

# The Gender Pay Gap

## in Belgium

### Report 2014

## Table of contents

The report 2014 .....	5
1. Average pay differences.....	6
1.1 Pay Gap based on hourly and annual earnings .....	6
1.2 Pay gap by status .....	6
1.2.1 Pay gap based on gross hourly wages by status .....	7
1.2.2 Pay gap based on gross annual wages by status .....	7
1.3. Full-time and part-time workers.....	8
1.3.1 Average gross monthly wages of full-time employees .....	9
1.3.2 Average gross hourly wages of full-time employees .....	10
1.3.3 Average gross annual wages of full-time employees.....	11
1.3.4 Average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees .....	11
1.3.5 Average gross monthly wages of full-time and part-time employees .....	13
1.4 Fringe benefits.....	13
1.5 Evolution of the pay gap .....	15
1.6 Employment rate .....	17
1.7 Survey and estimations.....	18
1.7.1 Extension to small companies .....	19
1.7.2 Extension to education, healthcare and the socio-cultural sector .....	20
1.7.3 Extension to entire economy.....	21
2. Share in the total sum of wages .....	22
2.1 Share of women and men among employees, in actual working days and in the total sum of wages.....	22
2.2 Total pay gap .....	23
2.3 Distribution of women and men over the categories of gross monthly wages .....	24
3. Inequality factors.....	26
3.1 Part-time work.....	26
3.1.1 Pay gap for full-time and part-time workers .....	26
3.1.2 Part-time employment rate.....	27
3.1.3 Female and male part-time workers, by reason for working part-time .....	28
3.1.4 Average gross monthly wages of part-time and full-time wage earners.....	29
3.2 Age .....	29

3.2.1 Average gross hourly wages by age category and wage gap .....	29
3.2.2 Employment rate by age category .....	30
3.2.3 Pay gap by age and seniority among 25 to 30-year-olds .....	31
3.3 Level of education.....	32
3.3.1 Average gross hourly wages by level of education and wage gap.....	32
3.3.2 Employment rate by level of education .....	33
3.4 Marital status and family composition .....	34
3.4.1 Average gross hourly wages by marital status and wage gap .....	34
3.4.2 Average gross hourly wages by family type and wage gap .....	35
3.4.3 Employment rate by household type.....	36
3.5 Nationality.....	37
3.5.1 Average gross hourly wages and wage gap by nationality in Belgium.....	37
3.5.2 Pay difference and wage gap in regard to the average gross hourly wages of Belgian employees, by nationality .....	38
3.5.3 Employment rate by current nationality and by country of birth .....	40
3.6 Segregation on the labour market.....	41
3.6.1 Sectors.....	42
3.6.2 Joint committees.....	43
3.6.3 Professions.....	43
3.6.4 Glass ceiling .....	44
3.6.4.1 Share of women and men among managers.....	44
3.6.4.2 Pay gap among managers.....	45
3.6.5 Company size.....	46
3.6.6 Gap between high and low wages .....	46
4. Explaining the pay gap .....	49
4.1 The explained and unexplained part of the pay gap in gross hourly wages .....	49
4.2 Decomposition of the pay gap: subdivision of the explained part.....	51
Summary.....	53
Policy recommendations .....	59
List of tables .....	80
List of graphs.....	81

## Introduction

This report contains an overview of the gender pay gap in Belgium. It is compiled by the Institute for the Equality of Women and Men, in collaboration with documentation centre RoSa. The data are provided by the Directorate General Statistics and Economic Information of the Federal Public Service Economy, SMEs, Self-Employed and Energy and the Federal Planning Bureau.

The content of this report is also available on the website [www.genderpaygap.be](http://www.genderpaygap.be).

There are four types of indicators. The general pay differences present a number of figures that show the pay gap between women and men across the economy as a whole, based on a comparison of average wages. 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. The share in the total sum of wages represents a different approach to study the gender pay gap as a whole: it is based on the breakdown of total wages across women and men. A number of factors tend to widen the pay gap. These inequality factors include: part-time work, age, education differences, marital status and household composition, nationality or origin and the segregation on the labour market. Explaining the pay gap examines to which extent the pay gap can be explained by these variables.

Only official data are used in the gender pay gap report. Calculations are based on the European set of indicators. The heading Methodology of the website presents a more detailed explanation.

## The report 2014

In general, i.e. for the entire Belgian economy, a woman earns on average 10% less than a man per working hour. In this respect, figures are stagnating. This report always presents a second general indicator, because it is important to highlight the entire gender inequality. Calculated on the basis of annual wages, the gender pay gap increases to 22%. Compared to last year, there is a slight decline. The difference between both figures illustrates the effect of part time work.

The 2013 report already established the fact that the gap between full time and part time employees is widening each year, while the gender gap decreases among part time workers as well as among full time workers. This trend is even more evident this year. In other words, the gender pay gap is becoming less important in Belgium, which is as such a positive evolution. However, a growing gap can be observed between the more comfortable side of the labour market with higher wages and benefits, and the less interesting, part time jobs with little perspectives for future improvement. In this dual labour market, women are overrepresented in the less favourable part.

The percentage of part time work has risen considerably. 45.9% of all female employees are working part time, which represents an increase of 1 percentage point in a year. Among male employees this percentage has gone up to 10.3%. These high percentages have a strong impact on the functioning of the labour market. However, it is important to keep in mind that part time work is not merely a question of personal preferences. Looking for full time work does not equal finding full time work. 22% of part time working women and 25% of part time working men indicate not having found a full time job, or that full time jobs are unavailable in their present occupation. For 51% of part time working women and 26% of part time working men, the combination with family life is the most important reason for working part time.

As always the report analyses the different factors that play a role in the gender pay gap and their relative importance. A striking evolution this year, is the increased impact of the nationality on the gender pay gap. 9.4% of the explained part of the gender pay gap can be contributed to having a foreign nationality or not.

The data of the report 2014 are based on the 2011 survey.

## 1. Average pay differences

### 1.1 Pay Gap based on hourly and annual earnings

The gender pay gap is first calculated on the basis of hourly wages for all wage earners. This way, the effect of different working time is not taken into account. To highlight this aspect of the pay gap, the pay gap is calculated on the basis of annual earnings.

**Table 1: Pay gap based on the average gross hourly wages and gross annual wages (2007-2011)**

	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Pay gap based on hourly earnings	12%	11%	11%	10%	10%
Pay gap based on annual earnings	24%	23%	23%	23%	22%

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

Women earn on average 10% less than men per hour across all sectors. Annually the gap rises to 22%.

It is important to calculate both figures, since the inequality in working time is all but gender neutral. The very fact that women work more often part time than men constitutes to a large extent the gender inequality on the labour market. There is a direct link to the unequal division of care. However, stereotype expectations on the labour market itself play a role, as well as the segregation: for many professions with a lot of women workers, are organised as part time jobs, like for example the distribution, or the cleaning sector.

For the calculation of most indicators the Structure of Earnings Survey is used. This survey provides very reliable data on enterprises with at least 10 employees in the industry and market services. Every four years (2006, 2010, ...) the survey is extended, to include also the sectors of education, health care and the socio-cultural sector. For the year 2011, this extension was not made. The Federal Planning Bureau estimates wages on the basis of administrative data for the missing sectors and the small enterprises. This estimation is explained in more detail under the heading 'Survey and estimations'. Based on the new survey data the old estimations are regularly recalculated.

In comparison to the previous years, the gender pay gap based on hourly wages has slightly increased in 2011. When calculated on the basis of annual wages, a slight decrease can be observed. Last year, this evolution was reversed. In general, the figures must be interpreted as a stagnation.

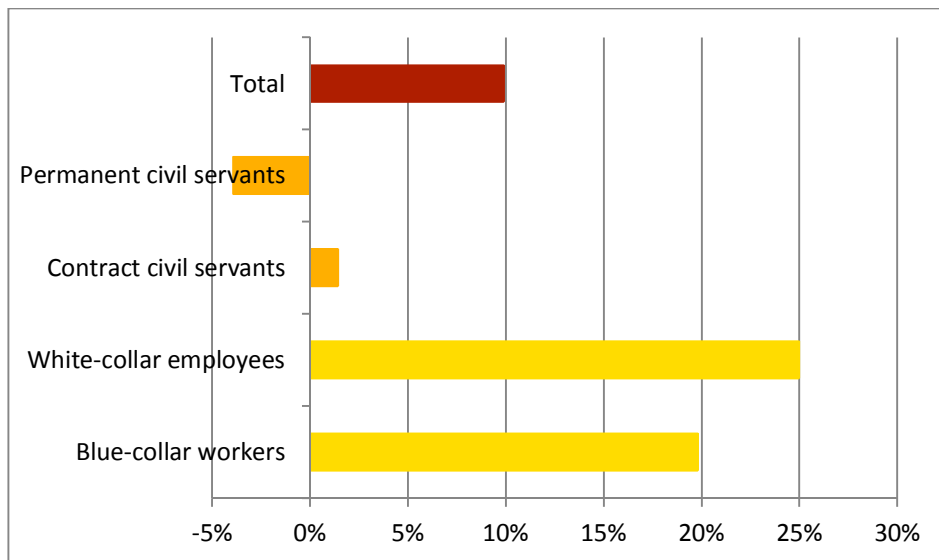
### 1.2 Pay gap by status

The pay gap is much wider in the private sector than in the public sector. The general figure lies 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.

### 1.2.1 Pay gap based on gross hourly wages by status

**Graph 1: Pay gap based on the average gross hourly wages, by status (2011)**



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

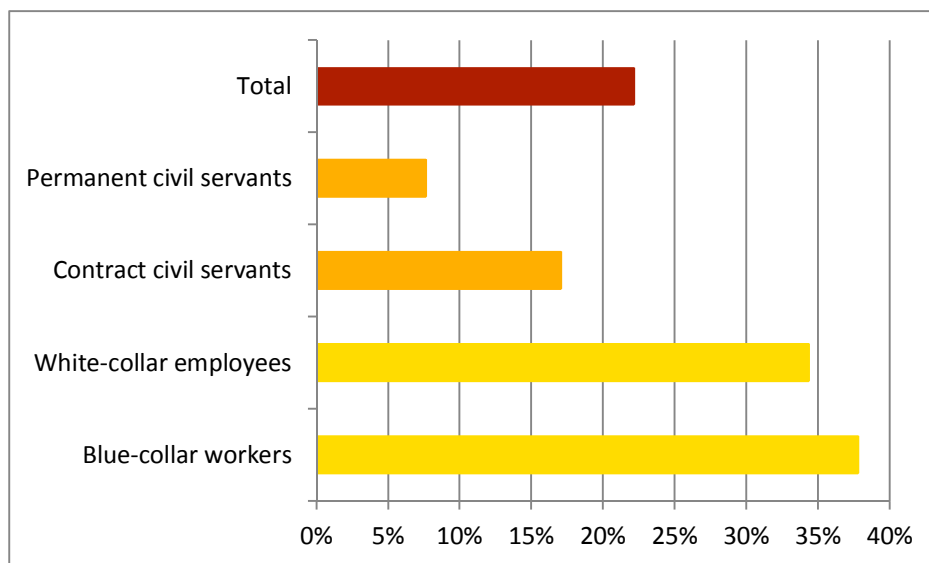
The pay gap based on hourly wages is 25% for white-collar employees. For blue-collar workers the increase of last year continues and amounts to a pay gap of 20%. The pay gap is negative for permanent civil servants, and has gone further down to 3% for contract civil servants. This means that the overall pay gap figure conceals some major status-based differences.

The public administration sector is not included in the Structure of Earnings Survey. The data of the Federal Planning Bureau, however, distinguishes between the Social Security Service status of the employee and the sector of the company. This enables the pay gap to be calculated separately for permanent civil servants, contract 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 public administration.

### 1.2.2 Pay gap based on gross annual wages by status

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.

**Graph 2: Pay gap based on the gross annual wages, by status (2011)**



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

At the end of the year in the private sector, female blue-collar workers earned 38% less than their male counterparts. For female white-collar employees this figure is 34%. The figure for contract civil servants was 17%, while for permanent staff working in public administration, it was 8%. Taking all statuses together, the pay gap based on gross annual earnings was 22%.

In general, the pay gap based on annual wages is slightly decreasing over the last years, except for blue-collar workers. For them the gender pay gap based on annual wages has increased for the second year in a row.

### **1.3. Full-time and part-time workers**

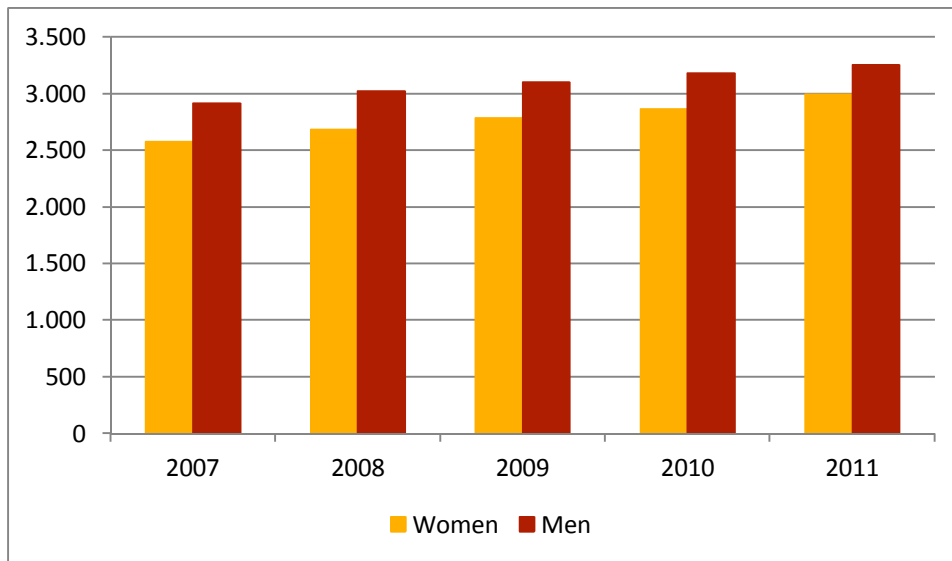
There are a number of ways to illustrate the differences between the average gross wage of women and men. The old official indicator at a European level was the pay gap calculated on the basis of the monthly income of women and men working full-time. This is a very stable and reliable indicator. However, because the wages of part time workers were not being taken into account, the European indicator was adapted. The gender pay gap is now calculated on the basis of hourly earnings of full-time and part-time workers together. To measure the effect of part time work on monthly wages, the pay gap is also calculated on the basis of gross monthly wages of part time and full time workers together.

In contrast to the above indicators, these indicators are calculated only on the basis of the Structure of Earnings Survey. This includes the industry and market services. . In other words, the data relate to the private ssector. The public administration sector and the and semi-public sectors. (education, health care and the socio-cultural sector) are not included in these data.



### 1.3.1 Average gross monthly wages of full-time employees

Graph 3: Average gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in euro) (2007-2011)



Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The graph shows the gross monthly wages of full-time workers for the last five years. In 2011 women earned 263 euro less than men, on average. This means that the pay gap between women and men was 8%. Gross earnings for both men and women rose in comparison with 2010. The wage of women rose on average 132 euro, that of men 76 euro. The exceptionally large increase in women's wages explains the distinct decline in the gender pay gap for full time workers. In 2010 this indicart remained more or less stable, compared to the previous year. In 2009, there was a decline in the figures, compared to 2008 and 2007, in 2006 there was a decline compared to 2005 and 2004.

Table 2: Average gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in euro) and pay gap (1999-2011)

	Women	Men	Pay gap
1999	1.907	2.341	19%
2000	1.974	2.392	17%
2001	2.099	2.502	16%
2002	2.165	2.529	14%
2003	2.231	2.679	17%
2004	2.343	2.757	15%
2005	2.387	2.807	15%
2006	2.491	2.846	12%
2006* (extended)	2.501	2.843	12%
2007	2.577	2.918	12%
2008	2.682	3.022	11%

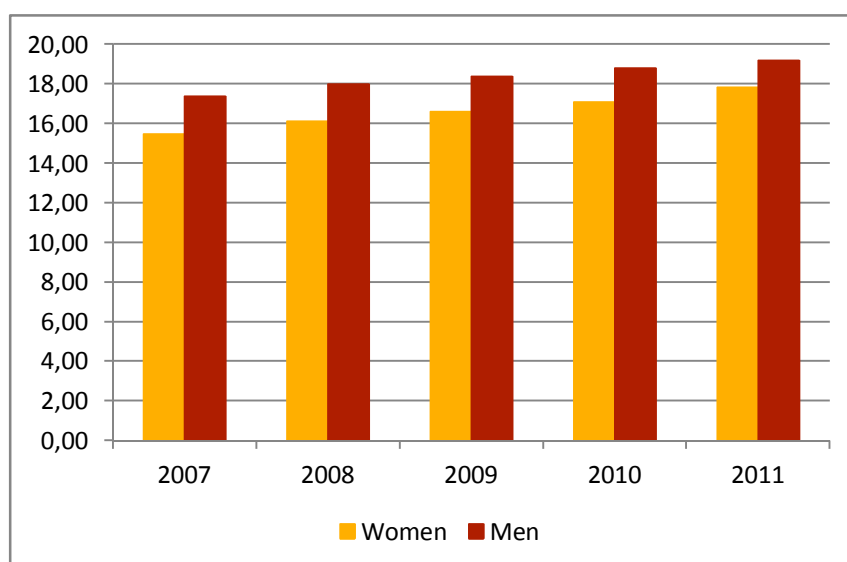
2009	2.785	3.105	10%
2010	2.863	3.182	10%
2010* (extended)	2.926	3.197	8%
2011	2.995	3.258	8%

Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The table shows the evolution of the gross monthly wages of women and men working full-time, and the pay gap since 1999. Each year gross earnings rose, with the changes for women stronger on the whole. Between 2007 and 2011, the earnings of women working full-time increased by 14%, while for men it increased by only 10%. This unequal rise is making the pay gap smaller in the long term.

### 1.3.2 Average gross hourly wages of full-time employees

Graph 4: Average gross hourly wages of full-time employees (in euro) (2007-2011)



Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

This graph shows the gross hourly wages of women and men working full-time for the last five years. While the hourly wages for both women and men working full-time are rising, the increase is slightly greater for women, which in turn is closing the pay gap. In 2011 the gender pay gap calculated in this was amounted to 7%.

Compared to the pay gap based on gross monthly wages, the pay gap is always smaller when calculated based on gross hourly earnings. This can be attributed to the fact that even among full-time workers, men work on average 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.

### 1.3.3 Average gross annual wages of full-time employees

It is also of interest to look at gross annual earnings, because they can be subdivided into two components: the twelve monthly salary amounts on the one hand, and any bonuses on the other. The table shows the pay gap in gross annual earnings, divided into 'salary' and 'bonuses'.

