

3. Gender Equality in Civil Service Employment

Introduction

The public sector accounts for an important share of employment in all OECD countries: on average, women represent more than half of public employees. Therefore, the study of public administration will provide us with information on the most important employer in a country.

Moreover, the public sector could serve as a role model for the private sector institutions. The public sector may provide a standard which could prove important especially to women. The employer's role is linked with the obligation to act as a model employer, leading by example and driving private sector into positive change. In many countries where public employment corresponds to a career-oriented system, both recruitment and promotion are expected to be unbiased, neutral or anonymous. Most public administrations share the values of equity, transparency and trust and those values contribute to attract women to the public sector but should also prevent this specific employer from discriminatory behavior.

Gender equality is crucial for all firms and institutions, whether they are private or public. However gender equality in public sector employment is a cornerstone of an inclusive government. Equal representation of men and women, gender diversity in decision-making processes and gender-balanced policies are the starting point of good quality service delivery.

This chapter analyzes women's employment in the public sector in OECD and partner countries, based on empirical evidence from the 2017 OECD Survey on Gender Equality in Civil Service Employment. Governments are taking active steps to ensure equal opportunities for their male and female employees. Despite a common effort to construct and implement transparency and measures improving gender equality, women remain overrepresented in lower pay and part time jobs and suffer from a negative wage gap. This chapter emphasizes the importance of collecting good quality gender disaggregated data in order to implement efficient and effective public policies and improve the civil service as both an employer and a provider of public services to women. However, based on available evidence, there is still room for improvement in collecting gender disaggregated data which is the first step towards improving women's working conditions in an inclusive administration. For instance, half of the countries collect gender-disaggregated data on the use of work-life measures in the workplace.

The chapter highlights, on the one hand, some good practices and policies to implement and, on the other hand, remaining challenges to be addressed. First, the chapter will focus on the institutional context of policies that encourages gender equality and tackles gender discrimination in the public sector, their consistency, location regarding broader human resource management policies, strategy and measures. Second, the issue off attractiveness of the public sector to both men and women will be addressed, with the focus on work-

life balance. Eventually, the impact of those policies, their design and their implementation, on employment, career, and pay will be analyzed before concluding with policy recommendations.

Box 3.1. Description of the Survey 2017 OECD Survey on Gender Equality in Civil Service Employment

Within the framework of the 2015 OECD Recommendation of the Council on Gender Equality in Public Life, the OECD launched a survey to collect data on the degree to which public institutions and entities of the civil service respond to the needs of both men and women in their labour organizations. The survey provides comprehensive, data and evidence-driven analysis of how inclusive the public sector is.

The survey has been sent to government officials identified as policy leaders and subject-matter experts on human resource management and they were strongly encouraged to consult with national experts. All questions were complemented with documents, web links and references to laws or official reports that were verified by the OECD for consistency.

20 countries answered formally the survey (Austria, Australia, Canada, Chile, Estonia, Finland, France, Hungary, Italy, Japan, The Republic of Korea, Latvia, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic and the United Kingdom).

The survey offers 103 questions and has been divided in ten different series of questions on the strategy, assessment, institutions, targets, care leave, work life balance, accountability, wage gap, representation, and data collection regarding gender equality.

This survey builds on a previous study published in 2014 (OECD, 2014). Though the set of countries that replied both surveys and the questions asked may vary from one survey to another, one can draw a path of progress between 2014 and 2017 in terms of gender diversity and women inclusion in the public sector.

Gender-sensitive human resources management policies in the public sector

Table 3.1 shows how OECD countries are building evidence-based systems to ensure gender equality in the public sector. Strategies have been designed, actions planned and sometimes equal pay and opportunities ensured. There is still room for progress in designing evidence-based actions and policies. Compared to the previous survey of 2014, now nearly all countries have strategies for improving gender equality in civil service.

Strategies for improving gender equality in civil service

60% of the OECD countries that participated in the survey have an overarching policy which aims at improving gender equality in civil service at the central level (see the example of Canada, Box 3.2). For 5 additional countries (the United Kingdom, Latvia, Hungary, Norway and the Slovak Republic) out of 20, *i.e.* 25%, this issue is tackled within the broader question of diversity. For 58% of the countries, this overarching policy, is developed by a ministry responsible for human resource management of the central government (it's the case in centralized public administrations like in France, Italy

or Spain), and more rarely (42%) by a devoted ministry responsible specifically for promoting gender equality (such as in Estonia or in the Czech Republic). The gender equality policy is sometimes (25%) led by the office of the prime minister or by the president himself (such as in Austria, Japan or Portugal). The location of gender equality policies at the highest levels of political responsibility could give attention and importance to gender equality. Only 15% of the countries do not have a federal strategy to deal with gender equality. In Finland and Chile every ministry or department is responsible for developing its own gender equality policy. Poland reports having a specific strategy that aims at improving gender equality.

Box 3.2. Canada's Employment Equity Act

Canada passed in 1995 the Employment Equity Act, an overarching strategy with the aim of “achieving equality in the workplace so that no person shall be denied employment opportunities or benefits for reasons unrelated to ability” and considering that the principle of employment equity “means more than treating persons in the same way but also requires special measures and the accommodation of differences”. The Act provides special measures to ensure women, aboriginal peoples, persons with disabilities and members of visible minorities are not discriminated against in the workplace.

The Act applies to the federally regulated industries, Crown corporations and other federal organizations with 100 employees or more. Federal departments and agencies are required to implement the employment equity programs, to monitor them and report to Parliament about their progress in achieving equitable representation of women across occupational groups and seniority levels. The Office of the Chief Human Resources Officer (OCHRO) administers the Employment Equity Policy on behalf of Treasury Board Secretariat (TBS), the employer of the federal public service. It provides direction and guidance on employment equity in human resources planning, including employment equity for women, as designated group. The Public Service Commission is responsible for identifying and eliminating barriers in recruitment and staffing, and for developing policies and practices that will continue to help ensure that equity group members are well represented in the federal public service.

Sources: OECD 2017 Survey on Gender Equality in Civil Service Employment; Employment Equity Act <http://laws-lois.justice.gc.ca/eng/acts/e-5.401/page-1.html#h-2>

Institutional frameworks for promoting gender balance in the public sector

Well-designed institutional frameworks enact clear roles and missions in order to promote gender equality. It is also crucial to a consistent overarching policy. In the previous survey (OECD, 2014), only 5 countries had reported the existence of a single unit responsible for embedding gender concerns in human resources management policies for public servants in central governments (Estonia, France, the Netherlands, New Zealand and Portugal). In the 2017 OECD survey, Australia, Canada, Chile, Finland, Korea, Spain and The Czech Republic, are to be added to this group of countries who already had a unit responsible for gender equality. In half of the OECD member countries that participated in the survey (52%), a single institution is responsible for supporting gender equality concerns in Human resource Management Policies at the central level. It is the

case for all countries that have an overarching policy for promoting gender equality but also for Poland who does not have such a policy. This responsibility is more rarely shared with other divisions (such in Japan or Austria where the office of the prime minister is also involved). In Norway and the Slovak Republic, no institution in charge of human resource management reported supporting gender equality concerns.

