men. Women employed in the five sectors where the proportion of men's employment is highest earn more on average than they would if they worked in the five sectors accounting for the largest share of women's employment. The same applies to men. The sectors which account for a large proportion of men's employment are therefore associated with higher average pay than the sectors accounting for the largest share of women's employment.

The gender pay gap is more pronounced in the five sectors providing most female employment, where it is as high as 24 %. The gap in this instance may be due to vertical segregation: in the same sector men are more likely to occupy a post with greater responsibility and higher pay than women employed in the same sector. Despite equal qualifications, women do not have the same career opportunities and hold fewer managerial posts.

In most countries women's average earnings are higher in occupations which account for a major share of men's employment than in those which account for a major share of female employment. Conversely, men's average earnings are higher if they are employed in an occupation employing a large proportion of the female workforce. This may explain why the pay gap is consistently narrower in masculine occupations than in female occupations.

Two factors that heavily influence wage formation, and therefore the pay gap, are the individual's age and level of training. Men and women often still have a different professional life cycle. Although women's level of education is currently equal to or higher than men's, they still tend to choose different courses of study, have fewer opportunities to follow subsequent training and considerably more women than men take parental leave which later holds their career back in terms of promotion and pay.

There is generally a positive correlation between the pay gap and age although the increase is not constant in all countries. The increase in the pay gap with age is due to the fact that age reflects professional experience and career development.

The observation is less clearcut with regard to the level of education. In a number of countries (such as the Czech Republic, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, Slovakia, Sweden and the United Kingdom) the correlation is positive: the pay gap is wider among the highest qualified. Such a result might be explained by school choices, career paths and individual pay negotiations differing between women and men, by career breaks being taken more frequently by women, by the professional segregation suffered by women, etc.

In other countries such as Belgium, Cyprus, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland and Romania, the opposite is true: the pay gap is narrower among the more educated.

Certain personal factors such as family composition, marital status or country of birth also influence the pay gap. Family composition and marital status generally have opposing effects on the earnings of women and those of men. In most countries, marital status and the presence of a child works against women and in favour of men, which means that the two factors exacerbate the gender pay gap. Country of birth may have an adverse effect on pay, resulting in dual discrimination against women of foreign origin.

Gender equality on the labour market does not just mean equal pay, but also equal participation by women and men. However, there is no clear link between the level of female employment and the pay gap: in Nordic countries where the female participation rate in the labour market is high, the pay gap is close to the European average and wider than those observed in certain countries in southern Europe where the female employment rate is low. An increase in female employment rates will not therefore automatically result in greater pay equality.

An increase in the employment rate of women might even, in the first instance, have a negative effect on the pay gap, because such an increase generally benefits less educated women working both full time and part time in lower paid sectors. Nonetheless, if gender equality in the labour market is to be achieved, the two objectives of equal pay and equal participation in the labour market need to be pursued simultaneously.

Pay gaps also depend on measures to promote equal pay and to combat the gender pay gap, on the influence of collective bargaining on the promotion of equal pay and closing of the gender pay gap, and on forms of flexible working.

The measures introduced in Member States to close the gender pay gap go beyond the legislative provisions and include the establishment of institutional mechanisms (in particular the establishment of bodies to promote equality), the adoption of action plans and the development of initiatives (programmes to raise awareness, training, instruments). Legislation in the field is not confined to equal pay, but also covers access to employment and working conditions. In order to strengthen application of the legislation in force, Member States have adopted provisions on judicial procedures, penalties, the burden of proof and protection against reprisals.

Under the current European Directives, bodies promoting equality should assist victims, conduct studies, publish reports and draft recommendations. Facts show that in the Member States the remit of such bodies goes beyond the scope defined by the EU and covers aspects such as training and the drafting of codes of conduct. The institutional mechanisms for gender equality can also take the form of departments, divisions and committees accountable to a ministry. Different countries are also promoting equality and combating pay discrimination by implementing initiatives such as information programmes, awareness campaigns, training and the development of tools (for example, job evaluation systems). These initiatives may be conducted independently or as part of an action plan. The drafting of these action plans may involve several participants such as State institutions, the social partners, associations, etc.

Although it is difficult to judge the effectiveness of a measure without conducting any evaluation after its implementation, we observe that evaluation is not systematic in EU countries. Generally speaking, the evaluation results demonstrate that while some progress is observed, the measures implemented have not yet been able to close the gender pay gap. The collection of data and production of statistics concerning pay discrimination complaints remain under-used tools in the EU, despite the many objectives that such data could serve.

As well as the public authorities, many trade unions and employers' organisations have introduced initiatives to combat pay inequality and gender segregation. Their actions were designed to encourage greater awareness, both among their members and affiliates and the wider public. The role of the social partners is crucial for narrowing the pay gap when it comes to addressing the equal pay issue in collective bargaining. The preferred level for collective bargaining can vary from country to country. It can take place at national, sectoral or enterprise level. In addition to joint statements and agreements on equal pay, the revision of the job classification system is on the agenda in several countries so as to combat any discrimination in such classification. As with all the other measures implemented in the different countries to combat the pay gap, those adopted under collective bargaining are not consistently evaluated. Moreover, information on collective agreements relating to the pay gap is not consistently collected. The lack of accurate and reliable statistics on collective agreements constitutes an obstacle to the efforts being made to close the pay gap.

The double burden of paid work and non-paid work in the family, combined with a possible dearth of childcare facilities, is one of the reasons for the drop in Europe's fertility rate. It is also one of the main obstacles to the full participation of women in the labour market and the continuing gender pay gap. In the Member States the measures intended to make it easier to reconcile professional life and family obligations mainly comprise childcare facilities, parental leave and flexible working arrangements. However, it is almost exclusively women who take parental leave or other forms of reduced working hours, and these provisions can for them be real traps that will hinder their career progress and prevent their pay increasing.

The reasons for the existence and persistence of the gender pay gap are therefore multiple, complex and inter-twined. The current provisions and measures are still insufficient, as borne out by the continuing gender pay gap in most European Union countries. Elimination of pay inequalities requires the adoption of a set of new measures, as well as the strengthening of existing measures, procedures and programmes, and increased commitment by the different players.

2. Updating of indicators

The set of indicators for 2001 has been evaluated and updated. The four-part structure will be kept. The proposals for updating the quantitative indicators are as follows.

The most important change vis-à-vis the 2001 indicators concerns indicator 1; the pay gap calculated on the basis of the average gross earnings of women and men. The 2001 set of indicators was based on the pay gap calculated using the gross monthly earnings of full-time employees. That method of calculation has been adjusted at European level to include the pay of part-time employees, a vast number of whom are women. At the moment, the Eurostat indicator is derived from the pay gap calculated on the basis of the gross hourly earnings of full-time and part-time employees. The considerable impact of working hours on monthly pay is thus in fact adjusted by basing the calculations on the gross hourly rate. The first update aims to re-establish coherence with the Eurostat structural indicator.

A second important change in the first indicator concerns the way in which the proportion of women and men in paid employment is recorded. After all, a good comparison between Member States of the degree of gender equality on the labour market requires interpretation of the pay gap in the correct context. It seems that a small pay gap often goes hand in hand with a low female employment rate. The explanation lies in the profile of working women; they are often highly educated women in a better paid job.

In indicators 3 and 4, concerning part-time work and the pay gap in relation to age and level of education, the employment rate is also included in the indicator.

A further proposal to amend the indicators is to include extra factors that can play a role in the pay gap, namely marital status, family situation and country of birth. The new indicator 6 relates the pay gap to these circumstances. These are personal data which in principle cannot play any role in a properly functioning labour market, but which have an impact on the pay gap. These data are not included in the SES survey at the moment. Although it is not obvious that information about employees' personal circumstances should be collected, it is an interesting extension of the set of indicators. In the report the calculations are made on the basis of the SILC (Survey on Income and Living Conditions) survey. If these circumstances were included in the SES survey, they could also be analysed as factors in decomposition of the figures for the pay gap using the Oaxaca method.

The changes in the other indicators are less significant. They concern the inclusion of an adjustment for part-time work in indicator 2, namely the proportion of women and men in the total sum of wages, and the revision of indicator 5, which reflects the impact of segregation in the labour market.

The formulation of the three qualitative indicators has been simplified and takes account of the legislative developments since 2001 and the importance of coordinating the efforts of all the key players.

The European Union acted as a pioneer of pay equality by incorporating Article 119 in the Treaty establishing the European Economic Community signed in Rome on 25 March 1957, whereby *"Each Member State shall during the first stage ensure and subsequently maintain the application of the principle that men and women should receive equal pay for equal work"*. However, it was not until 1975 that the first Directive on equal treatment was published, after the Community's first enlargement.

That Directive prohibits all gender-based discrimination, for equal work or work of an equal value, in any aspect of remuneration. The principle of equal pay was then introduced into national laws. In spite of these provisions, statistics show that the gap is still very wide: women earn on average 18 % less than men.