**Table 3: Average gross annual wages of full-time employees (in euro) and the pay gap (2011)**

	Total annual earnings	Wage component	Bonuses component
Women	39.512	35.390	4.122
Men	42.957	38.596	4.361
Pay gap	8%	8%	5%

Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

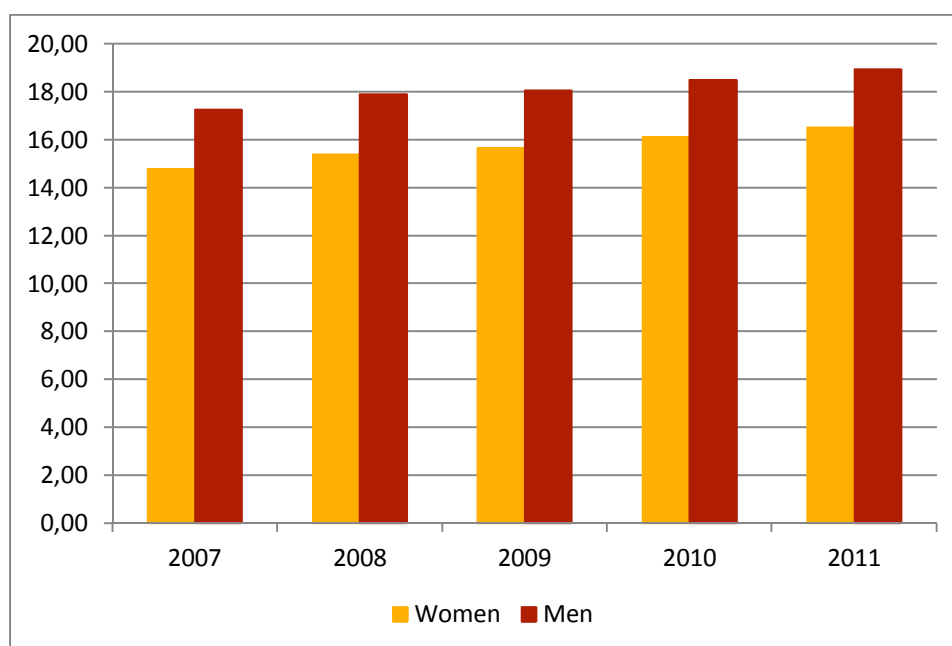
The pay gap in bonuses clearly is smaller than the pay gap in ordinary monthly earnings. This is due to the fact that many bonuses are made up of a fixed part and a part that depends on the monthly earnings. Yet the total pay gap bears close resemblance to the gap for the salary component, given that 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. In 2011 there is a remarkable decline in the figures. For the different wage components, the gap decreases with 2 percentage points. In 2010 only a slight decrease in the figures can be observed. In 2009 there was a clear decrease of 1 percentage point. The figures for 2008 are comparable with those for 2007 and 2006, although they are considerably lower than in 2004 and 2005.

Including the extra sectors has again a positive effect on the wages of women, and on the pay gap.

### 1.3.4 Average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees

As in 2009 and 2010, the pay gap based on the average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time workers was 13% for sectors of the industry and market services in 2011. In 2006, after four years of stagnating figures, a decline in the pay gap took place. Between 2006 and 2008 the figures stabilized at that level. In 2009 there was a decrease of 1 percentage point.

**Graph 5: Average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees (in euro) (2007-2011)**



Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

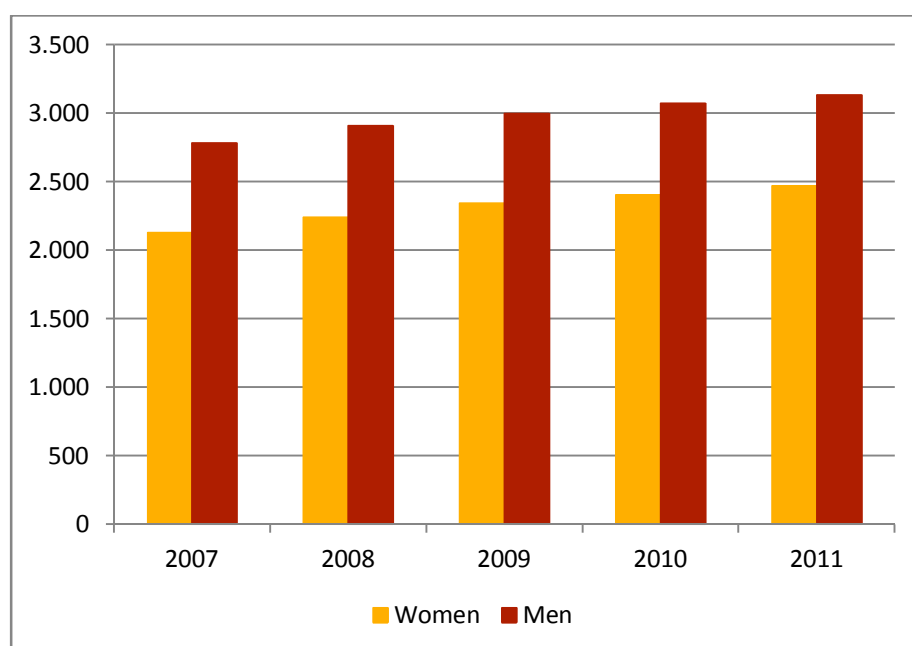
By including part-time workers in the calculation, the lower average hourly wages of part-time workers create a wider pay gap between men and women. This is especially the case in industry and sales, where the vast majority of part-time workers are women on lower wages. As such, the pay gap based on hourly wages is significantly smaller among part-time workers than with their full-time counterparts, because men who work part-time earn a lot less per hour than men who work full-time. 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.

The differences between these figures and the figures under the heading 'Pay gap based on hourly and annual earnings' are due to the fact that partly different sources are used. These calculations are based on survey data only. For the first indicators, the data are supplemented with estimations for the missing sectors.

More detailed information on the effects of part-time work on the gender pay gap is presented under the heading 'Inequality factors'.

### 1.3.5 Average gross monthly wages of full-time and part-time employees

Graph 6: Average gross monthly wages of full-time and part-time employees (in euro) (2007-2011)



Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The graph shows the average gross monthly earnings of full-time and part-time workers together. Calculated in this way, the pay gap is considerably greater than when based on hourly wages. 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 wage earners. Taking account of the fact that women are very much over-represented among part-time workers, which results in an even wider pay gap. The importance of this indicator lies in the fact that no adjustment has been made at all for the effects of part-time work: the gender inequality in working time is taken into consideration in the calculation.

In 2011, the pay gap between women and men based on the average gross monthly earnings of full-time and part-time workers taken together was 21%. Based on hourly wages, the pay gap was 13%, and based on monthly wages of only full-time workers, the pay gap was only 8%.

While the closing of the pay gap in 2006, observable in the other indicators, much less obvious is in this indicator, the decline in 2009 was clear. In 2011 another decline can be observed.

### 1.4 Fringe benefits

In addition to their wages, some employees also receive extra benefits from the employer, such as a company car or a business mobile phone. These benefits are in fact part of the wage, but they are not included in the survey. Research shows that these benefits are allocated more often to men than

to women. Data on taxes allows a number of these gender gaps in benefits to be studied: reimbursements for travel between home and work, contributions for supplementary pensions, and share options. The data relate to all wage earners, i.e. the private and the public sectors are included.

**Table 4: Proportion of wage earners to whom certain benefits are allocated; the average amount (in euro) of these benefits and the pay gap (2011)**

		Women	Men	Pay gap
Reimbursement of travel costs to and from work	Proportion	50%	57%	
	Average amount	458,55	642,83	29%
Contributions to supplementary pension schemes	Proportion	9%	12%	
	Average amount	456,24	759,45	40%
Share options	Proportion	0,41%	0,90%	
	Average amount	6.501,90	10.533,62	38%

Source: DGSEI, Tax statistics

57% of men and 50% of women receive reimbursements for travel between home and work. There is a slight increase in both these percentages, however the gap between women and men is persistent. On average, men receive annual reimbursements that are 29% higher than women. These figures are rather stable over the years.

Employers pay contributions to supplementary pensions for 12% of men and 9% women. 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 759.45 euro is contributed for men, while for women it is only 456.24 euro – 40% less. This gender pay gap is very wide. In fact the difference here is far higher than in the gender pay gap in general, which is not so easy to explain. These differences are very relevant in the context of the debate about pensions. Again, these figures compare to those of 2010.

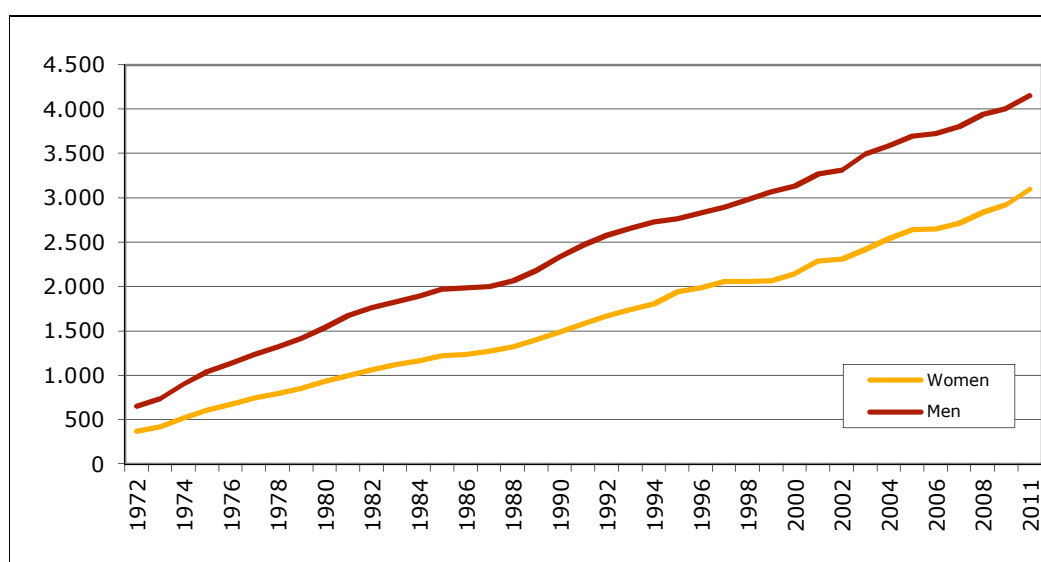
Men have more than twice as much chance to receive share options than women: 0.41% of female wage earners and 0.90% of male wage earners benefited from share options. On average, men received options to a value of 10,533.62 euro, while women received 6,501.90 euro. This indicates a very large difference of 38%. Because share options are usually allocated to employees occupying more senior positions, these differences are also related to the glass ceiling, i.e. the under-representation of women in company management. The share of women and men receiving this benefit has risen in comparison to 2010. The gender gap has only slightly decreased. The same is true for the gender gap in the average amount of share options.

## 1.5 Evolution of the pay gap

Analysing trends in the gender pay gap in the long term, is important. Only the data concerning full-time and part-time employees in industry are sufficiently comparable, to allow for such an analysis.

In the long run there is a clear rise in wages and a fall in the gender pay gap.

**Graph 7: Average gross monthly wages (in euro) for full-time and part-time employees in industry (1972-2011)**

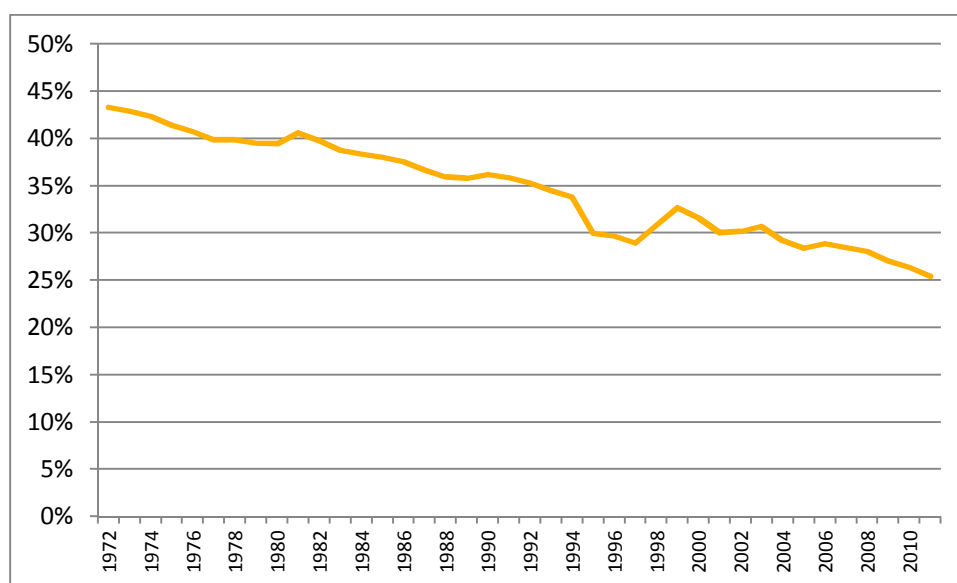


Sources: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey (from 1999) and the Half-Yearly Survey of Salaries and Wages

The graph shows the average gross monthly wages of men and women working full-time or part-time in industry for the period from 1972 to 2011. 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 2011, women's wages rose by a factor of 8.4, while for men it was a factor of 6.4. Although pay differences in euros grew, the relative difference – i.e. the gender pay gap – grew smaller.

The series of data was interrupted in 1998 and 1999, which has caused a slight discrepancy in the graph.

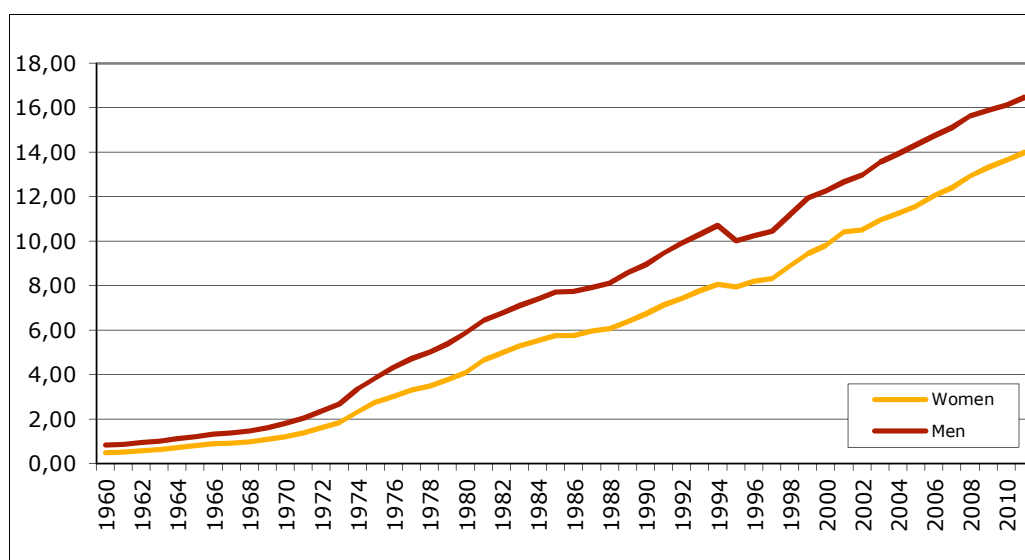
**Graph 8: Pay gap based on the gross monthly wages of full-time and part-time employees in industry (1972-2011)**



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

Because average female wages rose more quickly than male wages, there is a declining trend for the pay gap. Whereas the pay gap in 1972 was still 43%, by 2011 it was 25%. This can be explained by the fact that more women now are present on the labour market in general, including in positions that were previously more easily accessed by men. 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.

**Graph 9: Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees in industry (in euro) (1960-2011)**



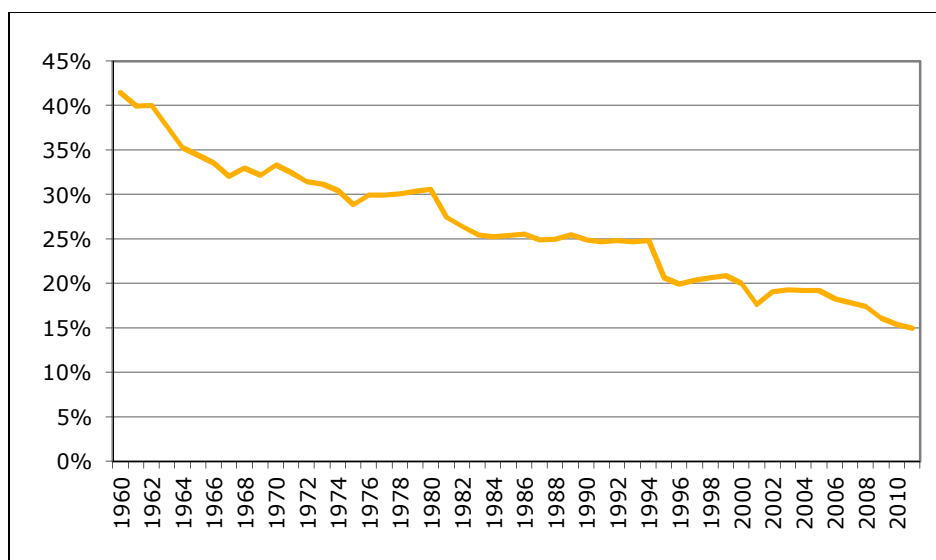
Sources: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey (from 1999) and the Half-Yearly Survey of Salaries and Wages



For the evolution in gross hourly wages, data go back to the 1960s, if a restriction is made to full-time and part-time blue-collar workers in industry. The rise in hourly wages is similar to that in monthly wages. Between 1960 and 2011 the average hourly pay for female blue-collar workers has been multiplied with a factor 28.2, while for men the factor was 19.4.

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

**Graph 10: Pay gap based on the gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees in industry (1960-2011)**



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

In 1960, the pay gap based on gross hourly wages was 41%, compared with 15% in 2011. The pay gap is smaller than the gap for monthly wages as the result of the disappearance of the effect of part-time working.

## 1.6 Employment rate

The extent to which women and men are working is an important context variable<sup>1</sup> of the pay gap: in other words, it has a direct influence on the pay gap. This is why this indicator was included in the European set of indicators.

<sup>1</sup> *Context indicator*: Indicator on context information needed to interpret another indicator correctly. For example, the employment rate of women and men, and their level of education are important context indicators when comparing the gender pay gap between European Member States.

**Table 5: Employment rate by gender (2002-2011)**

	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Women	51,4%	51,8%	52,6%	53,8%	54,0%	55,3%	56,2%	56,0%	56,5%	56,7%
Men	68,3%	67,3%	67,9%	68,3%	67,9%	68,7%	68,6%	67,2%	67,4%	67,1%

Source: DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

In 2011, 67.1% of the men were working, as opposed to 56.7% of the women. Compared to 2010 the employment rate has slightly risen for women, and slightly decreased for men.

From a gender equality perspective, equal pay and good access to the labour market for women are both important goals.

However, an increase of the employment rate often occurs in less paid jobs, resulting in a greater pay gap. Conversely, the lack of prospects of a good job is one of the reasons why women don't look for work. Unequal pay and discrimination on the labour market are factors that contribute to the sustaining of the difference in men's and women's employment rate.

When comparing the pay gap figures between countries, employment rate is an important context indicator, which explains why it was included in the European set. The pay gap and the employment rate of women is also discussed in the section on Europe of [www.genderpaygap.be](http://www.genderpaygap.be).

The employment rate is also calculated with regard to age, training level, family situation and civil status and nationality and country of birth.

## **1.7 Survey and estimations**

The Structure of Earnings Survey only includes those companies with at least 10 employees in sectors industry<sup>2</sup>, trading, hospitality, transport, finance, real estate and other services to companies. Since 2006, sectors education, healthcare and the socio-cultural sector<sup>3</sup> have also been included in the survey, although only every four years (2006, 2010, 2014...).

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. The original survey data is supplemented here in three ways: by businesses employing fewer than 10 staff, by sectors education, healthcare and the socio-cultural sector for the other years and by the remaining sectors agriculture and fisheries and government administration. Two sectors are not taken into consideration: the sector for domestic staff and the small sector of extra-territorial organisations (e.g. EU or UN staff).