On diversity considerations within HRM systems, only the United Kingdom reports having a single unit responsible for diversity concerns in human resource management policies for civil servants and no such division in charge of gender equality. In the Slovak Republic there is no unit in charge of supporting diversity whereas in Norway this responsibility is shared by more than one unit (and none is specifically concerned with gender equality).

This unit in charge of gender equality is most often (64%) located in the ministry responsible for human resources management (for instance, in Australia, Chile, France or Korea) and more rarely in a ministry specifically responsible for promoting gender equality (such as in Switzerland or Chile).

When it exists, this unit is always at least in charge of providing leadership and guidance on gender and diversity responsive human resource management in general. In fewer countries, it has a more specific role of designing a strategy and more rarely of providing advice on the legal framework related to diversity considerations (as it is the case in Canada) or providing coordination and supervision in the implementation of a gender-responsible HR policy: it is the case in Switzerland, France and the Czech Republic.

Assessment aiming at identifying gender equality needs and gaps

Assessment of gender balance is necessary to uphold diversity and equity. It is the first step of a public policy designed to reduce gender bias and precedes setting future targets and actions. It also allows benchmarking the results in the public sector against that of the private sectors and of other institutions or countries. In the previous survey (OECD, 2014), only half of the countries (Australia, Belgium, France, Germany, Japan, Iceland, New Zealand, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and the Netherlands) declared regularly assessing the gender balance of their workforce. By contrast, in 2017 survey, nearly all countries (70%) have conducted official assessments that were either prepared or commissioned, by the government aiming at identifying gender equality needs and gaps within the civil service. Only 4 countries (Canada, Hungary, Norway and the Slovak Republic) have neither commissioned such an analysis nor are planning it in the near future.

This official statement is often conducted by the central government department responsible for human resource management (it is the case in 46.67% countries in the survey). In all countries, apart from the Czech Republic, where there is an overarching policy to improve gender equality designed and developed by a department for human resource management, the study was conducted by that HRM department.

Table 3.1. Building evidence-based systems to ensure gender equality in the public sector: a picture of progress

Country	Development of gender equality strategy	Establishment of a specific institution	Development of an action plan	Adoption of an equal pay policy	Adoption of targets for women	Assessment of gaps
Japan	Yes, 4th Gender Equality Master Plan in 2015	No	Yes	No	Yes: hiring and promotion targets (number and the percentage of female government officers newly employed in a year)	Official analysis were conducted but wage gap is not measured
Chile	No general strategy	Yes, Chilean Civil Service Agency	No	No	No	Official analysis were conducted but wage gap is not measured
Poland	No general strategy Gender equality is within the broader question on diversity	Yes, Head of the Civil Service / Civil Service Department of the Chancellery of the Prime Minister	No	Labour Code: employees have the right to equal remuneration for work of an identical value	No	Official analysis were conducted, a tool to measure the wage gap has been designed and free to use
UK	Yes, Government Strategy for Gender Equality 2014 - 2020 Yes, The Australian Public Service Gender Equality Strategy, 2016-2019	Yes on diversity Civil Service Human Resources Yes, The Department of Gender Equality of the Office of Government	Yes	No	No	Official analysis were conducted and wage gap measured
Czech Republic	Yes, Government Strategy for Gender Equality 2014 - 2020	Yes, Diversity and Inclusion Policy Section	Yes	Mandated by law, labour code (2006)	No	Official analysis were conducted but wage gap is not measured
Australia	Yes, The Australian Public Service Gender Equality Strategy, 2016-2019	Yes, Diversity and Inclusion Policy Section	Yes	No	No	Official analysis were conducted and wage gap measured
Slovak Republic	Gender equality is within the broader question on diversity	No	No	No	No	No official assessment, wage gap not measured
Norway	Gender equality is within the broader question on diversity	No	No	No	Hiring targets (percentage/number of those recruited in a certain year) but no promotion targets	No official assessment, wage gap not measured
France	Yes, protocol on professional equality in 2013	Yes, bureau du Recrutement et des politiques d'égalité et de diversité Yes, Personnel and Governance Policy department	Yes	Yes, pay grid and label "professional equality between men and women"	Hiring targets for senior positions (Sauvadet Law 2012) but no promotion targets	Official analysis were conducted and wage gap measured Official analysis were conducted and wage gap measured
Finland	No general strategy		Yes	No	No	Official analysis were conducted and wage gap measured
Switzerland	Yes	Yes, Federal Office for Gender Equality	No	Yes, self-control (<i>logib</i>) and constitution	No	Official analysis were conducted and wage gap measured
Hungary	Gender equality is within the broader question on diversity	Yes, Equal Treatment Authority	No	No	No	No official assessment, wage gap not measured
Republic of Korea	Yes, Gender Equality Employment Target System	Yes	Yes	No	Hiring and promotion targets at the national level, by sector and positions (number or percentage of women)	Official analysis were conducted but wage gap is not measured
Latvia	Gender equality is within the broader question on diversity	No	No	No	No	No official assessment, wage gap not measured

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Estonia	Yes, The Welfare Development Plan 2016-2023	No	Action plan is expected	Yes, standard for pay equality mandated by law (The Gender Equality Act)	No	Official analysis were conducted and wage gap measured No official assessment, wage gap not measured
Italy	Yes	No	No	Yes, standard for pay equality mandated by law and legal provisions to guarantee pay equity (Federal Equal Treatment Act)	No	
Austria	Yes, Federal Equal Treatment Act, 2015	No	Yes	Yes, standard for pay equality and legal provisions to guarantee pay equity in Canadian Human Rights Act	Hiring and promotion targets for specific positions	Official analysis were conducted and wage gap measured
Spain	Yes, Equality Plan between men and women, 2015.	Yes, General Directorate for the Civil Service	Yes	No	No	Official analysis were conducted but wage gap is not measured Official analysis were conducted but wage gap is not measured
Portugal	Yes	No	No	No	No	
Canada	Yes, Employment Equity Act since 1996	Yes, Office of the Chief Human Resources Officer	Action plan is expected	Yes, standard for pay equality and legal provisions to guarantee pay equity in Canadian Human Rights Act	Hiring targets at the national level, by sector and positions but no promotion targets	No official assessment but wage gap measured

The gender issue seems to be higher on the political agenda than the broader issue of diversity. Less than half of the countries (45%) have conducted analysis aiming at identifying diversity needs and gaps within the civil service, and 45% (9 countries) are not planning to commission such a study. Like for the gender equity studies, when it exists, diversity analysis is conducted mainly by a central department responsible for human resource management.

In all countries (except for Canada and Chile) where an assessment aiming at identifying gender equality needs and gaps has been conducted, actions were taken such as creating a committee established to lay out a strategic course of action to address these gaps or meetings to sensitize the civil service workforce on the identified gender gaps. Hence the gender equality issue has been put into action (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2. Actions taken to address key findings of official assessments on gender inequality needs

Country	A committee/commission established to discuss the findings and lay out a strategic course of action to address these gaps.	An action plan was developed to address identified gender gaps	A meeting/series of meetings were organized to sensitize the civil service workforce on the identified gender gaps	There was no follow-up to the study/analysis	Others
Australia	x	x			x
Austria	x	x	x		
Chile				x	
Czech Republic	x	x			x
Estonia					x
Finland					x
France	x	x	x		
Hungary					
Italy					
Japan	x	x	x		
Korea		x	x		
Latvia					
Norway					
Poland			x		
Slovak Republic					
Switzerland			x		
The United Kingdom	x	x	x		
Spain		x			
Canada				x	

Targets for the recruitment and promotion of women in the civil service

Most OECD countries that answered the survey do not set targets for neither the recruitment (50%) nor the promotion of women in the central government civil service (60%). Only 35% have specific targets regarding the recruitment of women and only 18% (Austria, Japan, and Korea) have specific targets regarding the promotion of women.