Clearly, while the law is essential, it is not sufficient either to narrow the gender pay gap or to eliminate the structural factors behind the gender pay gap and gender inequality in the labour market.

Closing the gender pay gap therefore remains a real challenge to be overcome. Accelerating progress in this field requires a strong commitment on the part of all the stakeholders. The Member States and the social partners in particular are called upon to coordinate their efforts in a framework of targeted approaches combining legislative and non-legislative measures aimed at simultaneously tackling the multiple causes of pay inequalities between women and men, at both the national and European levels, in the context of the implementation of the Europe 2020 Strategy.

List of updated indicators

Most of the quantitative indicators are based on the results of the Structure of Earnings Survey (SES - Regulation No 530/1999/EC), which are only available every 4 years and cover enterprises with 10 or more employees, in economic activity sectors B to S (excluding O) of the NACE Rev. 2 Statistical classification of economic activities in the European Union. Some indicators are available annually. However, detailed information needed for certain calculations, and some other indicators are only available every four years. For every quantitative indicator, the availability of data is indicated as follows: Aa = annually available; A4 = available every 4 years; N = requires the collection of new data.

I. Main Indicators of the Different Aspects of the Gender Pay Gap

A. General gender pay gap indicators

Indicator 1: Ratio for all employees

$$\text{Gender pay gap} = \frac{(\text{average gross male earnings} - \text{average gross female earnings})}{\text{average gross male pay}} \times 100$$

- a) Gender pay gap based on gross hourly female and male earnings, full-time and part-time employees of all sectors
Source: SES + other sources; Aa
- b) Employment rate for women and men
Source: Labour Force Survey; Aa
- c) Gender pay gap based on gross hourly female and male earnings, full-time and part-time employees together, private and public sectors separately
Source: SES + other sources; Aa for some countries, A4
- d) Gender pay gap based on gross annual female and male earnings, full-time and part-time employees together, private and public sectors separately
Source: SES; A4
- e) Gender pay gap based on gross monthly female and male earnings, full-time
Source: SES; A4
- f) Gender pay gap based on gross monthly female and male earnings, full-time and part-time together
Source: SES; A4

Indicator 2: Ratio for the total sum of wages

- a) Share of all wages by sex
Source: Administrative data or other sources; Aa for some countries, N
- b) Repartition of the total number of wage-earners by sex
Source: Administrative data, Labour Force Survey or other sources; Aa
- c) Share of the total number of actual working days by sex
Source: Administrative data, Labour Force Survey or other sources Aa

II. Inequality factors

Indicator 3: Ratio for part-time work

- a) Gross hourly earnings and pay gap:
 - female (part-time) - male (part-time)
 - female (part-time) - female (full-time)
 - male (part-time) - male (full-time)
 - female (part-time) - male (full-time)Source: SES; A4
- b) Part-time employment rate by gender
Source: Labour Force Survey; Aa

Indicator 4: Ratio by age and education level

- a) Employment rate by age and gender
Source: Labour Force Survey; Aa
- b) Pay gap by age group (< 24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64 and 65+) based on hourly wages of female and male workers, full-time and part-time workers
Source: SES; A4, Aa for some countries, but with the age classes:: -25,25-34, 35-44,45-54,55-64,65+.

- c) Employment rate by education level (ISCED, 3 levels)
Source: Labour Force Survey; Aa
- d) Pay gap by educational level (ISCED, 3 levels), full-time and part-time workers
Source: SES; A4

Indicator 5: Segregation in the labour market

- a) Average gross hourly earnings of women and men in the five sectors (two-digit NACE classification) with the highest number of female workers and the highest number of male workers.
Source: SES; A4
- b) Average gross hourly earnings of women and men in the five occupations (two-digit ISCO classification) with the highest number of female workers and the highest number of male workers.
Source: SES; A4
- c) Gender pay gap in management (ISCO Codes 12 and 13)
Source: SES; A4

Indicator 6: Ratio according to personal circumstances (new indicator 2010)

- a) Employment rate by family situation and marital status (combined factors)
Source: Labour Force Survey; Aa
- b) Gender pay gap by family situation, marital status and gender
Source: SES [desirable in future]; N
- c) Gender pay gap by country of birth and gender
Source: SES [desirable in future]. N

III. Relative weight of these factors

Indicator 7: Decomposition of the hourly pay gap between women and men using the Oaxaca technique

Breakdown of the pay gap between men and women using the Oaxaca technique

- a) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the part-time factor
- b) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the education factor
- c) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the age factor
- d) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the length of service factor
- e) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the sector factor
- f) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the occupation factor
- g) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the enterprise size factor
- h) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the family situation factor [desirable in future]; N
- i) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the marital status factor [desirable in future]; N
- j) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the country of birth factor [desirable in future]; N
- k) Part of the pay gap unexplained by identifiable factors

Source: SES; A4

IV. Policies to close the gender pay gap

Indicator 8: Measures to promote equal pay and combat the gender pay gap

Situation:

a) Parties/bodies implicated in the theme of the gender pay gap

Party/body concerned	Principal role in this context

b) Government measures taken to close the gender pay gap

Year	Title of the measure	Type of measure	Action plan or isolated action	Party (Body)

c) Good practices aimed at closing the gender pay gap

Year	Title of the measure	Description

Development:

a) Evaluation of the legislation aimed at closing the gender pay gap

Yes	No

Legislation	Principal conclusions

b) Evaluation of other measures aimed at closing the gender pay gap

Yes	No
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Name of the measure	Principal conclusions

c) System for the collection of data regarding complaints concerning pay discrimination between women and men

d) Body/bodies charged with collecting data

e) Number of complaints filed regarding pay discrimination between women and men per year of activity

Year	Number of complaints

f) Overall ratio: number of complaints regarding pay discrimination between women and men, compared with the total of complaints regarding discrimination between women and men in the field of employment

Indicator 9: Influence of collective bargaining on the promotion of equal pay and the elimination of the gender pay gap

a) Measures concerning the gender pay gap implemented in the framework of collective bargaining

Year	Title of the measure	Type of measure	Parties/Bodies	Nature of the measure	Level of application

b) Best practices on how to close the gender pay gap in collective bargaining

Year	Title of the measure	Description

Development

a) Data collection system of collective agreements relating to the issue of the gender pay gap

	Body responsible	Public or Private
Yes		
No		

b) Data collection system regarding collective agreements dealing with the issue of the gender pay gap

Year	Number of collective agreements

c) Assessment of measures to close the gender pay gap in collective bargaining

Yes	No

Measures	Principal conclusions

Indicator 10: Effects of part-time work, parental leave, time credit systems and career breaks on the gender pay gap

Development

a) Assessment or research concerning the effects of flexible forms of employment on the gender pay gap

Flexible forms of employment	Yes	No
Part-time		
Career break		
Time credit system		
Parental leave		

Flexible forms of employment	Assessment of short term effect	Assessment of long term effect
Part-time		
Career break		
Time credit system		
Parental leave		

b) Main conclusions of the assessment

Assessment on:	
Part-time	
Career break	
Time credit system	
Parental leave	

c) Information providing by public authorities to raise awareness about the effects of flexible forms of employment on the gender pay gap

Yes	No
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Glossary

Employment rate: The percentage of the working age population (15 to 64 years of age) that is actually working.

European Community Household Panel (ECHP): Panel survey of households, predecessor of the SILC survey.

Eurostat: European statistical office responsible for coordinating national statistical systems and compiling statistics at European level.

Glass ceiling: The difficult access to higher positions by women, the reduced chances of promotion for women.

Indicator: A way of measuring a certain phenomenon either quantitatively in figures, or qualitatively through certain information. Agreements are made about indicators at a European level so that comparable data can be obtained.

ISCO nomenclature: International Standard Classification of Occupations. The classification can be refined further by including more number codes. For instance, 2 stands for professionals; 23 is a sub-group and stands for teaching professionals, 231 for university and higher education teachers, 233 for secondary education teachers, and so forth.

Labour Force Survey (LFS): Ongoing random survey conducted annually by the National Statistical Offices among households. The survey gauges the figures for employment, unemployment and inactivity.

NACE nomenclature: International classification system for sectors of economic activity. A new NACE nomenclature has been used since 2008, called "NACE Rev.2". "NACE Rev. 1.1" is the NACE classification used in the 2006 survey year and still frequently referred to.

Pay gap: The difference between the average wages of men and women expressed as a percentage of male pay, also known as gender pay gap.

Random sample: A random selection of a part of the population studied in order to conduct research. In general, the higher the number of people questioned, the more reliable the data will be.

Segregation: The phenomenon whereby the labour market is divided into different parts, which are not always easy to transfer to and from. Horizontal segregation refers to the division in sectors and occupations; vertical segregation to the distribution into different levels.