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<sup>2</sup> Industry includes mining and manufacturing, the product and distribution of electricity, gas and water and construction.

<sup>3</sup> The socio-cultural sector includes community amenities and collective, social and personal services.

### 1.7.1 Extension to small companies

**Table 6: Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees (in euro) and the pay gap in companies with at least 10 employees and companies with fewer than 10 employees (2011)**

	Companies with 10 employees or more	Companies with fewer than 10 employees	Total
<i>Industry and market services</i>			
Women	16,52	14,57	16,14
Men	18,95	15,25	18,35
Pay gap	13%	4%	12%

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

The average hourly wages in companies with fewer than 10 employees in sectors of industry and market services appears to be lower than in companies with 10 or more employees. This applies to both women and men. The difference in wages is a smaller in companies with fewer than 10 employees (4%) than in those with 10 or more employees (13%).

However, when companies with fewer than 10 employees are included in the calculation for the pay gap in industry and market services sectors, this provides often a slight and somewhat contradictory rise in the gender pay gap. This is called a 'composition effect': women work more often in small enterprises with low salaries. The gross hourly wage is also appreciably lower in those companies, both for men (15.25 euro versus 18.95 euro) and women (14.57 euro versus 16.52 euro). 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. However, the impact of this effect is not always significant. The last years the gender pay gap even declines slightly when small enterprises are taken into account.

## 1.7.2 Extension to education, healthcare and the socio-cultural sector

**Table 7: Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees (in euro) and the pay gap in companies with at least 10 employees and companies with fewer than 10 employees in industry and market services and semi-public sectors (2011)**

	Companies with 10 employees or more	Companies with fewer than 10 employees	Total
<i>Industry and market services, education, healthcare, and the socio-cultural sector</i>			
Women	17,68	12,22	17,28
Men	19,51	14,50	19,11
Pay gap	9%	16%	10%

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

The analysis is further extended to include sectors education, healthcare and social services and the socio-cultural sector. The difference in average hourly wages between companies with fewer than 10 employees and companies with 10 or more employees is reproduced.

Compared with the 'classic' private sectors, i.e. industry and market services, a rather large gender pay gap is found in small enterprises in the 'semi-public' sectors, i.e. education, healthcare and social services and the socio-cultural sector: i.e. 18%. While in companies with 10 employees to more the gender pay gap is 14%.

However, when these data are included in the calculation of the pay gap, the effect on the resulting pay gap is limited.

### 1.7.3 Extension to entire economy

**Table 8: Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees all sectors (in euro) and the pay gap (2011)**

	Sectors B to N	Sectors B-N, P-S	Sectors A to S
	Industry and market services	Industry and market services, education, healthcare, and the socio-cultural sector	Agriculture and fishery, Industry and market services, education, healthcare, the socio-cultural sector, and the public sector
Vrouwen	16,14	16,59	16,38
Mannen	18,35	18,45	18,18
Loonkloof	12%	10%	10%

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

The subsequent extension to agriculture, fisheries and public administration barely alters the results of the analysis. The average gross hourly wage remains more or less the same for men whether they work in industry or market services or elsewhere, while the average gross hourly wage for women is higher when they work in public sectors.

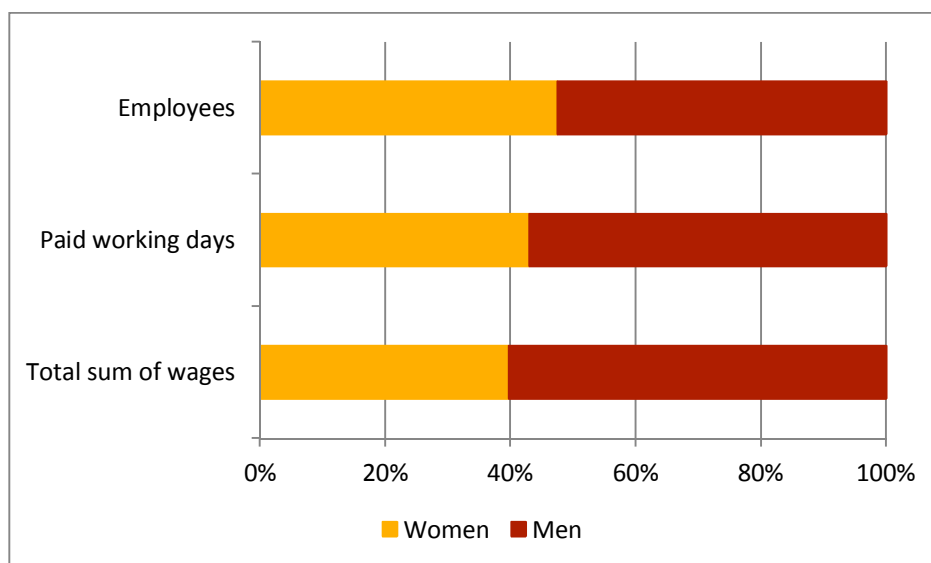
## 2. Share in the total sum of wages

It is possible to calculate the total amount of the gender pay gap. In order to do so, the total of wages paid to women and men in a year is compared to the share of women and men in the work, as employees, or in paid working days.

A very clear way of illustrating the unequal share of women and men in the total sum of wages is provided by the distribution of full-time employees over the various categories of gross monthly wages. Women are over-represented in lower wage categories. Men form a majority in the higher wage categories.

### 2.1 Share of women and men among employees, in actual working days and in the total sum of wages

**Graph 11: Share of women and men among employees, in actual working days and in the total sum of wages (2011)**



Sources: NSSO and DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

According to the National Social Security Office (NSSO), 107,045,753,000 euro was paid in gross wages in Belgium in 2011. 42.526 billion euro was paid to women, which corresponds to 39.73% of total wages, compared with 39.46% in 2010.

The graph clearly shows how this inequality only partly reflects the gender inequality in participation in the labour market. In terms of the share of women in paid work, this figure was 47.43% for women, compared with 52.57% for men. In 2010 the figures were 47.13% and 52.87%.

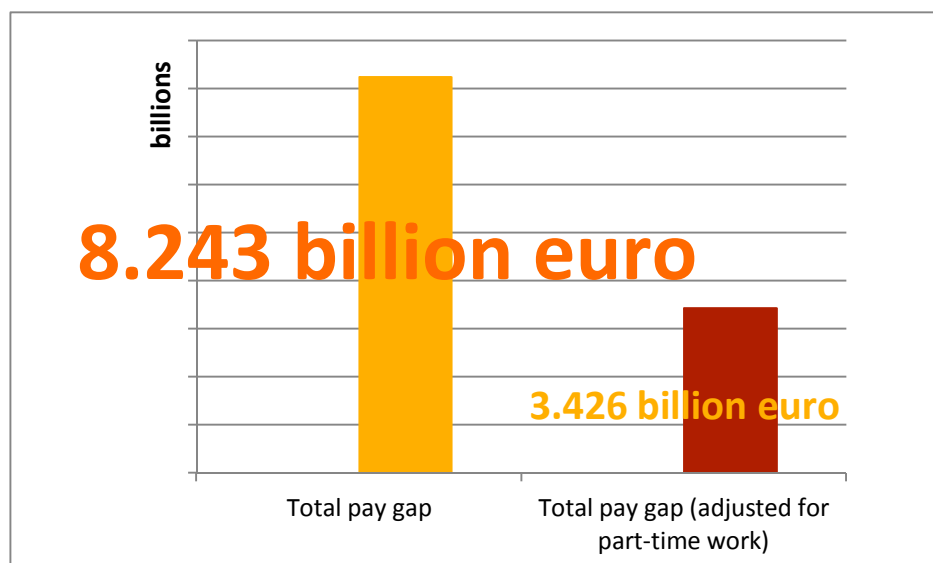
In 2011 women worked 42.93% of the paid working days.<sup>4</sup> For the first time in years, this percentage has no longer risen. In 2010 the increase stopped, in 2011 there is even a slight decline.

The evolution towards a greater gender equality is very slow; each year women receive a larger part of the total sum of wages, women are more present on the labour market and work a larger part of the paid working days. The pay differences, however, do not really disappear. In 2009, this evolution went faster, as a consequence of the relatively strong decrease of the share of men in the working days. In 2011 the evolution appears to have regained its previous pace. On the level of actual working days, it has even come to a standstill. More women have paid jobs, but for less hours.

## 2.2 Total pay gap

In 2011 female workers in Belgium together should have earned 8.243 billion euro more. When part-time work is taken into account, which largely concerns women, then they still should have earned 3.426 billion euro more.

**Graph 12: Total pay gap (in euro) (2011)**



Sources: NSSO and DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

The total pay gap is defined as the difference between the share of women in the total sum of wages and their share in paid employment. In 2011, 47.43% of employees were women and 107,045,753,000 euro was paid out in wages. Hence taken together, female workers should have received 50.769 billion euro, or 8.243 billion euro more than they actually earned (42.526 billion euro).

<sup>4</sup> The paid working days of part-time employees have been converted into working paid at the rate of 7 hours and 36 minutes per working day (i.e. 7.6 hours).

Part of the pay gap is due to the fact that women work part-time more often than men. It is possible to 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. 42.93% of paid working days were worked by women. Taking working hours into account, they therefore should have earned 45.951 billion euro, which is 3.426 billion euro 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.

The total sum of wages increases every year. In order to make comparisons over the years, it is necessary to take the inflation into account. Based on the national index of consumer prices, we can recalculate the total wage bill to the prices of the previous year. The total sum of wages for 2011 amounts to 103,392,151,380 when corrected. When calculated in 2010 prices, women earned 7.961 billion euro to little, or 3.309 billion euro when corrected for part-time work.

### **2.3 Distribution of women and men over the categories of gross monthly wages**

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. In the higher categories the pattern is reversed.



**Graph 13: Distribution of women and men over the categories of gross monthly wages for full-time employees (in euro) (2011)**



Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The data in the graph relate to the industry, and market services. The pattern in the distribution of women and men over the wage categories is similar to those of the previous years.

One in five full-time employed women earned a gross monthly wage of less than 2,250 euro. For men, this was only the case for one in five. 15% of the full-time working women and 19% of full-time working men earned more than 4,000 euro gross per month in 2011. The percentage of women earning more than 5,000 euro gross per month, decreased for 3.5% in 2007 to 3.2% in 2008, but went up to 4.0% in 2009, and 4.9% in 2010. The increase among men is yet bigger: from 6.1% in 2007 to 6.6% in 2008, 7.6% in 2009, and 9.1% in 2010. In 2011 a marked increase can be observed for women in the higher pay scales; their shares grows to 6.6%. For men this is 9.9%.

Hence women stay strongly under-represented at the top.

### 3. Inequality factors

#### 3.1 Part-time work

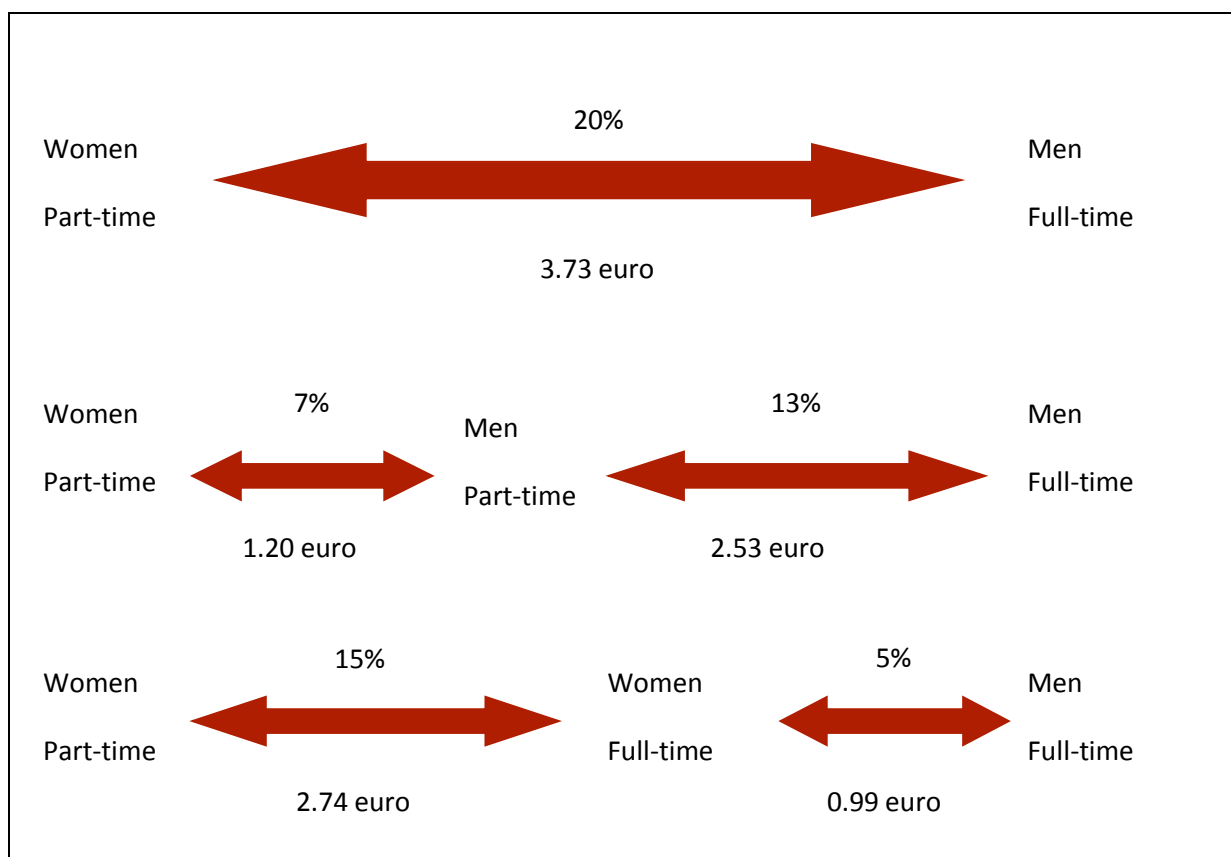
Under the heading general pay differences the size of the impact that working part-time has on the monthly and annual wages of women and men is already discussed. The official indicator for part-time work is the comparison of hourly wages of women and men working part-time and full-time.

Part-time work is characterised by large gender differences: in numbers, as well as in the reasons why women and men work part-time. These are important elements in the debate, therefore data concerning this topic are included.

##### 3.1.1 Pay gap for full-time and part-time workers

Part-time work is often associated with low paid jobs in sectors with low wages. This is true for female and male part-time workers. Women who work part-time have a double disadvantage: as a woman, and as a part-timer.

**Graph 14: Average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees (in euro) and the pay gap (2011)**

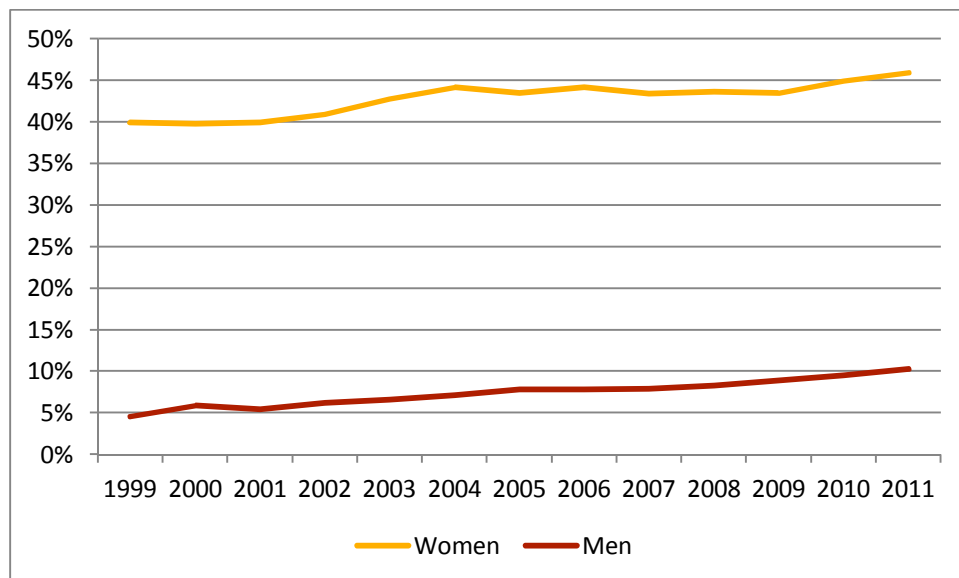


A woman working part-time in industry and market services earns 3.73 euro less per hour on average than a full-time working man. That represents a pay gap of 20%. This wide gap can be broken down further in two ways: one, by using part-time working men as the comparison point and, two, by using full-time working women. In relation to part-time working men, the difference in wages is still 1.20 euro, or a gap of 7%. The pay gap between part-time and full-time working men is 13%. Full-time working women earn 2.74 euro per hour more on average than part-time working women, but 0.99 euro less than a full-time working man. Over the years, the gap between part-time and full-time working women increases, while the gap between part-time working women and part-time working men decreases.

### 3.1.2 Part-time employment rate

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 2011, 45.9% of female wage earners worked part-time, compared with only 10.3% 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. Compared to 1999, part-time work has risen among women with 15%. Among men the number has more than doubled.

**Graph 15: Part-time employment rate (1999-2011)**



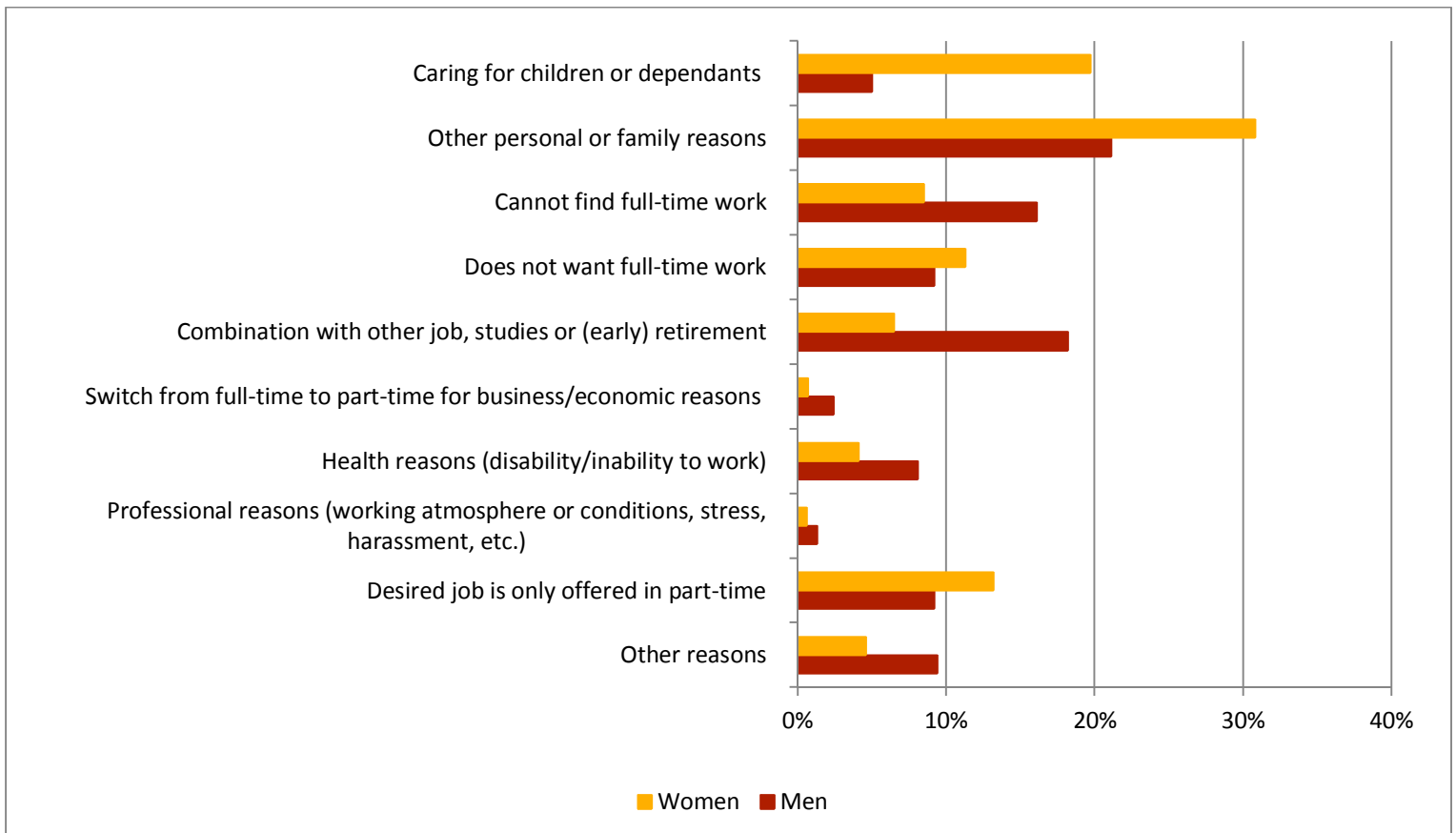
Source: DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

The degree of part-time working differs sharply according to the sector of employment. These figures are shown in the listings under segregation of the labour market.