Austria, Canada, France, Switzerland, Japan, Norway and Korea have hiring targets (for instance in Japan the target is related to the number and the percentage of female government officers newly employed in a year). Norway targets the percentage and number of those recruited in a certain year and Korea plans to increase the appointment of women administrators at senior level of Grade 4 or higher. In France since 2013 the law « *Sauvadet* » has been implemented and constraints a minimum percentage of women in the number of newly appointed agents in managerial positions, the percentage increased regularly from 2013 to 2017 and reached 40% in 2017. In Austria, “the Act on the Advertisement of Vacancies” states that units with a percentage of women lower than 50% have to indicate that women are addressed to send in their applications.

Accountability for promoting gender equality within civil service at the central level

There is much room for improvement regarding the accountability for promoting gender equality. The measurement of gender equality in the workforce remains limited among

OECD countries in general. However, there are achievements in this area: the United Kingdom integrates gender equality targets or diversity into performance agreements for top managers (no country does so for middle management). No country develops incentives for senior managers neither for meeting gender-balance performance objectives nor for the use of work-life balance measures. Few countries (Austria, Poland, Switzerland, the United Kingdom and Finland, see Box 3.3 for the case of Austria) provide gender-related training to managers responsible for the development and implementation of gender policies, develop coaching and mentoring programs to assist executives with gender-related issues or use employees' surveys to gather perception data about executive effectiveness in promoting gender equality. Canada can serve as an important example in this area: there is an integration of gender equality and diversity targets into performance agreements for top and middle managers, all managers are provided gender-related training, and executives are assisted with coaching and mentoring programs on gender-related issues.

Box 3.3. Austria and Accountability of Gender Equality

Gender equality is an important aspect of performance management in Austria, which is a results-oriented strategy on the federal level of government. The System of performance Management has two distinct instruments: performance budgeting and regulatory impact assessments. The instrument of performance budgeting ensures that all ministries and supreme organs define gender-related outcome objectives, measures and indicators. The outcome objectives play a crucial role in the annual appraisal interview for top and middle management, as well as for employees.

The Federal Academy of Public Administration and other schools for the public administration provide many seminars and trainings which include the topics of gender policies.

Specially tailored development programs for women help women gain access to top-notch functions. In 2000, a pilot project under the title "Mentoring for Women" has been launched by the Working Group on Equal Treatment Issues. Since 2007, the program has been integrated in the personnel development of the federal government and coordinated in cooperation with the human resource developers of the federal government. A special feature of the cross-mentoring of the federal government is that experienced executives as mentors support a colleague (mentee) of another department that wants to develop professionally. It also provides an additional positive side effect, namely the development of an open attitude of mentors towards the advancement of women and the reduction of role-based prejudices. Regular meetings of all participants offer the opportunity to network with each other. Accompanying mentoring and mentee trainings, supervision sessions for the mentors and peer groups organized by the mentees complete the program. Between 2005 and June 2017, around 1030 mentors and mentees participated in the program.

Sources: <https://www.jobboerse.gv.at/aufstieg/crossmentoring/index.html>

Gender-disaggregated data and public policies

Gender disaggregated data is collected, often by a central human resource management agency or department. All countries collect data on gender balance of the current central

government workforce (except for Hungary and Portugal). However only 35% of the countries that have participated in the survey collect data on complaints for sexual harassment in the workplace in the civil service or for gender based discrimination. Austria, Canada and the United Kingdom can serve as good examples regarding the collection of data: one can find skills audits and capabilities reviews, measurement of use of work-life balance by secretarial staffs, professionals and management, etc.

In addition, some countries reported taking action to reduce gender inequality on the basis of the collected data. For instance, in Chile, with the Tax Reform in 2014, a large number of positions were opened, and a document that identified potential gender biases in recruitment procedures was written. In the United Kingdom a wider diversity review was launched (see Box 3.4).

Box 3.4. The United Kingdom; measurement, data and actions to reduce gender bias in public employment

In the United Kingdom, the “Talent Action Plan” reviews the way the civil service defines and identifies talent, without gender or diversity bias. The Talent Action Plan stressed the importance of investing in training and development. Following that plan the administration noted an increase in diversity of both applicants, and successful applicants. The United Kingdom introduced “the Leadership Statement”, against which senior leaders are assessed, and “The new diversity and inclusion strategy” includes a program of work to create a standard for inclusive leadership, including a gender bias assessment, which will be integrated as part of the competency framework.

Diversity and inclusion is a central tenet in the civil service workforce planning. The Civil Service Workforce Plan 2016-2020 sets the ambition that the Civil Service will be the most inclusive employer in the United Kingdom by 2020.

Future Leaders Scheme (middle to senior managers) Senior Leaders Scheme (senior managers) and High Potential Development Scheme (middle managers) have been developed with the aim to reduce the gender bias. Awards are granted to foster diversity and equality (Positive Action Pathway, fast track scheme, summer diversity internship program).

In 2015 the Civil Service introduced ‘name-blind’ recruitment for all roles below the Senior Civil Service, and it covers nearly all civil services. New approaches to recruitment and selection have been introduced: strength-based interviewing, consecutive interviews, batch recruitment and including colleagues of different grades in the selection process. Inclusive language in job descriptions or the help of specialist media are also to be noticed.

Consistent and effective public policies regarding gender equality needs assessment and accountability. Targets cannot be met without precise and accurate accountability. If gender equality concerns have been put on the political agenda, data and precise evaluations that are a cornerstone for effective public policies still remain limited.

Reconciliation of Professional and personal life in the civil service

OECD countries have introduced a wide range of measures in the public sector to ensure equal access to employment opportunities and address gender discrimination in public

employment. These measures include policies to attract potential employees by offering an environment that is favorable to a balanced personal life. Public sector seems to offer more attractive work-life balance schemes than the private sector and to design flexible environment that is employee-oriented and no only employer-oriented, and this difference has been noted in earlier work of the OECD (OECD, 2001)

However, significant variations across OECD countries remain. The importance of work-life balance policies partly reflects the conditions in the private sector and historical and cultural values outside the public sector. Many countries have implemented policies promoting gender equality and work-life balance measures (for instance France, Germany, the United Kingdom, Spain, and Austria). Some countries are increasingly taking steps to encourage men to take charge of an equal share of parental leave, which could be a first step against stereotypes and gender biases (Finland or Norway). But still in other countries the political agenda lacks references to promote gender equality nor in the private nor in the public sector.

Policies to promote work-life balance in the public sector

Governments have implemented various policies to allow for a better reconciliation of professional and personal life for working women and men employed by the central government. In all countries that have answered the survey, work-life balance measures are integrated with human resources policies and aim to be flexible to meet the needs of the employees and the organization. Table 3.3 reports examples of these various solutions.