SILC (Statistics on Income and Living Conditions): A random sample survey on income and poverty conducted annually by the National Statistical Offices among households. The same survey is conducted, likewise annually, in all European countries.

Structure of Earnings Survey (SES): Random survey on earnings conducted by the National Statistical Offices among a large number of companies. This survey is conducted every four years (2006, 2010, etc.) in all Member States. In some Member States the survey is conducted annually. Up until 2002, this survey was conducted only in sections C-K of the NACE 1.1 nomenclature, hence only in industry and market services. Since 2006, healthcare, education and the socio-cultural sectors have been included (sections M, N & O of the NACE 1.1). Some Member States also include the sector of public administration (sector L).

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Annex 1: Gender indicators for measuring pay inequalities between women and men 2001



COUNCIL OF
THE EUROPEAN UNION

Brussels, 24 November 2001 (29.11)
(OR. fr)

14485/01
ADD 1

LIMITE

SOC 487

ADDENDUM 1 TO NOTE

from: Permanent Representatives Committee (Part 1)
to: COUNCIL (EMPLOYMENT AND SOCIAL POLICY) on 3 December 2001
No. prev. doc.: 14099/01 SOC 470 + ADD 1 + ADD 2
Subject: **Addendum 1 to the Council conclusions on the review of Member States' implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action: pay inequalities between women and men**

Delegations will find attached an Addendum 1 to the above Council conclusions.

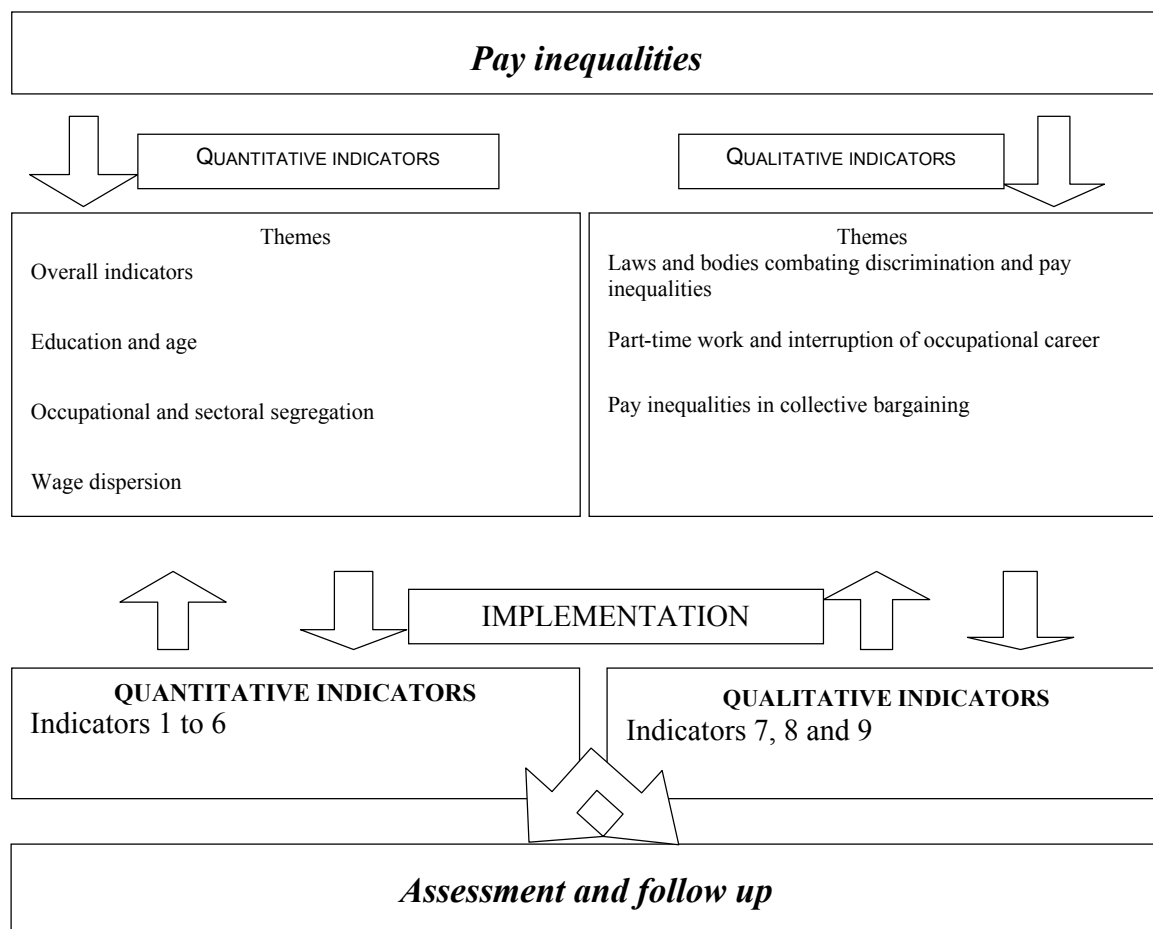
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Model of interactions between indicators



Definitions

The source of the data is indicated for each indicator. In addition to harmonised data, more recent data on the basis of national sources should be provided in so far as the definitions and the concepts are the same as those used for the ESES and the ECHP.

I. Global gender pay gap indicators

Indicator 1:

Ratio for all employees:

- (a) Female gross hourly earnings/Male gross hourly earnings
Source: SES
- (b) Female net hourly earnings/Male net hourly earnings
Source: ECHP
- (c) Female gross monthly earnings/Male gross monthly earnings
Source: SES
- (d) Female net monthly earnings/Male net monthly earnings (full time, private sector)
Source: ECHP
- (e) Female net monthly earnings/Male net monthly earnings (full time, private and public sector)
Source: ECHP

Indicator 2:

Ratio for the total sum of wages:

- (a) Share of all wages earned by women/Total sum of wages
Source: ECHP and/or administrative data
- (b) Number of female wage-earners/Total number of wage-earners
Source: LFS and/or administrative data

II. Inequality factors

Indicator 3:

Ratio for part-time work:

- (a) Gross hourly earnings of female part-time workers/gross hourly earnings of male part-time workers
- (b) Gross hourly earnings of female part-time workers/gross hourly earnings of female full-time workers
- (c) Gross hourly earnings of male part-time workers/gross hourly earnings of male full-time workers
Source: SES

Indicator 4:

Ratio by age and education:

- (a) Gender pay gap (gross hourly earnings) by age group (16-24, 25-29, 30-44, 45-54, 55-64) by education level (ISCED, 3 levels) and by whether full time/part time
Source: SES
- (b) Gender pay gap (net monthly earnings) by age group (16-24, 25-29, 30-44, 45-54, 55-64) by education level (ISCED, 3 levels) and by whether full time/part time
Source: ECHP

Indicator 5:

Wage penalties in female-concentrated occupations:

- (a) Gender pay gap (gross hourly earnings) in the ten occupations accounting for the highest share of women in employment and in the ten occupations accounting for the highest share of men in employment
Source: SES
- (b) Gender pay gap (net monthly earnings, full-time workers) in the five occupations accounting for the highest share of women in employment and in the five occupations accounting for the highest share of men in employment
Source: ECHP
- (c) Gender pay gap (gross hourly earnings) in the ten industries accounting for the highest share of women in employment and in the ten industries accounting for the highest share of men in employment
Source: SES

III. Factors contributing to inequality

Indicator 6:

Decomposition of the hourly pay gap between men and women using the Oaxaca technique
Source: SES

- (a) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the full time/part-time factor
- (b) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the education factor
- (c) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the age factor
- (d) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the length of service factor
- (e) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the sector factor
- (f) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of the occupation factor
- (g) Relative contribution to the total gender pay gap of wage discrimination and of non-identifiable factors

IV. Qualitative indicators

Indicator 7:

Indicator of laws, regulations and measures to combat discrimination and occupational inequalities

Situation		
Is there a general law against discrimination?	Yes	Year of entry into force
	No	
Is there a law against inequality at work?	Yes	Year of entry into force
	No	
Are there institutions to monitor implementation of the laws and regulations?	Yes	Year of entry into force
	No	
Status of that/those institutions	Administration Subsidised body	Year of entry into force
Status of the decisions taken by that/those institutions	Advisory opinion	
	Binding opinion	
Dissemination		
Institution's sphere of competence	Opinions internal to the State administration Opinion addressed to the social partners Others	
Development		
New regulations entered into force in the past year	Yes	
	No	
If yes, has an ex-ante assessment of their gender impact been carried out?	Yes	
	No	
Any change in the situation indicator?	Yes	
	No	
Development in the sphere of competence	Yes	
	No	
During the past year, has an ex-ante assessment of gender impact been carried out?	Yes	
	No	
During the past year, has an ex-post facto assessment of gender impact been carried out?	Yes	
	No	
Total number of opinions given	Per year of activity	
Number, nature and proportion of complaints lodged relating to earnings discrimination	Per year of activity	
	Related to earnings in the strict sense	
	Relating to job classification	
	Relating to career progression	
	Relating to access to training	
Relating to working hours		
Overall ratio		Number of complaints of earnings inequality compared with all complaints of discrimination

