The Gender Pay Gap in Belgium - Report 2010

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Foreword

Tout comAs in previous years, the pay gap between women and men – the gender pay gap – remains a priority in 2010. The figures demonstrate once again just how stubborn pay differences between women and men continue to be in Belgium. Naturally, it is impossible for me to view this situation with any satisfaction.

On the one hand, as Minister for Employment, I am convinced that a labour market that is not free of discrimination is, by definition, a labour market that is not functioning to the best of its ability. A proper labour market requires equal pay for equal work.

On the other hand, as Minister for Equal Opportunities, I think that the pay gap in itself is a fundamental injustice. Having a paid job is also a way of gaining a place in society. For most people, it is their most important means of obtaining an income and also of developing themselves personally. Systematically giving women fewer opportunities than men in this area brings about inequalities in society.

So once again this report is an essential tool for shaping our policy based on strong analytical foundations.

In the second half of 2010, Belgium will be taking over the Presidency of the European Union. It is in this context that a European pay gap report is currently being prepared. I will also be using Belgium's Presidency to keep the issues surrounding the pay gap on the political agenda at a European level.

I very much hope you will enjoy reading this report.

Joëlle Milquet

Vice Prime Minister and Minister for Employment and Equal Opportunities,
responsible for the Policy on Migration and Asylum

Introduction

March has now become synonymous with the publication of a new report on the gender pay gap. The 2010 report is the fourth year in succession it has been published. A quick glance at the figures tells us that little change can be detected in comparison with the previous year. But for the first time, however, this is good news. In fact, the current figures confirm the narrowing of the gap we observed last year, although this still needs to be interpreted with the required caution. As a result, we can safely state that the pay gap in 2006 and 2007 was markedly smaller than in the period before. Why that is the case is less straightforward to define. This is because the pay gap is a consequence of a combination of factors and the explanation for this narrowing of the gap is probably to be found by searching in different directions. One striking fact is that the women coming into the labour market are increasingly well educated. They are also interrupting their career less frequently and hence are able to build up longer periods of service and gain seniority. We can naturally only applaud a structural improvement such as this in the position that women occupy on the labour market. Yet we also hope that the awareness of the situation gained over recent years has not been without its effects – the unions, as well as the government departments involved and successive Ministers for Employment have all put in a great deal of effort in this area – and that both employees and employers are also more aware of the totally unacceptable nature of the pay gap.

Whether the pay gap will continue to narrow in the future remains a matter of some conjecture. The report in 2011 will include the figures for 2008, which was the year of the global financial crisis. Whether and how the crisis has had an effect on the pay gap is a question that we are asked regularly. But without any concrete data, we can only speculate. In principle, the crisis may have an effect on the pay gap in various different ways. In the first place, the GFC is still being felt in terms of unemployment figures – and naturally the pay gap can only be calculated based on people who are still in employment. This means that a rise or fall in the pay gap is mainly a consequence of redundancies and less so of trends in pay levels. Which sectors are affected, or whether mainly men or women are made redundant and which pay categories are most affected by the crisis can all have an impact on the average pay of women and men. It can also work out to be higher or lower. If, for example, redundancies are mainly men on the lower pay categories, the men still in employment will earn more on average, which would widen the pay gap. So being able to interpret pay gap figures means taking account of the movements in employment levels.

Because 2010 is the year of Belgium's Presidency of the European Union, we are publishing two reports this year: this report for Belgium in March, and a European report in October. As a result, there is no European section in this particular report. The indicators for the various Member States will be calculated in the extensive European report. In the context of Europe, Belgium is setting a good example. In some other Member States, the pay gap is twice as high. This makes us especially suitable for carrying the load. In terms of policy, first, both for eliminating discrimination and improving the position in the labour market for women and, second, for continuing to work on further improving and harmonising the statistical apparatus.

Even though it is the fourth report in the series, it will find its way into the hands of entirely new readers. So in this sense, this introduction requires an explanation about the how and why of this report. It was at the Council of Ministers meeting on 31st March 2006 that the decision was taken to draft an official report every year with figures dealing with the pay gap. This task was entrusted jointly to the Institute for the Equality of Women and Men, and to the Federal Public Service Employment, Labour and Social Dialogue. In compiling the first report, a natural partner was soon found in the Directorate-General Statistics and Economic Information at the Federal Public Service Economy, SMEs, Self-Employed and Energy. A year later, in the search to find a way of filling in the gaps in the data, contact was made with the Federal Planning Bureau. Again, here, the collaboration has been long-lasting. Both partners in the project also work together to supply data on the

pay gap in Belgium to Eurostat. This year, the Directorate-General for Statistics and Economic Information is also handling the layout and printing side of the report.

The pay gap is calculated on the basis of the average gross pay of women and men. The difference between the two is expressed as a percentage of the average gross pay for men. The formula used is:

$$\frac{H\text{-}F \times 100}{H}$$

(F= the average gross pay for women, and M= the average gross pay for men)

Gross hourly wages rates are generally used, although monthly and annual salaries and even bonuses are also used to illustrate clearly the differences in pay between women and men.

This year, for the first time, we also have details about a number of fringe benefits. Fringe benefits are benefits of every kind that come on top of base pay. In principle, fringe benefits form part of the overall salary and the pay gap, while in practice it is not so easy to obtain a good view as to how these benefits are broken down. In the report, we base ourselves on fiscal data analysed by the Directorate-General for Statistics and Economic Information. The sometimes major differences observed provide food for thought and make closer examination of this issue necessary without delay.

Although reliable and complete administrative data does exist at the National Social Security Office (NSSO) about salaries paid in Belgium, this data is not detailed enough for most of the indicators in this report. Which is why we mainly use the Structure of Earnings Survey (SES). The SES is an annual survey conducted by the Directorate-General for Statistics and Economic Information among organisations or the local units of companies. This provides highly dependable and detailed data. Companies with fewer than 10 staff and a number of sectors are not included in the survey. This disadvantage is offset to some extent by estimates produced by the Federal Planning Bureau based on administrative data. Every four years, the survey is extended to include education, healthcare and the socio-cultural sector. This was not the case for the survey year 2007, on which this report is based.

Finally, we don't just provide a single figure on the pay gap, but explain the topic from various different points of view. This is done using a set of indicators approved by the European Union's Council of Ministers. In the first section of the report, the pay gap is shown in its entirety, while in the second section, a number of important factors are explained. In the third section, they are linked together and we examine the extent to which the pay differences between women and men can be attributed to these known factors. Finally, we make a series of policy recommendations.

I. General gender pay gap indicators

The European set of indicators starts by presenting a number of figures that show the pay gap between women and men across the economy as a whole. So they have not been adjusted for individual items such as sector, job or age. Account has been taken of the effect of part-time work only. Indicator 1 is based on a comparison of average wages; Indicator 2 is based on the breakdown of total wages across women and men.

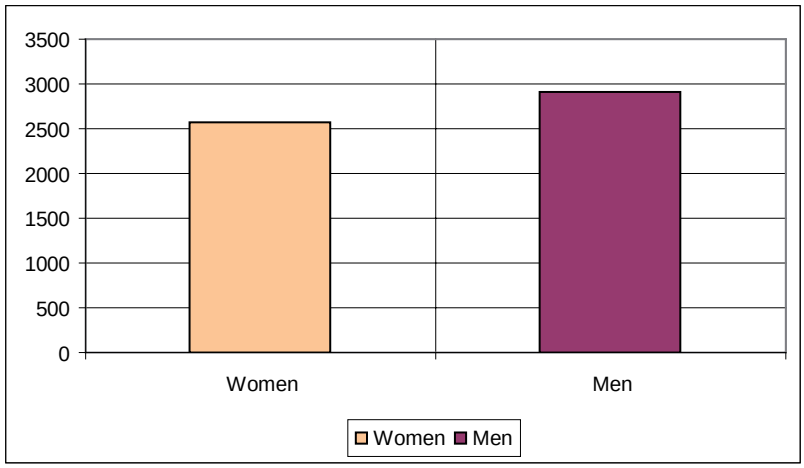
INDICATOR 1 : differences in the average gross wages of women and men

There are a number of ways to illustrate the differences between the average gross wage of women and men. The old official indicator at a European level was the pay gap calculated on the basis of the monthly income of women and men working full-time. We begin with this once again. We also explore the pay gap for women and men working full-time based on the various concepts of pay. Then we do the same thing again, this time taking all workers together, i.e. full-time and part-time. The new European indicator takes the pay gap based on the hourly earnings of full-time and part-time workers together. This method enables more women's wages to be included in the calculation. Given that the survey we are basing ourselves on does not take account of businesses with fewer than 10 staff, nor does it include a number of specific sectors, we will then examine the estimates by the Federal Planning Bureau for the pay gap in these areas and in particular the difference between the public and private sectors. Finally, we will look at movements in the pay gap over past decades. As a little extra, this year the gender gap is analysed for a number of fringe benefits, based on tax data.

1.1 Full-time workers

The graph below shows the gross monthly wages of full-time workers for 2007. This graph shows that women earn 341 EUR less than men, on average. This means that in 2007, the pay gap between women and men was 11.69%. Gross earnings for both men and women rose in comparison with 2006. However, this rise was greater for women, which closed the pay gap slightly (12.47% in 2006). Yet we can say that the figures for 2007 are comparable with those for 2006. In relation with 2004 and 2005, the pay gap is considerably smaller.

GRAPH 1 : Average gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in EUR) (2007)



Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

Table 1 shows the changes over 6 years for the gross monthly wages of women and men working full-time, and the pay gap. Each year gross earnings rose, with the changes for women stronger on the whole. Between 2002 and 2007, the earnings of women working full-time increased by 19%, while for men it increased by only 15%. This unequal rise is making the pay gap smaller in the long term. As already pointed out above, the difference in gross monthly wages between men and women was 341 EUR in 2007. This means that women earned 88.3% of what men earned, whereas it was only 87.5% in 2006 (85.6% in 2002).

Table 1: Average gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in EUR) and the pay gap (2002-2007)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Women	2.165	2.231	2.343	2.387	2.491	2.577
Men	2.529	2.679	2.757	2.807	2.846	2.918
pay gap	14%	17%	15%	15%	12%	12%

Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The table below shows the gross hourly wages of men and women working full-time and indicates a similar trend. While the hourly wages for both women and men working full-time are rising, the increase is greater for women, which in turn is closing the pay gap. When we look at gross hourly wages, the pay gap continues to become smaller than with gross monthly earnings. This can be attributed to the fact that among full-time workers, men work more hours than women. Hence part of the pay gap in gross monthly earnings can be explained by the fact that men work more hours per month and therefore earn more per month.

Table 2 : Average gross hourly wages of full-time employees (in euro) and the pay gap (2002-2007)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Women	12,88	13,14	14,15	14,38	15,00	15,48
Men	14,89	15,60	16,25	16,68	16,93	17,36
Pay gap	14%	16%	13%	14%	11%	11%

Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The pay gap in bonuses clearly is smaller than the pay gap in ordinary monthly earnings. This is due to the fact that many bonuses are made up of a fixed part and a part that depends on the monthly earnings. Yet the total pay gap bears close resemblance to the gap for the salary component, given that bonuses only represent a limited part of the total amount (approximately 10%). This means that the salary component has a much greater impact on total gross annual earnings. Given that this component of the pay gap has closed the most, a significant reduction in the pay gap can also be seen in total gross annual earnings. Once again here the figures for 2007 are comparable with those for 2006, although they are considerably lower than in 2004 and 2005.

Tableau 3 : Average gross annual wages of full-time employees (in EUR) and the pay gap (2002-2007)[1]

Total (salary component + bonuses component)						
	2002	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**
Women	29.832	28.386	30.282	31.317	32.616	33.625
Men	34.590	33.616	35.675	36.819	37.175	38.018
Pay gap	14%	16%	15%	15%	12%	12%
Salary component						
	2002	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**
Women	26.433	25.977	27.056	27.960	29.149	30.053
Men	31.095	30.859	32.027	33.085	33.346	34.102
Pay gap	15%	16%	16%	15%	13%	12%
Bonuses component						
	2002	**2003**	**2004**	**2005**	**2006**	**2007**
Women	3.399	2.409	2.617	3.357	3.467	3.572
Men	3.495	2.757	3.012	3.734	3.829	3.916
Pay gap	3%	13%	13%	10%	9%	9%

Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

In addition to these bonuses, some employees also receive extra benefits, which are not included in the survey. Based on official data, we are not able to check whether items such as a company car or a business mobile phone are allocated more to men rather than to women. Research also shows that this actually is the case.
However, based on tax information available to the Directorate General for Statistics and Economic information of the FPS Economy, we are able to highlight a number of differences, as shown in table 4.

[1] The multifunctional DMFA (Déclaration multifonctionelle / Multifunctionele aangifte) return was introduced in 2003. This change to the lodging of Social Security data may cause a discrepancy.

Table 4 : Proportion of wage earners to whom certain benefits are allocated and the average amount (in EUR) of these benefits (2006)[2]

		Women	Men	Différence
Share options	**Proportion**	0,31%	0,73%	
	Average amount	2.996,83	5.770,64	48,07%
Reimbursement of travel costs to and from work	**Proportion**	70,9%	70,3%	
	Average amount	369,34	514,70	28,24%
Contributions to supplementary pension schemes	**Proportion**	13,3%	15,9%	
	Average amount	385,55	710,60	45,74%

Sources : DGSEI, Tax statistics and NSSO

The share options in the table are new options allocated in 2006. 0.73% of male wage earners and 0.31% of female wage earners benefited from share options. On average, men received options to a value of 5,770.64 EUR, while women received 2,996.83 EUR. This indicates a very large difference of 48.07%. This is probably related to the under-representation of women in company management (the glass ceiling), given that share options are usually allocated to employees occupying more senior positions.

Reimbursements for travel between home and work are allocated to both men and women. Yet on average, men receive annual reimbursements that are 28.24% higher than women. There are a number of possible explanations for this. On average, men tend to live further away from their place of work. Part-time workers, which includes women in particular, tend to live closer.

As far as supplementary pensions are concerned, we can see that employers pay a contribution for 13.3% of women and 15.9% of men. This involves appreciable percentages of wage earners and so merits the necessary attention. So, in comparison with one another, more men than women receive a supplementary pension, but the major difference lies mainly in the extent of the amounts involved: an average of 710.60 EUR is contributed for men, while for women it is only 385.55 EUR – 45.74% less. This is another area where the gender pay gap is very wide. In fact the difference here is far higher than in the pay gap, which is not so easy to explain. These differences are also relevant in the context of the debate about pensions.

[2] The most recent available data relates to 2006.

1.2 Full-time and part-time workers

Before proceeding with an analysis of the pay gap between full-time and part-time workers, it has to be said that the pay gap based on hourly wages is significantly smaller among part-time workers than with their full-time counterparts. This significant difference can be explained mainly by the fact that like women who work part-time, men who work part-time earn less per hour than full-time workers. But because fewer men work part-time, the impact that this has on the pay gap between full-time and part-time workers on the whole is however negligible. Taking account of the large number of women who work part-time, a pay gap indicator based only on full-time workers would result in the exclusion of a large number of working women from this indicator. By including part-time workers in the calculation, the lower average hourly wages of part-time workers create a wider pay gap between men and women, which reflects the reality better. This is especially the case in industry and sales, where the vast majority of part-time workers are women on lower wages. For all these reasons, the official European wages indicator has been calculated since the summer of 2007 on the basis of the hourly wages of full-time and part-time working men and women together. Readers wishing to have more details about part-time workers are referred to Indicator 3.

Table 5 : Average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees (in EUR) and the pay gap (2002-2007)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Women	12,41	12,77	13,44	13,78	14,37	14,78
Men	14,80	15,44	16,06	16,54	16,80	17,27
Pay gap	16%	17%	16%	17%	14%	14%

Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

In 2007, the pay gap based on the average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time workers was 14% for sectors C to K. We note that the closing of the pay gap that took place in 2006 after 4 years of stagnating figures, did not continue in 2007, although this pay gap of 14% in 2007 did confirm the fall in 2006.

The table below shows the pay gap for full-time and part-time workers together based on average gross monthly earnings. Calculated in this way, the pay gap is considerably greater than with full-time workers alone. In addition to the impact that working part-time has on the hourly wages of women and men, there is of course also a significant difference in the average monthly wages of part-time and full-time wageearners.
Taking account of the fact that women are very much over-represented among part-time workers, which results in an even wider pay gap, in 2007, the pay gap between women and men based on the average gross monthly earnings of full-time and part-time workers taken together was 23%, although for full-time workers in the same period, the pay gap was only 12%. The importance of this indicator lies in the fact that no adjustment has been made at all for the effects of part-time work: on average, women earn 23% per month less than men. Although a significant part of this pay gap can be attributed to part-time working, this indicator reflects the day-to-day reality for women.

Table 6 : Average gross monthly wages of full-time and part-time employees (in EUR) and the pay gap (2002-2007)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Women	1.834	1.932	2.003	2.049	2.106	2.130
Men	2.462	2.592	2.677	2.720	2.756	2.783
Pay gap	26%	25%	25%	25%	24%	23%

Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

Movements in the pay gap between women and men have remained relatively stable here, albeit showing a slight downward trend. Hence the pay gap was 25.18% in 2004, 24.67% in 2005, 23.58% in 2006 and 23.46% in 2007. This trend needs to be confirmed over the years ahead

1.3 Extension to companies and sectors not included in the Structure of Earnings Survey

The Structure of Earnings Survey only includes those companies with at least 10 employees in sectors C to K of the NACE nomenclature (see Annex 1). Since 2006, sectors C-K, M, N and O have also been included in the survey, although only every four years[3]. Sectors C to K are industry, trading, hospitality, transport, finance, real estate and other services to companies[4]. Based on the figures from the survey, plus administrative data, the Federal Planning Bureau estimates the average gross hourly wages for all company sizes and for most other sectors. With sectors C to K, there are also the primary sector (agriculture and fisheries), government administration, education, healthcare and the socio-cultural sector. In the NACE nomenclature, these then are sectors A to O.[5] Compared with the data published in the previous report, it is important to note that the series has been re-estimated and adjusted, on the one hand as the result of a review of the historic employment series, the volume of work and pre-tax earnings in the national accounts, and on the other hand on account of an adjustment to the methodology. However, these re-estimates only have a relatively limited effect on the figures.