The most used measures are; the possibility to leave work to take care of a sick family member, which is implemented in 83% of the countries (10 countries out of 12) and to leave the workplace to take care of an elderly family member which is a very close measure and possible in 9 countries out of 12. Part-time is possible in nearly all countries (83%) and teleworking is also very largely diffused (82%). Teleworking may not only be linked to work-life balance but also to the wide spread of digital tools and the increasing demand for mobility. The least used measures are the existence of childcare facilities at the workplace and specific measures to accommodate the needs of pregnant women (only 5 countries out of 12).

Table 3.3. Various Measures for Work Life Balance

	Leave to take care of a sick family member	Leave to take care of an elderly family member	Employer provided childcare facilities	Subsidies for childcare	Flexible start and working hours and time saving	Part-time employment solutions	Teleworking	Condensed work week	Specific measures to accommodate the needs of pregnant women	Specific measures to accommodate the needs of breastfeeding women
Chile	•	•	•	•	•	0	0	0	0	•
Poland	0	0	-	-	•	•	•	•	•	•
UK	•	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Czech Republic	-	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Australia	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	0	0
Slovak Republic	•	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	-	-
France	•	•	•	0	•	•	•	0	•	•
Finland	0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Switzerland	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	0	-	•
Hungary	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	-	-	-
Republic of Korea	•	•	0	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
Estonia	•	•	0	•	0	0	0	0	•	•
Austria	•	•	0	0	•	•	•	•	-	-
Spain	-	-	-	-	-	-	•	-	-	0
Portugal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Canada	•	•	0	0	•	•	•	•	•	•

Note: • “yes”; 0 “no”; N/A “not applicable”

When existing, these measures are usually widely disseminated to employees. In all countries, the employer promotes the equal use of work-life balance measures between men and women. They are not usually specifically promoted at the senior levels of management except in Australia, Canada, Chile, the Czech Republic and the United Kingdom. Although a formal monitoring and evaluation mechanism to assess their implementation and impact is put in place (in all countries except in Australia, Estonia and Poland), only 35% of the countries collect gender-disaggregated data on the use of these work-life measures, which is line with what was mentioned in the previous section regarding the lack of assessment and data on gender equality.

Austria has implemented a very precise monitoring of the usage of various work-life balance policies (part time, homecare leave, leave for mothers and fathers). An additional specific measure designed for fathers allows them to take an early parental leave when the baby is less than one month old (and mothers on maternity leave): yet only 0.4% of men take this leave, mainly middle managers.

Nevertheless, these measures are scarce and there is room for improvement in assessing the impact of work-life balance initiatives on advancing gender equality within the civil service at the central level of government. Only 4 countries are able to correlate these measures with gender equality. France, Austria, Canada and Korea measure the increase in representation of women in management positions or in employee satisfaction.

Family leave

The most frequent policies aiming at improving work-life balance are the implementation of family leave. There are different types of family leaves. Parents are entitled to various days of leave: maternity leave, paternity leave, parental leave and home-care leave; Maternity leave or pregnancy leave is a leave of absence for employed women at around the time of childbirth; Paternity leave is the symmetric leave of absence for employed fathers at the time of childbirth. In some countries, parents (both mothers and fathers) can benefit from a parental leave which is often supplementary to specific maternity and paternity leave periods. Eventually, parents can ask for a home-care leave, which is allowed to care for children until they are about three years old, usually in case of sickness period. Home-care leave and parental leave are usually not compulsory and can be guaranteed if asked for by the parents.

There are two different frameworks regulating care-leave in the public and in the private sectors in Canada, France, Finland, Spain or Great-Britain, whereas it is the same legal framework in Norway, Portugal, Switzerland or Korea. Available evidence demonstrates that this characteristic is not linked to whether the civil service is a position-based system or career-based system.

Family leaves are one indicator of how the employer takes into consideration family constraints and offers a working environment attractive to women who in most countries still take charge of the bulk of family care.

Table 3.4 shows the length of compulsory leave in weeks for maternity and paternity leaves in OCED member countries that have answered the survey. Paternity leave is still an exception: it's guaranteed in only 5 countries out of 17, and when existing it is shortened to one or two weeks, with the notable exception of Finland (9 weeks) and Norway (10 weeks). This policy of parental leave is not gender neutral and is mostly addressed towards women.

Table 3.4. Compulsory Family leave

Country	Compulsory Maternity Leave (Number of weeks)	Compulsory Paternity Leave (Number of weeks)
Japan	n.a.	n.a.
Chile	18	1
Poland	20 / 37	0
The United Kingdom	2/4	0
Czech Republic	14 / 28	0
Australia	12	0
Slovak Republic	34/ 43	0
Norway	10	10
France	16 / 46	2,2/3,6
Finland	17,5	9
Switzerland	16	2
Hungary	33,6	0
Korea	18	1

Latvia	16	1,5
Estonia	20	2
Italy	n.a.	n.a.
Austria	16 / 20	0
Spain	16	4
Portugal	n.a.	n.a.
Canada	15	n.a.

During maternity leave, women are usually compensated of their usual gross earnings: they are completely compensated for in most OECD countries (Austria, Australia, Chile, Estonia, France, Finland, Estonia, Norway, Poland, Spain, Switzerland and Korea) and receive between 70% and 90% of their usual compensation in the other fewer countries (Hungary, Latvia, the Czech Republic, The United Kingdom and the Slovak Republic). When allowed to take paternity leave, even when this leave is not compulsory, fathers receive the same rate of allowance as women: meaning 100% of their gross wage in Chile, Estonia, France, Finland, Spain, Portugal and Poland, but between 70% and 90% of their compensation in Hungary, Latvia and the Slovak Republic. Hence the difference between men and women is in the length of the compulsory leave and not in the rate of allowance. Parental leave is usually much less compensated for or not compensated at all: it is unpaid in the Czech Republic and paid for only approximately 230 euros a month in the Slovak Republic.

Nearly no OECD member country requires a minimum number of previously employed weeks in order to benefit from prolonged leave. However, some countries do require a minimum number of weeks employed in the workplace before being eligible to prolonged leave, paid or unpaid: in the United Kingdom 26 weeks in the workplace are required before being allowed to maternity leave, 54 weeks are required in the Slovak Republic and 73 weeks are required from fathers before benefitting from paternity leave in Hungary and Canada requires 600 working hours.

In nearly all countries, a mother is entitled to return to the same post at the end of the compulsory maternity leave, except for Chile where the employer has only the obligation to find a post but not necessarily the same. In countries where paternity leave is compulsory, the same protection exists for fathers who return to the same post at the end of their leave.

Beyond compulsory leave, parents can be entitled to more weeks if they ask for a prolonged leave. Although it is not the common rule, it is the case in a few countries such as Poland where the maternity leave can be prolonged from 6 to 23 weeks, in the United Kingdom and Australia where maternity leave can be extended to 52 weeks, and in France where up to 6 weeks can be added or in Portugal where the prolonged leave is of 3 months. The case of Norway is very specific and favorable to family: maternity leave and parental leave can go up to 156 weeks. On the contrary, paternity leave that is rarely compulsory can be asked for and prolonged up to 4 weeks in Austria or up to 2 weeks in the United Kingdom and Poland. In the same way, although not often compulsory, parental leave can be extended if public employees ask for it. Countries where compulsory leave is short tend to allow for long periods of chosen parental leave: for instance in Poland parental leave can extend to 34 weeks and home care leave to 36 months; in the United Kingdom or in Australia, parental leave is allowed up to 52 weeks and parents are entitled to 18 weeks' leave for each child and adopted child, up to their 18th birthday. The limit on how much parental leave each parent can take in a year is 4 weeks for each child. Eventually home care leave seems to be given for very short

periods, usually a couple of days to take care of children or elderly members of the family (2 days in Switzerland). However, in Austria home care leave can be extended up to 312 weeks.