Indicator 8:

Indicator of the influence of public authorities on wage bargaining (collective and individual bargaining where applicable)

Situation		
Measures, mechanisms developed by public authorities in order to provide a framework for or to influence collective bargaining relating to wage inequalities, for example in the field of job classifications.	Binding regulations Recommendations None	First year of implementation:
Dissemination		
Area of application	National Regional Local Companies	
Companies/organisations concerned	Private Public Administrations	
Sectors of activity	All sectors – intersectoral Sectors	
Development		
Measure implemented in the year in question?	Yes No	
If yes, was an ex-ante assessment of gender impact carried out?	Yes No	
Any change in the situation indicator	Yes No	
Change in the sphere of competence	Yes No	
Over the past year, has an ex-ante gender impact assessment of one of these measures been carried out?	Yes No	
Over the past year, has an ex-post facto gender impact assessment of one of these measures been carried out?	Yes No	
If implementation by sector	Correlate with: - the breakdown of the average earnings gap based on the Oaxaca technique (Indicator 6) - the indicator of sectoral and occupational segregation (Indicator 5)	

Indicator 9:

Indicator relating to part-time work and temporary career breaks

Situation		
Possibilities for reducing individual working time or taking career breaks	On the company's initiative On the employee's initiative	
With incentives (tax measures, bonuses, reduced social security contributions, etc.)	In the employee's favour	
	In the employer's favour	
With guarantees for the employee (return to full-time work, etc.)	Yes	
	No	
Dissemination		
Companies concerned	Private companies Public companies Administrations	
Development		
Measure implemented for the year in question?	Yes No	
If yes, has an ex-ante assessment of gender impact been carried out?	Yes	
	No	
Change in the situation indicator	Yes No	
Change in the sphere of competence	Yes No	
Over the past year, has an ex-ante gender impact assessment of one of these measures been carried out?	Yes	
	No	
Over the past year, has an ex-post facto gender impact assessment of one of these measures been carried out?	Yes	
	No	
For part-time working	Correlate with Indicator 3: «Female part-time earnings in relation to male full-time earnings»	
For career breaks	Correlate with the new indicator of context E0 _{c13} proposed by the «Group of Experts on Gender and Employment»: «Gender gap in unpaid time spent looking after children, other dependent people and basic domestic tasks»	



Annex 2: Average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees (in euros) and the gender pay gap (2006)

	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap
EU-24	8,58	10,43	20%
AT	na	na	na
BE	16,44	18,16	9%
BG	1,01	1,14	12%
CY	8,50	10,94	22%
CZ	3,61	4,67	23%
DE	13,90	17,93	23%
DK	na	na	na
EE	2,90	3,99	27%
ES	8,34	10,05	17%
FI	13,84	17,53	21%
FR	14,10	16,71	16%
GR	8,28	10,44	21%
HU	3,12	3,60	13%
IE	21,50	25,90	17%
IT	13,16	13,75	4%
LT	2,43	2,89	16%
LU	17,82	19,95	11%
LV	2,32	2,70	14%
MT	na	na	na
NL	13,04	16,88	23%
PL	3,93	4,25	8%
PT	6,68	7,30	8%
RO	1,79	1,94	8%
SE	14,63	17,53	17%
SI	4,27	5,27	19%
SK	2,63	3,53	25%
UK	16,62	21,84	24%

Note: na = not available

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 3: Employment rate of women and men (2006)

	Women	Men
EU-27	57,3%	71,6%
AT	63,5%	76,9%
BE	54,0%	67,9%
BG	54,6%	62,8%
CY	60,3%	79,4%
CZ	56,8%	73,7%
DE	62,2%	72,8%
DK	73,4%	81,2%
EE	65,3%	71,0%
ES	53,2%	76,1%
FI	67,3%	71,4%
FR	58,6%	68,9%
GR	47,4%	74,6%
HU	51,1%	63,8%
IE	59,3%	77,9%
IT	46,3%	70,5%
LT	61,0%	66,3%
LU	54,6%	72,6%
LV	62,4%	70,4%
MT	33,4%	73,3%
NL	67,7%	80,9%
PL	48,2%	60,9%
PT	62,0%	73,9%
RO	53,0%	64,6%
SE	70,7%	75,5%
SI	61,8%	71,1%
SK	51,9%	67,0%
UK	65,8%	77,5%

Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

Annex 4: Average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees in the public and the private sector (in euros) and the gender pay gap (2006)

	Public sector			Private sector		
	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap
<i>EU-24</i>	10,24	11,73	17%	6,62	10,35	22%
AT	na	na	na	na	na	na
BE	23,62	22,55	-5%	14,95	17,74	16%
BG	1,19	1,42	16%	0,91	1,06	14%
CY	15,83	16,68	5%	7,02	9,98	30%
CZ	3,78	4,90	23%	3,51	4,62	24%
DE	15,48	19,00	19%	13,54	18,09	25%
DK	na	na	na	na	na	na
EE	2,89	3,89	26%	2,90	4,01	28%
ES	12,82	15,20	16%	7,81	9,78	20%
FI	13,46	17,05	21%	14,01	17,56	20%
FR	17,59	19,94	12%	13,67	16,42	17%
GR	10,92	13,87	21%	7,34	9,17	20%
HU	3,32	3,91	15%	2,97	3,50	15%
IE	27,06	34,91	22%	16,41	22,27	26%
IT	18,20	19,52	7%	10,45	12,57	17%
LT	2,69	3,10	13%	2,25	2,83	21%
LU	23,96	26,92	11%	16,67	19,26	13%
LV	2,61	2,99	13%	2,13	2,63	19%
MT	na	na	na	na	na	na
NL	13,98	17,19	19%	12,14	16,66	27%
PL	4,85	5,00	3%	3,16	3,96	20%
PT	11,19	12,95	14%	5,24	6,59	20%
RO	2,29	2,56	11%	1,53	1,75	13%
SE	14,25	16,56	14%	15,16	17,84	15%
SI	7,79	8,51	8%	5,40	6,16	12%
SK	2,65	3,33	21%	2,63	3,58	27%
UK	19,25	24,80	22%	15,36	21,40	28%

Note: na = not available

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 5: Average gross annual wages of full-time and part-time employees in the public and the private sector (in euros) and the gender pay gap (2006)

	Public sector			Private sector			Total		
	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap
EU-24	10913,37	21063,14	24%	9515,55	19936,06	30%	11602,61	18340,99	32%
AT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
BE	27535,81	32701,11	16%	23445,41	35113,84	33%	24291,06	34589,82	30%
BG	2525,24	3187,51	21%	1667,62	1981,09	16%	1971,28	2254,45	13%
CY	30159,24	33983,12	11%	13467,07	20297,3	34%	16259,15	22263,05	27%
CZ	7020,16	9354,55	25%	6176,25	8897,18	31%	6476,93	8984,49	28%
DE	25749,68	37797,74	32%	21322,77	36741,96	42%	22081,41	36077,92	39%
DK	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
EE	5280,84	7386,36	29%	4907,92	7305,43	33%	5019,78	7316,33	31%
ES	22943,11	28827,04	20%	13770,7	20001,35	31%	147440,93	20440,21	28%
FI	24533,26	32936,35	26%	25311,63	35608,85	29%	24943,78	35065,81	29%
FR	30033,79	36349,07	17%	23822,04	32193,9	26%	24504,86	32528,6	25%
GR	21988,06	31464,31	30%	16959,2	24697,43	31%	18278,95	26533,24	31%
HU	7685,23	9076,33	15%	6571,56	8045,61	18%	7050,31	8300,22	15%
IE	38440,62	56553,14	32%	27664,74	44432,15	38%	21971,17	34530,52	36%
IT	31985,34	38595,74	17%	19832,78	27138,7	27%	24077,37	29087,46	17%
LT	4443,82	5552,2	20%	3467,48	4679,76	26%	3859,27	4846,35	20%
LU	39431,05	53901,45	27%	30999,69	41972,46	26%	32327,08	43045,61	25%
LV	4709,6	5942,45	21%	3499,94	4623,97	24%	3961,78	4883,9	19%
MT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
NL	18696,56	31325,03	40%	14866,71	29633,09	50%	16345,27	29883,12	45%
PL	7076,3	9294,93	24%	6245,13	8207,09	24%	6627,76	8523,36	22%
PT	23437,73	27680,41	15%	11098,74	14933,65	26%	14090,31	16346,65	14%
RO	4950,71	5693,32	13%	3148,14	3640,12	14%	3760,79	4112,2	9%
SE	22720,24	30321,37	25%	23969,54	33991,54	29%	23240,31	33111,47	30%
SI	16594,37	18597,57	11%	11348,64	12996,39	13%	9461,87	11605,58	18%
SK	4682,49	6068,06	23%	4735,53	6715,97	29%	4718,65	6598,29	28%
UK	26301,03	41349,61	36%	22552,24	41934,96	46%	23764,39	41859,15	43%