### 3.1.3 Female and male part-time workers, by reason for working part-time

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 specifically enquires about these reasons. 9% of women working part-time and 16% of men working part-time stated they were unable to find a full-time job. For 51% 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 26%. 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 one in five male part-time workers. For women, this was only one in fifteen. Only 11% of female and 9% of male part-time workers did not want to have a full-time job. Certain jobs are only available in part-time: this is the case for 13% of female part-time workers, and 9% of male part-time workers.

**Graph 16: Female and male part-time workers, by reason for working part-time (2011)**



### 3.1.4 Average gross monthly wages of part-time and full-time wage earners

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 15% in monthly wages for part-time workers. Calculated in hourly wages, this pay gap is 7%. The monthly wages of full-time workers are presented for comparison.

**Table 9: Average gross monthly wages of part-time and full-time wage earners (in euro) and the pay gap (2011)**

	Part-time workers	Full-time workers
Women	1.665	2.995
Men	1.963	3.258
Pay gap	15%	8%

Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

## 3.2 Age

Age is a factor that has a major influence on pay. On the one hand, age is strongly interlinked with experience and length of service. On the other hand, there is a generational difference: younger women are on average much higher educated than older women and they are also much more active on the labour market.

Irrespective of age category, the employment rate for women is lower than for men. The difference is relatively small within the younger age categories, but it increases strongly with age.

### 3.2.1 Average gross hourly wages by age category and wage gap

Wages rise with age for both women and men. There the similarity ends, for the wages evolve quite differently according to sex. While the average gross hourly wages of men gradually increase, women's wages tend to stagnate starting from the age category of 35 to 44 years. As a consequence the pay gap rises from 5% for 25 to 29-year-olds to 10% for 30 to 44-year-olds and 15% for 45 to 54-year-olds, culminating at 21% for the category of 55 to 64-year-olds.

**Table 10: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) by age category and wage gap (2011)**

	-25 years	25-34 years	35-44 years	45-54 years	55-64 years
Women	11,89	14,61	17,38	17,82	18,18
Men	13,08	15,46	19,25	20,86	23,10
Pay gap	9%	5%	10%	15%	21%

Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

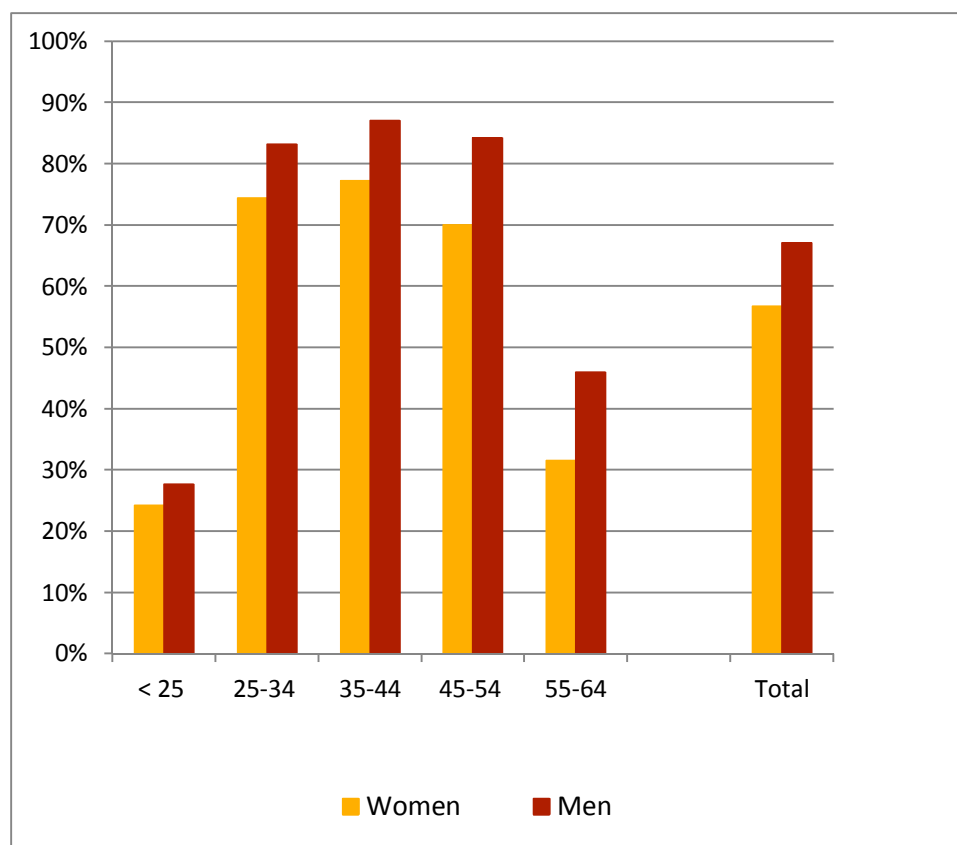
This rise in the pay gap can be explained by the differing career structures of men and women. Women interrupt their career more frequently and find it less easy to be considered for promotion. In general, they also often receive fewer opportunities to go on training courses than men. Furthermore, it appears that the lack of equal opportunities has a negative return: women who feel obstructed in their career, will after some time tend to invest less effort in it.

The pay gap for young people under 25 is relatively high at 9% in industry and market services. At that age many are still studying. Young people entering the labour market before reaching the age of 20, are usually not very high educated. Segregation between sectors and occupations is relatively strong for the low educated. The figures under the heading 25 to 30-years-olds show that there is a gender pay gap of 17% for young people who at the age of 25-26 have already been working for 6 or 7 years.

### **3.2.2 Employment rate by age category**

In all age categories, the employment rate for women is lower than for men. For the younger generations, the gap is closing. For the older ones, the difference is considerable. Only 31.6% of women aged 55 to 64 are still active on the labour market, compared with 46.0% of men of the same age.

**Graph 17: Employment rate by age category (2011)**



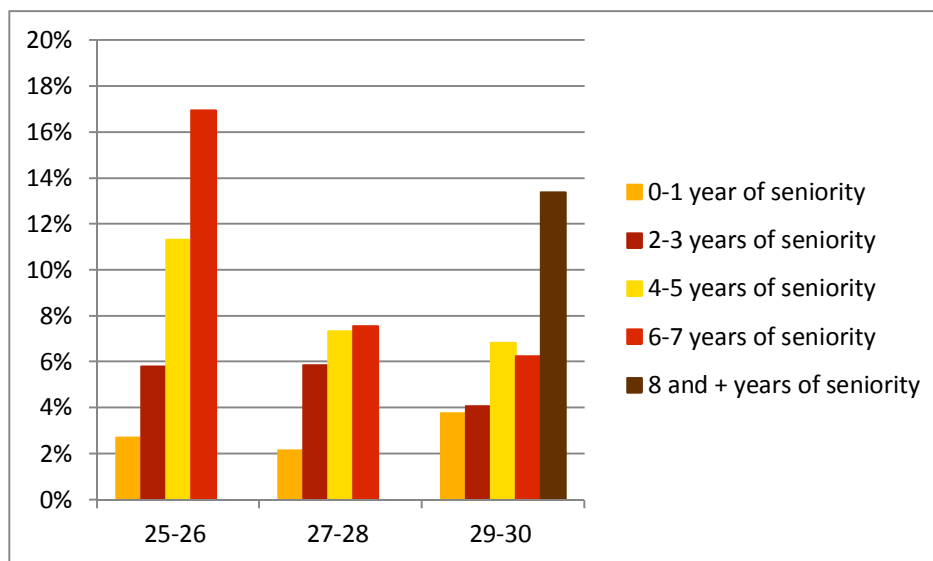
Source: DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

In 2009 the employment rate of men decreased drastically, compared to 2008. In 2010 there was a slight recovery for most age categories, however in 2011 the employment of men decreases again slightly for the middle categories. For women the employment rate decreased in 2009 far less markedly than for men, and not in all age categories. In 2010 there was a slight increase in all age categories, except for the youngest. In 2011 this evolution is reversed: the employment rate decreases slightly for women between the ages of 25 and 44, but increases among the younger and the older women.

### **3.2.3 Pay gap by age and seniority among 25 to 30-year-olds**

To assess whether the pay gap disappears with the influx of new generations of employees, it is interesting to examine how pay differences evolve with the number of years of work experience in the age category for 25 to 30.

**Graph 18: Pay gap by age and seniority among 25 to 30-year-olds (2011)**



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. However, the pattern is stable over the years.

### 3.3 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. Not only wages increase with the level of education; the gender pay gap rises as well.

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, for men as well as for women. Employment rates differ considerably among lower educated women and men.

#### 3.3.1 Average gross hourly wages by level of education and wage gap

Those who have at least a diploma of higher education of the long type, earn considerably more on average than others. In industry and market services men with at most a higher secondary school certificate earn on average 16.06 euro gross per hour, while for men with at least a higher education diploma of the long type this amounts to 30.60 euro. For women these figures are respectively 14.13 euro and 24.99 euro. The benefits of education are generally greater for men than for women. As a consequence, the gender pay gap is at its widest among higher educated individuals. The difference is much smaller in the middle group.



**Table 11: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) by level of education and wage gap (2011)**

	Maximum secondary education	Higher education of the short type	Minimum higher education of the long type
Women	14,13	18,33	24,99
Men	16,06	21,35	30,60
Pay gap	12%	14%	18%

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. For women with a (very) low level of education 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. 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.

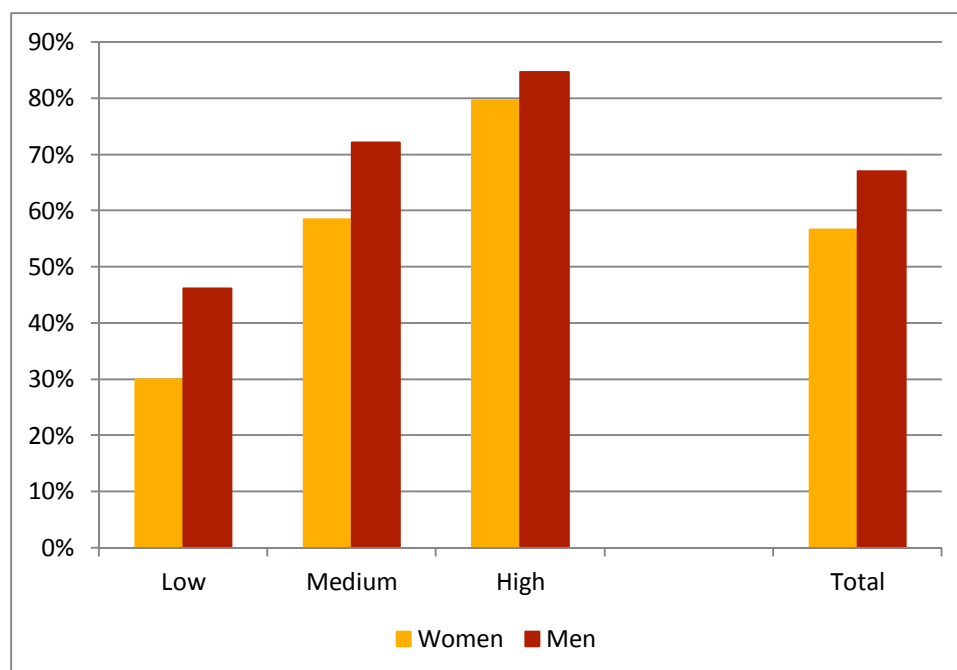
Yet we should also note that behind these rather broad categories of education levels, there are major differences in the type of study courses completed. These different types of study are not always given the same value. For example, a diploma in exact sciences is often given a higher value on the 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.

### **3.3.2 Employment rate by level of education**

High educated individuals more often have a job than lower educated. The difference is more prominent among women. Only 30.0% of women with a low level of education are employed, while the figure is 79.7% among women educated to a high level. That is a difference of 49.7 percentage points. With men, the difference is only 38.5 percentage points, ranging from 46.2% to 84.7%. The difference in the employment rate between men and women therefore reduces as they become more highly educated.

In comparison to 2010, there is a slight decrease in the employment rate for lower educated people and a slight increase for higher educated people.

**Graph 19: Employment rate by level of education (2011)**



Source: DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

### 3.4 Marital status and family composition

Marital status and household composition have a different effect on the pay of men and women and hence on the pay gap.

Moreover, marital status and household composition influence the employment rate of women and men. In other words, being part of a couple, being married, and having children, will influence the likelihood of women and men working part-time or full-time in paid jobs.

#### 3.4.1 Average gross hourly wages by marital status and wage gap

**Table 12: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) by marital status and wage gap (2011)**

	Single	Married	Divorced	Widowed
Women	16,65	18,55	18,10	18,60
Men	16,59	20,76	18,94	20,57
Pay gap	0%	11%	4%	10%

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

The table shows gross hourly wages by marital status. 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 in industry and market services is 16.59 euro, this figure rises to 20.76 euro for married men.

This difference can be explained in part by age. On average, a married man is twelve years older<sup>5</sup> than a single man, and 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. This indicates that age difference does not fully explain the difference in pay. 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. In industry and market services, married women earn more than single or divorced women. In 2011, they had a gross hourly wage of 18.55 euro, compared with 16.65 euro for single women and 18.10 euro 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.

The varying effects of marital status of the pay of women and men mean that the pay difference is very large for married people (11%) and non-existent for singles (2%). 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.

### 3.4.2 Average gross hourly wages by family type and wage gap

**Table 13: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) by family type and wage gap (2011)**

	Single without children	Single with child(ren)	Couple without children	Couple with child(ren)
Women	18,26	17,39	18,28	17,71
Men	17,74	18,22	20,58	19,84
Pay gap	-3%	5%	11%	11%

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

The influence of household composition on wages is more or less similar as that of 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.

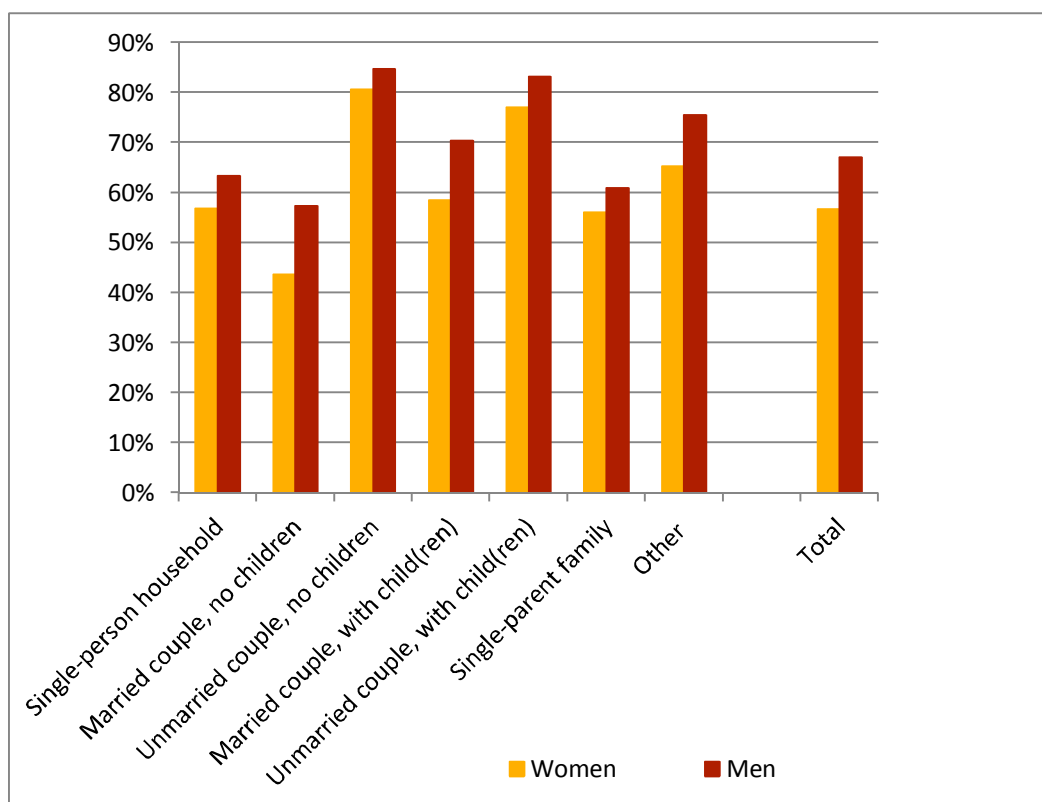
<sup>5</sup> These figures are based on the Structure of Earnings Survey 2006 and apply to employees from sectors of industry and market services.

The impact of these various factors results in the end in the pay gap being even negative for singles without children, in other words in the advantage of women, is average for singles with children (5%), and significantly higher for couples (with or without children) (11%).

### 3.4.3 Employment rate by household type

The gender differences in employment rate by family situation and marital status 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.

**Graph 20: Employment rate by household type (2011)**



Source: DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

Married women participate less often in the labour market than unmarried women. Only 58.5% of married women with children have paid jobs, compared to 77.1% of mothers who are not married to their partners. Only 56.0% of single mothers have paid jobs.

Unmarried men more often have paid jobs than married men. The employment rate is the highest among unmarried men who live with a partner, but without children: 84.7% of these men have jobs. With a child the rate drops to 83.1%. 70.3% of married fathers and only 60.9% of single fathers are employed.

The employment rate of married women and men without children is very low. However, an age-related effect is probably at work here: older couples whose children 'have left home' are counted

statistically as couples with no children. In general the employment rate of older people is rather low.

The employment rate of single women is close to the general average for women.

In 2011 most employment rates by household type are more or less stable. Among couples without children a slight decline can be observed. Nonetheless, this remains the household type with the highest employment rates for both men and women (>80%).