The tables below show figures from the Federal Planning Bureau, based on the survey and administrative data. The original survey data is supplemented here in two ways: first by businesses employing fewer than 10 staff and second by sectors A, B, L and O.[6]

[3] Sectors M, N and O include education, healthcare and social services and collective, social and personal services – also called the socio-cultural sector.

[4] Industry includes mining and manufacturing, the product and distribution of electricity, gas and water and construction.

[5] Two sectors are not taken into consideration here: the sector for domestic staff and the small sector of extra-territorial organisations (e.g. EU or UN staff).

[6] For these re-estimated figures, account has of course been taken of the 2006 survey results for sectors M, N and O.

A distinction is made in tables 7 and 8 between businesses with fewer than 10 staff and those with 10 or more staff in sectors C-K, M, N and O. Table 9 compares sectors C to K and sectors C-K, M, N and O with sectors A to O.

Table 7 : Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees (in EUR) and the pay gap in companies with at least 10 employees and companies with fewer than 10 employees (NACE sectors C-K, M, N & O) (2002-2007)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
			Men			
Companies with 10 employees or more	15,13	15,78	16,37	16,84	17,09	17,57
Companies with fewer than 10 employees	11,90	12,29	12,96	13,29	13,51	13,98
Total	14,69	15,29	15,88	16,33	16,58	17,06
			Women			
Companies with 10 employees or more	13,32	13,67	14,36	14,74	15,31	15,75
Companies with fewer than 10 employees	10,39	10,65	11,27	11,53	12,07	12,61
Total	12,89	13,22	13,90	14,25	14,83	15,29
			Pay gap			
Companies with 10 employees or more	12%	13%	12%	12%	10%	10%
Companies with fewer than 10 employees	13%	13%	13%	13%	11%	10%
Total	12%	14%	13%	13%	11%	10%

Sources : Federal Planning Bureau and DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The average hourly wages in companies with fewer than 10 employees in sectors C-K, M, N and O appears to be lower than in companies with 10 or more employees. This applies to both women and men. It can also be seen that the difference in wages in 2007 is a little smaller in companies with fewer than 10 employees (9.8%) than in those with 10 or more employees (10.4%). This has been the other way round in previous years.

Table 8 shows the results for this exercise in sectors C to K, and M to O separately. The average hourly wages in companies with at least 10 employees is higher across the board than in companies with fewer than 10 employees. This is regardless of gender or sector. The split between the 'classic' private sectors, i.e. industry and market services on the one hand, and the 'semi-public' sectors, i.e. education, healthcare and social services and the socio-cultural sector on the other, highlights an interesting difference. While in sectors C to K the pay gap is greater in companies with 10 employees to more (14%) than in those with fewer than 10 employees (8%), it is the other way round for sectors M, N and O: 14% for companies with more than 10 employees, compared with 20% for those with fewer than 10 employees.

However, when companies with fewer than 10 employees are included in the calculation for the pay gap in sectors C to K, this provides a slight and somewhat contradictory rise for the period 2002-2005, but also a small fall for 2006 and 2007. This is called a 'composition effect': the number of women in the overall volume of labour – i.e. in the total number of hours worked – is higher in small companies, at 35.8% versus 29.3% elsewhere. The gross hourly wage is also appreciably lower in those companies, both for men (14.0 EUR

versus 17.3 EUR) and women (12.9 EUR versus 14.8 EUR). Including this lower pay segment weighs down more on the average hourly wages of women than men, which in turn widens the pay gap slightly. For 2006 and 2007, the reduction in the pay gap created by including small companies can probably be attributed to the fact that the reduction in the pay gap in companies with fewer than 10 employees was greater than in those with 10 employees or more. For sectors M, N and O, the addition of companies with fewer than 10 employees only results in a very minor increase in the pay gap, although this is clearly higher in companies with at least 10 employees.

Table 8 : Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees (in EUR) and the pay gap in companies with at least 10 employees and companies with fewer than 10 employees (NACE sectors C-K and M, N & O) (2002-2007)

Sectors C-K						
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Men						
Companies with 10 employees or more	14,83	15,48	16,07	16,52	16,80	17,27
Companies with fewer than 10 employees	11,86	12,26	12,93	13,25	13,47	13,95
Total	14,40	15,00	15,61	16,02	16,30	16,77
Women						
Companies with 10 employees or more	12,43	12,78	13,44	13,74	14,37	14,78
Companies with fewer than 10 employees	10,58	10,81	11,42	11,68	12,28	12,87
Total	12,07	12,39	13,04	13,32	13,95	14,41
Pay gap						
Companies with 10 employees or more	16%	17%	16%	17%	14%	14%
Companies with fewer than 10 employees	11%	12%	12%	12%	9%	8%
Total	16%	17%	16%	17%	14%	14%
Sectors M, N & O						
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Men						
Companies with 10 employees or more	17,44	18,03	18,53	19,14	19,22	19,75
Companies with fewer than 10 employees	12,42	12,77	13,38	13,83	14,04	14,54
Total	17,05	17,64	18,11	18,73	18,80	19,32
Women						
Companies with 10 employees or more	14,48	14,77	15,49	15,93	16,46	16,96
Companies with fewer than 10 employees	9,71	10,04	10,73	10,93	11,29	11,70
Total	14,11	14,41	15,11	15,56	16,06	16,55
Pay gap						
Companies with 10 employees or more	17%	18%	16%	17%	14%	14%
Companies with fewer than 10 employees	22%	21%	20%	21%	20%	20%
Total	17%	18%	17%	17%	15%	14%

Sources : Federal Planning Bureau and DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

Un second complément aux données de l'Enquête sur la structure et la répartition des salaires permet de couvrir les secteurs A à O.

Table 9 : Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees in NACE sectors C-K, C-K, M, N & O and A-O (in EUR) and the pay gap (2002-2007)

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Men						
Sectors C à K	14,40	15,00	15,61	16,02	16,30	16,77
Sectors C-K,M,N&O	14,69	15,29	15,88	16,33	16,58	17,06
Sectors A à O	14,38	14,99	15,55	16,02	16,28	16,74
Women						
Sectors C à K	12,07	12,39	13,04	13,32	13,95	14,41
Sectors C-K,M,N&O	12,89	13,22	13,90	14,25	14,83	15,29
Sectors A à O	12,58	12,92	13,59	13,97	14,53	14,96
Pay gap						
Sectors C à K	16%	17%	16%	17%	14%	14%
Sectors C-K,M,N&O	12%	14%	13%	13%	11%	10%
Sectors A à O	12%	14%	13%	13%	11%	11%

Sources : Federal Planning Bureau and DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The pay gap does not change much when agriculture (A), fisheries (B) and public administration (L) are added to sectors C-K, M, N and O. The average gross hourly wage remains virtually identical for men whether they work in sectors C to K or elsewhere (except for sectors A, B and L, where the average gross hourly wage is 14.7 EUR), while the average gross hourly wage for women is lower when they work in sectors C-K, at 14.4 EUR compared with 15.3 EUR for sectors C-K, M, N and O in 2007; this can be attributed to the higher hourly wages in education. In sectors A, B and L the average gross hourly wage for women is 13.0 EUR.

1.4 The pay gap by status

Calculating the pay gap for the public and private sector together does not reflect the actual situation clearly. That's because the result is somewhere between the two, very divergent values. There are two main reasons why the pay gap differs so much between the public and private sectors. First, pay is not established in the same way: in the public sector, in principle, there is no individual pay component over and above the remuneration levels set by the pay scales. Second, the composition of the labour force is fairly balanced, although there is a 'glass ceiling' here too: women experience more difficulty in rising to more senior positions.

The data of the Federal Planning Bureau distinguishes between the Social Security Service [NSSO(PLA)] status of the employee and the NSSO(PLA) sector of the company. This enables the pay gap to be calculated separately for civil servants, blue-collar workers, and white-collar workers. Because there is gender inequality in the public sector in terms of permanent appointments – two-thirds of male civil servants are appointed, whereas barely half of women are – a distinction is made between these two statuses within government in the table below.[7]

Table 10 : Average gross hourly wages (in EUR) for full-time and part-time employees and the pay gap, by status (2007)[8-9]

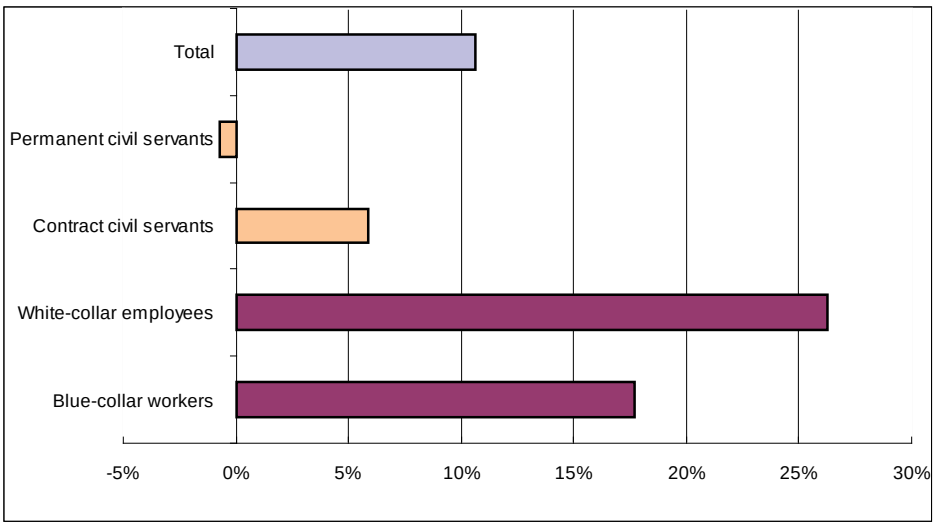
	Private sector		Public sector		Total
	Blue-collar workers	White-collar employees	Contract civil servants	Permanent civil servants	
Women	10,7	16,0	13,8	17,4	15,0
Men	13,0	21,7	14,6	17,3	16,7
Pay gap	18%	26%	6%	-1%	11%

Sources : Bureau fédéral du Plan, DGSIE, Enquête sur la structure et la répartition des salaires

The pay gap based on hourly wages is 26% for white-collar employees and 18% for blue-collar workers. The pay gap is practically non-existent for permanent civil servants, but is 6% for contract civil servants. This means that the overall pay gap figure conceals some major status-based differences. When we look at the data for the period 2002-2007 (table 12), we can see that although the pay gap for blue-collar workers remained stable, the pay gap for white-collar employees and contract civil servants became smaller between 2002 and 2007 – minus 3 percentage points for white-collar employees and minus 4 for contract civil servants. Consequently, the estimated pay gap of 11% for sectors A to O in fact conceals a much wider pay gap in the private sector.

[7] The term 'civil servant' is used here in the broad sense of an employee working in the public sector.
[8] A «contract civil servant» is an employee in the public sector who is not appointed on a permanent basis and hence works on an employment contract. In principle, a distinction can be made for this category between blue-collar workers and white-collar employees. That distinction is not made here.
[9] The figures relate to the economy as a whole, with the exception of the small sectors P and Q, domestic staff and extra-territorial organisations.

Graph 2 : Pay gap based on the average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees, by status (2007)



Sources : Federal Planning Bureau and DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

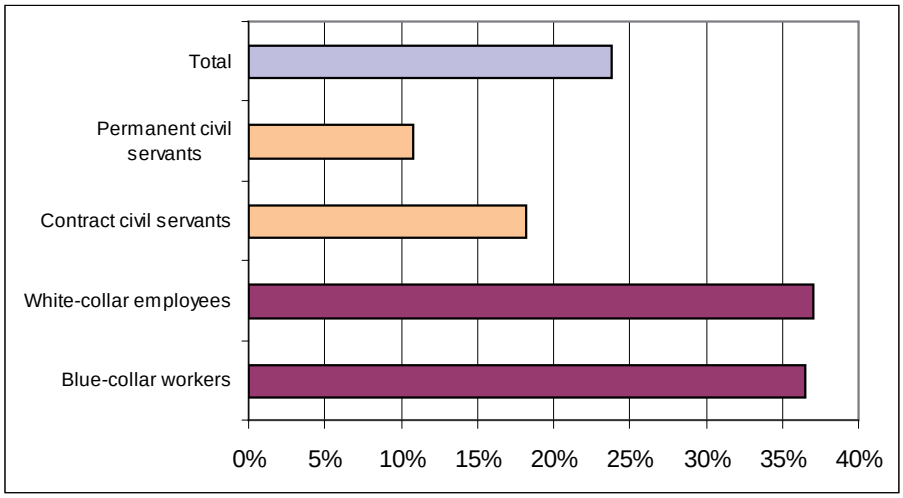
The effect of part-time work is removed to a large extent in the pay gap based on gross hourly wages. Only the fact that part-time workers receive lower hourly wages is still a factor in the indicator. But the effect of part-time work does play a role in the pay gap based on annual earnings. At the end of the survey year in the private sector, both female blue-collar workers and female white-collar employees earned 37% less than their male counterparts. The figure for contract civil servants was 18%, while for permanent staff working in public administration, it was 11%. Over the period 2002-2007, the pay gap for blue-collar workers and permanent civil servants remained steady, while the gap for white-collar employees and contract civil servants narrowed by 2 percentage points for white collar employees and 4 percentage points for contract civil servants. Taking all statuses together, the pay gap based on gross annual earnings was 24%.

Table 11 : Average gross annual wages for full-time and part-time employees and the pay gap, by status (2007)

	Private sector		Public sector		Total
	Blue-collar workers	White-collar employees	Contract civil servants	Permanent civil servants	
Women	15.014	26.877	20.895	31.058	24.068
Men	23.654	42.669	25.559	34.829	31.585
Pay gap	37%	37%	18%	11%	24%

Sources : Federal Planning Bureau and DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

Graph 3 : Pay gap based on the gross annual wages for full-time and part-time employees, by status (2007)



Sources : Federal Planning Bureau and DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

Table 12 : Changes to the pay gap for full-time and part-time employees, by status (2002-2007)[10]

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Gross hourly wages						
Blue-collar workers	17%	19%	18%	18%	17%	18%
White-collar employees	29%	30%	29%	29%	27%	26%
Contract civil servants	10%	14%	7%	8%	6%	6%
Permanent civil servants	-2%	0%	0%	0%	-1%	-1%
Total	12%	14%	13%	13%	11%	11%

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Gross annual wages						
Blue-collar workers	38%	38%	37%	37%	36%	37%
White-collar employees	39%	39%	38%	38%	37%	37%
Contract civil servants	22%	24%	20%	19%	19%	18%
Permanent civil servants	11%	11%	11%	10%	11%	11%
Total	26%	25%	25%	24%	24%	24%

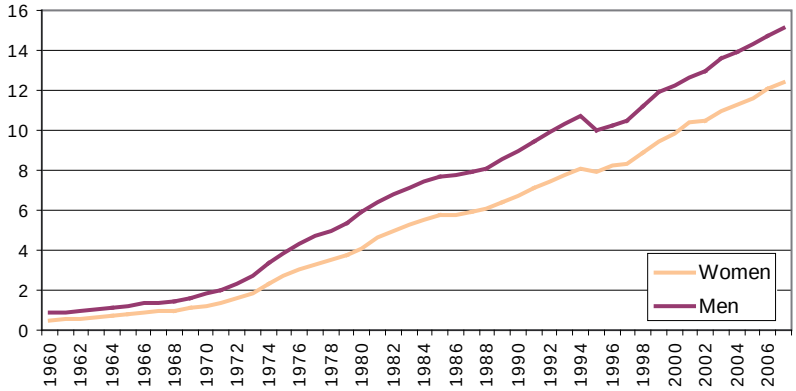
Sources : Federal Planning Bureau and DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

[10] From 2005 onwards, the estimates for the public sector are less reliable on account of problems with NSSOPLA data.

1.5 Trends in the pay gap

As part of analysing the pay gap, it is of interest to examine trends in the long term. To do that, we have to restrict ourselves to the figures for full-time and part-time employees in industry. Hence this is no longer about NACE sectors C to K, but only sectors C and D.

Graph 4 : Average gross monthly wages (in EUR) for full-time and part-time employees in industry (1972-2007)

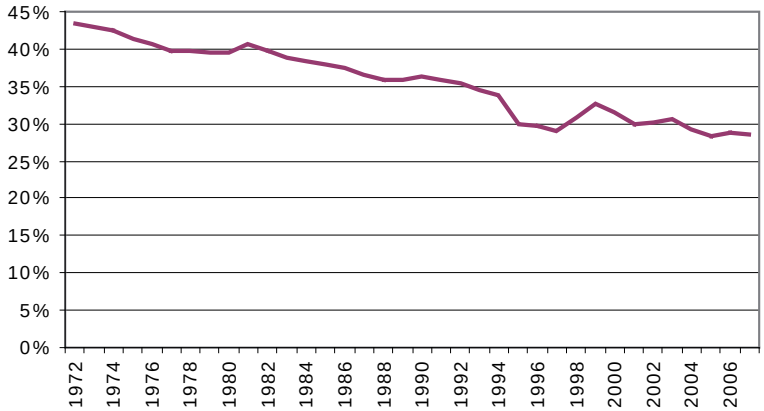


Sources : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey (from 1999) and the Half-Yearly Survey of Salaries and Wages (processed by FPS ELSD)

Graph 4 shows the average gross monthly wages of men and women working full-time or part-time in industry for the period from 1972 to 2007.[11] The graph shows that wages for both men and women rose over the course of time, but those for women rose more quickly than those for men. In fact, between 1972 and 2007, women's wages rose by a factor of 6.3, while for men it was a factor of 4.8. This explains the declining trend for the pay gap in the graph below. Whereas the pay gap in 1972 was still 43%, by 2007 it was 28%. This can be explained by the fact that women now have a more constant presence on the labour market in general, including in positions that were previously more easy for men to access. Also, women today are coming on to the labour market with an equally high and even higher level of qualifications than young men. Finally, the latest generations of women are also achieving longer years of service.

[11] The series of data was interrupted in 1998 and 1999, which has caused a slight discrepancy in graphs 4 and 5.