Note: na = not available

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 6: Average gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in euros) and the gender pay gap (2006)

	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap
<i>EU-24</i>	1199,13	1845,50	20%
AT	na	na	na
BE	2589,69	2982,11	13%
BG	180,45	205,60	12%
CY	1397,51	1861,80	25%
CZ	626,97	811,31	23%
DE	2417,35	3116,07	22%
DK	na	na	na
EE	522,99	732,67	29%
ES	1444,77	1721,47	16%
FI	2302,55	2929,08	21%
FR	2250,02	2703,91	17%
GR	1390,16	1796,63	23%
HU	559,78	662,50	16%
IE	3359,40	4226,72	21%
IT	1920,36	2289,89	16%
LT	413,76	519,68	20%
LU	2964,05	3455,43	14%
LV	403,65	480,67	16%
MT	na	na	na
NL	2234,11	2839,90	21%
PL	606,00	748,42	19%
PT	1077,61	1217,37	11%
RO	319,05	347,94	8%
SE	2610,58	3080,51	15%
SI	762,61	928,84	18%
SK	452,94	608,30	26%
UK	2942,32	3846,54	24%

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 7: Average gross monthly wages of full-time and part-time employees (in euros) and the gender pay gap (2006)

	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap
<i>EU-24</i>	1177,38	1684,47	30%
AT	na	na	na
BE	2149,15	2870,43	25%
BG	172,48	197,85	13%
CY	1346,61	1835,13	27%
CZ	600,80	800,79	25%
DE	1800,91	2876,20	37%
DK	na	na	na
EE	463,33	683,18	32%
ES	1231,17	1648,16	25%
FI	2125,66	2839,23	25%
FR	1996,14	2622,47	24%
GR	1314,04	1748,46	25%
HU	541,83	646,00	16%
IE	2891,38	4096,99	29%
IT	1733,91	2248,26	23%
LT	367,32	474,49	23%
LU	2585,55	3403,26	24%
LV	359,57	441,08	18%
MT	na	na	na
NL	1349,24	2335,00	42%
PL	565,22	717,70	21%
PT	1056,32	1209,79	13%
RO	315,87	345,36	9%
SE	2126,79	2913,44	27%
SI	762,73	928,66	18%
SK	433,95	597,03	27%
UK	2158,30	3530,59	39%

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 8: Share of all wages earned by women and by men in the total sum of wages (2006)

	Women	Men
AT	na	na
BE	33,03%	66,97%
BG	47,67%	52,33%
CY	38,96%	61,04%
CZ	35,90%	64,10%
DE	32,63%	67,37%
DK	na	na
EE	43,98%	56,02%
ES	33,30%	66,70%
FI	43,88%	56,12%
FR	37,93%	62,07%
GR	33,82%	66,18%
HU	45,24%	54,76%
IE	na	na
IT	37,86%	62,14%
LT	46,71%	53,29%
LU	29,34%	70,66%
LV	49,81%	50,19%
MT	na	na
NL	32,13%	67,87%
PL	41,18%	58,82%
PT	44,89%	55,11%
RO	43,99%	56,01%
SE	42,47%	57,53%
SI	na	na
SK	39,89%	60,11%
UK	36,06%	63,94%

Note: na = not available

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 9: Share of women and men among employees (2006)

	Women	Men
AT	47,24%	52,76%
BE	46,52%	53,48%
BG	48,80%	51,20%
CY	49,18%	50,82%
CZ	47,20%	52,80%
DE	48,10%	51,90%
DK	47,82%	52,18%
EE	48,46%	51,54%
ES	43,24%	56,76%
FI	51,39%	48,61%
FR	48,23%	51,77%
GR	41,17%	58,83%
HU	47,31%	52,69%
IE	48,01%	51,99%
IT	43,36%	56,64%
LT	50,97%	49,03%
LU	44,11%	55,89%
LV	51,45%	48,55%
MT	na	na
NL	46,83%	53,17%
PL	47,00%	53,00%
PT	47,42%	52,58%
RO	46,63%	53,37%
SE	46,52%	53,48%
SI	47,75%	52,25%
SK	46,73%	53,27%
UK	50,79%	49,21%

Note: na = not available

Source: Labour Force Survey

Annex 10: Share of women and men in the total number of paid workdays (2006)

	Women	Men
AT	40,46%	59,54%
BE	42,03%	57,97%
BG	49,18%	50,82%
CY	48,14%	51,86%
CZ	45,74%	54,26%
DE	41,62%	58,38%
DK	48,77%	51,23%
EE	49,94%	50,06%
ES	39,72%	60,28%
FI	49,45%	50,55%
FR	44,37%	55,63%
GR	39,14%	60,86%
HU	47,62%	52,38%
IE	43,24%	56,76%
IT	39,02%	60,98%
LT	50,93%	49,07%
LU	39,15%	60,85%
LV	50,17%	49,83%
MT	na	na
NL	37,55%	62,45%
PL	44,43%	55,57%
PT	45,59%	54,41%
RO	46,54%	53,46%
SE	48,93%	51,07%
SI	46,69%	53,31%
SK	45,55%	54,45%
UK	44,08%	55,92%

Note: na = not available

Source: Labour Force Survey

Annex 11: Part-time employment rate of women and men (2006)

	Women	Men
AT	39,9%	5,8%
BE	41,0%	7,0%
BG	2,3%	1,3%
CY	11,3%	2,8%
CZ	8,0%	1,7%
DE	45,1%	8,5%
DK	35,0%	12,3%
EE	9,7%	3,7%
ES	23,0%	4,1%
FI	18,7%	8,6%
FR	30,2%	5,6%
GR	9,9%	2,6%
HU	5,4%	2,4%
IE	30,8%	6,0%
IT	26,4%	4,3%
LT	11,5%	7,5%
LU	36,2%	2,6%
LV	7,4%	4,3%
MT	21,4%	4,5%
NL	74,5%	22,1%
PL	12,2%	6,2%
PT	12,7%	4,1%
RO	8,5%	8,7%
SE	39,7%	10,6%
SI	10,4%	6,0%
SK	4,5%	1,2%
UK	30,7%	6,9%

Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

Annex 12: Employment rate of women and men by age category (2009)

	20-24 years of age		25-54 years of age		55-64 years of age		65 and more years of age	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
AT	67,70%	70,80%	79,50%	88,50%	31,70%	51,00%	3,40%	8,10%
BE	40,50%	47,00%	73,80%	85,70%	27,70%	42,90%	0,70%	3,00%
BG	39,90%	51,80%	75,80%	82,70%	39,20%	54,10%	1,80%	5,50%
CY	61,50%	61,20%	76,00%	89,20%	40,80%	71,70%	6,60%	18,90%
CZ	37,40%	53,10%	74,10%	90,50%	35,00%	59,60%	3,20%	7,50%
DE	62,40%	64,10%	76,90%	86,20%	48,70%	63,90%	2,70%	5,80%
DK	71,00%	72,60%	82,90%	87,20%	50,90%	64,10%	3,10%	9,70%
EE	45,00%	52,70%	75,50%	77,40%	61,20%	59,40%	6,90%	12,60%
ES	42,80%	45,70%	63,80%	77,30%	32,30%	56,70%	1,40%	2,80%
FI	58,90%	58,20%	80,50%	84,30%	56,30%	54,60%	2,20%	6,00%
FR	48,40%	52,80%	76,70%	87,60%	36,60%	41,40%	0,90%	2,00%
GR	32,20%	45,50%	62,20%	88,40%	27,70%	57,70%	2,20%	6,60%
HU	30,00%	36,60%	66,90%	78,90%	27,00%	39,90%	1,20%	3,10%
IE	58,50%	52,00%	66,80%	77,20%	41,00%	60,90%	4,10%	14,50%
IT	29,60%	44,40%	59,10%	84,70%	25,40%	46,70%	1,20%	5,70%
LT	38,40%	40,10%	78,00%	74,60%	48,30%	56,00%	3,90%	8,00%
LU	39,90%	46,70%	71,40%	90,80%	29,40%	46,50%	na	6,70%
LV	44,20%	48,10%	74,90%	74,50%	53,30%	53,10%	6,20%	12,40%
MT	65,60%	69,40%	45,90%	89,00%	11,20%	45,30%	na	na
NL	77,80%	77,40%	80,70%	92,00%	44,70%	65,40%	3,40%	10,30%
PL	39,60%	52,70%	71,60%	83,70%	21,90%	44,30%	3,00%	7,40%
PT	49,20%	53,00%	74,90%	84,50%	42,70%	57,50%	13,20%	22,10%
RO	31,40%	41,70%	66,90%	80,50%	34,10%	52,30%	12,00%	16,20%
SE	55,80%	59,30%	81,90%	86,90%	66,70%	73,20%	4,30%	9,10%
SI	44,90%	56,30%	83,20%	86,40%	24,80%	46,40%	5,60%	10,70%
SK	33,60%	47,00%	71,20%	84,20%	26,10%	54,90%	0,90%	2,50%
UK	62,00%	65,90%	74,70%	85,70%	49,20%	66,20%	5,50%	10,30%