### **3.5 Nationality**

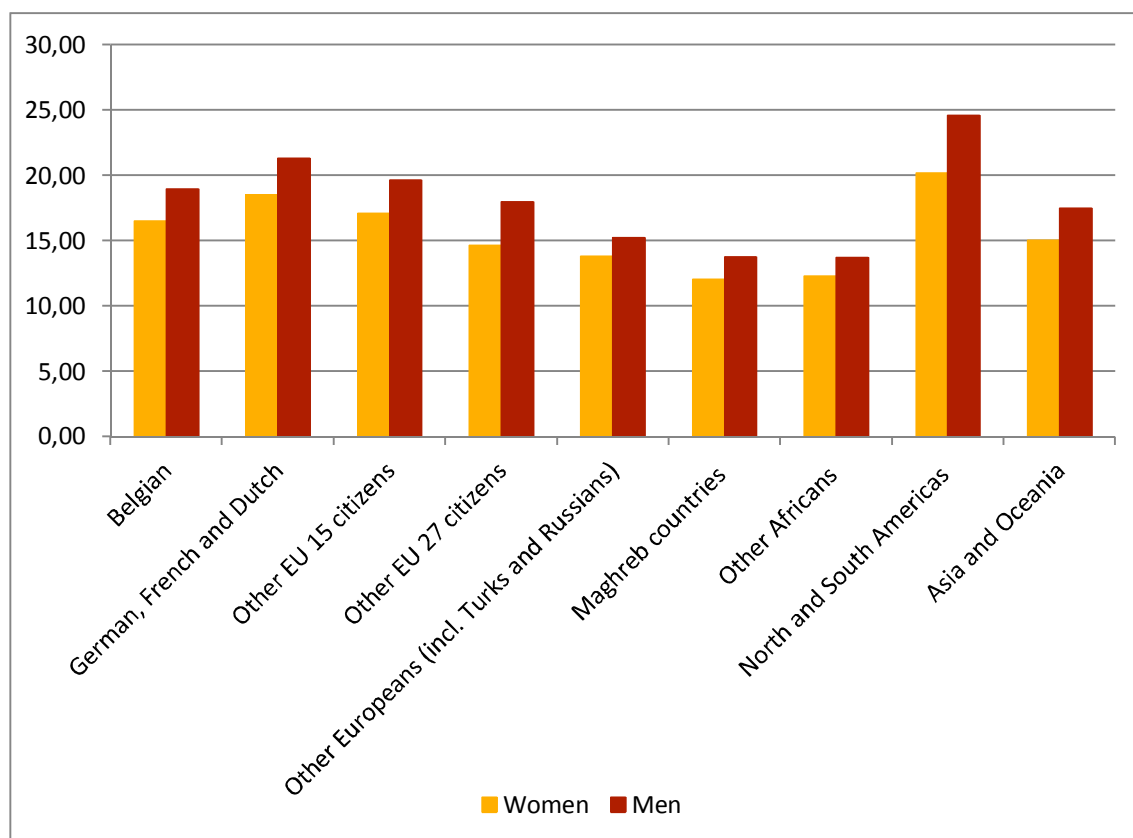
Gender inequality is often exacerbated, or yet interfered with by other social inequalities. By linking the Structure of Earnings Survey to the nationality variable from the National Register, the pay gap by nationality can be calculated. First the gender pay gap according to nationality in Belgium is discussed. Next the pay differences are examined between women and men of different nationalities and Belgian women and men.

However, 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 the difficulty to find a job. The data show considerable differences in the employment rate by nationality. Categories have also been created to prevent working with small and hence less reliable sample numbers.

#### **3.5.1 Average gross hourly wages and wage gap by nationality in Belgium**

The graph shows the average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees by nationality for the industry and market services. To avoid any confusion: these data do not relate to the pay gap in those various countries.

**Graph 21: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) by nationality in Belgium (2011)**



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

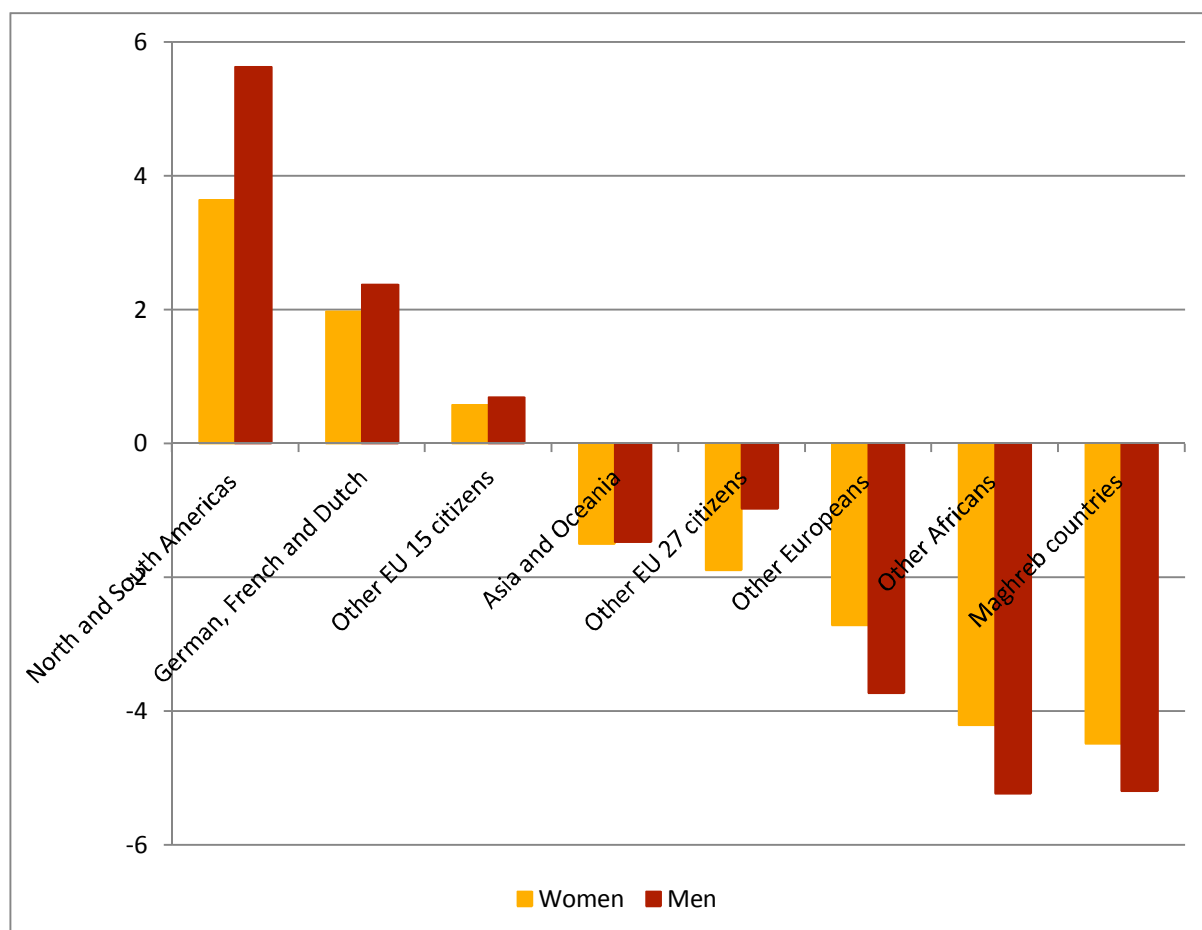
It is immediately obvious that the average gross hourly wages for certain categories of nationality are above those of Belgians, both for women and men. The largest difference can be found for North and South Americans, then for the Germans, Dutch and French – and finally for employees from the other ‘old’ EU Member States. The other categories of nationalities earn on average less than Belgians. Once again the pattern for women and men is highly comparable. The lowest wages go to workers from the Maghreb countries, followed by the other African countries. Somewhat better are the wages of other Europeans, which is a category that includes mainly Turks and Russians. 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 19% in the industry and market services. The pay gap among Americans is almost as big; on account of their very high average pay for men (18%). The smallest pay gaps are among the other Europeans and other Africans, where average wages for women are not that much lower than those of men. But even for these categories of nationalities the pay gap rises respectively to 9% and 10%. In other words, for these poorly paid nationalities, women earn on average even less than men.

### **3.5.2 Pay difference and wage gap in regard to the average gross hourly wages of Belgian employees, by nationality**

In order to present the large pay differences according to nationality more clearly, the graph shows the pay differences compared with the average gross hourly wages of Belgian women and men.

For women of other nationalities, the average gross hourly wages of Belgian women are used as the reference point. In the context of eliminating all gender pay gaps, the gross hourly wages of Belgian men should be used here as the reference point. This is not done, in order to illustrate the double disadvantage. It should be noted however, that when there is no difference compared to the Belgians, this does not refer to the same pay level for woman and men.

**Graph 22: Pay difference (in euro) in regard to the average gross hourly wages of Belgian employees, by nationality (2011)**



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, and Asia and Oceania, the disadvantage for women in percentage is equal or a little less than for men. In euro 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 12.04 euro gross per hour (with or without the extra sectors).

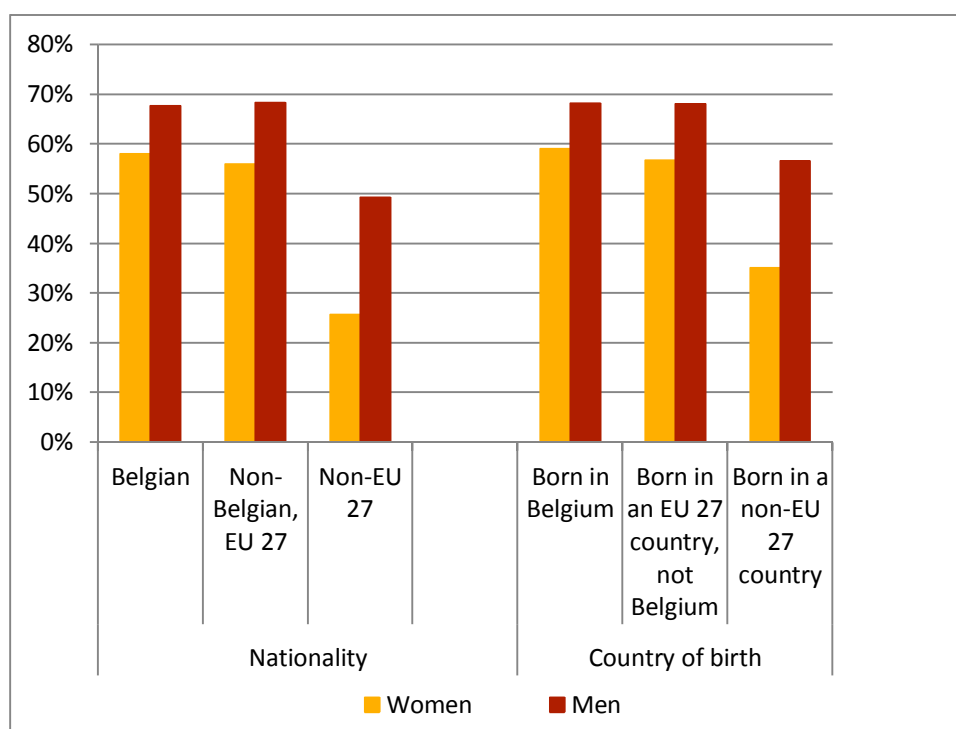
For those nationalities that earn more than Belgians on average, the lead enjoyed by women is comparable to that of men, except for the Americans. American women earn 18% more on average

than Belgian women, while for American men, this advantage rises to 23% in industry and market services.

### 3.5.3 Employment rate by current nationality and by country of birth

The employment rate is calculated on the basis of the Labour Force Survey. The categories that are used are less detailed, but a complementary analysis on the basis of the country of birth is possible. Discrimination and nationality do not always overlap. The distinction that people tend to make inconsiderately between nationals and foreigners is not so easy to translate into statistics.<sup>6</sup> 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, 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 23: Employment rate by current nationality and by country of birth (2011)**



Source: DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

<sup>6</sup> In this report, the words 'national', and 'foreigner' are used in a neutral way. By no means, a valuation is made. In order to measure discrimination, it is important to be able to make a distinction, even though such a distinction should be irrelevant from an anti-discrimination point of view. As long as discrimination remains a reality, measuring the inequality is needed.



After the rather strong decrease in the employment rate in 2009, a slight recovery could be observed in 2010. However, this trend is not continued in 2011. The employment rate went further down specifically for women with a non-EU-27 nationality, and for women who were born outside the EU-27.

For men, there is no difference between Belgians and other EU citizens in the employment rate by nationality; for other EU citizens the employment rate is even slightly higher. For women there is a difference: while for Belgian women the employment rate is 58.1%, the employment rate for women from other EU states amounts to 56.0%. For people with a nationality outside the European Union, the employment rate for men is 49.3% and for women 25.3%. 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. 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 35.2% and 56.7% 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'. This probably means that foreigners with Belgian nationality are relatively more successful on the labour market than foreigners with a non-European nationality, but less successful 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.

### **3.6 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.

### 3.6.1 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 there is a greater difference between high and low wages in general, the gender pay gap also often tends to be greater.

The complete overview is available as table 14 in annexe. The table contains the following data: the average gross hourly wages of full-time working women and men (in euro); the gender pay gap; the average gender pay gap (last 3 years); 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 gap between high and low wages,<sup>7</sup> as the gap between the 5th and 85th pay percentile;<sup>8</sup> and the average gap between high and low wages (last 3 years). The filter functions on the basis of NACE codes and categories. The data shown in the table are ranked according to the size of the pay gap.

The reports 2009 and 2013 (based on the 2006 and 2010 surveys) also includes data on the sectors of education, health care and the socio-cultural sector.

In 2008 a new classification of economic sectors has been adopted (NACE 2). This new classification is an improvement, yet comparison over the years is difficult. For the year 2009, data are available for both classifications. The averages over the years are only calculated for the available years.

As in the previous years, the biggest pay gap in 2011 is to be found in the aviation sector, with a gap of 33%. The rest of the top 5 remains identical, and is made up of the sectors: the electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply; the manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products; the manufacture of wearing apparel; and the activities auxiliary to financial services and insurance activities. The gender pay gap ranges here from 29% to 23% in 2011. At the other end of the ranking there are some changes. For 2011 no pay differences can be observed in the sectors of manufacture of furniture; civil engineering; waste collection, treatment and disposal activities, materials recovery; security and investigation activities; and postal and courier activities. In some sectors a negative gender pay gap can be found, i.e. in the advantage of women: the construction of buildings; the other mining and quarrying; and land transport and transport via pipelines; and manufacture of other transport equipment.

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<sup>7</sup> *The gap between high and low wages:* The difference between high and low wages in a certain sector. When this difference is big, workers with high wages earn relatively much more than workers with low wages. When this difference is small, wages are much more similar.

<sup>8</sup> *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.

Compared to 2009, the pay gap decreases in most sectors.

### 3.6.2 Joint committees

Since wage negotiations are largely organised at the level of joint committees, the pay gap is also presented by joint committee. The table refers to gross monthly wages of full time employees.

The overview is also available as table 15 in annexe. On the website data can also be looked up by joint committee.

The pay gap declines in almost all joint committees, even with 1 or 2 percentage points. The pay gap remains status quo in the joint committee for blue-collar workers in the paper and cardboard processing; and the hotel industry; and in the joint committee for white-collar workers in brokerage and insurance agencies.

As in 2010 and 2009, the largest gender pay gap among blue-collar workers in 2011 can be found in joint committee 109 'Garment and clothing industry', i.e. 26%. Among white-collar employees, the largest gap amounts to 30%, in joint committee 307 'Broking and insurance agencies'.

Data are not yearly available for all joint committees. This is a result of the confidentiality policy followed by the Directorate-General for Statistics and Economic Information, and the guaranties it offers for the reliability of the figures.

### 3.6.3 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<sup>9</sup> is used in the Structure of Earnings Survey, limited here to two figures. In 2008, a renewed, improved version was introduced. The old one dates from 1988 and is indicated as ISCO-88, the new one as ISCO-08. The redefinition of categories makes comparisons with the gender pay gap reports 2007 till 2011 difficult.

This again is about people who are employed full-time in industry and market services.

The overview of professional categories is presented as table 16 in annexe. For every professional category, the following data are presented: the average gross hourly wages of women and men, the gender pay gap, the average gender pay gap (2009-2011), the share of women in the category, and the rate of part-time employment.

In the renewed ISCO-classification, categories are more homogeneous, which simplifies the interpretation of results. The gender pay gap is largest among sales workers, among business and administration professionals, and among stationary plant and machine operators, namely 18%. The smallest gender pay gap can be observed among drivers and mobile plant operators (3%), and building workers (5%). The results for managers are presented under the heading 'glass ceiling'.

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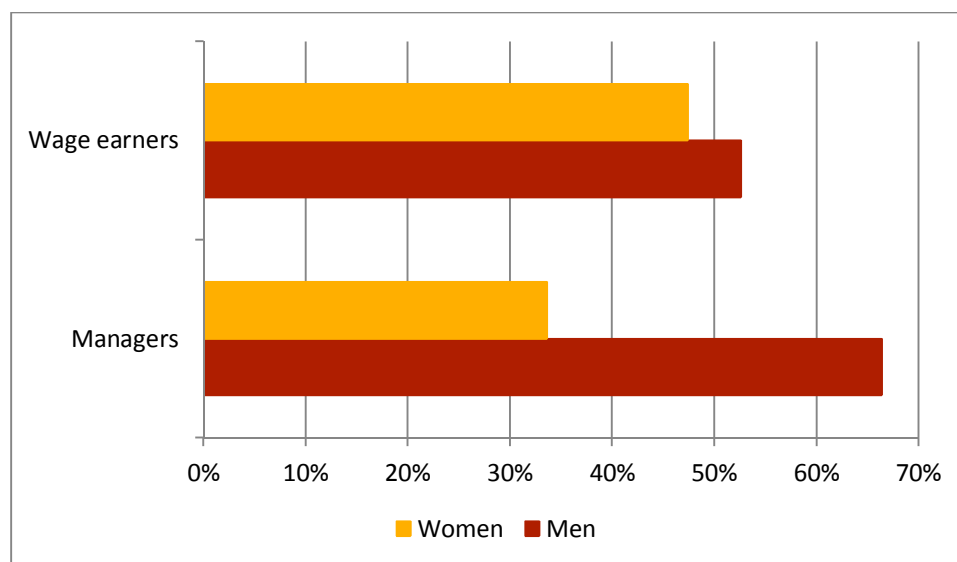
<sup>9</sup> *ISCO nomenclature*: International Standard Classification of Occupations.

### 3.6.4 Glass ceiling

One of the causes of the gender pay gap is the vertical segregation, i.e. the under-representation of women in managerial positions. The difficult access for women to higher positions and the reduced chances of promotion are also called ‘the glass ceiling’.

#### 3.6.4.1 Share of women and men among managers

Graph 24: Share of women and men among managers (2011)



Source: DGSEI, Labour Force Survey

The graph shows the under-representation of women in managerial position, based on the Labour Force Survey. In comparison to their share among employees, i.e. 47.4%, there are too little women among managers, namely only 33.6%.

The new ISCO-nomenclatura is used for the analysis of the Labour Force Survey from 2011 onwards. As a consequence, the category of ‘managers’ is being defined more precisely than before; in other words, less functions are being classified as ‘managerial’. However, comparison with the previous years is difficult.