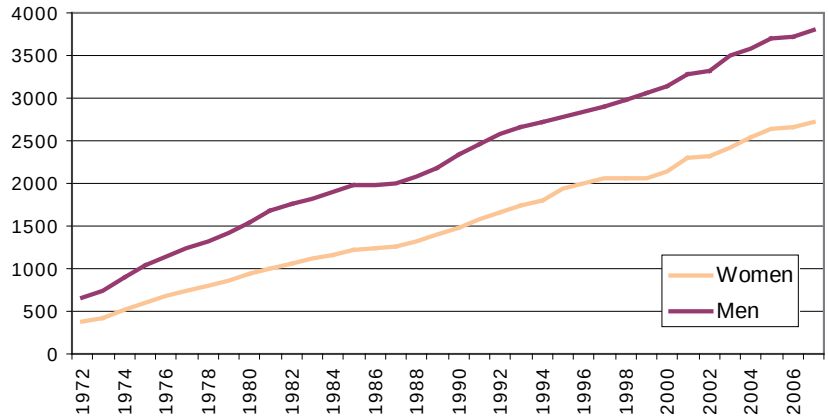
Graph 5 : Pay gap based on the gross monthly wages of full-time and part-time employees in industry (1972-2007)



Sources : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey (from 1999) and the Half-Yearly Survey of Salaries and Wages (processed by FPS ELSD)

For gross hourly wages we can go back to the 1960s if we restrict ourselves to full-time and part-time employees in industry.[12]

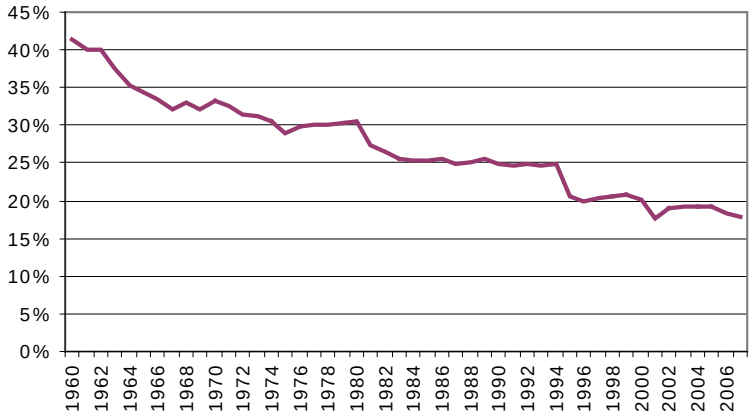
Graph 6 : Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees in industry (in EUR) (1960-2007)



Sources : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey (from 1999) and the Half-Yearly Survey of Salaries and Wages (processed by FPS ELSD)

[12] As for gross monthly wages, there is a break in the data series here in 1998 and 1999.

Graph 7 : Pay gap based on the gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees in industry (1960-2006)



Sources : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey (from 1999) and the Half-Yearly Survey of Salaries and Wages (processed by FPS ELSD)

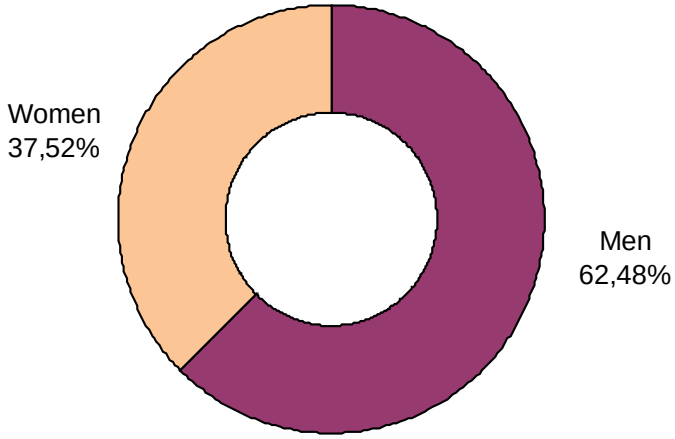
The graphs above show similar trends as with the monthly wages of white-collar employees. The pay gap is smaller than the gap for monthly wages as the result of the disappearance of the effect of part-time working. In 1960, the pay gap based on gross hourly wages was 41%, compared with 18% in 2007.

INDICATOR 2 : share in the total sum of wages

In what follows, we will calculate a totally different pay gap indicator based on the whole of the wages paid to men and women and their participation in the labour market, first as employees and then in paid working days.

According to the National Social Security Office (NSSO), 95,974,263,404 EUR was paid in gross wages in Belgium in 2007. 36.011 billion EUR was paid to women, which corresponds to 37.52% of total wages, compared with 37.06% in 2006.

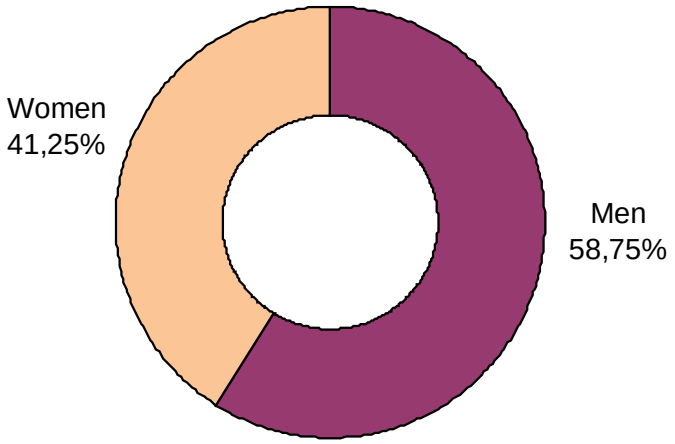
Graph 8 : Share of women and men in the total sum of wages (2007)



Source : NSSO

In graph 9 we can see the ratio of the number of paid working days between women and men.[13] Compared with 2006, when women worked 40.53% of the paid working days, this percentage rose slightly to 41.25% in 2007.

Graph 9 : Share of women and men in the total number of paid working days (2007)

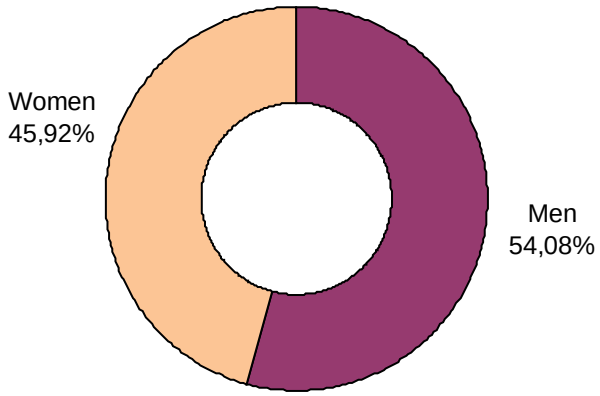


Source : NSSO

[13] The paid working days of part-time employees have been converted into working paid at the rate of 7 hours and 36 minuted per working day (i.e. 7.6 hours).

In terms of the share of women in paid work, this figure was 45.92% in 2007, compared with 45.60% in 2006.

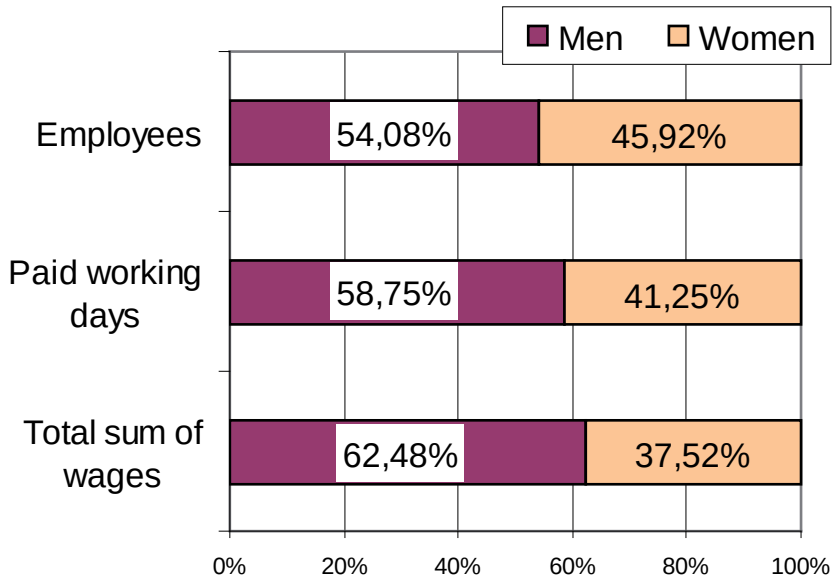
Graph 10 : Share of women and men among employees (2007)



Sources : DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

When these three ratios are viewed together, it becomes clear how the ratio between women and men is becoming increasingly distorted.

Graph 11 : Share of women and men among employees, in paid working days and in the total sum of wages (2007)



NSSO; DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

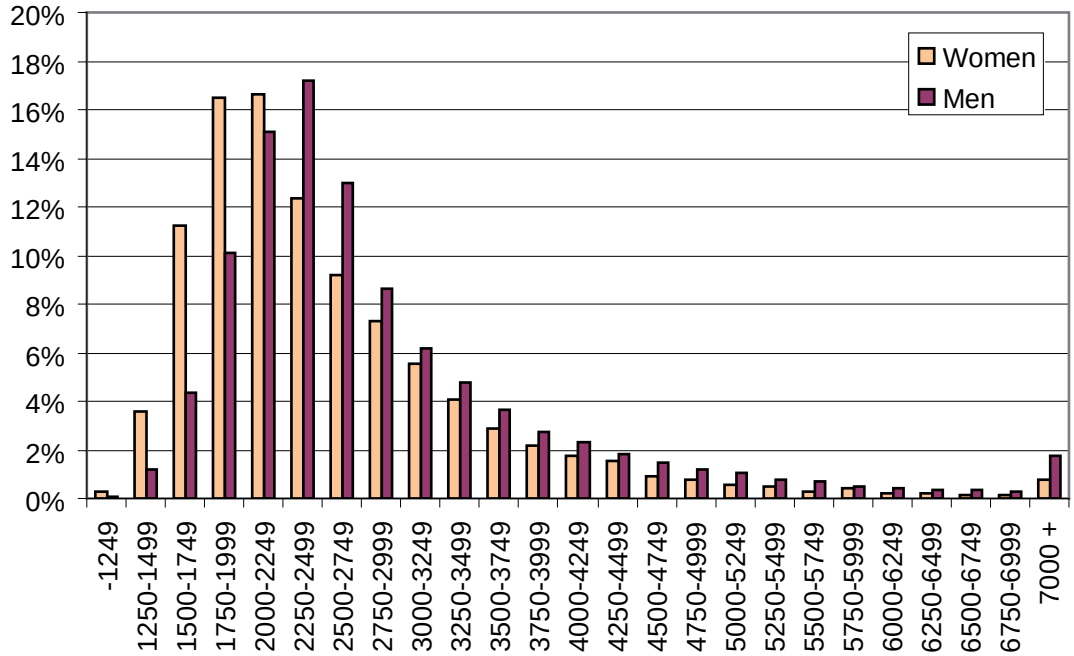
We now have all the elements we need to calculate the total pay gap, which is defined as the difference between the share of women in the total sum of wages and their share in paid employment. In 2007, 45.92% of employees were women and 95,974,263,404 EUR was paid out in wages. Hence taken together, female workers should have received 44.067 billion EUR, or 8.056 billion EUR more than they actually earned (36.011 billion EUR). However, given that women work part-time more often than men, we will adjust this difference in the total volume of work by using the share of women in the total number of paid working days, instead of the number of women among employees. 41.25% of paid working days were worked by women. Taking working hours into account, they therefore should have earned 39.587 billion EUR, which is 3.576 billion EUR more than they actually earned. If we take account of the fact that women work part-time more often than men, the total pay gap narrows significantly, but an important part of the pay gap is not the result of this difference in the average number of working hours.

We also note that the percentages attributed to women in 2007 are slightly higher than they were in 2006, while the overall pay gap calculated on these percentages actually widened. This can be attributed to the fact that the overall total wage bill also rose and was 5.706 billion EUR more than in 2006. This means that the share of wages not going to women was also greater.

To be as correct as possible in our comparison, we also need to take account of inflation. Based on the national index of consumer prices, we can recalculate the total wage bill to 2006 prices and hence deduce that in 2007 (adjusted) 94,262,528,677 EUR was paid in gross wages. Hence the wages shortfall in relation to the number of female employees and the number of paid working days worked by women continue to increase and are now 7.912 billion EUR and 3.512 billion EUR respectively.

In what follows, we show the detailed breakdown of full-time employees, female and male, across the various categories of gross monthly wages. What stands out immediately is that women are over-represented in those categories under 2500 EUR.

Graph 12 : The breakdown of women and men across the categories of gross monthly wages for full-time employees in NACE sectors C-K and in companies with at least 10 employees (2007)



Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

Table 13 : The breakdown of women and men across the categories of gross monthly wages for full-time employees in NACE sectors C-K and in companies with at least 10 employees (2006 and 2007)

	2007		2006	
	Women	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**
- 1.249,99	0,3%	0,1%	0,4%	0,2%
1.250-1.499,99	3,6%	1,2%	5,3%	1,7%
1.500-1.749,99	11,2%	4,3%	15,0%	6,3%
1.750-1.999,99	16,5%	10,1%	17,7%	12,4%
2.000-2.249,99	16,6%	15,1%	14,3%	16,7%
2.250-2.499,99	12,3%	17,2%	10,6%	15,4%
2.500-2.749,99	9,2%	13,0%	9,0%	10,3%
2.750-2.999,99	7,3%	8,6%	6,8%	7,1%
3.000-3.249,99	5,6%	6,2%	5,1%	6,0%
3.250-3.499,99	4,1%	4,8%	3,4%	4,4%
3.500-3.749,99	2,9%	3,7%	2,9%	3,8%
3.750-3.999,99	2,2%	2,8%	2,0%	2,7%
4.000-4.249,99	1,7%	2,3%	1,8%	2,3%
4.250-4.499,99	1,5%	1,8%	1,3%	1,8%
4.500-4.749,99	0,9%	1,5%	0,9%	1,6%
4.750-4.999,99	0,7%	1,2%	0,7%	1,2%
5.000-5.249,99	0,6%	1,0%	0,6%	0,9%
5.250-5.499,99	0,5%	0,8%	0,5%	0,8%
5.500-5.749,99	0,3%	0,7%	0,3%	0,7%
5.750-5.999,99	0,5%	0,5%	0,3%	0,6%
6.000-6.249,99	0,2%	0,4%	0,2%	0,4%
6.250-6.499,99	0,2%	0,4%	0,2%	0,4%
6.500-6.749,99	0,2%	0,3%	0,2%	0,3%
6.750-6.999,99	0,2%	0,3%	0,1%	0,3%
7.000 et +	0,8%	1,7%	0,8%	1,8%

Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The data relating to 2007 includes companies with at least 10 employees in NACE sectors C to K, i.e. industry and commerce. To make comparisons with 2006 possible, when the sectors were expanded to education, healthcare and the socio-cultural sector, we have limited the data for 2006 to sectors C to K in the tables above.

In 2007, in comparison with 2006, we can see a reduction in the percentage of women with gross monthly wages of less than 2,000 EUR. In 2006, this was the case for 4 women out of 10, whereas in 2007 only 3 out of 10 earned a maximum of 2,000 EUR per month. As in 2006, 1 in 2 women in 2007 earned less than 2,250 EUR gross per month. Whereas in 2006 4 out of 10 men earned this same amount, it was only 3 men out of 10 in 2007. For wages of 2,250 EUR gross per month and upwards, in 2007 the percentages of women per category were smaller than for men, whereas this inversion in the proportions was already visible in 2006 from gross monthly wages of 2,000 EUR upwards. In the higher pay scales, the difference was bigger in 2007, as was the case in 2006. Only 3% of women earned more than 5,000 EUR gross per month, compared with 6% of men. Hence the situation of women in the higher pay scales does not improve.

II. Inequality factors

Pay differences are highly conditioned by the position of men and women on the labour market. The EU indicator set scrutinises the effect of part-time work, age and education differences, and the horizontal segregation on the labour market. To these, we have also added vertical segregation, marital status, household composition and nationality/origin. We also relate the pay gap between women and men with the overall differences between high and low wages within sectors.

INDICATOR 3 : ratio for part-time work

Part-time working has increased considerably for both women and men over past decades. But that does not take away the fact that there continues to be a major difference; in 2007, 42.6% of female wage earners worked part-time, compared with only 7.8% for males. This means that when we talk about part-time work, it is mainly women who are involved. More than four-fifths of part-time workers are women.

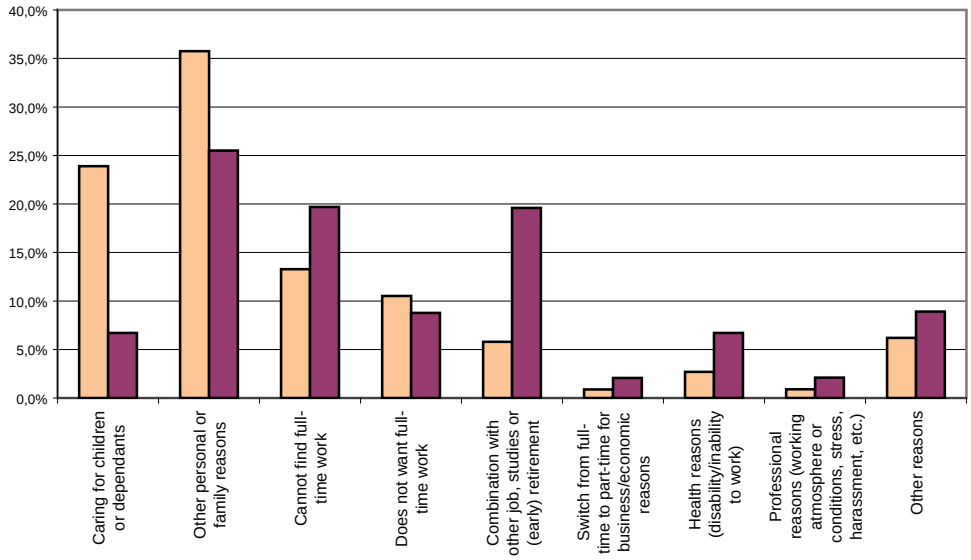
In addition to a difference in numbers, there is also a major difference in the reasons why people work part-time. The Labour Force Survey conducted by the Directorate-General Statistics and Economic Information specifically enquired about these reasons. 13.3% of women working part-time and 19.7% of men working part-time stated they were unable to find a full-time job. For almost 60% of women working part-time, striking the right balanced between work and home life is the main reason for working part-time. The figure for men is one-third. Caring for children or other dependants was mentioned far more often by women than by men. Combining another job, studies or (early) retirement were the main reasons mentioned by almost one in five male part-time workers. For women, this was only one in twenty. Only 10.5% of female and 8.8% of male part-time workers did not want to have a full-time job.