Note: na = not available

Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

Annex 13: Average gross hourly wages of women and men (in euros) and the gender pay gap by age category (2006)

	15-19 years of age			20-24 years of age			25-54 years of age			55-64 years of age			65 and more years of age		
	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap
AT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
BE	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
BG	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
CY	4,34	5,58	22%	5,17	6,48	20%	8,85	11	20%	9,74	13,8	30%	6,41	9,79	35%
CZ	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
DE	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
DK	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
EE	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
ES	5,68	6,11	7%	6,28	6,81	8%	8,51	10,1	16%	9,41	12,5	25%	11,68	19,38	40%
FI	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
FR	7,19	5,36	-34%	9,86	10	2%	14%	16,4	14%	16%	22,5	28%	17,49	33,26	47%
GR	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
HU	2,1	2,05	-2%	2,33	2,29	-2%	3,11	3,6	14%	3,45	4,13	16%	3,96	4,67	15%
IE	10,31	11,48	10%	13,88	14,1	1%	22,47	26,1	14%	23,1	33,5	31%	16,08	25,67	37%
IT	7,07	7,24	2%	8,15	8,38	3%	12,73	13,3	4%	19	19,6	3%	19,34	23,05	16%
LT	1,54	1,77	13%	1,97	2,34	15%	2,47	2,97	17%	2,45	2,91	16%	2,4	2,81	14%
LU	7,03	7,8	10%	12,58	12	-5%	18,35	20,2	9%	20,3	26,8	24%	20,84	33,84	38%
LV	1,55	1,81	15%	2,06	2,37	13%	2,4	2,84	15%	2,2	2,56	14%	1,95	2,16	10%
MT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
NL	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
PL	1,73	1,94	10%	2,28	2,47	8%	3,99	4,32	8%	4,77	4,94	3%	4,74	6,06	22%
PT	3,1	2,97	-4%	4,01	3,91	-3%	6,77	7,47	9%	8,53	8,81	3%	6,2	12,02	48%
RO	0,9	0,97	7%	1,22	1,23	0%	1,77	1,92	8%	2,6	2,44	-7%	2,49	2,63	5%
SE	10,95	11,18	2%	11,94	12,7	6%	14,87	17,9	17%	15,1	18,6	19%	14,8	18,04	18%
SI	3,65	3,47	-5%	4,09	4,13	1%	6,2	6,63	7%	9,17	8,41	-9%	18,1	16,77	-8%
SK	1,81	2,07	13%	2,18	2,46	11%	2,65	3,67	28%	2,8	3,44	19%	2,41	3,18	24%
UK	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na

Note: na = not available

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 14: Employment rate of women and men by level of education (2009)

	Low level of education		Medium level of education		High level of education	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
AT	45,3%	54,8%	72,6%	80,3%	82,6%	89,0%
BE	30,1%	46,7%	58,2%	72,1%	79,4%	84,7%
BG	26,4%	38,2%	64,6%	74,7%	82,9%	89,6%
CY	41,8%	62,5%	63,0%	81,1%	81,7%	88,4%
CZ	22,9%	22,8%	61,8%	80,1%	74,7%	88,9%
DE	41,0%	50,9%	70,9%	78,3%	83,6%	89,7%
DK	58,3%	66,3%	75,8%	80,9%	85,8%	89,0%
EE	22,3%	32,0%	64,0%	68,3%	79,4%	87,1%
ES	38,8%	59,5%	56,8%	68,5%	75,7%	82,6%
FI	40,2%	45,4%	70,1%	73,5%	82,5%	86,9%
FR	40,8%	51,5%	63,4%	72,9%	77,7%	82,7%
GR	34,4%	68,0%	48,7%	72,8%	76,6%	86,6%
HU	23,0%	29,0%	54,7%	67,7%	74,4%	83,1%
IE	30,3%	47,8%	59,2%	69,5%	77,7%	84,3%
IT	28,7%	59,6%	57,4%	75,4%	72,3%	82,8%
LT	15,7%	19,4%	59,8%	63,9%	86,2%	85,5%
LU	38,7%	52,4%	57,3%	74,0%	77,6%	89,0%
LV	24,3%	33,2%	62,6%	66,7%	81,1%	84,6%
MT	25,5%	66,4%	62,6%	80,1%	78,7%	88,6%
NL	52,7%	72,0%	76,9%	84,9%	85,5%	89,6%
PL	18,5%	30,6%	53,5%	71,3%	80,4%	88,5%
PT	55,9%	69,5%	63,3%	69,5%	83,9%	84,8%
RO	36,3%	49,1%	55,0%	68,7%	83,1%	85,2%
SE	46,9%	53,2%	75,5%	81,4%	86,3%	88,0%
SI	36,6%	45,9%	65,0%	74,0%	86,8%	90,0%
SK	12,9%	15,9%	58,6%	75,0%	75,3%	86,2%
UK	47,2%	62,3%	67,8%	76,6%	81,3%	87,2%

Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

Annex 15: Average gross hourly wages of women and men (in euros) and the gender pay gap by level of education (2006)

	Low level of education			Medium level of education			High level of education		
	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap
AT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
BE	11,8	14,25	17,18%	13,71	15,79	13,17%	21,06	24,73	14,86%
BG	0,7	0,9	22,20%	0,78	0,94	16,71%	1,44	1,89	23,97%
CY	5,72	8,53	32,96%	7,09	9,82	27,75%	12,7	16,23	21,76%
CZ	2,63	3,31	20,55%	3,39	4,11	17,55%	5,35	7,75	30,98%
DE	9,83	10,73	8,45%	14,06	17,4	19,22%	21,05	28,49	26,10%
DK	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
EE	1,92	2,88	33,49%	2,43	3,55	31,72%	3,86	5,47	29,37%
ES	6,53	8,16	19,97%	7,77	10,39	25,27%	10,86	14,24	23,72%
FI	11,86	14,61	18,81%	11,94	14,97	20,25%	16,12	22,16	27,26%
FR	11,21	12,81	12,47%	12,85	14,67	12,41%	17,22	13,08	25,38%
GR	6,5	7,87	17,37%	7,24	8,69	16,75%	10,22	13,19	22,52%
HU	2,08	2,3	9,35%	2,65	2,89	8,02%	4,82	7,02	31,36%
IE	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
IT	9,31	10,67	12,81%	11,57	14,01	17,46%	20,22	22,67	10,80%
LT	1,55	2,1	26,25%	1,74	2,34	25,56%	3,14	3,9	19,45%
LU	12,22	14,48	15,60%	17,24	17,72	2,68%	24,34	30,13	19,22%
LV	1,41	1,95	27,93%	1,73	2,24	22,38%	3,34	4,05	17,34%
MT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
NL	9,34	12,25	23,75%	12,43	15,81	21,35%	17,61	23,61	25,42%
PL	2,13	3,05	30,14%	3,09	3,71	16,90%	6,21	7,52	17,42%
PT	3,98	5,16	22,89%	5,83	7,74	24,73%	12,35	15,57	20,65%
RO	1,07	1,27	15,21%	1,38	1,59	13,19%	3,16	3,67	13,97%
SE	12,6	14,82	14,95%	13,38	15,78	15,17%	16,57	21,51	22,97%
SI	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
SK	1,73	2,11	18,00%	2,37	3	21,20%	4	5,91	32,30%
UK	10,85	13,55	19,96%	13,88	17,84	22,18%	23,04	29,54	22,02%

Note: na = not available

Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

Annex 16: Average gross hourly wages of women and men (in euros) and the gender pay gap by the 5 largest sectors (2006)