Maternity, paternity, and parental leaves, even if not compulsory, are compensated for, and usually in the same way for the 3 types, up to 100% of the gross wage. In a few countries, the rate of allowance varies from 60 to 100%. In Poland, depending on the conditions and the number of week the rate of allowance for maternity leave goes from 60 to 100% and paternity leave is totally compensated for. In the United Kingdom, maternity leave paternity leave and parental leave are paid 90% of average weekly earnings. The Czech Republic is an exception and parental leave is not compensated for. On the contrary, in nearly all countries home care leave is unpaid expect in Hungary where the parents receive up to 70% of his gross wage with a maximum of 595€ until the child is 2.

The organization of social security of public employees depends on various variables, on cultural and historical paths. Usually the employer, meaning the government, pays for social benefits, and in this specific case covers prolonged leave in most countries like in Austria, France, Finland or the United Kingdom. However in some countries, public employees, like employees of the private sector have a social security agency that covers for their benefits such as in the Czech Republic or the Slovak Republic. In addition in Austria a “Family Equalization Fund” covers for family leaves.

Gender equality in civil service: employment and earnings

Human resource management focus on gender equality and more specifically work-life balance policies contribute to attract female workers to the public sector, which could explain the high women’s employment rates relatively to the private sector. All those policies are expected to result in a higher attractiveness of the public service, more mobility, higher wages and more generally a favorable work environment. The impact of these various policies depends on various factors such as the flexibility and attractiveness of the private sector and the values for gender equality in the society at large.

Public sector employment trends

The definition of public employment depends on the source and the delimitations of the survey. In this section, we compare three data sets on employment of women: the share of employed women in total employment in the economy from the OECD data base on employment, the data published in Government at a glance 2017 that covers public employment in central governments and the data reported in our survey. Variations come also from the frontier of employment: head counts in our survey, and full time equivalent on both other data sets.

In all OECD countries that participated in the survey, the share of women in central civil service is significantly higher than the share in the private sector and in the labor force. Women seem to be attracted the central state as employer and/or the state as an employer is less biased than the private sector against recruiting women. Error! Reference source not found. shows that the average share of women in total employment is around 44%, whereas, on average, women represent 50.86% of the total employed in the public sector (

Figure 3.2). Women outnumber men except in Greece, Korea, Mexico and Japan and the share of female workers varies across countries but it ranges between 55% and 78% for nearly all OECD member countries.

Public sector employment accounts for an important share of total female employment. Diversity in employment shares among OECD countries has been historically linked to the various welfare and employment systems identified by Esping-Andersen (1990) analysis. Since then, there is a convergence between OECD countries. For example, Germany, Estonia or Poland have experienced an increase in the female rate of employment and the share of female employment in total employment is above 40% in all countries (except for Turkey and Mexico).

Figure 3.1. Female share in total employment. Source OECD, Labor Force Statistics 2017

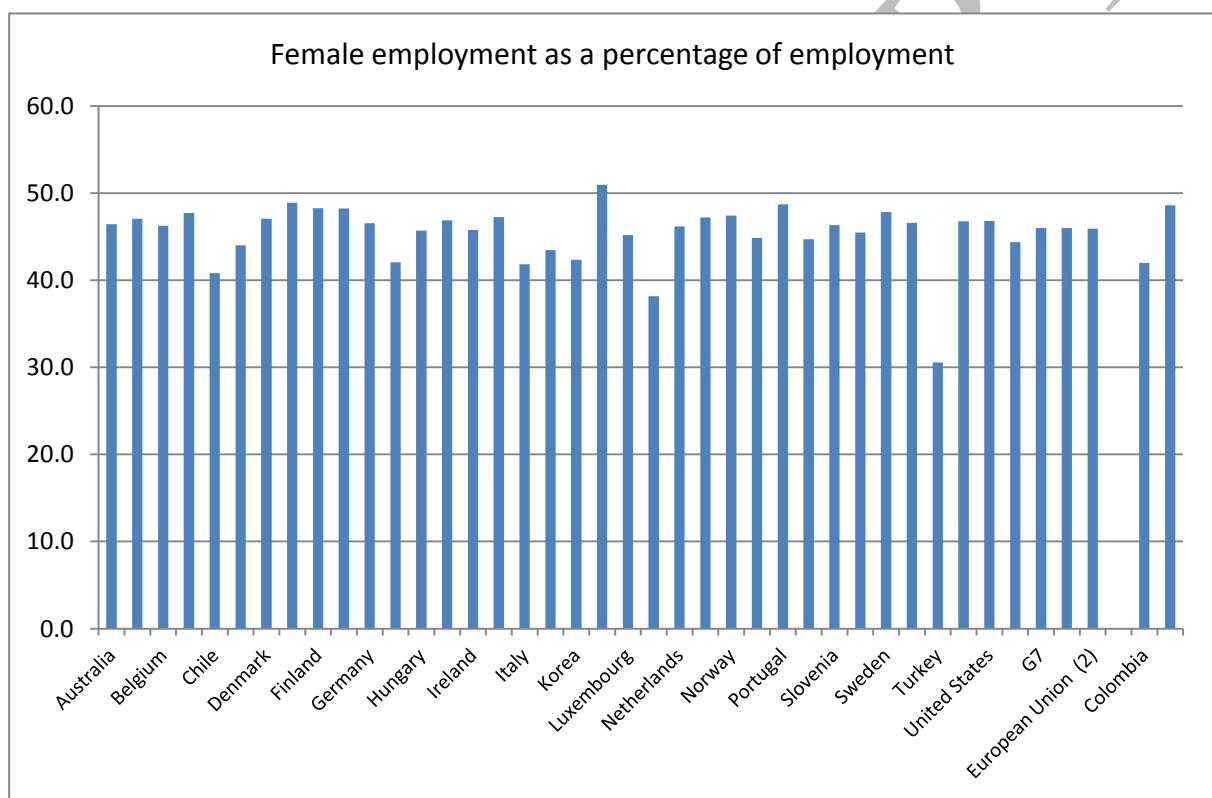


Figure 3.2. Share of public sector employment filled by women (full time equivalent), 2009, 2015, OECD, Government at a glance 2017. Source ILOSTAT (database).