Table 14 : Breakdown of female and male part-time wage earners, by reason for working part-time (2007)

	Women	Men
Caring for children or dependants	**23,9%**	**6,7%**
- lack of or inability to use suitable childcare	10,3%	1,7%
- lack of or inability to use suitable daycare for other dependants	0,8%	0,4%
- lack of or inability to use suitable childcare AND daycare for other dependants	0,6%	0,3%
- other reasons	12,2%	4,4%
Other personal or family reasons	**35,8%**	**25,5%**
Cannot find full-time work	**13,3%**	**19,7%**
Does not want full-time work	**10,5%**	**8,8%**
Combination with other job, studies or (early) retirement	**5,8%**	**19,6%**
- Other (part-time) job supplements the main activity	2,4%	6,8%
- Combination with studies	1,9%	7,1%
- (Early) retirement and so may only work part-time	1,5%	5,6%
Switch from full-time to part-time for business/economic reasons	**0,9%**	**2,1%**
Health reasons (disability/inability to work)	**2,7%**	**6,7%**
Professional reasons (working atmosphere or conditions, stress, harassment, etc.)	**0,9%**	**2,1%**
Other reasons	**6,2%**	**8,9%**
Total	**100,0%**	**100,0%**

Source : FPS Economy, Directorate-General Statistics and Economic Information, Labour Force Survey

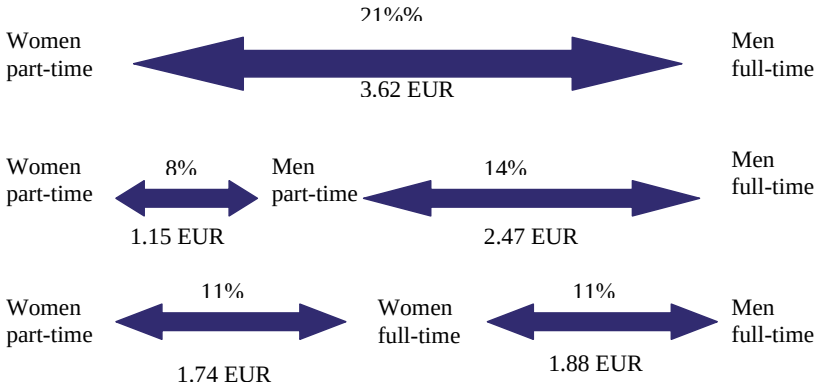
Graph 13 : Breakdown of female and male part-time wage earners, by reason for working part-time (2007)



Source : DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

In indicator 1 we have already discussed the size of the impact that working part-time has on the monthly and annual wages of women and men. The official indicator for part-time work is the pay gap in hourly wages between women and men working part-time. Because men working part-time also have to deal with an appreciable difference in wages, we have expanded the comparison here to the hourly wages of women and men working full-time.

Graph 14 : Pay gap based on gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time wage earners (2007)



Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

A woman working part-time earns 3.62 EUR less per hour on average than a full-time working man. That represents a pay gap of 21%. This wide gap can be broken down further in two ways: one, by using part-time working men as the comparison point and, two, by using full-time working women. In relation to part-time working men, the difference in wages is still 1.15 EUR, or a gap of 8%. The pay gap between part-time and full-time working men is 14%. Full-time working women earn 1.74 EUR per hour more on average than part-time working women, but 1.88 EUR less than a full-time working man.

Table 15 : Average gross monthly wages of part-time and full-time employees (in EUR) and the pay gap (2007)

	Part-time employees	Full-time employees
Women	1.441	2.577
Men	1.749	2.918
Pay gap	18%	12%

Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

Men working part-time on average work more hours than women working part-time. In this way, the pay gap calculated based on monthly wages is a good deal greater than the pay gap based on hourly wages. For industry and market services, there is a pay gap of 18% in monthly wages for part-time workers.

The degree of part-time working differs sharply according to the sector of employment. These figures are shown in table 16 in Indicator 5.

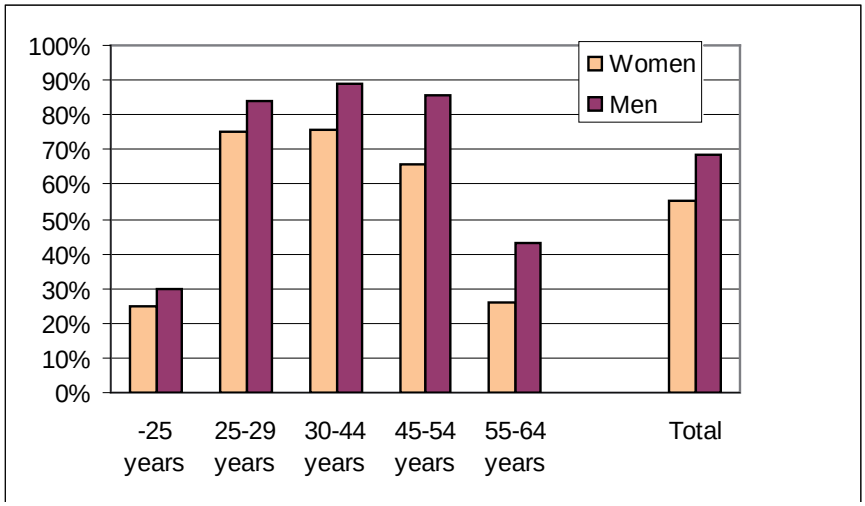
INDICATOR 4 : ratio by age and level of education

Two factors that have a major influence on pay – and hence also the pay gap – are age and level of education.

4.1. The pay gap by age

To be able to analyse the pay gap by age category, we will first look at how the employment rate by age changed in 2007.

Graph 15 : Employment rate by age category (2007)

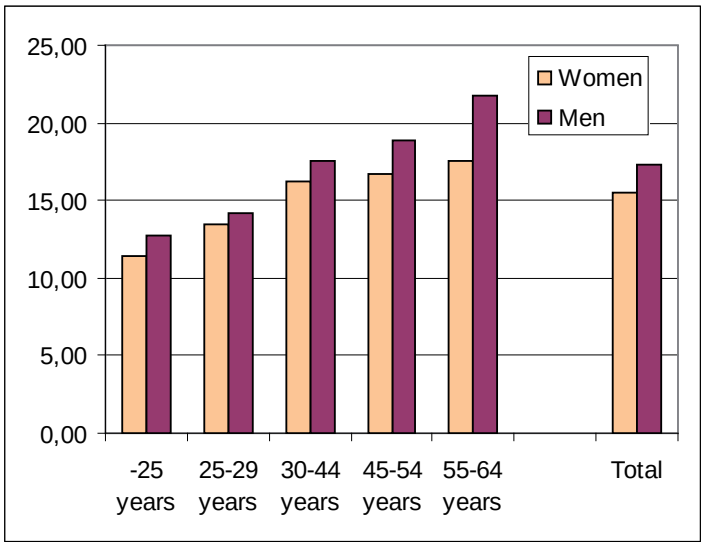


Source : DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

A first observation is that the employment rate rose in 2007 compared with 2006, except for men in the youngest age category. Of course account has to be taken of the fact that young people under the age of 25 are often still studying. We also note that the employment rate for men and women changes in a reasonably even manner with age, although the employment rate for women is still lower than for men. Employment levels rise until the age of 45 and then begin to fall, a fact that is visibly faster among women than with men. For the age categories 45-54 and 55-64, the employment rate compared with the previous year rose faster for women than for men. Nevertheless, only 26% of women aged 55 to 64 are still active on the labour market, compared with 43% of men of the same age.

In what follows, we will look at the average gross hourly wages of full-time working men and women of the same age category in industry and commerce.

Graph 16 : Average gross hourly wages (in EUR), by age category of full-time working men and women in NACE sectors C-K (2007)



Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

As we might have expected, wages rise with age for both women and men. The pay gap for young people under 25 is relatively high at 11%. After 25, wages rise faster for men than for women and the pay gap rises from 5% for 25 to 29-year-olds to 8% for 30 to 44-year-olds and 11% for 45 to 54-year-olds, culminating at 19% for the category of 55 to 64-year-olds. This rise in the pay gap can be explained by the differing career structures of men and women. Women interrupt their career more frequently and find it less easy to be considered for promotion. In general, they also often receive fewer opportunities to go on training courses than men.

Things develop differently for part-time workers.

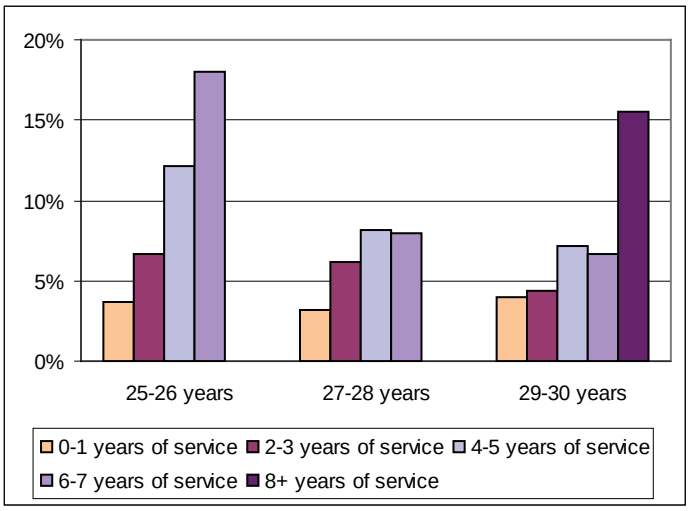
Graph 17 : Average gross hourly wages (in EUR), by age category for part-time working men and women in NACE sectors C-K (2007)

Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

Although the wages of part-time working men also continue to rise with age, those of part-time working women tend to stabilise after the age of 30. The pay gap also stays steady at 7% for all age categories under 45. For 45 to 54-year-olds (14%) it doubles, rising even further to 20% for 55 to 64-year-olds.

To assess whether the pay gap disappears with the influx of new generations of employees, we will examine how pay differences evolve with the number of years of work experience in the age category for 25 to 30. However, in view of the fact that the sample is relatively limited, we should assess our conclusions with caution.

Graph 18 : Pay gap by age and seniority among 25 to 30-year-olds in NACE sectors C-K (2007)



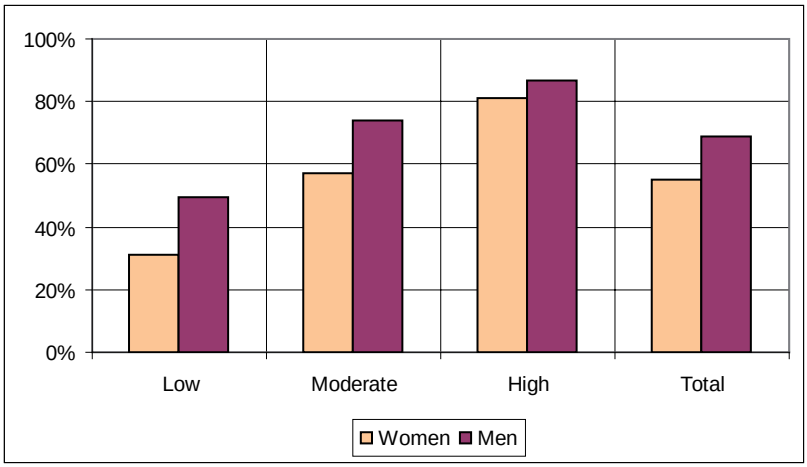
Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

For young employees aged 25-26, the pay gap widens in line with seniority. This is not as clear for 27 to 28-year-olds and 29 to 30-year-olds. When we compare the pay gap by age with equal years of service, we see a movement in the other direction. For example, it appears that among 25 to 26-year-olds with 4 to 5 years of service, the pay gap is 12.2%, while for 27 to 28-year-olds with the same number of years of service, it is 8.2% and 7.2% for 29 to 30-year-olds. Hence the seniority effect appears to decrease with age.

4.2 The pay gap by level of education

The higher the qualifications, the higher the pay. Although this does not apply to each individual employee in every situation, it is a pattern that comes strongly to the fore when we examine average figures across the economy as a whole. There are also significant differences in labour market participation that need to be taken into account. As the level of education rises, so does the employment rate. However, this rise is more accentuated among women. There is an employment level of 31.1% among women with a low level of education, while the figure is 80.9% among women educated to a high level. That is a difference of 49.8 percentage points. With men, the difference is only 37.2 percentage points, ranging from 49.6% to 86.8%. The difference in the employment rate between men and women therefore reduces as they become more highly educated.

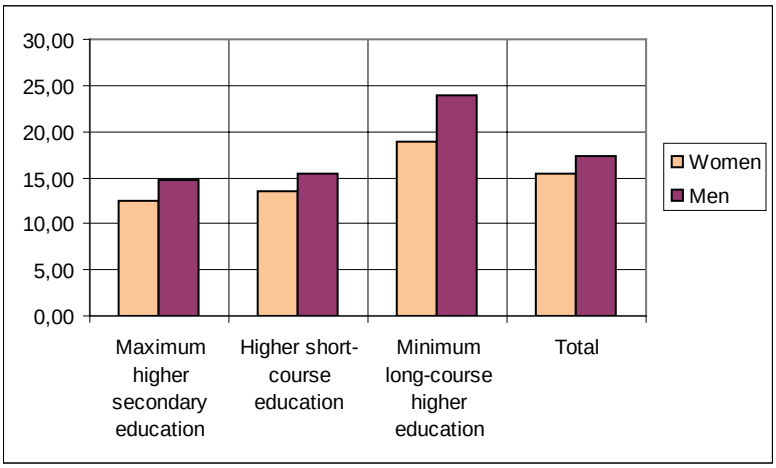
Graph 19 : Employment rate by level of education (2007)



Source : DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

The pay gap also differs depending on whether we are at a different level of education. For full-time employees, the pay gap is at its widest among higher educated individuals. The difference is much smaller in the middle group.

Graph 20 : Average gross hourly wages (in EUR) for full-time working men and women, by level of education (2007)



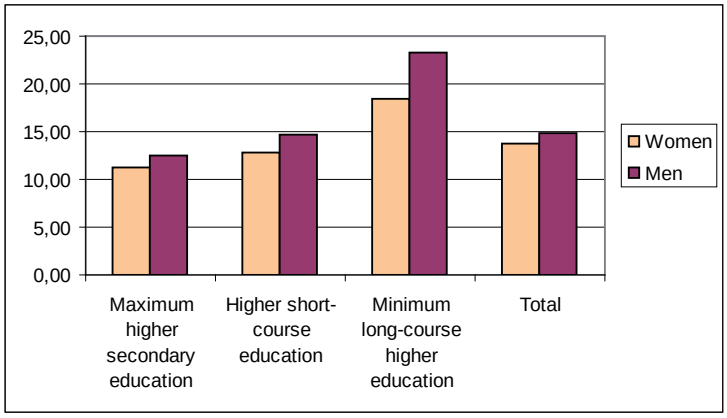
Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The lower pay gap among individuals with a low level of education and the middle group can be explained in part by labour market participation. Graph 19 shows that women with a low level of education offer themselves far less on the labour market. This usually applies within this group to the least well educated women. As a result, the average wages of women in this group is artificially increased. For women who only have the prospect of earning a very low wage – whether in a part-time job with difficult hours, such as in the retail or cleaning sector – working outside the house is often not an attractive option.

In the category of individuals who have completed long-course higher education, career structure plays a greater role and individual pay negotiations will therefore also be more important for this group. In addition, women are less likely to set a high salary as a priority and give more preference to flexible working hours, for example.

Yet we should also note that behind these rather broad categories of education levels, there are major differences in the type of study courses completed. These different types of study are not always given the same value. For example, a diploma in exact sciences is often given a higher value on the labour market than a diploma in human sciences. So, if this latter type of course is selected more by women, it will have an effect on the pay gap.

Graph 21 : Average gross hourly wages (in EUR) for part-time working men and women, by level of education (2007)



Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

Graph 21 shows a similar pattern for people who work part-time. For individuals with short-course and long-course higher education, the pay gap among full-time and part-time employees is the same. For individuals with a lower level of education, the pay gap among full-time employees is 16%, while it is only 10% for part-time employees.

INDICATOR 5 : segregation on the labour market

A large part of the pay differences between women and men can be attributed to segregation on the labour market. In other words, unequal pay is often a question of unequal work: in some sectors higher wages are paid than in others, while some professions earn more, managers earn more than executive staff and in general, pay is higher in larger companies. Women are often over-represented in jobs where the pickings are not so good. This is by no means a coincidence and has grown to become that way historically. Women's work is stereotypically associated with 'soft' and economically less important work. In principle, there are two possible ways of approaching this section of the pay gap: by breaking through segregation on the one hand, and valuing – and hence paying – typical 'female' occupations better.

As in previous years, we have calculated the differences in pay by sector, by joint committee and by profession, as well as using the gender ratios and part-time levels of employment in the sectors, the under-representation of women in managerial positions and the pay gap as a whole, defined as the difference between low and high pay. Segregation on the labour market is also analysed by the size of companies.
Nous analyserons en outre la ségrégation sur le marché du travail sur base de la taille des entreprises.

A number of the sectors in which many women are employed, such as education, healthcare and the socio-cultural sector, are only included in the Structure of Earnings Survey every four years. In our 2009 report, we were able to present the data about these sectors. This will again be the case in the 2013 report. However, the data from the Federal Planning Bureau does allow for a distinction to be made between the private sector and government. This distinction has already been discussed in Indicator 1.

The large number of categories lend themselves less well for displaying the data in the form of a graph. Most of the information is assembled in a large summary table. The list of terms used (nomenclature) is attached in an annex.