	5 sectors with the largest shares of female employees			5 sectors with the largest shares of male employees		
	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap
AT	na	na	na	na	na	na
BE	na	na	na	na	na	na
BG	na	na	na	na	na	na
CY	9,54	12,08	21,06%	13,64	13,34	-2,27%
CZ	na	na	na	na	na	na
DE	na	na	na	na	na	na
DK	na	na	na	na	na	na
EE	na	na	na	na	na	na
ES	8,29	9,98	16,86%	7,47	8,89	15,98%
FI	na	na	na	na	na	na
FR	14,54	19,10	23,86%	14,45	15,76	8,33%
GR	na	na	na	na	na	na
HU	3,11	3,65	14,81%	3,26	3,41	4,38%
IE	22,62	29,31	22,81%	23,77	28,72	17,25%
IT	14,97	17,31	13,49%	11,78	14,88	20,81%
LT	2,43	2,84	14,46%	2,76	2,79	1,12%
LU	17,75	22,12	19,78%	17,98	19,19	6,29%
LV	2,26	2,49	9,27%	2,64	2,54	-3,77%
MT	na	na	na	na	na	na
NL	na	na	na	na	na	na
PL	4,30	4,82	10,84%	4,93	4,23	-16,59%
PT	8,01	10,10	20,61%	8,58	7,43	-15,48%
RO	1,74	1,97	11,86%	1,66	1,61	-3,32%
SE	14,23	16,67	14,66%	14,23	16,23	12,34%
SI	6,92	7,57	8,55%	5,37	5,72	6,22%
SK	2,49	3,27	23,97%	2,98	3,32	10,52%
UK	na	na	na	na	na	na
Note: na = not available						

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 17: Average gross hourly wages of women and men (in euros) and the gender pay gap by the 5 largest occupations (2006)

	5 occupations with the largest shares of female employees			5 occupations with the largest shares of male employees		
	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap
AT	na	na	na	na	na	na
BE	na	na	na	na	na	na
BG	na	na	na	na	na	na
CY	8,94	10,66	16,14%	11,61	10,30	-12,72%
CZ	na	na	na	na	na	na
DE	na	na	na	na	na	na
DK	na	na	na	na	na	na
EE	na	na	na	na	na	na
ES	7,31	9,67	24,38%	9,19	9,37	1,90%
FI	na	na	na	na	na	na
FR	14,61	19,46	24,92%	16,82	21,26	20,92%
GR	na	na	na	na	na	na
HU	3,05	2,93	-4,07%	3,49	3,78	7,67%
IE	23,25	30,23	23,06%	22,33	27,93	20,05%
IT	13,98	14,59	4,16%	11,34	12,59	9,89%
LT	2,70	3,79	28,82%	3,14	2,95	-6,56%
LU	17,24	19,28	10,59%	19,00	16,76	-13,35%
LV	2,21	2,42	8,76%	3,34	2,79	-19,86%
MT	na	na	na	na	na	na
NL	na	na	na	na	na	na
PL	4,49	4,46	-0,59%	4,88	4,42	-10,42%
PT	6,86	7,48	8,34%	6,09	6,39	4,73%
RO	1,63	1,82	10,29%	2,05	1,91	-6,97%
SE	14,31	17,53	18,39%	16,38	17,59	6,84%
SI	5,53	5,96	7,13%	4,26	5,67	24,93%
SK	2,56	3,29	22,22%	2,37	3,16	25,11%
UK	na	na	na	na	na	na
Note: na = not available						

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 18: Average gross hourly wages of women and men (in euros) and the gender pay gap among executives (ISCO 12 and 13) (2006)

	Women	Men	Gender Pay Gap
AT	na	na	na
BE	30,51	35,47	14%
BG	2,44	2,61	7%
CY	24,74	26,20	6%
CZ	5,69	9,15	38%
DE	24,67	38,94	37%
DK	na	na	na
EE	4,64	5,85	21%
ES	17,12	25,10	32%
FI	23,46	33,25	29%
FR	22,74	30,60	26%
GR	16,64	20,34	18%
HU	5,73	7,39	22%
IE	na	na	na
IT	28,94	35,37	18%
LT	3,59	4,69	24%
LU	35,24	44,56	21%
LV	3,35	3,91	14%
MT	na	na	na
NL	17,89	25,54	30%
PL	6,75	9,88	32%
PT	16,32	21,15	23%
RO	4,99	5,18	4%
SE	23,23	29,37	21%
SI	na	na	na
SK	5,36	8,12	34%
UK	25,01	35,20	29%

Note: na = not available

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 19: Employment rate by household type and marital status (2008)

	Single-person household		Married couple, no children		Unmarried couple, no children		Married couple, with child(ren)		Unmarried couple, with child(ren)		Single-parent household		Other	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
AT	68,89%	78,34%	53,29%	66,77%	83,12%	87,33%	72,27%	93,07%	77,52%	92,55%	80,06%	88,85%	71,99%	83,00%
BE	56,67%	67,59%	41,11%	57,57%	84,68%	88,43%	75,40%	91,83%	87,29%	92,65%	61,87%	76,49%	66,10%	78,46%
BG	53,09%	62,92%	56,76%	68,03%	70,90%	80,96%	78,03%	90,53%	54,80%	76,89%	74,38%	87,26%	67,27%	76,19%
CY	69,04%	87,73%	53,48%	78,64%	80,36%	90,47%	72,22%	95,13%	66,02%	85,25%	73,75%	80,01%	73,44%	82,10%
CZ	57,44%	78,76%	52,21%	70,01%	77,73%	88,37%	66,89%	96,21%	44,93%	89,57%	72,50%	88,23%	72,50%	83,79%
DE	71,92%	73,68%	60,83%	74,11%	84,31%	88,09%	69,16%	91,88%	74,87%	87,14%	67,67%	82,68%	74,48%	83,01%
DK	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
EE	76,32%	78,98%	71,09%	76,14%	76,62%	86,04%	73,17%	93,06%	64,03%	92,27%	83,51%	83,50%	76,82%	79,26%
ES	64,83%	76,55%	50,19%	73,71%	79,47%	88,13%	59,98%	90,17%	64,88%	81,31%	72,99%	81,64%	58,32%	74,44%
FI	69,07%	69,69%	69,39%	70,00%	79,75%	81,87%	79,86%	92,71%	74,95%	90,06%	76,70%	78,53%	73,90%	77,12%
FR	62,81%	69,95%	49,69%	54,30%	77,32%	82,71%	74,85%	91,79%	73,85%	91,36%	72,33%	88,31%	65,43%	73,67%
GR	48,35%	70,75%	43,91%	73,00%	65,82%	89,29%	57,54%	94,83%	60,92%	85,50%	74,92%	83,84%	54,56%	78,55%
HU	47,91%	64,16%	44,98%	51,78%	70,39%	78,23%	62,45%	87,07%	44,64%	76,69%	66,72%	77,88%	58,98%	68,79%
IE	65,25%	66,73%	59,56%	78,55%	88,31%	90,93%	63,04%	91,17%	62,08%	81,48%	52,22%	75,01%	68,20%	79,31%
IT	62,47%	78,12%	42,82%	66,72%	78,80%	89,77%	55,75%	91,78%	69,53%	90,85%	75,03%	85,47%	47,16%	68,47%
LT	54,09%	61,86%	63,27%	73,56%	70,58%	71,85%	79,82%	90,27%	58,94%	85,66%	78,69%	79,63%	71,58%	74,87%
LU	74,12%	77,13%	46,25%	63,13%	90,80%	90,97%	61,60%	93,63%	82,22%	94,91%	83,24%	76,79%	58,33%	72,70%
LV	67,64%	74,05%	66,01%	75,34%	74,30%	78,44%	79,58%	90,78%	64,87%	87,23%	84,37%	95,73%	74,39%	78,99%
MT	28,44%	57,74%	26,69%	53,93%	34,28%	68,66%	38,76%	93,50%	20,87%	93,23%	35,25%	60,14%	46,52%	78,62%
NL	68,99%	78,07%	55,67%	72,61%	86,33%	92,96%	78,95%	95,55%	83,57%	95,01%	68,01%	82,10%	72,76%	87,43%
PL	47,66%	60,44%	42,96%	58,34%	70,08%	82,98%	69,63%	89,10%	55,76%	81,68%	66,57%	69,60%	59,87%	73,94%
PT	72,17%	76,54%	58,52%	71,74%	<i>0,00%</i>	<i>100,00%</i>	77,36%	93,02%	<i>54,24%</i>	<i>0,00%</i>	78,75%	86,92%	65,85%	77,95%
RO	50,83%	70,66%	53,68%	68,14%	<i>0,00%</i>	<i>0,00%</i>	70,12%	85,62%	<i>0,00%</i>	<i>0,00%</i>	70,78%	78,51%	58,62%	72,15%
SE	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
SI	52,17%	71,79%	39,91%	52,95%	72,16%	82,34%	88,80%	93,76%	86,04%	90,95%	85,99%	95,23%	68,34%	77,74%
SK	50,44%	67,06%	44,76%	64,79%	76,51%	88,07%	68,53%	92,82%	45,57%	78,87%	77,68%	67,95%	65,78%	79,30%
UK	68,64%	71,38%	62,67%	79,42%	86,38%	91,42%	72,20%	91,99%	65,43%	83,94%	55,38%	69,58%	73,26%	79,20%

Note: na = not available
Italic: number of observations < 100

Source: EUROSTAT, Labour Force Survey

Annex 20: Decomposition of the gender pay gap into an explained and an unexplained component (2006)