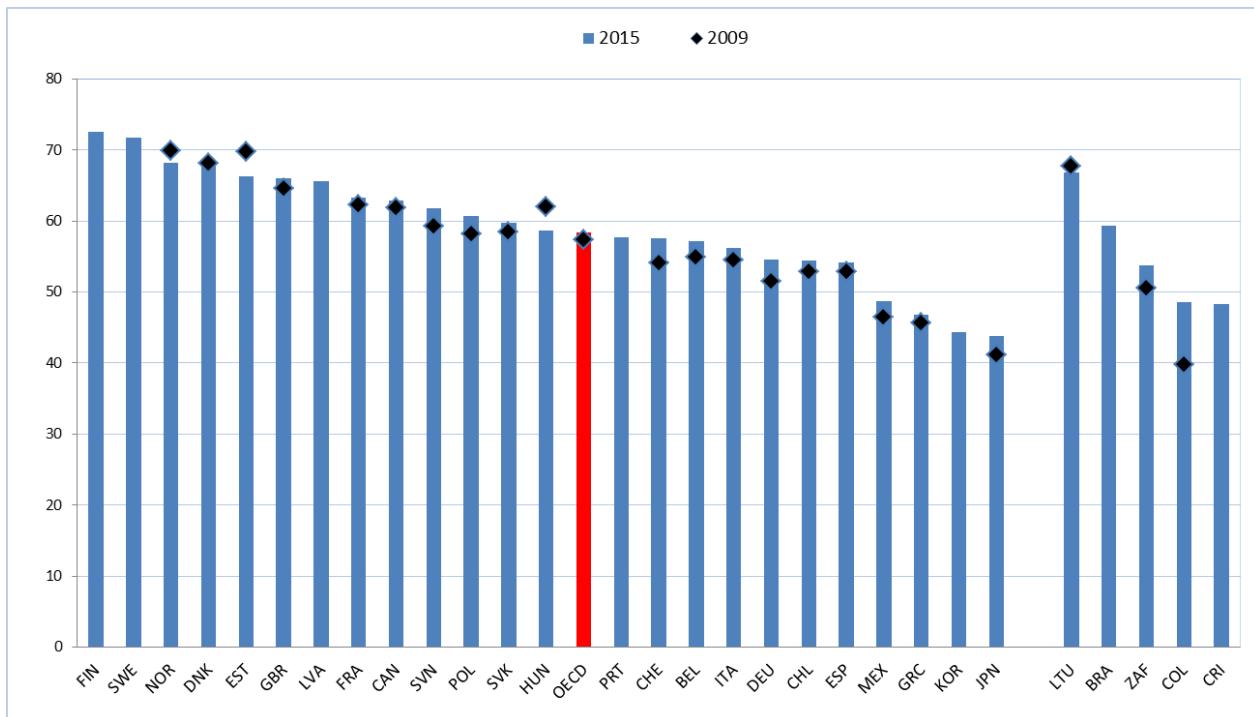
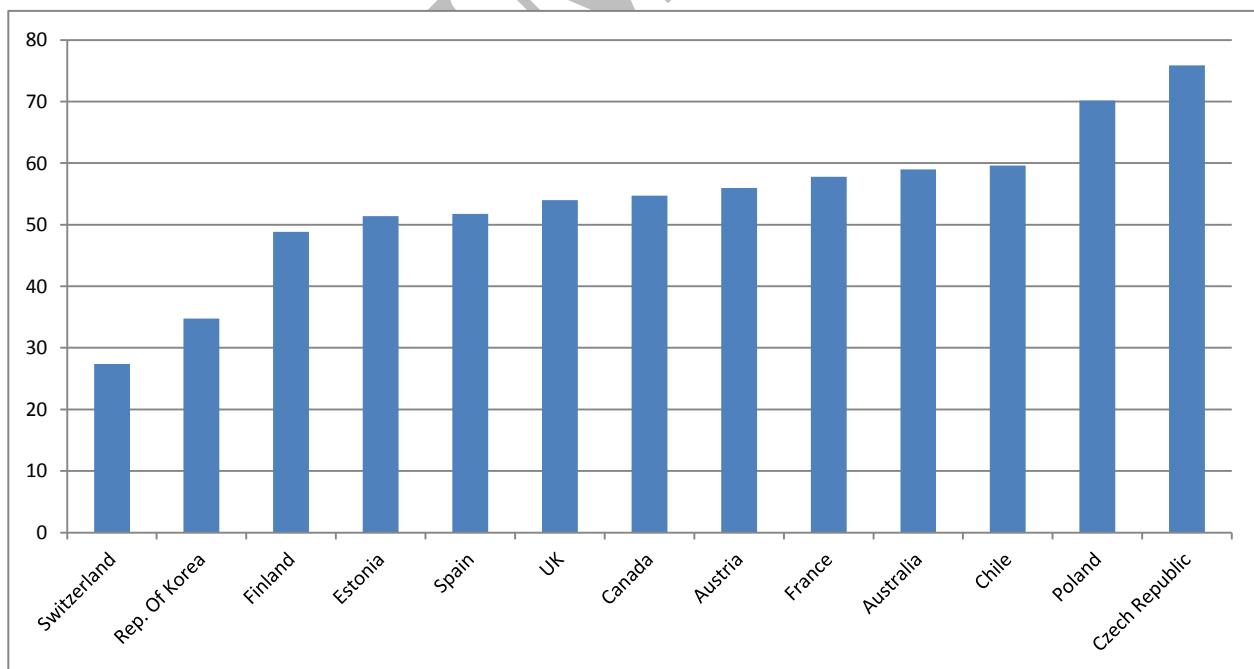


Figure 3.3 Female share in total employment (head count full time and part time) in civil services. Source OECD Gender equality survey 2017



In all the countries that participated in the OECD gender survey, the public sector is the larger employer in a country, and the female share in civil services seems to be increasing from 2005 to 2017. This increase can be explained by various factors: either specific policies have been designed to attract women and reduce gender discrimination; or the various reforms of the public sector and the economic crisis and shortening of budgets may have induced composition effects favorable to women. Hence on the positive side, one could argue that favorable working conditions, work-life balance measures, anti-discrimination recruitments have attracted more women to the public sector. On the contrary, on the negative side, austerity measures, for instance a reduction in wages, may select more women than men by an adverse selection mechanism. To disentangle those two effects one could argue that in countries where gender equality measures were in place the ratio of women working full time in the public sector did not increase: for instance in Austria and Finland it remains stable around 47%. In the United Kingdom the share of women decreased from 44% to 40% between 2005 and 2010 probably also because of reduction in total public employment that took place in specific sectors more favorable to women (*i.e.* health).

Nearly all countries have a similar ratio of women working in the public sector, around 50%. One must note that some countries seem to have a specific regime regarding the recruitment of women in the public sector: On the one hand, the share of women (head count, working full time) seems relatively high in Chile (59%), Poland (70%) and Hungary (70%) and in rather low in Switzerland (19%) and in Korea (30%). Those differences may be explained by cultural and historical factors regarding the participation of women to the labor force but also by compositional effects and the sectors covered by the government. Whether the central state is only in charge of police and justice or covers wide areas such education or health makes the comparison between countries rather difficult to make in order to determine whether those differences are due to discriminatory policies or composition effects.

When comparing to the total economy, one must notice many variations between OECD countries. On average, the share of women as reported on our survey (full time and head count) is marginally higher than that of the total economy (it is the case in Australia, Austria, Estonia, Finland, France). However, in the United Kingdom, the share of women in the civil service (40%) is lower than that in the total economy (around 48%). It's also the case in Switzerland where the share of women (full time and part time) is particularly low (20%), and in Korea (34%). This can be due to the head count and the importance of women in part time jobs. On the contrary, in some countries the share in the public sector is much higher than in the private sector such as in Chile, the Czech Republic or Poland, where women may be attracted by more favorable working conditions.