5.1 Horizontal segregation: sectors

Differences between employment sectors play a major role in pay differences between women and men. There are a number of important factors involved here. There are differences in the level of average wages and the pay differences between women and men, as well as in the vertical segregation between the sectors. In other words in the concentration of women in lower-paid jobs, in the extent to which women and men work part-time and in the tension between high and low wages. When in a particular sector in general there is a greater difference between high and low wages, the gender pay gap also often tends to be greater.

The table below shows the average gross hourly wages of full-time working men and women and the pay gap in sectors C to K. In view of the fact that the number of employees is relatively low for some categories, sharp fluctuations have been observed over the years. Spikes can also be expected in those sectors where employment has not been stable over the years. To accommodate these fluctuations, we have included the average pay differences for 2002 to 2007 in the table. We also indicate the number of full-time employees for each sector, the percentage of women in all employees and in managerial positions, and the percentage of female and male employees who work part-time in the sector. The overall pay gap is also shown, calculated as the difference between the 5th and 85th pay percentile and the average of these pay differences from 2002 to 2007. The data shown in the table is ranked according to the size of the pay gap.

Table 16 : Summary of sectors C-K of the NACE nomenclature according to the extent of the pay gap

Including the average gross hourly wages of full-time working women and men (in EUR); the pay gap (2007); the average pay gap (2002-2007); the number of full-time employees in the sector; the number of women in the sector and in managerial professions; the part-time employment rate of women and men; the overall pay gap and the gap between the 5th and 85th pay percentile; and the average overall pay gap (2002-2007).

NACE	Sector	Pay women	Pay Men	Gender pay gap 2007	Average gender pay gap 2002-2007	Number of employees	Number of women	Number of women in managerial professions	Part-time employment rate – women	Part-time employment rate – men	Overall pay gap	Average overall pay gap 2002-2007
62	Aviation	16,10	24,93	**35%**	35%	2.411	24,19%	2,98%	29,31%	8,07%	70,76%	66,60
40	Production and distribution of electricity, gas, steam and hot water	16,51	23,89	**31%**	36%	13.389	21,39%	1,92%	20,48%	4,04%	66,15%	65,56
18	Manufacture of clothing and fur industry	13,14	18,37	**28%**	34%	3.385	79,44%	0,00%	30,66%	24,72%	49,54%	47,42
30	Manufacture of office machines and computers	12,29	16,86	**27%**	29%	541	23,81%	0,00%	58,46%	4,43%	56,46%	52,37
67	Auxiliary companies working in connection with financial institutions	18,39	24,80	**26%**	28%	7.900	46,43%	6,42%	29,63%	3,13%	62,17%	63,61
61	Transport across water	15,17	19,58	**23%**	23%	609	37,67%	2,00%	6,45%	8,27%	60,87%	55,99
65	Financial institutions	19,64	25,29	**22%**	23%	47.100	38,63%	6,57%	40,87%	8,33%	58,93%	58,12

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NACE	Sector	Pay women	Pay Men	Gender pay gap 2007	Average gender pay gap 2002-2007	Number of employees	Number of women	Number of women in managerial professions	Part-time employment rate – women	Part-time employment rate – men	Overall pay gap	Average overall pay gap 2002-2007
32	Manufacture of audio, video and telecommunications equipment	16,67	21,40	**22%**	26%	10.103	21,86%	3,25%	29,20%	6,61%	57,47%	59,91
16	Manufacture of tobacco products	14,75	18,77	**21%**	23%	1.233	48,36%	0,00%	47,77%	14,50%	49,98%	46,85
33	Manufacture of medical equipment for precision and optical instruments and watches/clocks	14,14	17,87	**21%**	22%	5.283	24,25%	0,57%	36,73%	6,65%	56,74%	54,32
19	Leather industry and manufacture of shoes	13,13	16,22	**19%**	20%	1.136	41,14%	0,23%	28,78%	4,05%	54,83%	55,01
31	Manufacture of electrical machines and equipment	14,46	17,72	**18%**	19%	15.249	21,68%	1,02%	29,25%	12,00%	49,84%	50,37
23	Manufacture of cokes, refined crude oil products and nuclear fuels	21,40	26,20	**18%**	18%	4.393	17,36%	4,79%	20,75%	7,59%	60,69%	59,14
74	Other business services	15,53	19,01	**18%**	20%	141.692	38,11%	2,75%	47,60%	11,82%	59,34%	59,25
17	Manufacture of textiles	12,57	15,34	**18%**	20%	23.126	35,77%	0,17%	25,86%	12,55%	43,43%	41,44
66	Insurance	19,45	23,62	**18%**	18%	18.775	45,02%	7,49%	28,45%	5,99%	59,26%	56,14
21	Paper and cardboard industry	14,50	17,47	**17%**	18%	12.007	17,01%	0,20%	21,45%	8,51%	48,56%	49,11
73	Research and development	18,10	21,66	**16%**	18%	12.000	41,77%	3,24%	18,72%	4,96%	63,59%	65,40
63	Transport support businesses	14,63	17,48	**16%**	17%	39.212	32,40%	1,13%	24,44%	17,65%	50,84%	52,38

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NACE	Sector	Pay women	Pay Men	Gender pay gap 2007	Average gender pay gap 2002-2007	Number of employees	Number of women	Number of women in managerial professions	Part-time employ-ment rate – women	Part-time employment rate – men	Overall pay gap	Average overall pay gap 2002-2007
24	Chemicals industry	18,44	21,96	**16%**	18%	53.969	23,87%	3,36%	29,87%	13,09%	57,17%	57,67
52	Retail, excluding cars and motorcycles; repair of consumer items	12,30	14,26	**14%**	14%	77.587	43,52%	2,44%	56,80%	21,31%	48,51%	47,59
72	IT and related activities	18,49	21,42	**14%**	14%	29.281	20,54%	3,51%	39,59%	3,66%	59,47%	59,59
22	Publishers, printers and reproduction of recorded media	15,89	18,40	**14%**	15%	20.177	29,44%	2,60%	30,16%	13,03%	50,56%	51,34
55	Hotels and restaurants	11,25	12,97	**13%**	10%	21.716	38,29%	3,26%	65,31%	41,09%	38,61%	37,81
25	Rubber and plastics industry	14,60	16,83	**13%**	14%	20.052	17,28%	1,98%	26,62%	13,53%	48,51%	49,69
15	Manufacture of food and drink	13,67	15,73	**13%**	15%	56.475	24,71%	3,68%	34,13%	12,36%	45,54%	45,77
37	Recovery and recyclable waste	11,74	13,30	**12%**	12%	1.945	12,00%	5,85%	26,38%	6,01%	40,26%	42,58
51	Wholesale and trading intermediaries, excluding the trade in cars and motorcycles	16,06	18,16	**12%**	13%	99.708	27,46%	5,00%	29,38%	7,11%	58,05%	58,44
70	Transport and trade in immoveable goods	15,58	17,53	**11%**	13%	5.518	37,07%	5,97%	33,73%	12,22%	56,61%	58,31

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NACE	Sector	Pay women	Pay Men	Gender pay gap 2007	Average gender pay gap 2002-2007	Number of employees	Number of women	Number of women in managerial professions	Part-time employ-ment rate – women	Part-time employment rate – men	Overall pay gap	Average overall pay gap 2002-2007
64	Post and telecom-munications	15,51	17,33	**11%**	10%	49.231	24,22%	6,30%	35,53%	15,15%	52,65%	51,15
26	Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products	14,57	16,07	**9%**	9%	25.053	8,72%	4,61%	25,91%	9,89%	47,42%	46,93
50	Sale and repair of cars and motorcycles; retail or motor fuels	14,76	15,90	**7%**	7%	30.511	15,18%	1,75%	31,83%	8,04%	49,67%	47,22
41	Extraction, purification and distribution of pure water	16,55	17,82	**7%**	5%	3.137	19,74%	0,00%	14,07%	2,36%	52,44%	47,34
36	Manufacture of furniture; other industry	12,55	13,42	**6%**	9%	13.509	23,48%	0,31%	34,85%	5,32%	36,06%	35,71
34	Manufacture and assembly of cars, trailers and semi-trailers	15,83	16,81	**6%**	10%	35.647	10,88%	3,23%	20,89%	5,86%	39,02%	41,10
35	Manufacture of other means of transport	16,40	17,34	**5%**	9%	13.112	4,99%	11,39%	14,64%	13,53%	43,28%	45,35
29	Manufacture of machines, apparatus and instruments	15,60	16,42	**5%**	8%	32.433	10,14%	1,53%	19,80%	7,80%	43,29%	44,99
27	Metallurgy	17,10	17,77	**4%**	6%	29.447	4,67%	7,51%	22,05%	8,25%	49,72%	50,67
71	Hire without ope-rating staff	15,50	15,99	**3%**	3%	4.235	27,57%	3,23%	23,10%	7,14%	56,89%	52,97

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NACE	Sector	Pay women	Pay Men	Gender pay gap 2007	Average gender pay gap 2002-2007	Number of employees	Number of women	Number of women in managerial professions	Part-time employ-ment rate – women	Part-time employment rate – men	Overall pay gap	Average overall pay gap 2002-2007
28	Manufacture of products made from metal	14,49	14,94	3%	5%	46.171	8,26%	2,11%	33,58%	6,24%	40,35%	41,37
45	Building industry	14,27	14,37	1%	4%	111.118	4,70%	2,24%	38,87%	7,26%	34,42%	34,33
20	Timber industry and manufacture of items made from wood, cork, reeds and wickerwork	13,29	13,14	-1%	1%	8.119	14,01%	0,09%	31,78%	15,07%	33,11%	34,21
60	Transport over land	14,51	14,24	-2%	-2%	77.836	9,44%	2,96%	39,65%	16,85%	47,51%	48,73
14	Other extraction of minerals	17,04	16,17	-5%	-3%	2.496	7,81%	0,00%	20,83%	16,84%	43,51%	45,97

Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

In contrast with previous years, the biggest pay gap is to be found in the aviation sector. But the rest of the top 5 is made up of the same sectors as last year: the gas and electricity sector, the manufacture of clothing and fur, manufacturers of office machines and computers, and auxiliary companies working for financial institutions. The smallest pay gaps are in the sectors of metal processing, the timber industry and the manufacture of items from wood, cork, reed and wickerwork, the building industry, road transport and other extraction of minerals. These are sectors where few women work.

As in the previous report, the next table provides an overview by joint committee of the pay gap in 2007 and the average from 2002 to 2007. Compared with the figures for 2006, there has been very little change in the average pay gaps.

Table 17 : Average gross monthly wages (in EUR) (2007), the pay gap (2007) and the average pay gap (2002-2007) by joint committee

JRC	Blue-collar workers	Pay – women	Pay – men	Gender pay gap 2007	Average gender pay gap
100	Auxiliary JC for blue-collar workers	2.385	2.804	15	16
109	Garment and clothing industry	1.964	2.713	28	31
111	Metal, machine and electrical construction	2.479	2.802	12	13
112	Garage trade	2.444	2.584	5	5
115	Glass industry	2.327	2.735	15	16
116	Chemicals industry	2.834	3.407	17	18
117	Petroleum industry and trade	3.332	4.204	21	22
118	Food industry	2.237	2.686	17	16
119	Trade in foodstuffs	2.060	2.289	10	11
120	Textile industry and knitwear	2.086	2.562	19	19
121	Cleaning	2.028	2.217	9	10
124	The building industry	2.343	2.474	5	6
126	Soft furnishings and woodworking	2.061	2.235	8	9
130	Printing, graphic arts and daily newspapers	2.504	2.885	13	15
136	Paper and cardboard processing	2.262	2.675	15	16
140	Transport and logistics	2.315	2.299	-1	1

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149	Sectors related to metal, machine and electrical construction	2.269	2.519	10	10
149.04	Joint representation sub-committee for the metal trade	2.208	2.735	19	19
302	Hotel industry	1.860	2.019	8	9
306	Insurance	3.118	3.631	14	15
310	Banks	3.161	3.934	20	21
311	Large retail businesses	2.049	2.230	8	8

CP	White-collar employees	Pay – women	Pay – men	Gender pay gap 2007	Average gender pay gap
200	Auxiliary JC for white-collar employees	2.716	3.375	20	21
201	Independent retail	1.781	2.105	15	16
202	Employees in food retailing	1.955	2.297	15	16
207	Employees in the chemical industry	2.968	3.560	17	18
209	Employees in metal fabrication industry	2.562	2.882	11	12
210	Employees in the steel industry	3.193	3.502	9	9
211	Employees in the petroleum industry and trade	3.423	4.479	24	24
214	Employees in textile industry and knitwear	2.091	2.567	19	19
215	Employees in the garment and clothing industry	2.018	2.874	30	31
218	Auxiliary national JRC for white-collar employees	2.593	2.828	8	10

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220	Employees in the food industry	2.380	2.766	14	15
221	Employees in paper industry	2.646	3.023	12	13
222	Employees in paper and cardboard processing	2.241	2.653	16	17
226	Employees in international trade, transport and logistics	2.418	2.515	4	5
302	Hotel industry	1.905	2.108	10	11
306	Insurance	3.074	3.617	15	17
307	Broking and insurance agencies	2.747	3.946	30	32
310	Banks	3.214	4.145	22	23
311	Large retail businesses	2.086	2.252	7	7
315.02	Joint representation sub-committee for airlines	2.782	3.671	24	27

Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

5.2 Horizontal segregation: professions

Men and women are not only working more frequently in particular sectors, they also concentrate more often on certain trades and professions. The ISCO nomenclature is used in the Structure of Earnings Survey, limited here to two figures (see attachment). Some categories are more heterogeneous than others. This again is about people who are employed full-time in industry and market services.

The table on the pages that follow shows the average gross hourly wages of women and men, the difference in pay and the average pay gap for 2002 to 2007, the gender breakdown and the rate of part-time employment. What is striking is that there are significant pay differences between the categories of occupations. The pay gap is largest among CEOs and board members at 34%. There is a dip in the figures for directors and senior management, with the pay gap 26% in 1999. Between 2000 and 2004, the gap remained above 20%, but it fell to a steady 14% for 2005, 2006 and 2007.

Table 18 : Summary of the occupational categories in the ISCO nomenclature

With the average gross hourly wages of full-time male and female workers (in EUR); the pay difference (in EUR); the average pay gap (2000-2007); the number of women and men and the share of women working full-time in the occupational category (2007); and the part-time employment rate of women and men.

ISCO	Occupations	Pay – women	Pay – men	Pay gap	Average pay gap 2002-2007	Share of women	Part-time employment rate – women	Part-time employment rate – men
12	CEOs and board members	30,05	35,03	14	18	18,26%	17,84%	4,29%
13	Directors and managers	21,40	32,59	34	32	21,56%	10,52%	5,04%
21	Physicists, mathematicians, engineers and scientific professions	20,73	23,54	12	12	14,24%	21,02%	3,29%
24	Other professionals (incl. lawyers, social scientists, artists)	20,76	26,27	21	21	32,64%	19,74%	4,18%
31	Technicians in physics and technological disciplines	16,60	18,90	12	14	11,76%	21,65%	6,13%
32	Technicians in organic and health sciences	16,35	17,87	9	12	51,75%	25,12%	4,66%
34	Other associate professionals	17,15	20,06	15	16	42,33%	28,36%	5,86%
41	Secretaries, accountants and logistics employees	15,19	17,02	11	11	44,43%	31,59%	10,48%
42	Customer service employees and cashiers	13,46	15,41	13	13	55,03%	56,90%	21,51%
51	Supervisory and surveillance staff	11,77	13,89	15	16	26,72%	67,38%	32,37%
52	Models, salespersons and demonstrators	11,81	14,67	19	23	40,35%	52,67%	14,39%

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ISCO	Occupations	Pay – women	Pay – men	Pay gap	Average pay gap 2002-2007	Share of women	Part-time employment rate – women	Part-time employment rate – men
71	Building workers	13,04	13,92	6	9	1,31%	39,50%	7,64%
72	Metal workers and mechanics	12,78	14,78	14	13	3,14%	33,51%	9,62%
73	Craftsmen	12,13	14,74	18	18	26,40%	26,44%	15,26%
74	Other workers	11,45	13,13	13	15	24,06%	36,81%	15,85%
81	Assembly operators	12,60	16,05	21	23	8,30%	45,62%	12,96%
82	Operators of industrial installations	12,55	15,18	17	19	17,41%	23,65%	10,58%
83	Operators of transport and mobile equipment	12,89	13,42	4	4	5,04%	27,81%	15,34%
91	Street traders, cleaning staff, concierges and similar	11,19	12,72	12	14	50,09%	80,23%	35,46%
93	General workers in mining, construction, industry or transport	11,80	14,09	16	18	15,09%	37,40%	14,54%

Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

5.3 Vertical segregation

The under-representation of women in managerial positions can be seen in the summary table for the sectors (table 16). The share of women in the occupational categories of CEOs and board members (ISCO 12) and directors and senior managers (ISCO 13) is shown next to the share of women in the sector. Vertical segregation is always expressed as a relative shortage, i.e. in proportion to the presence of women in a sector. When the share of women in managerial positions corresponds to their share in the sector, it can be assumed that women have no specific obstacles to overcome on their way to the top.

There is a shortage of women at the top in almost all sectors. Out of the 44 sectors in industry and market services, 10 of them have fewer than 0.5% women in managerial positions. The glass ceiling is the thickest in the sector for manufacturing fur and clothing: while women make up almost 80% of employees, they are not represented at management level. There is also a similar 'concrete glass ceiling' in the sectors for tobacco production, leather processing and the textile industry. Other sectors with a high level of vertical segregation are companies assisting financial institutions and retail.

And those women who do succeed in breaking through the glass ceiling are then confronted with a major pay gap: 34% for directors and senior managers and 14% for CEOs and board members.

5.4 The size of the company

We know that the size of the company has an effect on employee pay and hence on the pay gap between women and men. The table below shows the average gross monthly wages of women and men and the resulting pay gap classified according to the size of companies with 10 employees or more in sectors C to K.