In the industry and market services, this share is even smaller: 27% among hospitality, retail and other services managers, 23% among administrative and commercial managers, 17% among production and specialized services managers, and only 11% among chief executives. So even within the category of managers a vertical segregation can be observed. These figures are based on the Structure of Earnings Survey. They are represented in table 16 in the annexes.

The under-representation of women in managerial positions is presented in the overview for the sectors (table 14 – see annexes). The share of women among managers 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

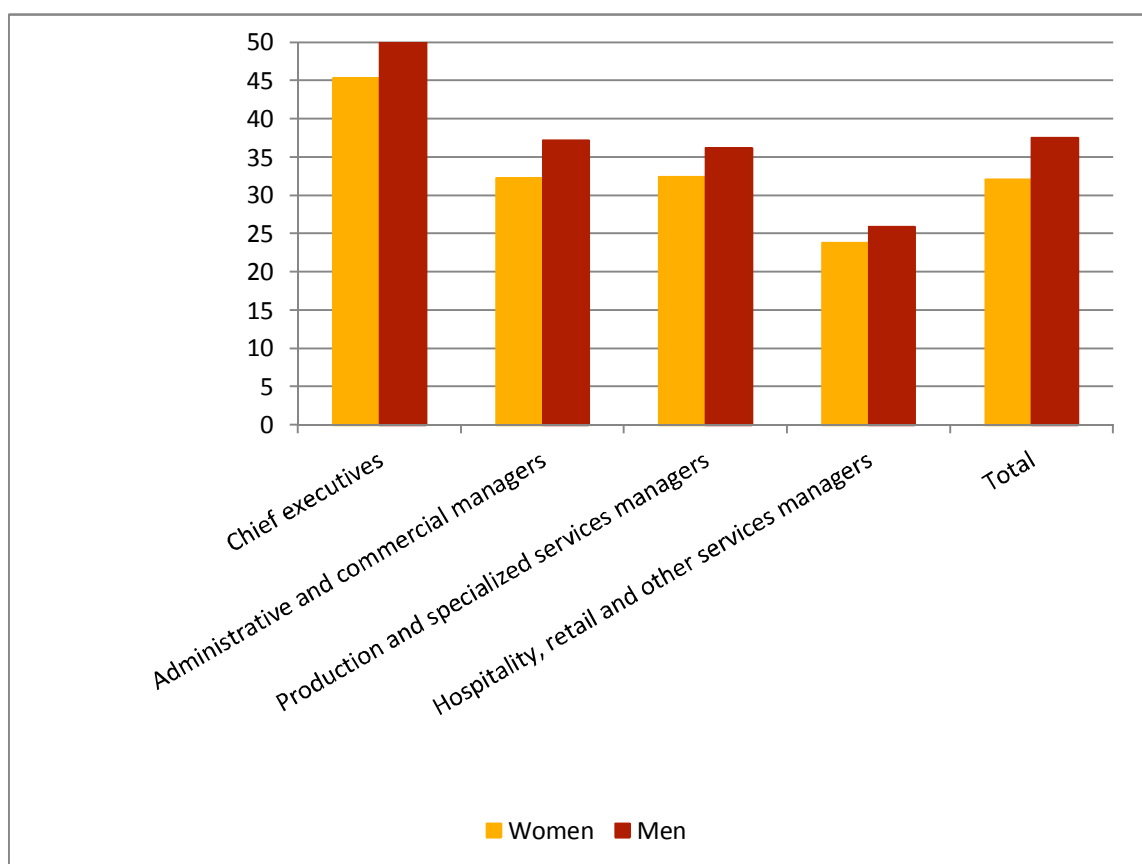
corresponds to their share in the sector, it can be assumed that women have no specific obstacles to overcome on their way to the top. The bigger the difference, the harder that way is.

There is a shortage of women at the top in most sectors. The glass ceiling is the thickest in the sectors of manufacture of wearing apparel (the difference in the share of women among managers and their share in the sector amounts to 36 percentage points); travel agency, tour operator reservation service and related activities (32 percentage points); manufacture of tobacco products (31 percentage points); other manufacturing (28 percentage points); manufacture of textiles (28 percentage points); office administrative, office support and other business support activities (28 percentage points). In some sectors there is an over-representation of women at the top: the percentage of women in management is actually bigger than on the shop floor.

The Institute for the equality of women and men published a report on the under-representation of women at the top in 2013. This report can be downloaded in French, or Dutch at the website [igvm-iefh.belgium.be](http://igvm-iefh.belgium.be).

### 3.6.4.2 Pay gap among managers

**Graph 25: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) among managers (2011)**

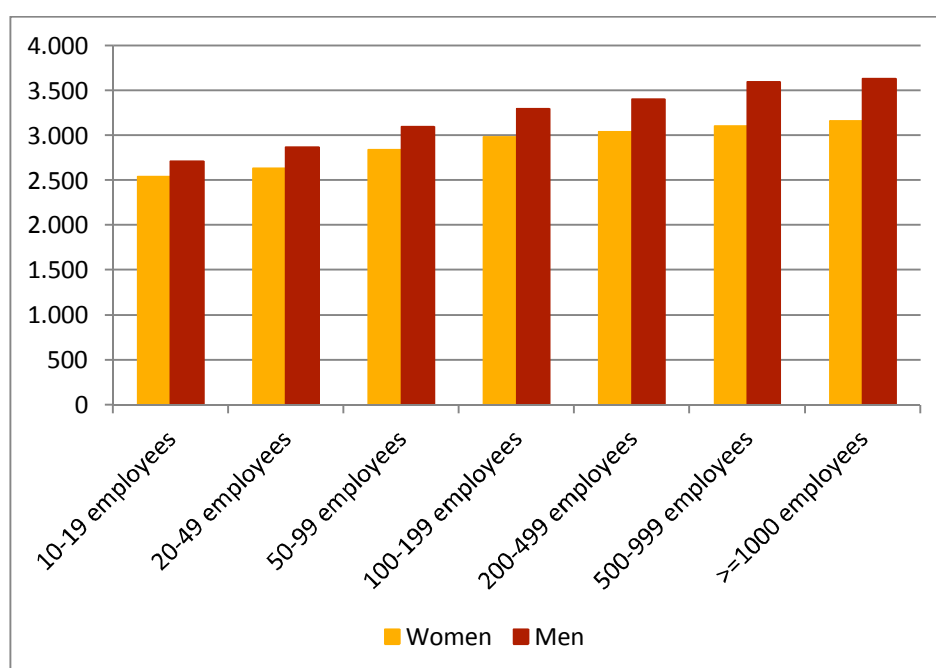


Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

The graph shows average gross hourly wages among managers. There are large wage differences between the different categories of managers. A male chief executive in industry and market services earns on average almost double the average pay of a male manager in hospitality, retail and other services, namely 51.29 euro compared to 25.91 euro. Part of the gender pay gap among managers can be explained by these wage differences and the segregation among managers. For all categories of managers the pay gap is 14%. Within each category, the pay gap varies from 8% among hospitality, retail and other services managers, 10% among production and specialized services managers, 12% among chief executives, and 13% among administrative and commercial managers.

### 3.6.5 Company size

**Graph 26: Average of gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in euro) by company size (according to the number of employees) (2011)**



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, i.e. 13%, compared to 14%. For almost all company sizes the pay gap decreases, when the extra sectors are included in the analysis.

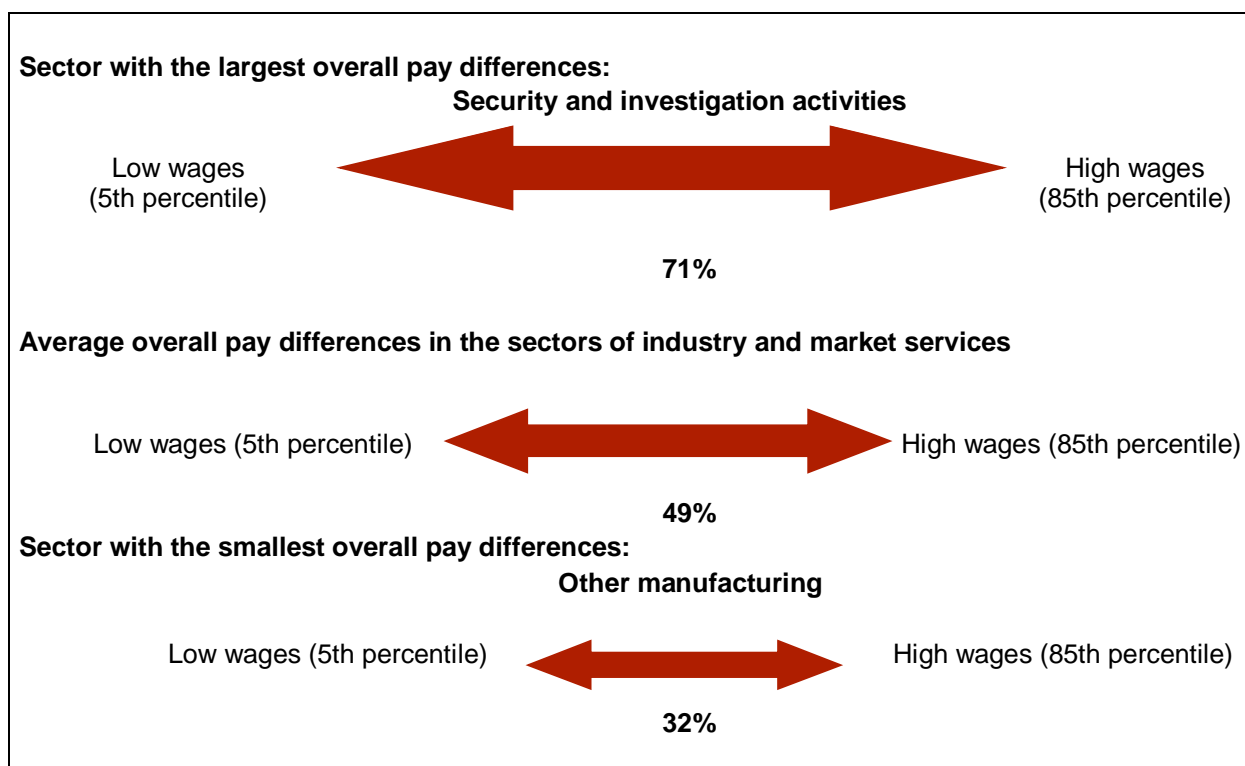
### 3.6.6 Gap between high and low wages

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 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<sup>10</sup> 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, an average was calculated per sector over the available years.

**Graph 27: Gap between high and low wages in the sectors of industry and market services (2011)**



Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

In 2011, there are hardly any changes in this indicator, compared to the previous year. The difference between high and low wages varies from 71% in the sector of security and investigation activities, to 32% in other manufacturing. The second largest gap can be observed in the sector of air transport. The third place is for the postal and courier activities. In the sectors of civil engineering; specialised construction activities; and other manufacturing relatively small differences exist between high and low wages. In general, sectors with a large gap between high and low wages tend to have also a big gender pay gap. However, the link between the two gaps does not hold for every sector. Moreover, it cannot be found in the above mentioned sectors of security and investigation

<sup>10</sup> *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.

activities; and postal and courier activities with no gender pay gap, and the other manufacturing, with a gender pay gap of 17%.

In the reports 2008 and 2011, the difference between high and low wages was indicated with the concept 'overall pay gap'.

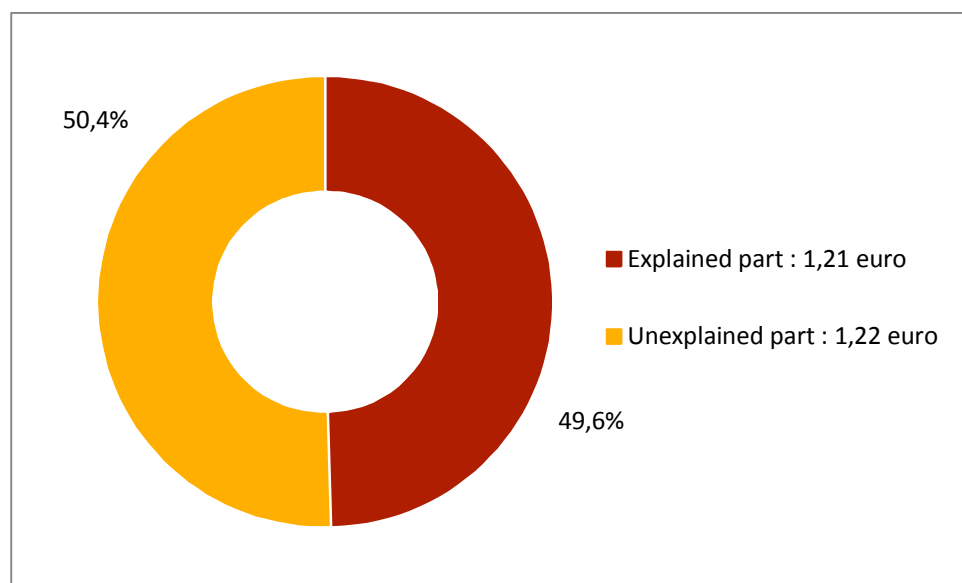


## 4. Explaining the pay gap

The gender pay gap is correlated to a number of characteristics, such as age, level of education, sector of employment, family composition and nationality. In part the gender pay gap can be contributed to the different characteristics of female and male employees. However, this does not imply that these differences are in themselves neutral. When for example women earn on average less than men, because there are less women in managerial positions, than this difference is in itself an aspect of the inequality. Explained pay differences are therefore not synonymous to justified pay differences.

### 4.1 The explained and unexplained part of the pay gap in gross hourly wages

**Graph 28: The explained and unexplained part of the pay gap in gross hourly wages (in euro and percentages) (2011)**



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

The results of the decomposition indicate that 49.6% of the pay gap can be explained on the basis of twelve defined factors. In other words, 50.4% cannot be explained.

The results are very similar to those of the previous years. In 2010 the variable nationality was added to the analysis and in 2009 and 2013 the extended surveys of 2006, and 2010 were analysed, i.e. including also the sectors of education, health care and the socio-cultural sector.

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. 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.

'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 are being elaborated in extend in this report.

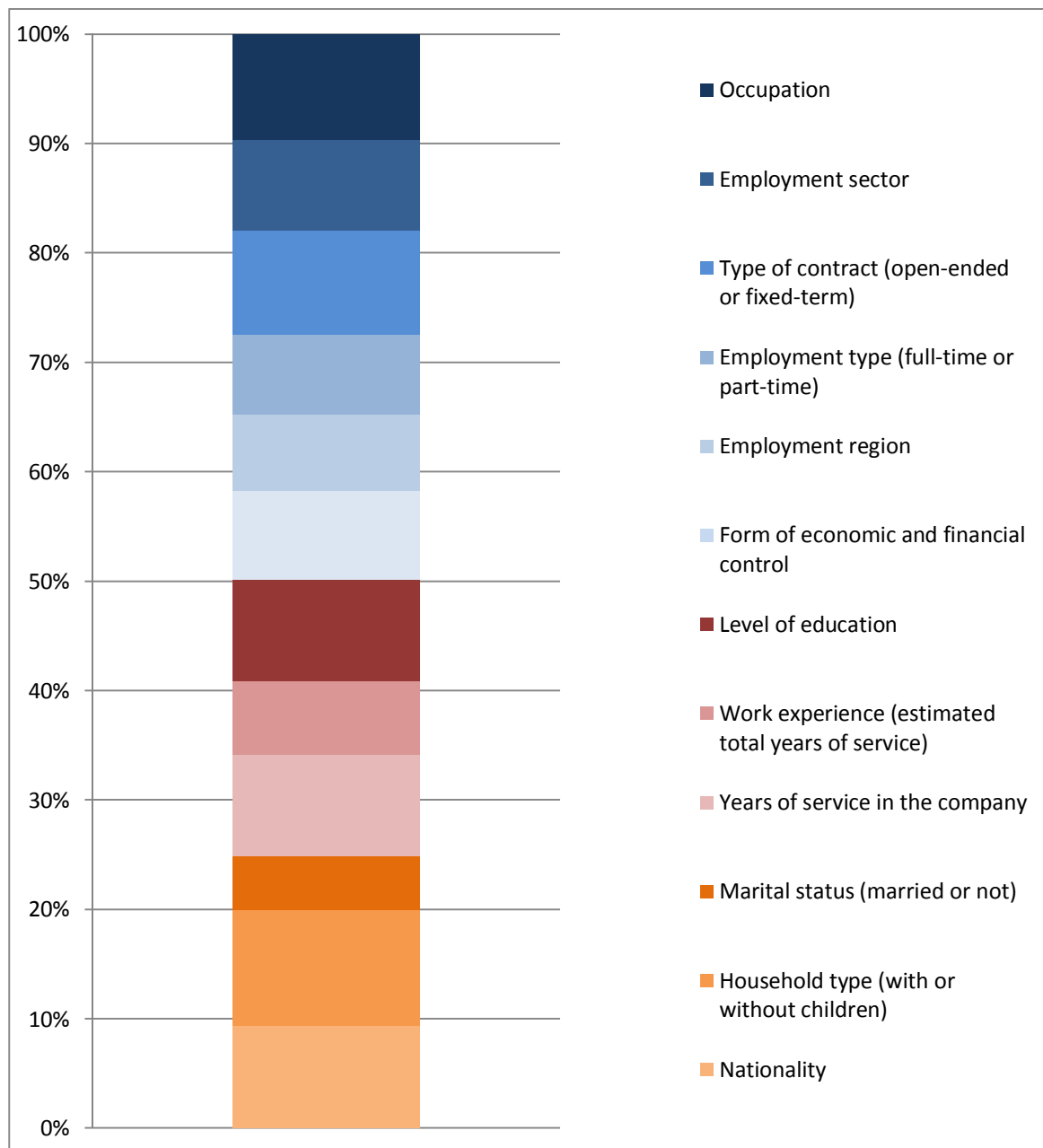
In theory, the unexplained part of the pay gap can be divided into two parts: the yet to be explained (mainly through a lack of details about certain characteristics) and the essentially unexplained part, because it is the result of 'pure' pay discrimination. The gender pay gap could indeed be explained even better if more detailed data were available. For example, a university degree offers less pay benefit for women. However, an analysis of the gender differences in fields of study would probably explain an extra part of the pay gap. Two important remarks have to be made here. Firstly, the explained part of the gender pay gap also contains elements of discrimination. When a woman is given less chance to a promotion, for example, based on the fact that she has children, and the assumption that she would be less available for the job, and yet a man by contrast, is given more opportunities, based on the same fact, and the assumption that he has reached a certain maturity, than there will be explainable pay differences, that are the consequence of discrimination. Secondly, taking more variables into consideration does not always increase the explained part. When a variable is in the advantage of women, the explained part will decrease. For example, in some Eastern-European countries, female employees are on average higher educated than male employees. When the level of education is being controlled in the analysis, the unexplained part will increase, because the women should have earned more than the men, based on their level of education.

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.

The statistical parameters indicate the reliability of the analysis and confirm the usefulness of the model.

## 4.2 Decomposition of the pay gap: subdivision of the explained part

Graph 29: Decomposition of the pay gap: subdivision of the explained part (2011)



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

In order to be able to pursue a targeted policy, it is of course important to know the causes of the problem. The explained part can be further broken-down: 49.9% of the explained part can be attributed to characteristics that refer to the job itself on the labour market, 25.2% to individual characteristics of the employee, such as education, or seniority, and 24.9% to personal characteristics of the employee that are not directly related to work, such as family situation, or nationality.