	Number of observations		R ²		Average gross hourly pay		Gender pay gap (ratio H-F/H)	Oaxaca-Blinder Breakdown	
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men (euros)	Women (euros)		Explained part (related to characteristics)	Unexplained part
AT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
BE	95.325	69.866	58,07	66,59	16,6	15,02	9,50%	48,81%***	51,19%***
BG	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
CY	11.024	9.785	69,74	76,87	9,38	7,16	23,67%	46,71%***	53,29%***
CZ	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
DE	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
DK	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
EE	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
ES	143.624	91.624	52,94	50,68	8,79	7,4	15,73%	47,60%***	52,40%***
FI	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
FR	62.891	50.750	57,99	53,88	14,79	13,07	11,60%	48,79%***	51,21%***
GR	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
HU	177.471	365.617	51,19	55,59	2,85	2,68	5,72%	48,17%***	51,83%***
IE	23.268	23.690	57,69	58,09	21,64	18,63	13,89%	45,92%	54,08%***
IT	95.757	59.269	57,79	65,87	12,21	11,62	4,82%	45,41%***	54,59%***
LT	58.301	62.125	42,32	48,98	2,26	2,01	10,85%	48,02%***	51,98%***
LU	20.149	11.180	70,77	73,59	17,46	15,78	9,63%	48,39%***	61,61%***
LV	122.797	142.432	34,83	43,47	1,96	1,79	8,64%	46,96%***	53,04%***
MT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
NL	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
PL	319.535	285.888	55	67,84	3,42	3,22	5,85%	46,38%***	53,62%***
PT	50.773	53.870	66,67	75,54	5,69	5,24	8,03%	45,68%***	54,32%***
RO	133.491	98.483	53,57	60,5	1,5	1,42	5,35%	48,68%***	51,32%***
SE	125.409	145.052	54,44	50,04	16,34	14,09	13,76%	50,47%***	49,53%***
SI	113.267	93.318	42,39	43,73	5,49	5,17	5,48%	45,07%***	54,93%***
SK	330.314	294.453	47,41	51,25	2,95	2,33	20,90%	48,57%***	51,43%***
UK	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na

Note: na = not available
 ***, **, *: significant at a level of respectively 1%, 5% and 10%

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 21: Decomposition of the gender pay gap – subdivision of the explained component (2006)

	Occupation	Sector	Type of contract (open-ended, or fixed-term)	Employment time (full-time, or part-time)	Supervisory position	Form of economic and financial control	Size of firm	Level of education	Age	Years of service in the company
AT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
BE	12,11%	13,38%	12,47%	12,34%	na	12,44%	na	12,20%	12,54%	12,52%
BG	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
CY	10,31%	10,15%	9,93%	9,92%	10,01%	9,92%	9,89%	9,87%	10,02%	9,98%
CZ	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
DE	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
DK	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
EE	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
ES	10,05%	10,38%	9,95%	9,98%	10,06%	9,93%	9,79%	9,80%	10,03%	10,04%
FI	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
FR	11,17%	11,43%	11,13%	11,09%	na	11,04%	11,05%	11,93%	11,06%	11,10%
GR	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
HU	10,03%	10,44%	10,01%	9,92%	10,08%	9,94%	9,97%	9,73%	9,98%	9,91%
IE	9,76%	10,19%	10,02%	10,08%	10,12%	9,77%	9,93%	9,86%	10,15%	10,13%
IT	10,47%	11,78%	11,22%	11,35%	na	11,04%	10,94%	10,80%	11,22%	11,18%
LT	10,80%	12,38%	11,08%	11,19%	na	11,04%	10,79%	10,82%	11,08%	10,81%
LU	10,00%	10,15%	9,98%	9,79%	10,09%	9,88%	9,95%	9,96%	10,13%	10,05%
LV	11,02%	12,13%	11,13%	11,11%	na	11,17%	10,51%	10,85%	11,15%	10,94%
MT	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
NL	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na
PL	10,55%	11,76%	11,13%	11,18%	0,00%	11,16%	11,41%	10,63%	11,10%	11,07%
PT	9,85%	10,58%	10,03%	10,01%	10,11%	9,88%	9,89%	9,60%	10,06%	9,98%
RO	9,88%	10,68%	10,00%	10,00%	10,02%	9,93%	9,74%	9,82%	10,02%	9,91%
SE	12,43%	13,38%	0,00%	12,39%	na	12,65%	12,25%	12,25%	12,34%	12,32%
SI	11,00%	11,29%	11,19%	11,20%	na	11,18%	11,10%	10,74%	11,13%	11,17%
SK	11,11%	11,86%	10,99%	11,06%	na	11,09%	10,91%	11,06%	10,93%	10,98%
UK	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na	na

Note: na = not available

Source: Structure of Earnings Survey

Annex 22: Questionnaire on qualitative indicators

Country	
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Preliminary remark: The concept of "gender pay gap" refers to gender inequalities in average pay; it includes gender pay discrimination, as well as pay inequalities due to differences in the position of women and men in the labour market.

1- Indicators on measures to promote equal pay and to close the gender pay gap Situation

Question 1-1: Which actors are involved in the issue of the gender pay gap and what is their main role in this context?

Actors (equality bodies, trade unions, associations, administration responsible for gender equality, other administrations, ...)	Main role (production of legislation, awareness-raising, pay negotiation, lobby, data collection, ...)

Question 1-2: Which measures (e.g. legislation, action plans, strategies, instruments, ...) have been implemented, since 2005, by public authorities in order to close the gender pay gap?

For each measure, please specify: 1) the period of implementation, 2) if it was an integrated action plan or an isolated action; 3) the actor responsible for the measure

Year	Title of the measure	Type of measure (legislation, action plan, initiative, strategy, method)	Action plan or isolated action	Actor (Institution)

Question 1-3: Please, describe up to 3 best practices (of the measures described in question 1-2) on how to close gender pay gap?

Year	Title of the measure	Description

Development

Question 1-4: Has any of the legislations to combat the gender pay gap been subject to an assessment?

Yes
No

Question 1-5: If yes, please specify the legislation and the main conclusions of the assessments?

Legislation	Main conclusions

Question 1-6: Has any of the other measures mentioned in question 1-2 been subject to an assessment?

Yes
No

Question 1-7: If yes, please specify the measures and the main conclusions of the assessment?

Title of the measure	Main conclusions

Question 1-8: Is there any data collection system of claims relating to gender pay discrimination?

Yes
No

Question 1-9: If yes, please specify the body(ies) in charge of the data collection?

Question 1-10: If yes, please give (if available) the number of complaints lodged relating to gender pay discrimination per year of activity since 2005?

Year	Number of complaints

Question 1-11: Overall ratio: Number of complaints about gender pay discrimination compared with all complaints related to gender discrimination in employment

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**2- Indicators of the role of collective bargaining in promoting equal pay and combating the gender pay gap
Situation**

Question 2-1: In the framework of collective bargaining, which measures (action plans, strategies, ...) concerning the gender pay gap have been implemented since 2005?

For each measure, please specify: the period of implementation, the actors, the sphere of competence, the area of application

Year	Title of the measure	Type of measure (action plan, strategy, ...)	Actors (employers, trade-unions, Government and, if existing specific bodies - committees)	Nature of the measure (advisory, binding decision,...)	Level of application (national, sectoral, firm, ...)

Question 2-2: Please, describe up to 3 best practices (of the measures described in question 2-1) on how to close the gender pay gap?

Year	Title of the measure	Description

Development

Question 2-3: Is there any data collection system of collective agreements relating to the issue of the gender pay gap? If yes, specify the actor responsible of the data collection system and if it is public or private?

	Actor responsible	Public or Private
Yes		
No		

Question 2-4: If there is a data collection system, how many collective agreements have been concerned with the issue of the gender pay gap, per year of activity, since 2005?

Year	Number of collective agreements

Question 2-5: Has any of the measures mentioned in question 2-1 been subject to an assessment?

Yes
No

Question 2-6: If yes, please specify the measures and the main conclusions of the assessment?

Measures	Main conclusions

3- Indicators relating to the effects of flexible forms of employment on the gender pay gap Development

Question 3-1: Has there been any assessment or research concerning the effects of flexible forms of employment (part-time, career breaks and time credit systems, parental leave) on the gender pay gap?

Flexible forms of employment	Yes	No
Part-time		
Career break		
Time credit system		
Parental leave		

Question 3-2: If yes, please specify if it was an assessment of the short- or the long-term effects

Flexible forms of employment	Assessment of short term effect	Assessment of long term effect
Part-time		
Career break		
Time credit system		
Parental leave		

Question 3-3: If yes, please specify the main conclusions of the assessment

Assessment on:	
Part-time	
Career break	
Time credit system	
Parental leave	

Question 3-4: Do public authorities provide any information to raise awareness about the effects of flexible forms of employment on the gender pay gap?

Yes
No