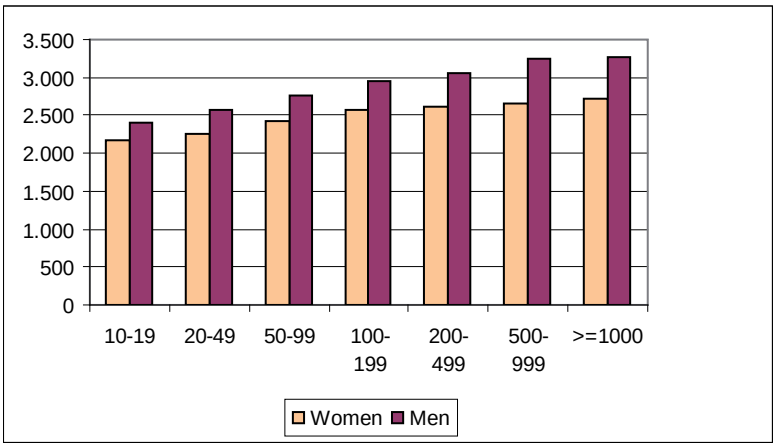
Table 19 : Average gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in EUR) and the pay gap by company size (according to the number of employees) (companies with at least 10 employees) (2007)

Taille de l'entreprise	Women	Men	Pay gap
10-19	2.182	2.401	9
20-49	2.265	2.572	12
50-99	2.434	2.768	12
100-199	2.574	2.956	13
200-499	2.609	3.058	15
500-999	2.667	3.241	18
>=1000	2.729	3.267	16

Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The average gross monthly wages of both women and men increase with the size of the company. The pay gap also rises with the number of employees in the company, with the exception of companies with at least 1,000 employees, where the pay gap is smaller than in companies with 500 to 999 employees.

Graph 22 : Average of gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in EUR) by company size (according to the number of employees) (companies with at least 10 employees) (2007)



Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

5.5 The gender pay gap in the light of the overall pay gap

Taken overall, the pay differences between women and men are in line with the differences in high and low pay in a particular sector. These differences are reflected by the overall pay gap, defined as the difference between high and low pay, expressed as a percentage of high pay. Low pay is defined on the basis of the 5th pay percentile of a sector. This is a pay level by which 5% of all employees in a sector earn less and 95% earn more. The yardstick for high pay is a pay level by which 85% of the employees in a sector earn less and 15% earn more.

To avoid major spikes in sectors that have few employees, we have calculated an average of the overall pay differences per sector for the data from 2002 to 2007. The data for each sector is shown in table 16.

Overall pay differences vary from 33% in the sector for the timber industry and the manufacture of items from wood, cork, reed and wickerwork, with the exception of furniture, to 71% in aviation. The two sectors with the largest overall pay gap also have the biggest gender pay gap. The two sectors with the smallest overall pay gap also have a very small gender pay gap.

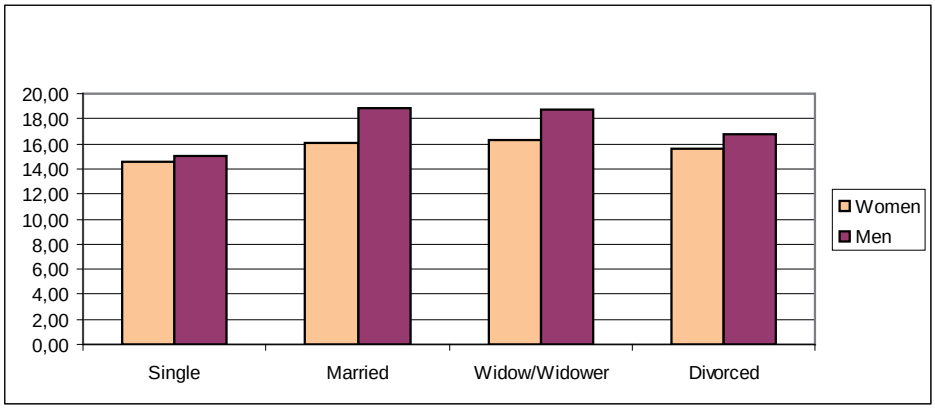
EXTRA INDICATOR : marital status and household composition[14]

Marital status and household composition can also have an effect on the pay of men and women and hence on the pay gap.

The graph below shows gross hourly wages by marital status. We can see that marital status has an effect on the pay of men in particular. This is especially the case for married men. While average gross hourly wage of single men is 15.07 EUR, this figure rises to 18.82 EUR for married men. This difference can be explained in part by age. On average, a married man is twelve years older than a single man, and graphs 16 and 17 show that age is positively correlated to pay. In other words, people earn more on average as they get older. This analysis also applies to widowers, who are twenty years older on average than single men. Although divorced men are on average thirteen years older than single men, this argument appears to apply to them to a lesser extent.[15] This indicates that age difference in the difference in pay is not fully explained. The graph also confirms the model of the man as the breadwinner. The stronger the family bond, the higher the pay. Men with a partner are assumed to be able to make themselves more available for their career.

With women, their average gross hourly wages vary less according to marital status. Their pay differences are less pronounced than with men. Married women earn more than single or divorced women. In 2007, they had a gross hourly wage of 16.04 EUR, compared with 14.59 EUR for single women and 15.59 EUR for divorced women. Once again age plays a role, but without explaining everything. On average, married women are ten years older than single women, while divorced women are thirteen years older on average. Probably the relationship with a partner plays a particular role for women in their decision whether or not to participate (full-time or part-time) on the labour market.

Graph 23 : Average gross hourly wages, by marital status (in EUR) (2007)



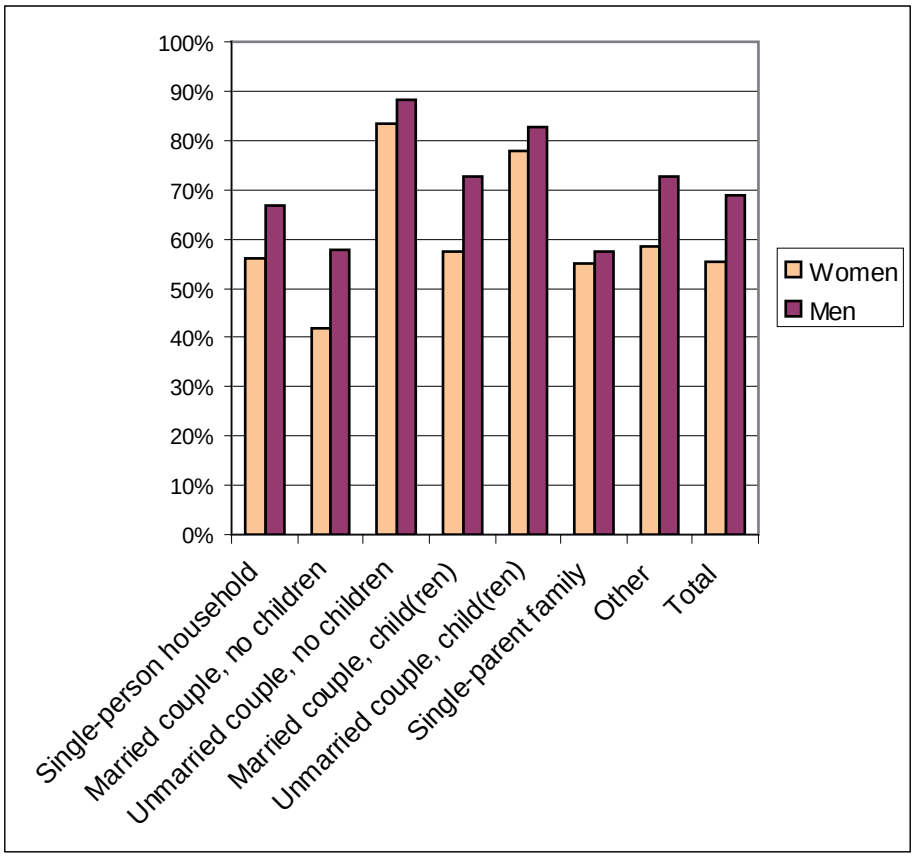
Sources : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey and the National Register

[14] For the sake of simplicity, we speak here of 'families'. In statistical terms, it is 'households': people who together form a living unit. In the vast majority of cases, both notions coincide.

[15] These figures are based on the Structure of Earnings Survey 2006 and apply to employees from sectors C to K.

The graph with the employment rate of women and men according to family type does indeed show that married women are often less active on the labour market than single women. This observation can also be made for men. The data confirms the role pattern to a large extent. The employment rate of men is higher across the board than women and the difference becomes more pronounced within marriage. Having children results in married couples participating more in the labour market, but participation falls with unmarried couples. An age-related effect is probably at work here: younger couples with no children and a higher labour market participation are probably not married as often as older couples whose children 'have left home' and hence are counted as couples with no children and who work less.

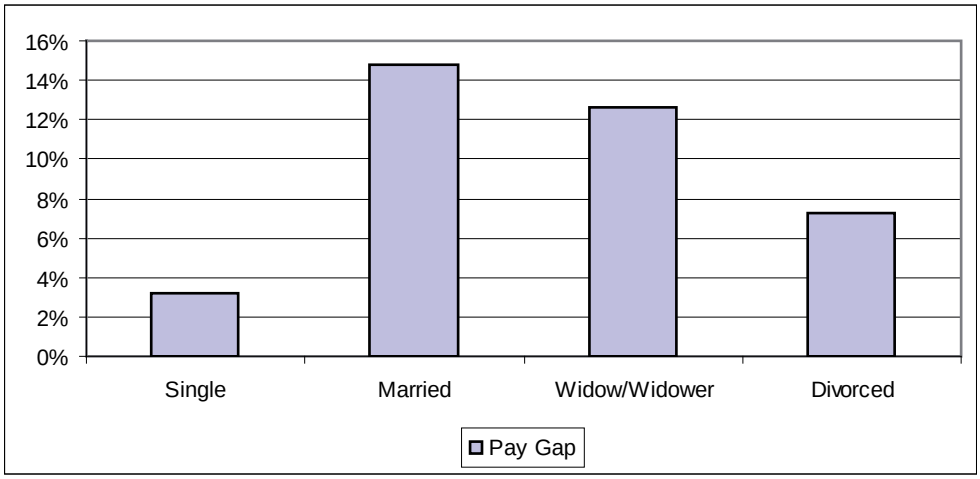
Graph 24 : Employment rate by family type (2007)



Source : DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

The varying effects of marital status of the pay of women and men mean that the pay difference is very large for married people (15%) and relatively limited for singles (3%). One of the reasons for the low pay difference among singles can be explained by the fact that singles are younger on average and tend to be at the beginning of their career, meaning that factors such as seniority, years of service and promotions are not yet playing a major role. Compared with the data from 2006, the pay gap for each category remained about the same in 2007.

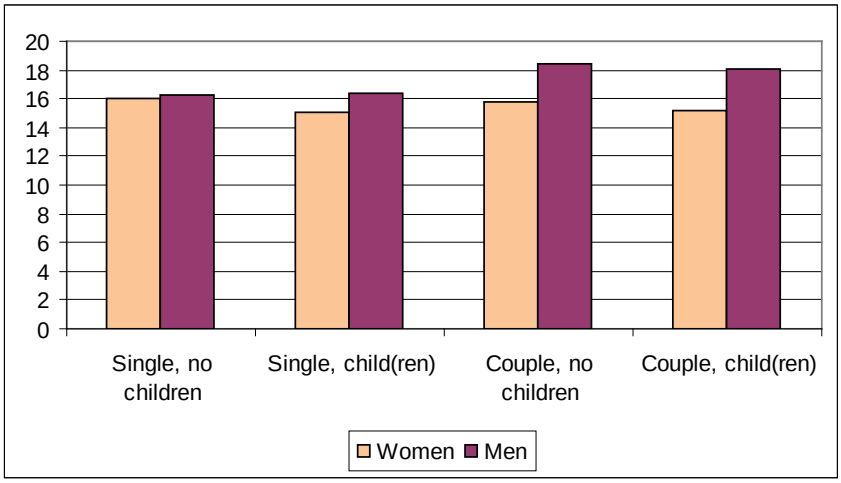
Graph 25 : Pay gap by marital status (2007)



Sources : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey and the National Register

When we look at pay by family composition, we see a more or less similar picture as with marital status. With men, having a partner plays a major role: men who have a partner earn more than single men. Once again the difference can be explained by the age effect. With women, the effect is much smaller: whether they have a partner or not, women's pay is barely affected. But having children does have an effect on women's pay, whereas the presence of children with men has almost no effect.

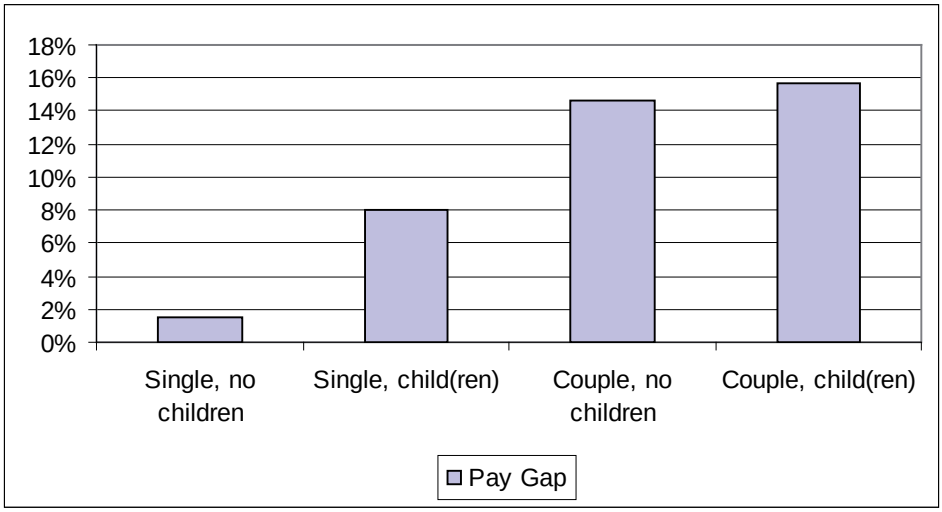
Graph 26 : Average gross hourly wages by family type (2007)



Sources : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey and the National Register

The impact of these various factors results in the end in the pay gap being small for singles without children, average for singles with children, and significantly higher for couples (with or without children). We should also note that the pay gap for the various categories shows little change with the data from 2006.

Graph 27 : Pay gap by family type (2007)



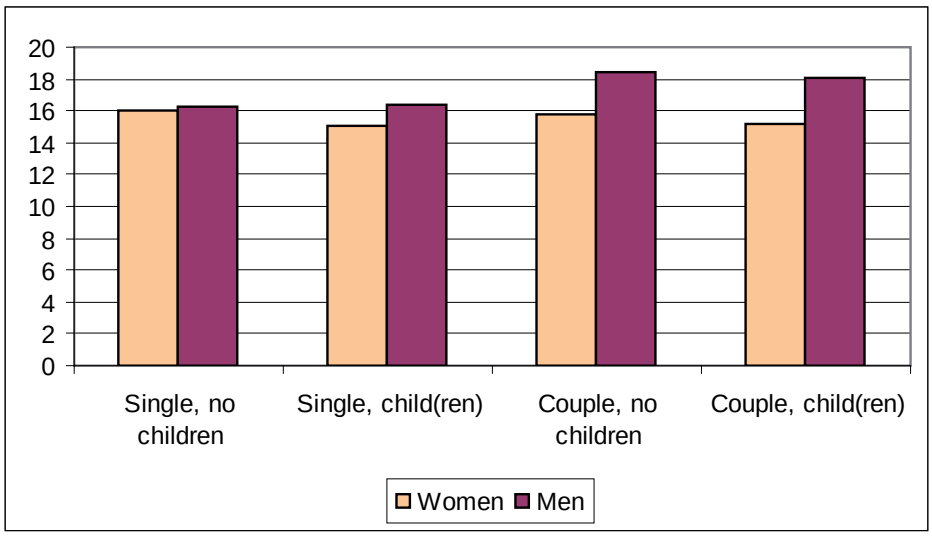
Sources : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey and the National Register

EXTRA INDICATOR: nationality

Gender inequality is often exacerbated by other social inequalities. As was the case last year, the survey into the structure of wages was linked to the nationality from the National Register. As a result, we are also able to show the pay gap by nationality in this report. Categories have also been created to prevent working with small and hence less reliable sample numbers. First, we show the differences in the employment rate by nationality. Before there can be any question of a pay gap, people have to be able to find work. An initial inequality on the labour market is that they cannot find work. Next we discuss the pay gap according to nationality and examine the nationalities of these women and men who lag behind in pay compared with the average gross hourly wages of Belgian women and men.

The distinction that people tend to make inconsiderately between nationals and foreigners is not so easy to include in statistics. It stems partly from the difference in nationality. Someone of Moroccan origin, with Belgian nationality, is usually considered as a 'foreigner', whereas a 'true-blue' Australian is probably not viewed either as being 'foreign', or as a 'native'. Whether people discriminate consciously or not, they do not base themselves on objective characteristics. This makes measuring all the more difficult. To overcome this obstacle in the graph and table below, a distinction has been made both of current nationality and country of birth. However, using the country of birth is again only a way of approaching the rather subjective distinction between foreigners and natives.

Graph 28 : Employment rate by current nationality and by country of birth (2007)



Source : DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

Table 20 : Employment rate by current nationality and by country of birth (2007)

	Belgian	non-Belgian, EU 27	non-EU 27
Women	57%	52%	25%
Men	69%	69%	52%
	Born in Belgium	**Born in an EU 27 country, not Belgium**	**Born in a non-EU 27 country**
Women	58%	50%	35%
Men	70%	66%	58%

Source : DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

When we look at the employment rate by nationality, we can see that for men there is no difference between Belgians and other EU citizens. In both cases the employment rate is 69%. However, there is a difference for women. While the employment rate for Belgian women is 57%, it is only 52% for women from other EU states. For people with a nationality outside the European Union, the employment rate for men falls to 52% and for women to 25%. This means that only half of men and a quarter of women with a nationality from outside the European Union and living in Belgium have a job here.