49.9% 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 9.7% of the explained pay gap and whether the person is employed on a permanent basis 9.5% and the sector 8.3%. 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 personal characteristics of the employee take up 24.9% of the explained pay gap. Of particular importance is whether there are children (10.5%). 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. Furthermore, a remarkable 9.4% of the explained part of the gender pay gap is attributable to having a foreign nationality or not. Compared to previous years, this a considerable increase: before this was about 6% to 7%.

Finally, 25.2% of the explainable part of the pay gap can be attributed to individual characteristics, such as education, work experience, or length of service in the company. These results show that a breakthrough is needed in gender-related stereotypical study choices, and that the problem of less stable and interrupted career pathways requires a good deal of attention.

Compared to the gender pay gap as a whole, i.e. the explained part and the unexplained part together, the part of the different factors are: 25% of the pay gap in gross hourly wages can be attributed to occupational characteristics, 13% to individual characteristics and 12% to personal characteristics.

In the report 2011 nationality was analysed as an 'individual characteristic' of the employee. Following the updated list of indicators 2011, it is here shifted to the 'personal characteristics', which concern characteristics that are in principal unrelated to the job as such.

Since 2012, a new classification of occupations was used in the analysis. However, this had hardly any effect on the results.

## Summary

### *How big is the pay gap?*

1. For 2011, the pay gap based on the gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees across all sectors remains stable and , and amounted again to 10%.
2. For 2011, the pay gap based on the gross annual wages of full-time and part-time employees across all sectors was 22%. The slight increase in this indicator in 2010 has disappeared. The effect of part-time working is shown in full with annual wages.
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 20%, whereas for white-collar employees it is 25%. For contract civil servants in the public sector, the pay gap is 1%, whereas for permanent civil servants it is -4%.
4. Calculated on the basis of annual wages, the figures for blue-collar workers rise to 38%, and for white-collar employees to 34%. At the end of the year, contract and permanent civil servants were looking at a pay gap of 17% and 8% respectively. The fact that women work part-time more often than men therefore has a major impact on the average differences in pay.
5. The pay gap calculated on the basis of monthly wages for full-time employees in the industry and market services is 18%. Until 2007, this was the official pay gap indicator.
6. The pay gap calculated on the basis of monthly wages for full-time and part-time employees together is 21% in the industry and market services.
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 9% of female employees and 12% of males. The amounts for supplementary pensions for women are 40% lower on average than for men. The contribution for travelling to and from work is 29% lower on average for women. Only a small proportion of employees receive additional benefits in the form of share options. However, men are more than twice as likely as women to receive these benefits (0.90% of men compared with 0.41% of women). The amounts for women here are 38% lower than for men.
8. In comparison to 2010 the employment rate slightly increased for women, and slightly decreased for men. Since 1999 the employment rate for men has remained rather stable, while the employment rate for women clearly has grown.

### *Is the pay gap closing?*

9. Most years the gender pay gap has a tendency to decrease slowly. In 2011 this evolution is less evident. On the one hand, there is a marked decrease in the gender pay gap for full-time employees, amounting to a drop of 2 percentage points. On the other hand, is there no evolution at all, when all the elements are taking into consideration. In other words, for some women the situation improves, but not for all. The growth in the number of women having a paid job, is mostly an increase in part-time work.
10. 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 and 2009 – the closing of the pay gap in the general indicator is very slow, but quite steady.
11. The decline in 2006 can probably be attributed to the rise in the minimum wage that year. Since comparatively more women earn low wages, this general measure had a positive impact on the gender pay gap.
12. The decline in 2009 could be a result of the economic crisis, and the effects it had on the employment of men.

### *The total pay gap*

13. In 2011, 47.43% of the workforce was female. Together women accounted for 42.93% of the paid working days and they received 39.73% of the total sum of wages (107,045,753,000 euro).
14. Based on the proportion of employees they represent, all women together should have earned 8.243 billion euro more in 2011. 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 – 3.426 billion euro.
15. In 2011 the total pay gap increased after having decreased for two years.
16. The evolution towards a more equal share in paid working days for men and women stagnates in 2011. More women have paid jobs, but these are predominantly part-time jobs.
17. The percentage of women earning more than 5,000 euro gross per month in industry and market services, decreased for 3.5% in 2007 to 3.2% in 2008, but went up to 4.0% in 2009, and 4.9% in 2010. The increase among men is yet bigger: from 6.1% in 2007 to 6.6% in 2008, 7.6% in 2009, and 9.1% in 2010. In 2011 there is a marked increase of women in the higher pay scales: 6.7% of women employees earn more than 5,000 euro gross per month. Among men this amounts to 9.9%. The fact that women are strongly under-represented at the top has not changed.

### ***Part-time work***

18. A woman working part-time in industry and market services earns 20% per hour less than a man working full-time, 15% less than a woman working full-time and 7% less than a man working part-time.
19. Over the years, the gap between part-time and full-time working women increases, while the gap between part-time working women and part-time working men decreases. In 2011 this evolution becomes even more apparent; it is worthwhile to monitor this trend the coming years.
20. A female part-time worker in industry and market services earns 15% per month less than a male part-time worker.
21. 45.9% of female employees, and 10.3% of male employees work part-time. The percentage of part-time work has gone up with 1 point of percentage for women and 0,8 point of percentage for men. These may seem moderate figures, but represent in fact a considerable growth.
22. Compared to 1999, part-time work has risen among women with 15%. Among men the increase amounts to 124%, in other words, the number has more than doubled.
23. Certain jobs are only available in part-time: this is the case for 13% of female part-time workers, and 9% of male part-time workers.

### ***Age***

24. The pay gap widens with age. It amounts to 21% for workers aged over 55 and 15% for 45 to 54-year-olds in industry and market services.
25. The difference in the employment rate between women and men also increases with age.
26. Over the years, the gender gap in employment rate gradually decreases.

### ***Level of education***

27. Wages increase with the level of education; the gender pay gap rises as well. The pay gap is biggest among the higher educated, namely 18% in industry and market services.
28. 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.

### ***Marital status and family composition***

29. Marital status has an effect on men's pay in particular. The average gross hourly wage for single men in industry and market services was 16.59 euro in 2011, compared with 20.76 euro for married men. The difference in average age only explains this difference in part.
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 (11%) and non-existent for singles.
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 results in the pay gap being high for couples (with or without children) (11%), and moderate for single parents (5%). For singles with no children the gender pay gap is for the first time negative: women in this situation earn on average more than men.
34. 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.
35. In 2011 most employment rates by household type are more or less stable. Among couples without children a slight decline can be observed. Nonetheless, this remains the household type with the highest employment rates for both men and women (>80%).

### ***Nationality***

36. 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 13% for the three neighbouring countries and 18% for Americans.
37. 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 respectively 13%, and 10% less than men in these categories.
38. Women and men from the Maghreb, other African and European non-EU 27 countries (including Turks and Russians) have the largest wage disadvantage compared with Belgians.
39. After the rather strong decrease in the employment rate in 2009, a slight recovery could be observed in 2010. This trend is not continued in 2011. Especially for women with a non-EU-nationality, or who are born outside of the EU, the employment rate is declining.



40. For people with a nationality outside the European Union, the employment rate for men amounts only to 49% and to 26% for women. This means that only half of men and a quarter of women from outside the European Union in Belgium have a job.
41. 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'.

### ***Segregation on the labour market***

42. As in the previous years, in 2011 the largest pay gap was in the sector of air transport, amounting to 33%.
43. The rest of the top 5 is the same as in 2010, and is made up of the sectors: the electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply; the manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products; the manufacture of wearing apparel; and the activities auxiliary to financial services and insurance activities. The gender pay gap ranges here from 29% to 23% in 2011.
44. The pay gap is greatest among sales workers; business and administration professionals; and stationary plant and machine operators, namely 18%.
45. Compared to the share of women among employees (47.4%), there are too little women in managerial positions, i.e. only 33.6%.
46. In the industry and market services, this share is even smaller: 27% among hospitality, retail and other services managers, 23% among administrative and commercial managers, 17% among production and specialized services managers, and only 11% among chief executives. So even within the category of managers a vertical segregation can be observed.
47. 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.
48. The gap between high and low wages is the largest in the security and investigation activities (71%), and the smallest in other manufacturing (32%).

### ***Explaining the pay gap?***

49. 49.6% of the pay gap can be explained on the basis of known factors. 50.4% cannot be explained.

50. Of the explained part, 50% can be attributed to characteristics that refer to the position of women and men on the labour market. The occupation explains 10% of the explained pay gap and the sector 8%.
51. Whether people have children or not appears to be responsible for 11% of the explained pay gap.
52. Of the explained part of the pay gap, only 25% can be attributed to individual characteristics of the worker such as education, work experience, and years of service in the company.

## Policy recommendations

The pay gap in Belgium is decreasing slightly over the years. Moreover, not taking into account the effects of part-time work, our country is handling itself relatively well in the European context. However, this does not alter the fact that the pay differences between women and men remain very persistent. The problem is a structural one rooted in a complex tangle of factors. A policy aimed at reducing the pay gap must therefore be a long-term commitment on different levels by the government and the social partners. With the law on the fight against the gender pay gap (April 22 2012, voted in The Chamber on March 8 2012) an important step was taken. The concrete execution of this law does not go very easily and remains the first challenge for the future policy.

Based on the findings in the yearly pay gap reports, the Institute for the equality of women and men and the Federal Public Service for Employment, Labour and Social Dialogue have made number of recommendations.

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.

Part of the inequality in the average pay of women and men lies in the historically skewed pay systems.

Wage base determination in the joint industrial committees is based on job classifications, in which the characteristics of each position are determined and coupled to a wage scale. Of course it remains important to analyse job classifications on their gender neutrality and to adjust them if necessary. Over the course of time, the Institute for the equality of women and men and the Federal Public Service for Employment, Labour and Social Dialogue and the social partners have developed a number of tools to help employers and employees to screen their own job classifications for possible hidden discriminations. These instruments can be requested at no charge from the Institute or downloaded from the website of the EVA-project ([www.igvm.be](http://www.igvm.be)).

Although it must be pointed out explicitly that the pay gap cannot be reduced to the existence of such job classifications, their gender neutrality is an essential part of a pay gap policy. Collective bargaining agreement 25ter, which has been in effect since 9 July 2008 and was made generally binding by Royal Decree, imposes sectors and companies to test job and pay classification systems for their compulsory gender neutrality. CBA 25bis, which was in effect from 19 December 2001, was still strongly focused on informing and awareness raising. In any case, an important step was taken. The law of April 22 2012 on the fight against the gender pay gap, obliges joint committees to have their job classifications evaluated by the Directorate-General of Collective Labour Relations of the FPS Employment, Labour and Social Dialogue. Evaluating job classifications is a labour-intensive process, which requires ample assets.

2. Stereotypical study choices must to be discouraged, among other things by promoting awareness of the fundamental equality of women and men in schools

The presence of men and women in the different economic sectors remains unbalanced. This is caused by some enduring stereotypes. Despite the insight into this phenomenon, the fight remains a difficult one. This is why we implore to government to actively set the example on different levels and aim for an equal presence of women and men, especially in leading functions.

Although education is not a federal competence, the Institute for the equality of women and men and the FPS Employment, Labour and Social Dialogue are convinced of the importance of simulating gender equality from a very young age. This means starting in nursery school. Teaching and educational staff are evident target groups. A more equal representation of men in these sectors could undoubtedly mean a big step in the right direction.

3. Employment offices must see to it that all their measures are aimed at women and men equally and that vacancies are presented to men and women equally.

Employment offices (VDAB, Forem, Actiris, ADG) can promote equality concretely by dealing with the existing labour market segregations in a gender aware manner and by critically reacting to the needs of employers and job seekers. Besides, offering jobs to both women and men (M/F in job ads) is a legal obligation.

4. Labour market obstacles must be removed.

A number of obstacles stand in the way of a smooth career and women are more often faced with those obstacles. Moreover, tomorrow's labour market demands a fluent transition from one job to another, but also a simple (re)integration and ways to improve the combination of work, family and private life.

5. Relating to this, the unemployment trap needs to be tackled, especially for the partners of people living on a replacement income.

Obstacles that obstruct the access the labour market, and which are often even more impeding to women's careers, should be removed. In this light, attention should also be given to the unemployment trap, which often makes it unattractive to partners of persons living on a replacement income to look for a job, and to tax pressure on lower incomes. Labour regulations negotiated within the sectors themselves should be analysed for unnecessary restrictions standing in the way of employment. More generally, policy must be aimed at all family types, specifically including single parents.

6. A good regulation of parental leave is necessary. It should also be better divided between both partners.

Paternal leave plays a very important part in retaining the connection with the labour market when children come into play. The extension of this scheme must also be coupled with greater flexibility, so it can also be used for shorter periods, for single days, and over a longer period of time. Taking the example of the Scandinavian countries, we also propose to grant this leave to

both parents together and to make its use dependent on a balanced repartition, so that it can only be used when both parents take up at least a part of it, thus making a clear point about the repartition of family responsibilities between both parents. Because of the importance of the connection with the labour market, it is our opinion that a return to the labour market of several months between two longer periods of paternal leave should be made mandatory.

7. Good-quality and affordable day care must become a right.

An extensive network of possibilities for quality day care is essential. Once again based on the Scandinavian example, we propose to introduce an enforceable right to day care offered by (local or regional) public authorities. A Matthew effect should also be avoided, whereby the more affordable day care places are taken by wealthier parents – who often apply for day care sooner. Making all day care facilities completely free of charge would of course be the most thorough solution.

8. Further measures are needed to break the glass ceiling.

The law of 28 July 2011, published in the Moniteur Belge on 14 September 2011, provides the gradual introduction of the obligation of the minimal presence of women in the boards of directors of autonomous public enterprises, firms quoted on the stock exchange and the National Lottery. After a transitional period of 6 years at least one third of the members of the boards of directors must of the other sex.

This law is an important step in the right direction. However, it remains necessary to also deal with the underrepresentation of women in firms not quoted on the stock exchange.

In addition, there is also an important underrepresentation of women in the operational management of public institutions, organisations and enterprises.

9. Investments in the training of employees must be spread evenly.

Men and women must be offered equal training opportunities. This pertains to internal as well as external training programmes.

10. Greater transparency is needed regarding individual pay negotiations.

Individual salary negotiations often increase the pay gap. Greater transparency about the possibilities and raising awareness about its importance are needed. Clear agreements must make individual pay negotiations more openly debatable among employers and employees, women and men.

11. Attention to vulnerable groups on the labour market.

Semi- and unskilled women, migrant women, single mothers... face a multiple disadvantage on the labour market. This is why measures to allow these vulnerable groups to catch up are of prime importance. Gender mainstreaming must be guaranteed, meaning that the labour market policy must reckon with its effects on both men and women.

12. Statistical tools must be reinforced to get a better overview of the pay gap.

Belgium has good pay data, but some gaps still remain. For instance, the pay gap in the extra benefits can be highlighted only partially and a number of sectors are surveyed only every four years in the Structure of Earnings Survey.

The law of April 22 2012 (re)introduce a breakdown by gender in several sections of the social balance sheet. As a result, the "amount of benefits over and above basic pay" shall be available for detailed analysis. The Structure of Earnings 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. However, we are disappointed that the decision has been taken to include the education, healthcare and the socio-cultural sectors only every four years. The data from these sectors, in which comparatively many women are employed, offers significant added value.

## Annexes

**Table 14: Overview of sectors in industry, market services, education, health care and the socio-cultural sector**

This table includes: the average gross hourly wages of full-time working women and men (in euro); the pay gap; the average pay gap (last 3 years); 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 gap between high and low wages, defined as the gap between the 5th and 85th pay percentile; and the average gap between high and low wages (last 3 years).

The figures relate to employees in industry and market services, in companies with 10 employees or more in Belgium.

2011						
NACE	Sector	Pay women	Pay men	Pay gap	Average pay gap (2009-2011)	Number of employees
51	Air transport	18,07	27,15	33%	34%	2.610
35	Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	18,90	26,44	29%	29%	17.544
26	Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products	16,40	22,89	28%	29%	15.733
14	Manufacture of wearing apparel	14,90	20,03	26%	26%	4.558
66	Activities auxiliary to financial services and insurance activities	21,30	27,76	23%	24%	9.431
79	Travel agency, tour operator reservation service and related activities	15,66	20,11	22%	23%	4.146
50	Water transport	17,41	22,30	22%	22%	635
82	Office administrative, office support and other business support activities	17,89	22,79	22%	22%	11.458
64	Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding	22,03	27,54	20%	21%	57.556
12	Manufacture of tobacco products	16,75	20,78	19%	20%	971



Continuation of table 14

2011							
Share of women	Share of women among managers	Part-time employment rate women	Part-time employment rate men	Difference between high and low wages	Average difference between high and low wages (2009-2011)	Sector	NACE
31%	20,2%	27%	5%	68%	69%	Air transport	51
22%	12,9%	20%	5%	59%	61%	Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	35
28%	11,5%	26%	4%	38%	40%	Manufacture of computer, electronic and optical products	26
77%	40,5%	28%	11%	50%	50%	Manufacture of wearing apparel	14
47%	25,4%	31%	5%	58%	61%	Activities auxiliary to financial services and insurance activities	66
65%	33,6%	21%	19%	48%	49%	Travel agency, tour operator reservation service and related activities	79
26%	9,3%	15%	6%	66%	68%	Water transport	50
63%	35,0%	27%	10%	49%	51%	Office administrative, office support and other business support activities	82
42%	24,1%	37%	9%	54%	55%	Financial service activities, except insurance and pension funding	64
54%	22,8%	45%	11%	49%	47%	Manufacture of tobacco products	12

Continuation of table 14

		2011				
NACE	Sector	Pay women	Pay men	Pay gap	Average pay gap (2009-2011)	Number of employees
70	Activities of head offices; management consultancy activities	25,33	31,36	19%	21%	22.021
21	Manufacture of basic pharmaceutical products and pharmaceutical preparations	21,34	26,28	19%	20%	20.274
32	Other manufacturing	14,92	18,08	17%	18%	4.066
27	Manufacture of electrical equipment	16,52	19,96	17%	18%	16.864
61	Telecommunications	19,56	23,51	17%	18%	22.631
15	Manufacture of leather and related products	14,90	17,89	17%	18%	1.035
65	Insurance, reinsurance and pension funding, except compulsory social security	21,57	25,75	16%	17%	18.414
13	Manufacture of textiles	14,25	17,01	16%	17%	18.647
58	Publishing activities	19,34	23,08	16%	17%	8.481
19	Manufacture of coke and refined petroleum products	25,61	30,46	16%	17%	3.275
68	Real estate activities	17,52	20,73	15%	16%	3.723
17	Manufacture of paper and paper products	16,38	19,16	15%	15%	10.608
60	Programming and broadcasting activities	21,48	24,88	14%	15%	6.835
62	Computer programming, consultancy and related activities	20,95	24,11	13%	14%	25.522
75	Veterinary activities	18,47	21,20	13%	14%	406
18	Printing and reproduction of recorded media	16,39	18,81	13%	14%	11.571