Those differences may also be explained by work arrangements in public employment. In the private sector the share of women in part time jobs is well-known to be higher than that of men: for instance 25,8% of women work part-time, whereas the share for men is 9,4% on average in OECD countries in 2016 (OECD (2018), Part-time employment rate). In the public sector one can also observe the same difference, with a variation across the countries. In the Czech Republic, on average 87% public employees working part time are women and 70% of public employees who work at home are women. In Finland though, 5% of the total civil servants are working part time, with 2,7% of men against 7,6% of women (and where temporary paid child care leave is used by the same amount by men and women, around 11% of the labor force).

On average, 75% of total part time workers are women in OECD countries that participated in the survey. This average share has decreased on the historical path from 2005 to 2017. For instance it went down in the United Kingdom from 89% to 82%, in Canada from 79% to 72% and in France from 85% to 79%. Finland is the only responding country where the share of women in total part time employment had increased from 62% to 72%. The gap between men and women is important for secretarial positions where the share of women using part time measures is 4 times higher than the share of men, but also in high management position: only 2% of male senior managers have part time positions against 16.5% of female senior managers.

Indeed part time work can either be voluntary or non-voluntary and voluntary part time work provides greater flexibility and work-life balance. Yet, part time work is often associated with negative effects on career opportunities especially in managerial careers, slower career progress and lower pay.

Women's representation in occupational groups

Women are well represented in OECD countries' public sectors; however, they are still over-represented in lower job categories, and part time work. The public sector seems to employ a fair share of women; however gender bottlenecks can take place in the hierarchy and impede the access to managerial positions. Some countries such as Austria have implemented ambitious programs to ensure that women are equally represented in all spheres of the public sector. Countries provided data on the share of women working (full time and part time workers, head count) in 5 different categories of jobs: top management, middle management, professionals and secretarial positions that are discussed in this section.

Women are still behind in terms of management and leadership positions (see Table 3.5). Women represent on average only 30.5% of top management employees (full time and part time). This average ranges between a maximum of 42% in Australia and Canada and a minimum of 6% in Korea. The distinction between full time and part time isn't relevant in this case because few top managers choose to work part time. Therefore there are important variations between OECD countries and on average women consistently occupy less than half of public service decision making positions.

This gender differential in top managerial positions disappears in lower managerial positions: women represent on average 47.8% of middle management employees (full time and part time). However there are important differences between countries. On the one side, one can group countries like Poland, Estonia or the Czech Republic show very important share of women in the middle management positions (up to 80% in the Czech Republic). This could be a positive effect of open policies but also a sign of difficulties to climb the ladder of management. On another side, there are countries where there is still disparities in the representation of women in middle management position such as Korea and Switzerland (women represent only 19% of middle managers). In these positions the distinction between part time jobs and full time jobs is informative in some countries, because those positions can be filled by part time employees who are in most cases women. For instance the share of women in part time middle managerial positions rises to 86% in Australia or in the Czech Republic. The increase of the share of women in middle management could contribute in the long run to closing the gender gap for the top leadership positions, since middle managers could serve as a stepping stone for senior management.

Professionals provide crucial expertise to government policies: they can be economists, statisticians or lawyers. Increasing levels of education is contributing to enhance the position and number of women in experts' positions. Women represent a vast majority of 60% of those positions. As in the middle management positions, when professionals are part time workers they are very frequently women (83% of professional part time workers in Estonia are women). When focusing on full time positions, one can distinguish Austria and the United Kingdom where the share of women in those professional positions is relatively low (less than 25%) and on the contrary Estonia and the Czech Republic where it is very high (75%).

On average, in the OECD countries that participated to the survey, 78% of secretaries are women. The United Kingdom and Finland seem to have a smaller gender gap for those occupations where women represent a share closer to 60%. In these positions were being a women is widespread in most countries the distinction between part time and full time is not conclusive.

Table 3.5. Share of women in top management, 2017

Country	Share of women in top management (total employed women and men, full time and part time workers, head count), %	Share of women in top management (total employed women and men, full time head count) %
Chile	31.9	31.9
Poland	41.9	
England	35.9	32.45
Czech Republic	29.1	29.
Australia	42.9	41.96
Finland	34.3	34.3
Switzerland	16.5	15.9
Republic of Korea	6.	6.
Estonia	18.5	18.5
Austria	31.6	45.76
Canada	41.9	42.2

Box 3.5. Austria's Cross-Mentoring Program

To ensure women are equally represented in all spheres of the public sector, the Austrian working group on Equal Treatment Issues initiated in 2000 the pilot project “Mentoring for women”. In 2005, the Cross-Mentoring Program was launched and is coordinated by the Directorate General III of the Austrian Federal Chancellery in cooperation with fellow staff developers of the other Federal Ministries and the Parliamentary Administration with the aim to facilitate women’s access to top positions.

The Cross-Mentoring program allows participating civil service staff to take a stock of where they stand in order to further progress towards a specific career objective to be defined as part of the program. The program’s defining feature consists in managers (i.e. mentors) supporting their colleagues from other Ministries (i.e. their mentees) in achieving their particular goal. The mentors share their own know-how and experience, give tips on career planning, and facilitate entry to professional networks. Mentors are not only women but also men can be mentors to working women. In addition to working on developing their careers, mentees have the additional opportunity to network across Ministry boundaries, for instance during workshops and networking meetings. It also provides an additional positive side effect; the development of an open attitude of mentors towards the advancement of women and the reduction of gender-based prejudices.

Since 2005, the response to this scheme has been very good and around 1030 mentors and mentees have taken part. The mentors, many of whom have participated more than once, have shown great commitment, stressing the particular value of passing on their experience while extending their own leadership skills. The Cross-Mentoring scheme is constantly being evaluated and improved in order to meet the needs of mentors and mentees as much as possible.

Sources: OECD 2017 Survey on Gender Equality in Civil Service Employment; Cross Mentoring im Bundesdienst <https://www.jobboerse.gv.at/aufstieg/crossmentoring/index.html>

The Pay gap

Gender differences in occupations and pay still persist, and though many countries foster pay equality, there is still much progress to be made in terms of pay equity. Indeed insuring equal pay for the same work, meaning equal pay, is not sufficient. Many OECD countries have introduced legal provisions to guarantee pay equity, meaning that work of equal value, requiring similar qualifications, is paid the same.

Not all countries are able to measure wage gaps in the civil service at the central level: only half of the countries that have participated in the survey do measure gender wage gaps. In Poland, though there is no official measurement of wage gaps, a tool has been designed by the ministry of family, labor and social policy and can be downloaded on a website by government offices that can use it. In Switzerland, a self-control tool has been developed that allows employees to measure their salary in regards to wage differences between men and women. Other countries that have a career-based system tend to underestimate wage gaps linked to gender or diversity: because, in theory, all agents have a wage based on a specific grid of pay and have promotion linked with seniority and

experience, discrimination is expected to be lower than in countries where public employment is position-based. This could explain why few countries have put in place a specific set of measurement for wage gaps. Indeed job classification, anonymous recruitments, pay grid contribute to avoiding large and discriminatory wage gap. Yet wage gap may persist in the public sector on average despite the pay grid because it also reflects composition effects: women may have fewer promotions and are less often appointed to senior positions as was shown in the previous paragraph.