The employment rate by country of birth gives a somewhat different picture. For women and men born in Belgium, the employment rate is somewhat higher than for women and men with Belgian nationality. For people born in another EU member state, it is just a little lower again. However, being born in a non-EU country has a less negative effect on the rate of employment than having a nationality from outside the European Union. The employment rate of women in this category is 35% and 58% for men. The difference between country of birth and current nationality of course works in two directions. People of foreign origin with Belgian nationality are in the first classification with 'Belgians' and in the second category of 'born in a non-EU country'. We can probably deduce from this that foreigners with Belgian nationality are viewed relatively better on the labour market than foreigners with a non-European nationality, but less well than 'natives'.

The negative impact of having a foreign nationality or a different country of birth on a person's chances of finding work is greater across the board for women than for men. For each category, the disadvantage in relation to Belgian women or women born in Belgium is at least twice as big as the disadvantage for men. Hence the gender gap is made significantly bigger by the 'ethnic gap'. As a result, the biggest difference between women and men in the employment rate is to be found in the category of non-EU citizens. Women with a non-EU nationality have less than half as much chance of finding work as men in the same category. In the same way, foreign women have less than half as much chance of finding work as Belgian women or women from other EU countries.

For the purposes of the pay gap, we can further refine the categories of nationality. Table 20 and graph 32 show the average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees by nationality for all of the sectors included in the survey – in other words for industry and market services.[16] Just to be absolutely clear : this does not relate to the pay gap in those various countries.

Table 21 : Average gross hourly wages (in EUR) and the pay gap for full-time and part-time employees by nationality in Belgium (NACE sectors C-K) (2007)

Nationality	Women	Men	Pay gap
Belgian	14,74	17,24	15%
German, French and Dutch	16,67	19,47	14%
Other EU 15 citizens[17]	15,36	17,97	15%
Other EU 27 citizens[18]	13,00	16,40	21%
Other Europeans (incl. Turks and Russians)	12,25	13,79	11%
Maghreb countries	10,71	12,44	14%
Other Africans	11,03	12,49	12%
North and South Americas	18,44	23,05	20%
Asia and Oceania	13,77	16,22	15%

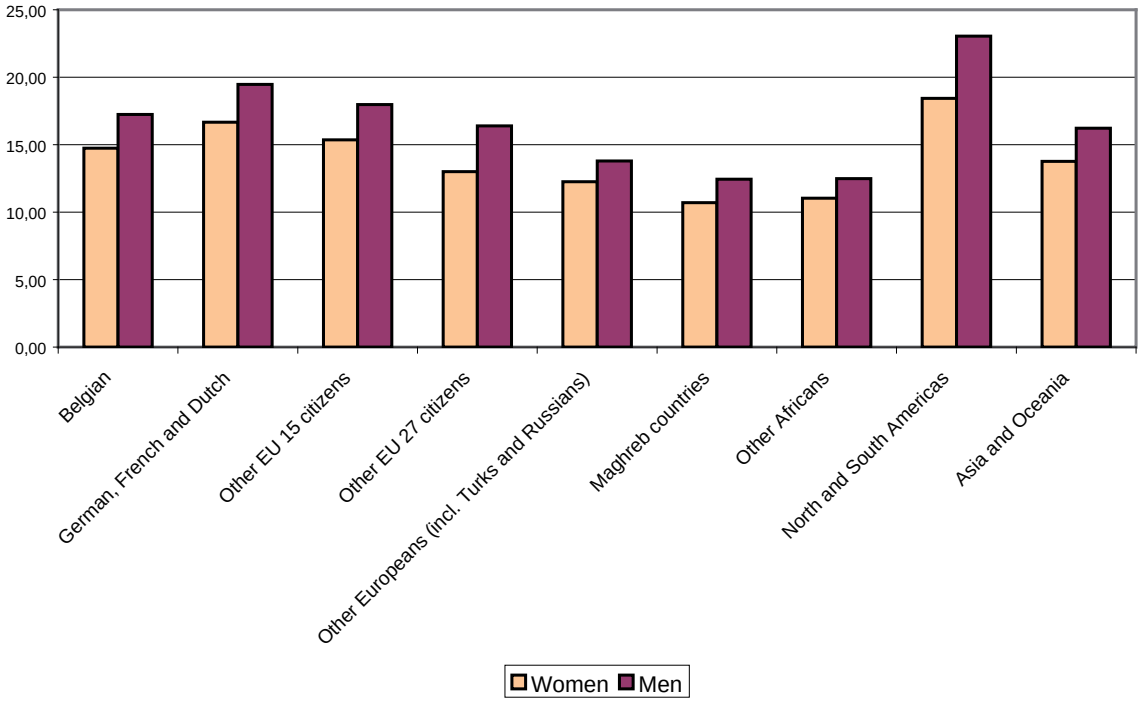
Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey and the National Register

[16] En the 2006 survey year, the sectors of healthcare, education and the socio-cultural sector were also surveys, so that making comparisons with the figures from 2009 report is not so straightforward.

[17] This category includes EU 15 citizens, with the exception of Belgium, Germany, France and the Netherlands. The countries included are Italy, Luxembourg, Denmark, Spain, Greece, Ireland, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and citizens of the United Kingdom.

[18] This category includes citizens of Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, the Czech Republic, Bulgaria, Romania, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Cyprus and Malta.

Graph 29 : Average gross hourly wages (in EUR) (NACE sectors C-K) for full-time and part-time employees, by nationality, in Belgium (2007)



Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey and the National Register

It is immediately obvious that the average gross hourly wages for certain categories of nationality is above that of Belgians, both for women and men. The difference is greatest for North and South Americans, the Germans, Dutch and French – and finally for employees from the other 'old' EU member states. The other categories of nationalities earn less than Belgians on average. Once again the pattern for women and men is highly comparable. The lowest wages go to workers from the Maghreb countries, followed by the remainder of Africa. Somewhat better are the wages of other Europeans, which is a category that includes Russians as well as Turks. Wages are also fairly low for women from the other EU 27 member states, while men's wages are less so, making the pay gap in this category rise to 21%. The second widest pay gap occurs with Americans on account of their very high average pay for men. The smallest pay gaps are among the other Europeans and other Africans, where average wages for women are not much lower comparatively than the average pay for men.

Apart from the pay gap between women and men of various nationalities in our own country, we can also see how wages lag behind for the various nationalities, compared with Belgian women and men. Table 21 shows these pay gaps by nationality. In categories that receive a higher average gross hourly wage than Belgians, the pay gap is negative.

Table 22 : Pay disadvantage (in EUR) and the pay gap with regard to the average gross hourly wages of Belgian employees, by nationality, in Belgium (NACE sectors C-K) (2007)[19]

	Women		Men	
	Pay disadvantage compared with Belgian women	Pay gap compared with Belgian women	Pay disadvantage compared with Belgian men	Pay gap compared with Belgian men
Germans, French, Dutch	-1,93	-13%	-2,23	-13%
other EU 15 citizens[20]	-0,62	-4%	-0,73	-4%
other EU 27 citizens[21]	1,74	12%	0,84	5%
other Europeans	2,49	17%	3,45	20%
Maghreb countries	4,03	27%	4,80	28%
other Africans	3,71	25%	4,75	28%
North and South Americans	-3,70	-25%	-5,81	-34%
Asia and Oceania	0,97	7%	1,02	6%

Sources : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey and the National Register

Women and men from the Maghreb region, the other Africans and Europeans from non-EU 27 countries (including Turks and Russians) have a significant pay disadvantage vis-à-vis Belgians. Except for women from the new EU member states, the disadvantage for women from a percentage point of view is of equal size or a little less than for men. Of course, that does not detract from the fact that women from these categories still earn less than men across the board. Women from the Maghreb countries are the worst off of all: on average, they only earn 10.71 EUR gross per hour.

For those nationalities that earn more than Belgians on average (shown here with a negative pay gap), the lead enjoyed by women is comparable to that of men, except for the Americans. American women earn 25% more on average than Belgian women, while for American men, this advantage rises to 34%.

[19] For women of other nationalities, we took the average gross hourly wages of Belgian women as the reference point. For the purpose of eliminating all gender pay gaps, the gross hourly wages of Belgian men should also be mentioned here as a reference point. We have opted not to do that here in order to illustrate the dual disadvantage.

[20] This category includes EU 15 citizens, with the exception of Belgians, Germans, French and Dutch. Hence the category covers citizens from Italy, Luxembourg, Denmark, Spain, Greece, Ireland, Austria, Portugal, Finland, Sweden and the United Kingdom.

[21] This category includes citizens of Poland, Slovakia, Slovenia, the Czech Republic, Bulgaria, Romania, Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Cyprus and Malta.

III. Breakdown of the difference in pay

INDICATOR 6

Indicators 1 to 5 are descriptive in nature: they indicate how the pay gap varies according to a number of characteristics, namely age, education, sector of employment, family composition and nationality. Indicator 6 examines the relationship of the pay gap with these variables. An econometric method is used to look at the extent to which the variation in pay between women and men can be attributed to a number of known factors.

Hence the pay gap is divided into an explained part and an unexplained part. The explained part includes the strong influence of the varying positions of men and women on the labour market, such as the strong presence of women in less well-paid sectors or the lower seniority accrued by women. So these are differences that can be observed objectively. However, this does not mean that they should also be justified: if young girls are systematically pointed towards the types of education and qualifications that provide fewer opportunities on the job market, or if women sometimes have no choice other than to work part-time or in less attractive sectors, this goes a long way to explaining the pay gap. But that does not mean to say that it is acceptable. Then, of course, there is also the unexplained part of the pay gap. Even if they have the same qualities as men, women are still paid less. This means that a woman with the same length of service, the same age, working in the same sector with the same profession and same level of education as a man still earns less than that man. We should mention here that the pay gap could be explained much better if we had even more detailed data to hand. For example, it would appear that a university degree offers fewer opportunities for women. However, for as long as we do not know whether this has to do with the difference in diploma (engineer or historian) or if in fact it is the result of obvious discrimination, it is hard to make any pronouncements on the subject. So the unexplained part of the pay gap consists of two parts: the yet to be explained (mainly through a lack of details about certain characteristics) and the essentially unexplained part, because it is the result of 'pure' pay discrimination.

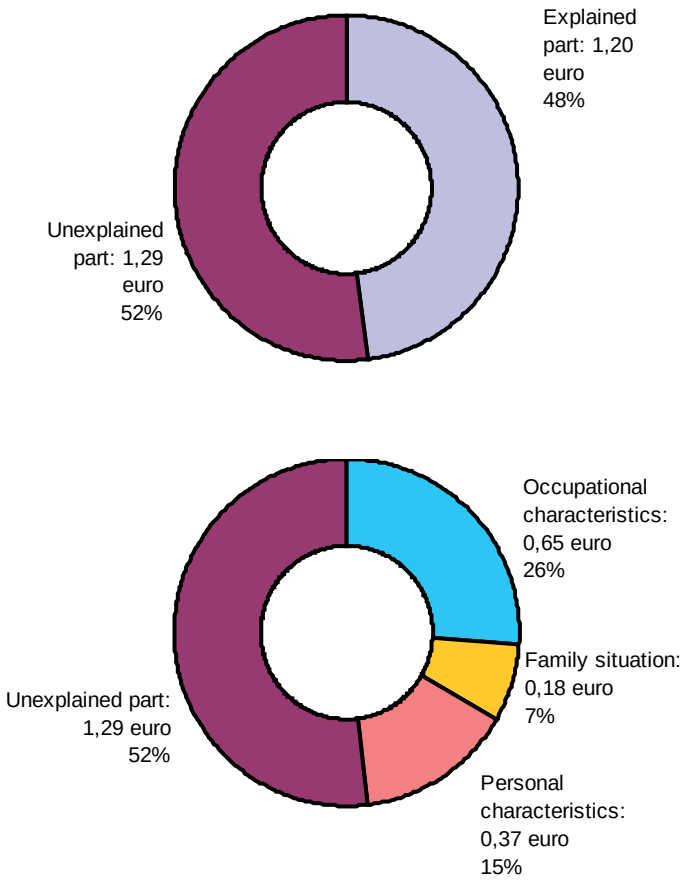
The classic model used to break down the pay gap is the 'Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition', which estimates women's pay and men's pay on the basis of known variables. They are then put together in a single comparison to investigate the difference. We use the Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition because it is included in the list of indicators approved by the Council of the European Union in 2001. There are also other explanatory models for analysing the pay gap.

The results for Indicator 6 for 2007 are broadly the same as those from 2005 and 2006, but they are not fully comparable because the decomposition model was applied in 2006 to sectors C-K, M, N and O, whereas the data in this report only relates to sectors C to K. It also contains an additional variable: nationality. Having said that, the statistical parameters do allow us to test the reliability of the analysis and confirm the usefulness of the model.[22]

The results of the decomposition indicate that 48% of the pay gap can be explained on the basis of twelve defined factors. By taking an additional factor into consideration, the explained part has now risen from 46% to 48% compared with the previous results.

[22] The model and all the variables included in it are statistically significant; the majority have a p-value of less than 0.0001. The determination coefficient is 51.22% for women and 53.09% for men.

Graph 30 : The explained and unexplained part of the pay gap in gross hourly wages (in EUR and percentages) (2007)



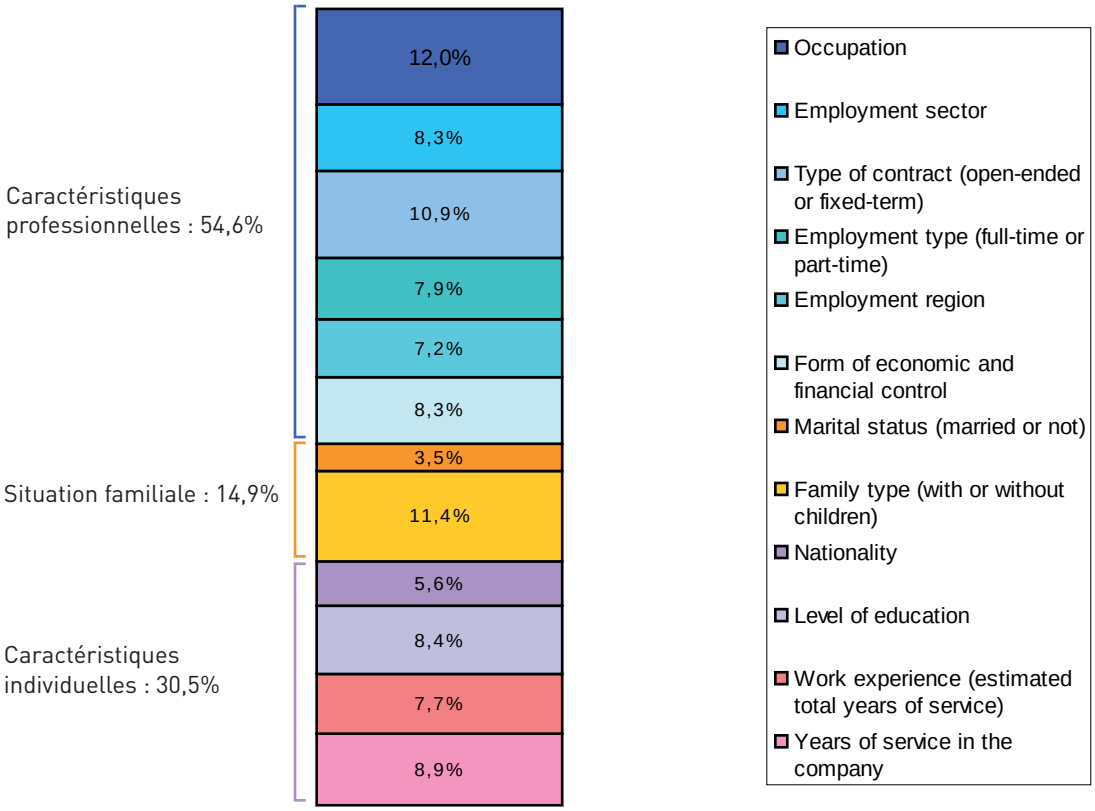
Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

«Explained» means explainable on the basis of the variables included in the model. These are quite a few variables, however. The most 'objective' factors used to explain the pay differences between men and women are actually contained in the Structure of Earnings Survey and have already been mentioned in this report. It is of course important to know the causes of the problem in order to be able to pursue a targeted policy.

The explained part of the pay gap, which totals 48%, can be broken down further: 27% of the pay gap in gross hourly wages can be attributed to occupational characteristics, 15% to personal characteristics and 7% to the family situation.

The explained part is analysed in detail in the graph below.

Graph 31 : Decomposition of the pay gap – subdivision of the explained part of the pay gap (2007)



Source : DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

Nearly 55% of the explained part can be attributed to characteristics that refer to the position of men and women on the labour market, which can in the broad sense be contained under the heading of 'segregation.' The occupation explains 12% of the explained pay gap and whether the person is employed on a permanent basis 11% and the sector 8%. The outline is completed by whether the job is part-time or full-time, the employment region and the 'form of economic and financial control.' This latter variable indicates whether and, if so, the extent to which, there is a form of government participation in the company.

The family situation accounts for 15% of the explained pay gap. Of particular importance is whether there are children (11.4%). Although this result comes as no surprise – for it has everything to do with the difficulty of combining gainful employment and family – it remains a challenge for policy.

Finally, only 30% of the explainable part of the pay gap can be attributed to individual characteristics, such as education, work experience, length of service in the company and nationality. It is of interest to note that almost 6% of the explained part is attributable to the fact that a foreign nationality is involved. Converted into difference in average gross hourly wages, we are then talking about 0.37 EUR. These results show that a breakthrough is needed in gender-related stereotypical study choices. Discrimination based on ethnicity also needs to be combated and we can see that the problem of less stable and interrupted career pathways requires a good deal of attention.

Summary

I. Overall pay differences

This report is structured in the same way as the indicators. We have gone away from the more general figures and gone into greater details, each time referring to the relevant tables.

How big is the pay gap?