Continuation of table 14

2011							Sector	NACE
Share of women	Share of women among managers	Part-time employment rate women	Part-time employment rate men	Difference between high and low wages	Average difference between high and low wages (2009-2011)			
37%	31,4%	28%	5%	39%	40%	Activities of head offices; management consultancy activities	70	
45%	32,0%	27%	6%	54%	55%	Manufacture of basic pharmaceutical products and pharmaceutical preparations	21	
54%	25,4%	35%	6%	32%	30%	Other manufacturing	32	
22%	9,3%	26%	9%	49%	49%	Manufacture of electrical equipment	27	
29%	31,0%	22%	15%	43%	44%	Telecommunications	61	
41%	25,0%	25%	2%	50%	51%	Manufacture of leather and related products	15	
46%	22,7%	31%	7%	54%	56%	Insurance, reinsurance and pension funding, except compulsory social security	65	
36%	8,1%	24%	9%	46%	43%	Manufacture of textiles	13	
47%	27,2%	23%	9%	44%	44%	Publishing activities	58	
17%	16,0%	18%	3%	67%	71%	Manufacture of coke and refined petroleum products	19	
46%	28,4%	35%	10%	52%	54%	Real estate activities	68	
21%	9,1%	21%	7%	49%	49%	Manufacture of paper and paper products	17	
40%	35,6%	7%	6%	44%	43%	Programming and broadcasting activities	60	
21%	16,6%	24%	4%	48%	50%	Computer programming, consultancy and related activities	62	
50%	30,0%	39%	6%	49%	49%	Veterinary activities	75	
26%	13,9%	33%	8%	55%	55%	Printing and reproduction of recorded media	18	

Continuation of table 14

		2011				
NACE	Sector	Pay women	Pay men	Pay gap	Average pay gap (2009-2011)	Number of employees
20	Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products	20,36	23,32	13%	14%	37.245
55	Accommodation	13,50	15,46	13%	14%	13.216
72	Scientific research and development	23,38	26,77	13%	13%	8.664
63	Information service activities	19,17	21,94	13%	13%	4.622
39	Remediation activities and other waste management services	15,50	17,72	13%	13%	539
71	Architectural and engineering activities; technical testing and analysis	20,49	23,35	12%	12%	22.164
52	Warehousing and support activities for transportation	17,35	19,76	12%	13%	37.694
73	Advertising and market research	20,29	23,10	12%	13%	5.729
81	Services to buildings and landscape activities	14,84	16,78	12%	13%	28.349
47	Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	14,40	16,25	11%	12%	95.710
33	Repair and installation of machinery and equipment	16,54	18,57	11%	12%	6.984
10	Manufacture of food products	15,62	17,51	11%	12%	54.389
22	Manufacture of rubber and plastic products	16,62	18,59	11%	12%	18.802
56	Food and beverage service activities	13,22	14,66	10%	10%	19.663
11	Manufacture of beverages	17,01	18,61	9%	10%	8.871
74	Other professional, scientific and technical activities	16,97	18,52	8%	9%	1.506

Continuation of table 14

2011							
Share of women	Share of women among managers	Part-time employment rate women	Part-time employment rate men	Difference between high and low wages	Average difference between high and low wages (2009-2011)	Sector	NACE
18%	16,5%	21%	8%	56%	57%	Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products	20
51%	34,4%	34%	12%	39%	38%	Accommodation	55
39%	34,7%	21%	5%	42%	42%	Scientific research and development	72
29%	23,4%	33%	8%	48%	49%	Information service activities	63
9%	7,5%	40%	3%	63%	63%	Remediation activities and other waste management services	39
25%	22,2%	28%	5%	42%	42%	Architectural and engineering activities; technical testing and analysis	71
32%	19,8%	25%	12%	52%	53%	Warehousing and support activities for transportation	52
42%	35,1%	24%	7%	41%	43%	Advertising and market research	73
51%	34,3%	79%	30%	62%	63%	Services to buildings and landscape activities	81
52%	36,2%	57%	18%	49%	47%	Retail trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	47
11%	9,8%	22%	4%	52%	53%	Repair and installation of machinery and equipment	33
29%	20,4%	35%	7%	45%	44%	Manufacture of food products	10
20%	11,9%	26%	7%	50%	49%	Manufacture of rubber and plastic products	22
41%	27,4%	76%	46%	42%	40%	Food and beverage service activities	56
17%	17,7%	29%	5%	45%	44%	Manufacture of beverages	11
50%	50,6%	27%	6%	44%	46%	Other professional, scientific and technical activities	74

Continuation of table 14

		2011				
NACE	Sector	Pay women	Pay men	Pay gap	Average pay gap (2009-2011)	Number of employees
46	Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	18,80	20,45	8%	9%	122.194
37	Sewerage	18,34	19,92	8%	8%	1.829
23	Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products	16,70	18,04	7%	8%	22.294
69	Legal and accounting activities	18,92	20,32	7%	8%	8.487
77	Rental and leasing activities	18,93	19,99	5%	7%	4.525
36	Water collection, treatment and supply	18,58	19,57	5%	6%	4.602
28	Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.	17,46	18,21	4%	5%	31.046
59	Motion picture, video and television programme production, sound recording and music publishing activities	15,46	16,11	4%	4%	2.034
45	Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	16,69	17,37	4%	5%	31.335
78	Employment activities	16,24	16,84	4%	5%	89.046
16	Manufacture of wood and of products of wood and cork, except furniture; manufacture of articles of straw and plaiting materials	14,46	14,96	3%	4%	7.587
24	Manufacture of basic metals	19,22	19,76	3%	3%	26.862
29	Manufacture of motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers	18,06	18,56	3%	3%	34.920

Continuation of table 14

2011							
Share of women	Share of women among managers	Part-time employment rate women	Part-time employment rate men	Difference between high and low wages	Average difference between high and low wages (2009-2011)	Sector	NACE
33%	23,0%	26%	5%	54%	56%	Wholesale trade, except of motor vehicles and motorcycles	46
27%	41,1%	11%	3%	48%	48%	Sewerage	37
10%	16,2%	24%	5%	49%	47%	Manufacture of other non-metallic mineral products	23
59%	49,1%	25%	7%	48%	49%	Legal and accounting activities	69
26%	17,2%	25%	5%	47%	47%	Rental and leasing activities	77
25%	10,2%	15%	4%	48%	48%	Water collection, treatment and supply	36
11%	7,7%	24%	6%	46%	45%	Manufacture of machinery and equipment n.e.c.	28
33%	50,2%	44%	19%	50%	50%	Motion picture, video and television programme production, sound recording and music publishing activities	59
17%	10,5%	29%	4%	52%	50%	Wholesale and retail trade and repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	45
43%	40,2%	40%	10%	57%	59%	Employment activities	78
11%	8,2%	43%	9%	41%	38%	Manufacture of wood and of products of wood and cork, except furniture; manufacture of articles of straw and plaiting materials	16
7%	14,8%	21%	5%	49%	49%	Manufacture of basic metals	24
12%	10,2%	20%	4%	43%	41%	Manufacture of motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers	29

Continuation of table 14

2011						
NACE	Sector	Pay women	Pay men	Pay gap	Average pay gap (2009-2011)	Number of employees
43	Specialised construction activities	15,59	15,88	2%	3%	62.324
25	Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment	16,54	16,64	1%	1%	42.222
53	Postal and courier activities	15,97	16,04	0%	1%	26.368
80	Security and investigation activities	16,35	16,41	0%	1%	11.916
31	Manufacture of furniture	14,53	14,54	0%	2%	10.994
42	Civil engineering	16,30	16,31	0%	1%	25.283
38	Waste collection, treatment and disposal activities; materials recovery	16,64	16,61	0%	0%	9.447
30	Manufacture of other transport equipment	19,16	19,01	-1%	-1%	10.430
49	Land transport and transport via pipelines	16,94	16,14	-5%	-4%	72.763
8	Other mining and quarrying	19,32	18,26	-6%	-6%	2.098
41	Construction of buildings	18,20	16,99	-7%	-7%	38.692



Continuation of table 14

2011							
Share of women	Share of women among managers	Part-time employment rate women	Part-time employment rate men	Difference between high and low wages	Average difference between high and low wages (2009-2011)	Sector	NACE
8%	7,6%	35%	3%	36%	36%	Specialised construction activities	43
10%	8,7%	31%	5%	45%	43%	Manufacture of fabricated metal products, except machinery and equipment	25
28%	25,2%	43%	20%	68%	68%	Postal and courier activities	53
15%	5,9%	38%	13%	71%	71%	Security and investigation activities	80
16%	7,2%	30%	4%	39%	38%	Manufacture of furniture	31
5%	10,7%	33%	2%	36%	35%	Civil engineering	42
16%	19,3%	21%	2%	55%	55%	Waste collection, treatment and disposal activities; materials recovery	38
8%	12,5%	13%	9%	46%	47%	Manufacture of other transport equipment	30
12%	16,9%	35%	12%	48%	47%	Land transport and transport via pipelines	49
10%	7,8%	22%	10%	46%	43%	Other mining and quarrying	8
6%	16,0%	32%	4%	39%	37%	Construction of buildings	41

Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

**Table 15: Average gross monthly wages (in euro) and the pay gap by joint committee**

This table includes the average gross monthly wages of full-time working women and men (in euro); the pay gap; and the average pay gap (last 5 years).

The figures relate to employees in industry and market services, in companies with 10 employees or more in Belgium.

JC	Blue-collar workers	2011			Average pay gap (2007-2011)
		Pay women	Pay men	Pay gap	
100	Auxiliary joint committee for blue-collar workers	2.750	3.106	11%	13%
109	Clothing and garment-manufacturing industry	2.262	3.040	26%	27%
111	Metal, machinery and electrical construction	2.825	3.128	10%	11%
112	Garage industry	2.802	2.875	3%	4%
115	Glass industry	2.676	3.042	12%	14%
116	Chemical industry	3.184	3.728	15%	16%
118	Food sector	2.580	3.042	15%	16%
119	Trade in foodstuffs	2.349	2.547	8%	9%
120	Textile industry and knitwear	2.386	2.814	15%	17%
121	Cleaning	2.357	2.515	6%	8%
124	Construction	2.697	2.770	3%	4%
126	Upholstery and woodwork	2.352	2.507	6%	7%
130	Printing, graphic arts and daily newspapers	2.857	3.194	11%	12%
136	Paper and cardboard processing	2.543	2.965	14%	15%
140	Transport and logistics	2.621	2.562	-2%	-1%
149	Sectors related to metal, machinery and electrical construction	2.599	2.806	7%	9%
302	Hotel industry	2.164	2.303	6%	7%
311	Large retailers	2.304	2.442	6%	7%

Continuation of table 15

JC	White-collar workers	Pay women	Pay men	Pay gap	Average pay gap (2007-2011)
200	Auxiliary joint committee for white-collar workers	3.054	3.654	16%	18%
201	Self-employed retailers	2.024	2.324	13%	14%
202	White-collar workers from food retailing	2.198	2.495	12%	14%
207	White-collar workers from the chemicals industry	3.274	3.835	15%	16%
209	White-collar workers from the fabricated metal products industry	2.859	3.140	9%	10%
210	White-collar workers from the steel industry	3.565	3.792	6%	8%
211	White-collar workers from the petroleum industry and trade	3.846	4.896	21%	23%
214	White-collar workers from the textile industry and knitwear	2.355	2.810	16%	17%
215	White-collar workers from clothing and ready-to-wear	2.270	3.153	28%	29%
218	National auxiliary joint committee for white-collar workers	2.929	3.102	6%	7%
220	White-collar workers from the food industry	2.684	3.031	11%	13%
221	White-collar workers from the paper industry	2.974	3.313	10%	11%
222	White-collar workers from the paper and cardboard processing industry	2.493	2.895	14%	15%
226	White-collar workers from international trade, transport and logistics	2.737	2.797	2%	3%
302	Hotel industry	2.213	2.376	7%	8%
306	Insurance sector	3.333	3.928	15%	15%
307	Brokerage and insurance agencies	2.995	4.275	30%	30%
310	Banks	3.567	4.455	20%	22%
311	Large retailers	2.324	2.471	6%	7%

Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

**Table 16: Overview of the occupational categories in industry and market services**

This table includes: the average gross hourly wages of full-time working women and men (in euro); the pay gap; the average pay gap (last 5 years); the share of women in the occupational category; and the part-time employment rate of women and men.

The figures relate to employees in industry and market services, in companies with 10 employees or more in Belgium.

2011				
ISCO	Occupation	Pay women	Pay men	Pay gap
11	Chief executives	43,84	50,11	13%
12	Administrative and commercial managers	31,17	36,47	15%
13	Production and specialized services managers	31,37	35,40	11%
14	Hospitality, retail and other services managers	23,05	25,27	9%
21	Science and engineering professionals	22,85	25,86	12%
24	Business and administration professionals	23,24	28,24	18%
25	Information and communications technology professionals	22,98	25,55	10%
26	Legal, social and cultural professionals	22,56	25,16	10%
31	Science and engineering associate professionals	18,71	21,09	11%
33	Business and administration associate professionals	18,39	20,69	11%
34	Legal, social, cultural and related associate professionals	16,15	17,39	7%
35	Information and communications technicians	17,57	19,30	9%
41	General and keyboard clerks	14,95	16,46	9%
42	Customer services clerks	14,89	16,76	11%
43	Numerical and material recording clerks	15,38	16,99	9%
44	Other clerical support workers	14,06	15,38	9%
51	Personal service workers	12,58	14,67	14%
52	Sales workers	12,71	15,53	18%

Continuation of table 16

2011				
Share of women	Part-time employment rate women	Part-time employment rate women	Occupation	ISCO
11%	12%	4%	Chief executives	11
23%	14%	3%	Administrative and commercial managers	12
17%	16%	4%	Production and specialized services managers	13
27%	10%	4%	Hospitality, retail and other services managers	14
15%	17%	3%	Science and engineering professionals	21
36%	15%	4%	Business and administration professionals	24
17%	18%	3%	Information and communications technology professionals	25
46%	18%	6%	Legal, social and cultural professionals	26
14%	19%	6%	Science and engineering associate professionals	31
49%	27%	4%	Business and administration associate professionals	33
64%	26%	6%	Legal, social, cultural and related associate professionals	34
18%	21%	5%	Information and communications technicians	35
59%	28%	8%	General and keyboard clerks	41
60%	40%	10%	Customer services clerks	42
44%	30%	11%	Numerical and material recording clerks	43
40%	30%	16%	Other clerical support workers	44
39%	58%	33%	Personal service workers	51
64%	59%	21%	Sales workers	52

Continuation of table16

ISCO	Occupation	Pay women	Pay men	Pay gap
54	Protective services workers	14,67	16,10	9%
71	Building and related trades workers, excluding electricians	14,31	15,00	5%
72	Metal, machinery and related trades workers	14,03	16,10	13%
73	Handicraft and printing workers	13,72	16,57	17%
74	Electrical and electronic trades workers	13,53	16,15	16%
75	Food processing, wood working, garment and other craft and related trades workers	12,58	14,15	11%
81	Stationary plant and machine operators	13,85	16,82	18%
82	Assemblers	13,93	16,68	16%
83	Drivers and mobile plant operators	14,48	14,89	3%
91	Cleaners and helpers	12,03	13,71	12%
93	Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport	13,02	15,31	15%
96	Refuse workers and other elementary workers	12,83	14,16	9%

Continuation of table16

Share of women	Part-time employment rate women	Part-time employment rate women	Occupation	ISCO
13%	19%	9%	Protective services workers	54
2%	36%	4%	Building and related trades workers, excluding electricians	71
4%	29%	5%	Metal, machinery and related trades workers	72
21%	29%	8%	Handicraft and printing workers	73
7%	14%	5%	Electrical and electronic trades workers	74
24%	29%	11%	Food processing, wood working, garment and other craft and related trades workers	75
16%	28%	9%	Stationary plant and machine operators	81
17%	26%	8%	Assemblers	82
5%	22%	9%	Drivers and mobile plant operators	83
71%	80%	33%	Cleaners and helpers	91
16%	34%	9%	Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport	93
26%	53%	14%	Refuse workers and other elementary workers	96

Source: DGSEI, Structure of Earnings Survey

## List of tables

Table 1: Pay gap based on the average gross hourly wages and gross annual wages (2007-2011)	6
Table 2: Average gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in euro) and pay gap (1999-2011)	9
Table 3: Average gross annual wages of full-time employees (in euro) and the pay gap (2011)	11
Table 4: Proportion of wage earners to whom certain benefits are allocated; the average amount (in euro) of these benefits and the pay gap (2011)	14
Table 5: Employment rate by gender (2001-2011)	18
Table 6: Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees (in euro) and the pay gap in companies with at least 10 employees and companies with fewer than 10 employees (2011)	19
Table 7: Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees (in euro) and the pay gap in companies with at least 10 employees and companies with fewer than 10 employees in industry and market services and semi-public sectors (2011)	20
Table 8: Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees all sectors (in euro) and the pay gap (2011)	21
Table 9: Average gross monthly wages of part-time and full-time wage earners (in euro) and the pay gap (2011)	29
Table 10: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) by age category and wage gap (2011)	30
Table 11: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) by level of education and wage gap (2011)	33
Table 12: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) by marital status and wage gap (2011)	34
Table 13: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) by family type and wage gap (2011)	35
Table 14: Overview of sectors in industry and market services	64
Table 15: Average gross monthly wages (in euro) and the pay gap by joint committee	74
Table 16: Overview of the occupational categories in industry and market services	76



## List of graphs

Graph 1: Pay gap based on the average gross hourly wages, by status (2011)	7
Graph 2: Pay gap based on the gross annual wages, by status (2011)	8
Graph 3: Average gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in euro) (2007-2011)	9
Graph 4: Average gross hourly wages of full-time employees (in euro) (2007-2011)	10
Graph 5: Average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees (in euro) (2007-2011)	12
Graph 6: Average gross monthly wages of full-time and part-time employees (in euro) (2007-2011)	13
Graph 7: Average gross monthly wages (in euro) for full-time and part-time employees in industry (1972-2011)	15
Graph 8: Pay gap based on the gross monthly wages of full-time and part-time employees in industry (1972-2011)	16
Graph 9: Average gross hourly wages for full-time and part-time employees in industry (in euro) (1960-2011)	16
Graph 10: Pay gap based on the gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees in industry (1960-2011)	17
Graph 11: Share of women and men among employees, in actual working days and in the total sum of wages (2011)	22
Graph 12: Total pay gap (in euro) (2011)	23
Graph 13: Distribution of women and men over the categories of gross monthly wages for full-time employees (in euro) (2011)	25
Graph 14: Average gross hourly wages of full-time and part-time employees (in euro) and the pay gap (2011)	26
Graph 15: Part-time employment rate (1999-2011)	27
Graph 16: Female and male part-time workers, by reason for working part-time (2011)	28
Graph 17: Employment rate by age category (2011)	31
Graph 18: Pay gap by age and seniority among 25 to 30-year-olds (2011)	32

Graph 19: Employment rate by level of education (2011)	34
Graph 20: Employment rate by household type (2011)	36
Graph 21: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) by nationality in Belgium (2011)	38
Graph 22: Pay difference (in euro) in regard to the average gross hourly wages of Belgian employees, by nationality (2011)	39
Graph 23: Employment rate by current nationality and by country of birth (2011)	40
Graph 24: Share of women and men among managers (2011)	44
Graph 25: Average gross hourly wages (in euro) among managers (2011)	45
Graph 26: Average of gross monthly wages of full-time employees (in euro) by company size (according to the number of employees) (2011)	46
Graph 27: Gap between high and low wages in the sectors of industry and market services (2011)	47
Graph 28: The explained and unexplained part of the pay gap in gross hourly wages (in euro and percentages) (2011)	49
Graph 29: Decomposition of the pay gap: subdivision of the explained part (2011)	51

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### Deposit number

D/2014/10.043/3