Although not precisely measuring wage gaps, many countries have put in place tools to address gender wage differentials and occupational segregation. Austria, Canada, France and the United Kingdom show an interesting approach in promoting such measure: analysis of wage setting process to ensure it's free of gender bias (in Austria, Canada, Estonia, France, Poland, Switzerland, Korea, The United Kingdom), standard for pay equality (in Austria, Canada, Estonia, France, Switzerland, The Czech Republic), pay transparency (in Austria, Canada, France and The United Kingdom), or legal provisions to guarantee pay equity (in Austria, Canada, Poland and Switzerland). Channels of recourse specific to civil service for challenging the occupational segregation and the gender wage gap are in place in Austria, Canada and France.

Box 3.6. France's Memorandum of Understanding on professional equality in the public service

The French Government, public employers and unions signed in March 2013 the Memorandum of Understanding on professional equality between women and men in the public service.

The MoU was designed with the aim to transform equality before the law and equality of status into real gender equality in the public service. The MoU is articulated around the following four axis:

1. Social dialogue, structural element to achieve professional equality.
2. Make effective wage equality between women and men and career paths in the public service.
3. Better balance between professional and personal life.
4. Prevent gender-based violence, fight against sexual harassment and psychological harassment in the workplace

Each of these four axes detail specific measures to achieve each goal. In addition, the MoU also establishes a calendar with concrete actions for its implementation and an assessment is carried out every year to evaluate the effective fulfilment of the measures. The Assessment is presented to the common council of the public sector upon the examination of the annual report on professional equality.

Source: Protocole d'accord relative à l'égalité professionnelle entre les femmes et les hommes dans la fonction publique
https://www.fonction-publique.gouv.fr/files/files/publications/politiques_emploi_public/20130308-Protocole-d-accord-equalite-professionnelle.pdf

Very few countries (only 35%) have provided information on wage gaps. Nonetheless, it seems that wage gaps have decreased slightly from 2005 to 2017, in all countries for which we have data. In Finland for instance, women in the public sector earned on average 81.9% of the men's wage in 2005, and earn on average 86.8% in 2017. In Canada, the wage gap decreased from 12.9% to 9.2%. However, comparing wage gaps among countries could be inconclusive because of composition effects: an average wage gap isn't meaningful when comparing for instance countries where the health sector or education is part of the civil service and others where those sectors that have a high share of women in their workforce is private. Nonetheless, for the seven countries that have provided aggregated data of the wage gap, it lies in the same range. In the same way comparing the wage gaps in the private sector and the public sector is not meaningful because of those composition effects. Nonetheless, evidence base analysis confirms that wage gaps are wider in the private sector and that they decreased less in the private sector than in the public sector. For instance, in Finland the wage gap seems comparable in the private sector where women earn on average 82.2% of the men's wage in 2005, but this gap has less decreased more in the public sector than in the private sector since women earn 84.9% of men's wage in 2010. In France the private sector seems also more unequal since women earn 81.4% of men's wage in the private sector and 86.7% in the public sector. The wage gap could reflect composition effects. For instance, if women chose or occupied different positions that are less paid than men, a gender wage gap would reflect a position wage gap. To avoid this composition effect, Burchell et al. (2014) looked at a specific job and compared the female pay to average male pay by country for the 27 EU countries. They show that women earn from 88% to 173% of male pay depending on the country, but the pay gap is positive for women in most of the countries, and the countries paying less than the male average wage regroup Scandinavian and eastern European countries. Pay equality (equal pay for the same work) is crucial for gender equality. Some countries have even legally enforced equal pay between women and men (see Box 7). However the OECD advocates also for pay equity: work of equal value, requiring similar qualifications should be paid on an equal basis. The introduction of bonuses or merit pay may play a negative role in reducing pay equity: it could reintroduce inadvertent discrimination against women and especially against younger women, or against women with children who may spend more time at home. Hence implementing efficient measures to increase pay equity is still a challenge.

This wage gap contrasts with women's level of education in the public sector relatively to men. The share of public sector employment in total graduate employment is much higher for women than for men: in most OECD member countries more than 50% of tertiary educated women work in the public sector (except for Austria, Estonia, Spain and Luxembourg), whereas on average less than 30% of tertiary educated men work for the public sector.

Box 3.7. Switzerland´s tool to measure the gender pay gap

Logib is a self-control tool that allows Swiss employees to measure their salary in regards to wage differences between men and women. *Logib* is a free service that anyone can download and use anonymously. It takes just five steps to analyse one's salary information and it is recommended employees check *logib* once a year.

Logib provides the most important results in a track record sheet that allows the user to observe if wage equality between women and men is respected. In addition, other tables and detailed graphs provide complementary information. The method used by *Logib* has been validated by the Federal Tribunal.

Source: Logib, Bureau Fédéral de l'Égalité entre femmes et hommes BFEG, Switzerland Confederation

Box 3.8. Iceland´s Equal Pay Certification

Iceland has become the first country to legally enforce equal pay between women and men.

In June 2017, the Icelandic Parliament (Alþingi) passed an amendment to the 2008 legislation on equal position and equal rights of women and men. The new law made it mandatory for all firms and institutions with 25 or more employees to obtain a "Pay Equality Certification" (*Jafnlaunavottun*). Professional certifiers, such as private consultancy firms, shall deliver the certification verdict with a report for each case certified to the public Centre for Gender Equality. The certifiers will be required to give information to the Centre for Gender Equality about the ones that do not qualify in the test. The certification will have to be renewed every three years.

Source: Iceland – Equal pay certification legalised, Stefán Ólafsson, European Social Policy Network, July 2017.

Gender equality and the future of women in public employment

Women are on average well represented in public sector employment; however gender inequalities are still persistent especially in management and leadership positions, in part time, in occupational categories and in pay. OECD countries have implemented many measures to ensure the narrowing of those gaps and ensure equality and equity among public employees. The recent trend in terms of narrowing the gap should be an encouragement to develop and improve those measures. However there are very important differences between countries regarding these issues.

Box 3.9. Key policy Recommendations

In line with previous recommendation of the OECD Council on Gender Equality, the following policies are to be encouraged:

- Target senior managers position to improve the gender balance in leadership positions (target-setting for managers, mentoring programs etc., recruitment design that attract women)
- Promote the flexibility, transparency, and fairness of public sector employment systems and policies to ensure fair pay and equal opportunities for women and men, in particular be cautious with reforms of pay and performance that could reintroduce gender stereotypes and discrimination.
- Address the persisting gender pay gap, for similar jobs or similar work, by adopting pay equity regulations, launching audits, allowing easy and effective channels of recourse.
- Improve work-life balance options. Those flexible work arrangements could target more specifically men and mechanisms could be designed to ensure that those who use workplace flexibilities are not penalized through their career or pay. Part-time could be encouraged by developing transition path to move from full time to part time jobs and inventive for men to join those transition paths.
- Make one unit or institution related to HRM policies responsible and accountable for gender equality.
- Collect disaggregated gender data, establish targets, and launch evaluation of public policies that are meant to reduce gender inequality.
- Increase gender awareness on the impact of austerity policies and human resource management, in particular NPM. Very few studies and research articles address this specific issue partly because of the scarcity of disaggregated gender data.

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