1. For 2007, the pay gap based on the gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees across all sectors was 11%. (table 10)
2. For 2007, the pay gap based on the gross annual wages of full-time and part-time employees across all sectors was 24%. The effect of part-time working is shown in full with annual wages. (table 11)
3. When the pay gap based on the gross annual wages of full-time and part-time employees is broken down into status, major differences come to the fore. For blue-collar workers in the private sector, the pay gap is 18%, whereas for white-collar employees it is 26%. For contract civil servants in the public sector, the pay gap is 6%, whereas for permanent civil servants it is -1%. (table 10)
4. Calculated on the basis of annual wages, the figures for blue-collar workers and white-collar employees rise to 37%. At the end of the year, contract and permanent civil servants were looking at a pay gap of 18% and 11% respectively. The fact that women work part-time more often than men therefore has a major impact on the average differences in pay. (table 11)
5. The pay gap calculated on the basis of monthly wages for full-time employees is 12%. Until 2007, this was the official pay gap indicator. (table 1)
6. The pay gap calculated on the basis of monthly wages for full-time and part-time employees together is 23%. This is known as the equal pay day indicator. (table 6)
7. The pay gap in fringe benefits rises significantly. Women are less likely to be granted these benefits and receive smaller amounts. Employers pay for a supplementary pension for 13.3% of female employees and 15.9% of males. The amounts for supplementary pensions for women are 45.74% lower on average than for men. The contribution for travelling to and from work is 28.24% lower on average for women. Only a small proportion of employees receive additional benefits in the form of share options. However, men are twice as likely as women to receive these benefits (0.73% of men compared with 0.31% of women). The amounts for women here are 48% lower than for men. (table 4)

Is the pay gap closing?

8. The survey figures for 2007 indicate that there is no clear-cut reduction in the pay gap compared with the previous year. However, the closing of the pay gap observed in 2006 is confirmed by this data.
9. Over the longer term, we can see a clear downward trend in the size of the pay gap. The pay gap in industry has halved over the past 40 years. In the short term – with the exception of 2006 – the closing of the pay gap is very slow, but quite steady.

The total pay gap

10. In 2007, 45.92% of the workforce was female. Together women accounted for 41.25% of the paid working days and they received 37.52% of the total wages bill (95,974,263,404 euro).
11. Based on the proportion of employees they represent, all women together should have earned 8.056 billion EUR more in 2007. Based on their share in the number of paid working days – hence taking account of the fact that women work part-time more often than men – 3.576 billion EUR.

12. The proportion of women among employees, both in the number of paid working days and the total wage bill, was slightly higher in 2007 than in 2006. This is a trend that was also noted in previous years. Yet we can state that the amounts of the total pay gap, taking changes in prices into consideration, are approximately the same or slightly higher.
13. Of all women who work full-time, three out of ten earn less than 2,000 EUR gross per month, whereas the figure in 2006 was four women out of ten. For men, this is only the case for three out of twenty. One in two women earn less than 2,250 EUR gross per month, while for men it is only two out of five. (table 13)
14. More than 6% of the men who work full-time earn more than 5,000 EUR gross per month, while only 3% of women earn this amount. (table 13)

II. Factors

Part-time work

15. Only 10.5% of female and 8.8% of male part-time wage earners do not want a full-time job. (table 14)
16. A woman working part-time in industry and market services earns 21% per hour less than a man working full-time, 11% less than a woman working full-time and 8% less than a man working part-time.
17. A female part-time worker earns 18% per month less than a male part-time worker. (table 15)

Age

18. The pay gap widens with age. Among wage earners who work full-time, the pay gap is 19% for workers aged over 55 and 11% for 45 to 54-year-olds. For part-time workers, the figure is 20% in the oldest age category and 14% in the one below.
19. The difference in the employment rate between women and men also increases with age.

Level of education

20. The pay gap is widest among full-time and part-time workers with a higher level of education at 21%.
21. The employment rate for women and men rises in line with the level of education. The difference in the employment rate between men and women becomes smaller as the level of education rises.

Segregation

22. In contrast with previous years, the largest pay gap in 2007 was in the aviation sector. However, the top 5 was made up of the same sectors as the previous year. (table 16)
23. Other sectors with a wide pay gap are the sectors for the production and distribution of electricity, gas, steam and hot water, the manufacture of clothing and fur, the sector for manufacturing office machines and computers and the auxiliary companies of financial institutions. (table 16)
24. Only metallurgy and the sector for manufacturing other transport resources have proportionately more women in management than in the sector itself. Yet there is still a pay gap of 4% and 5% respectively. (table 16)
25. The pay gap is greatest among directors and managers, at 34%. Only 22% of this occupational category is female. (table 18)
26. For lawyers, social scientists, artists and other 'professionals' working in paid employment, the pay gap rises to 21%. (table 18)
27. For industry and market services, the average gross monthly wages of both women and men rise in accordance with the size of the company. The pay gap also rises with the number of employees in the company, with the exception of companies with over 1,000 employees, where the pay gap is smaller than in companies with 500 to 999 employees.

Marital status and family composition

28. Marital status has an effect on men's pay in particular. The average gross hourly wage for single men was 15.07 EUR in 2007, compared with 18.82 EUR for married men. The difference in average age only explains this difference in part.
29. The employment rate for men is higher than for women in each of the marital status categories and the difference becomes more pronounced within marriage.
30. The various effects of marital status on the pay of women and men result in the pay difference being very large for people who are married (15%) and relatively small for singles (3%).
31. Having a partner plays a major role for men: men who live with a partner receive more pay than single men. The presence of children barely has any effect for men.
32. For women the fact whether they have a partner or not hardly affects their pay. But children do make a difference: for women with children, average hourly wages are lower than for women with no children.
33. In the end, the impact of these various factors means that the pay gap is only small for singles with no children, average for singles with children and high for couples (with or without children).

Nationality

34. For men, there is no difference in the employment rate between Belgians and other EU citizens. In both cases the employment rate is 69%. There is, however, a difference for women. While the employment rate for Belgian women is 57%, the figure for women from other EU member states is 52%.
35. For people with a nationality outside the European Union, the employment rate for men dips to 52% and to 25% for women. This means that only half of men and a quarter of women from outside the European Union in Belgium have a job.
36. Women with a non-EU nationality only have half as much chance of finding a job as men from the same category. In the same way, these women are only half as likely to find work as Belgian women, or women from the other EU countries. Hence the gender gap is enlarged appreciably further by the 'ethnic gap'. (table 20)
37. Citizens from Germany, France, the Netherlands and America working in Belgium earn more on average than Belgians do; this has to do with well-paid jobs, for men in particular. For these categories of nationalities, there is a pay gap of 14% for the three neighbouring countries and 20% for Americans. (table 21)
38. For workers from the Maghreb countries and the remainder of Africa, the average gross hourly wages of women and men are the lowest. Women earn 11 to 12% less than men in these categories. (table 21)
39. Women and men from the Maghreb, other African and European non-EU 27 countries (including Turks and Russians) have a major wages disadvantage compared with Belgians. (table 22)

III. The relative weight of these factors

40. 48% of the pay gap can be explained on the basis of known factors. 52% cannot be explained.
41. Of the explained part, 55% can be attributed to characteristics that refer to the position of women and men on the labour market. The occupation explains 12% of the explained pay gap and the sector 8%.
42. The family situation appears to be responsible for 15% of the explained pay gap. In particular, whether or not people have children is important.
43. Of the explained part of the pay gap, only 31% can be attributed to individual characteristics such as education, work experience, years of service in the company and nationality.

Policy recommendations

This fourth pay gap report indicates that the pay difference between women and men in our country is on a slightly downward trend. However, this positive note cannot disguise the fact that there are structural problems whose origins stem from a highly disparate range of causes. By definition therefore, any policy that focuses on narrowing the pay gap is a long-term project for which both government departments and the social partners need to accept their share of the responsibility.
In last year's report, we made a number of practical suggestions for closing the pay gap. These recommendations from the Institute for the Equality of Women and Men and the Federal Public Service for Employment, Labour and Social Dialogue remain valid in full. They can be summarised as follows :

1. All job classifications in the various sectors and companies need to be screened in terms of their gender neutrality – and then be adjusted, if required.
2. Stereotypical study choices need to be discouraged, including by promoting awareness of the fundamental equality of women and men, in the way youngsters are educated from an early age.
3. The employment mediation services (VDAB, Forem, Actiris, ADG) need to watch and ensure that all of their measures are focused on women as well as on men.
4. These services must also ensure that vacancies are offered to both men and women at all times.
5. Thresholds that make it difficult to access to the labour market must be removed.
6. With this in mind, the unemployment trap needs to be tackled, especially for the partners of individuals living on replacement income.
7. A longer period of parental leave is necessary and should also be better divided across both partners.
8. Good-quality, affordable childcare must become a right.
9. In order to break through the glass ceiling, measures must be taken to guarantee better representation of women on company boards, at a senior level in government institutions, social organisations and companies.
10. When training is provided to employees, both internally and outside the company, women and men must be taken into consideration equally.
11. Greater awareness is required regarding the input and opportunities in individual pay negotiations, both for employees and employers, as well as for women and men alike.
12. Poorly educated women, migrant women, single mothers, etc. are faced with a dual disadvantage on the labour market. Consequently, measures to do away with the disadvantage of these vulnerable groups are of fundamental importance, meaning that the gender mainstreaming of the policy also needs to be monitored.
13. A range of the statistical tools used need to be strengthened so that the pay gap can be focused on better.

This autumn, the social partners will be negotiating again on an interprofessional agreement. The Minister of Labour and Equal Opportunities has expressed the wish that this agreement becomes the start for a multiyear plan for approaching the pay gap by reviewing the job classifications that form the base for the method of setting wages in the sectors. The partners are also being asked to ensure the gender-neutrality of all sectors by 2016 in a further effort to close the pay gap. We hope that the social partners tackle this challenge head-on and share the aims of the minister. The issue of bringing the status of blue-collar workers and white-collar employees into line is also on the table, which offers an additional opportunity. It will also be necessary to remove this outmoded distinction over time in order to restructure in depth the job classifications and the sliding pay scales attached to them. Naturally the gender perspective needs to be an integral part of the debate.

Government departments should be able to confirm the effort of the social partners by developing a plan together across all policy levels gradually to do away with segregation on the labour market. The combination of a strong interprofessional accord and a clear-cut joint commitment from the federal government, the regions and communities should make it clear that our country wishes to play a strong pioneering role in tackling the pay gap – at a time when Belgium will be taking on the presidency of the European Union. And in so doing, the pay gap will once again be placed high on the European agenda.

Finally, we wish again to ask for attention to be focused on the need to have sufficient data available so that pay differences can be highlighted and hence be combated effectively. It is also highly desirable for a breakdown by gender to be introduced into the various areas within the social balance sheet. This applies in particular to the heading of «amount of benefits over and above basic pay». Indeed, highlighting these benefits, which in many cases constitute a major part of total remuneration, remains a problem. Nevertheless, the fiscal data included in this report indicates it is a highly relevant issue. The national surveys that exist at the moment are not able to provide an answer. The reports on equal opportunities that business still needs to draft may well provide information on a company level, but they do not lend themselves well to systematic processing, so that they are unable to fill in any of the gaps in terms of statistics.

Once again this report would not have been possible without the active and expert contribution from sources such as the Directorate-General for Statistics and Economic Information at the FPS Economy and the Federal Planning Bureau. The basic tool remains the unsurpassed Structure of Earnings Survey. This survey is conducted annually in Belgium and provides significant added value for analysing the pay gap – as well as for many other things as well. Nevertheless we are disappointed that the decision has been taken to include sectors M, N, O (education, healthcare and the socio-cultural sector) of the NACE Rev. 1 classification in the survey only every four years. As last year's report shows, the data from these sectors, where comparatively many women work, provides significant added value.

Explanatory glossary

DGSEI: Directorate General for Statistics and Economic information of the FPS Economy, formerly called the National Statistical Institute. Website: www.statbel.fgov.be

Employment rate: Ongoing random survey conducted annually by the DGSEI among households in Belgium. The survey gauges the figures for employment, unemployment and non-working is part of Eurostat's European Labour Force Survey (LFS).

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

EU-SILC: The SILC survey harmonised at a European level.

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

Median: The mid-point in a given sequence of numbers. The median is sometimes used as an alternative to the average, because it is less sensitive to extreme values.

NACE nomenclature: International classification system for sectors. A new NACE nomenclature has been used since 2008, called 'NACE Rev.2'. 'NACE Rev. 1.1' is the NACE classification used in the 2007 survey year and still frequently referred to. (see Annex 1)

NSSO (National Social Security Office): Institution that manages the social security contributions of employers and employees, and has statistical data on wages derived from these contributions.

NSSOPLA (National Social Security Office for Provincial and Local Authorities): Institution that manages the social security contributions of provincial and local authorities, and has statistical data on wages derived from these contributions for this category of government employees.

Panel Study on Belgian Households (PSBH): Survey of Belgian households, predecessor of the SILC survey.

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.

Percentile: A point in a regulated series indicating a one-hundredth part. When, for instance, all wages are ranked from low to high, the first percentile corresponds to the wages where 1% of workers earn less, and 99% more. This report uses the 5th percentile. This corresponds with wages where 5% are lower and 95% higher. The 85th percentile refers to wages where 85% are lower and 15% higher. The median is the 50th percentile, or the middlemost value, to be more precise.

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.

Structure of Earnings Survey (SES): Random survey on earnings conducted annually by the DGSEI among a large number of Belgian companies. Up until 2005, this survey was conducted only in sectors C-K of the NACE nomenclature, hence only in industry and market services. Since 2006, healthcare, education and the socio-cultural sector have been included. This survey is conducted every four years (2006, 2010, etc.) in all European countries.

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

Indicator: A way of quantifying a certain phenomenon in figures. 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 scientific staff; 23 is a subcategory and stands for teaching staff, 231 for university professors and non-university institutions of higher education, 232 for secondary school teachers, and so forth (see Annex 2)

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Annex 1:

NACE Rev1 nomenclature

letter code	number code	Sector
A		**Agriculture, hunting and forestry**
B		**Fishing**
C		**Mineral extraction**
	14	Other mineral extraction (not containing energy and non-metallic)
D		**Industry**
	15	Imanufacture of food products and beverages
	16	Manufacture of tobacco products
	17	Manufacture of textiles
	18	Manufacture of clothing and fur
	19	Leather industry and manufacture of shoes
	20	Timber industry and manufacture of items made from wood, cork, reed and wickerwork
	21	Paper and cardboard industry
	22	Publishing, printing and reproduction of recorded media
	23	Manufacture of coke, refined petroleum products and nuclear fuel
	24	Chemicals industry
	25	Rubber and plastics industry
	26	Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products
	27	Metallurgy
	28	Manufacture of metal products
	29	Manufacture of machines, apparatus and equipment
	30	Manufacture of office machines and computers
	31	Manufacture of electrical machines and equipment
	32	Manufacture of audio, video and telecommunications equipment
	33	Manufacture of medical equipment, precision and optical instruments, watches and clocks
	34	Manufacture and assembly of motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers
	35	Manufacture of other transport equipment
	36	Manufacture of furniture, other industry
	37	Recovery of recyclable waste
E		**Production and distribution of electricity, gas and water**
	40	Production and distribution of electricity, gas, steam and hot water
	41	Collection, purification and distribution of water
F	45	**Building industry**
G		**Whole and retail; repair of motor vehicles and household items**
	50	Sale and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles; retail of engine fuels
	51	Wholesale and commission trade, excluding trade in motor vehicles and motorcycless
	52	Retail, motor vehicles and motorcycles; repair of consumer items
H	55	**Hotels and restaurants**

I		**Transport, storage and communication**
	60	Transport on land
	61	Transport over water
	62	Aviation
	63	Transport support activities
	64	Post and telecommunications
J		**Financial institutions**
	65	Financial institutions
	66	Insurance
	67	Auxiliary companies connected to financial institutions
K		**Property, rental and services to companies**
	70	Rental and trade in property
	71	Rental without operating personnel
	72	IT and related activities
	73	Research and development
	74	Other business services
L		**Government**
M	80	**Education**
N	85	**Healthcare and social services**
O		**Community amenities, socio-cultural and personal services**
	90	Collecting and processing wastewater and waste
	91	Miscellaneous associations
	92	Recreation, culture and sport
	93	Other services
P		**Private households with employees**
Q		**Extraterritorial organisations and bodies**

Annexe :

ISCO nomenclature

ISCO	Occupation
12	CEOs and board members
13	Directors and managers
21	Physicists, chemicals, engineers and science-related occupations
22	Specialists in organic sciences, doctors, nursing supervisors and midwives
23	Teaching staff
24	Other professionals (including lawyers, social scientists, artists)
31	Technicians in physics and technological disciplines
32	Technicians in organic and health sciences
33	Intermediary occupations education
34	other intermediaries
41	Secretaries, accountants and staff logistics
42	Service counter employees and cashiers
51	Vupervisory and surveillance staff
52	Models, sales people and demonstrators
71	Building labourers
72	Metal-workers and mechanics
73	Civil servants
74	Other workers
81	Assembly operators
82	Operators of industrial installations
83	Operators of transport and mobile equipment
91	Street vendors, cleaning staff, concierges and similar
93	Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport

Annex 3 :

List of joint committees

	Blue-colour workers
100	Auxiliary joint committee for blue-collar workers
109	Clothing and garment-manufacturing industry
111	Metal, machinery and electrical construction
112	Garage industry
115	Glass industry
116	Chemical industry
117	Petroleum industry and trade
118	Food sector
119	Trade in foodstuffs
120	Textile industry and knitwear
121	Cleaning
124	Construction
126	Upholstery and woodwork
130	Printing, graphic arts and daily newspapers
136	Paper and cardboard processing
140	Transport and logistics
149	Sectors related to metal, machinery and electrical construction
149.04	Joint sub-committee for the metal trade
302	Hotel industry
306	Insurance sector
310	Banks
311	Large retailers
	White-collar workers
200	
201	Auxiliary joint committee for white-collar workers
202	Self-employed retailers
207	White-collar workers from food retailing
209	White-collar workers from the chemicals industry
210	White-collar workers from the fabricated metal products industry
211	White-collar workers from the steel industry
214	White-collar workers from the petroleum industry and trade
215	White-collar workers from the textile industry and knitwear
218	White-collar workers from clothing and ready-to-wear
220	National auxiliary joint committee for white-collar workers

221	White-collar workers from the paper industry
222	White-collar workers from the paper and cardboard processing industry
226	White-collar workers from international trade, transport and logistics
302	Hotel industry
306	Insurance sector
307	Brokerage and insurance agencies
310	Banks
311	Large retailers
315.02	Joint sub-committee for airlines