Report on the Gender Pay Gap
Department of Justice 2020
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Abbreviations used
CSO: Central Statistics Office
DoJ: Department of Justice
FTE: Full Time Equivalent
GPG: Gender Pay Gap
HR: Human Resources unit
MPG: Motherhood Pay Gap
NSSO: National Shared Services Office
ONS: Office for National Statistics (UK)
RDA: Research & Data Analytics unit

List of Grades
AO: Administrative Officer
AP: Assistant Principal
AS: Assistant Secretary
CO: Clerical Officer
DS: Deputy Secretary
EO: Executive Officer
HEO: Higher Executive Officer
PO: Principal Officer
PTP: Professional Technical Post
SEC: Secretary General
SO: Staff Officer
SVO: Service Officer

Note: Hierarchy of grades as follows: Secretary General, Deputy Secretary, Assistant Secretary, Principal Officer, Assistant Principal, Administrative Officer or Higher Executive Officer, Executive Officer, Clerical Officer, and Service Officer.

Professional / Technical Post (P&T) grades differ from general civil service grades as they involve specialist work, often with more specific qualification or compliance requirements, and often with different pay scales and conditions of employment. The PTP Grade was examined using Salary plan as the breakdown identifier of the grade in question. 95% of the PTP Grade are in the agencies.
Definitions

**Equal pay:** The principle of equal pay does not mean that all workers must be paid equally; it means that any pay differences must be based on objective criteria, not related to gender.

**Department & Agency:** It is important to note that the department provides an HR shared service to a number of its agencies and recruits and assigns staff to those agencies/offices. They are employed by the department but work under the direction of the relevant CEO/Director/Head of Organisation. References to agency staff are to the staff employed and assigned in this way and do not refer to outsourced resources. References to the Department are to those employees directed by the Secretary General of the Department of Justice.

**Motherhood pay penalty:** Motherhood penalty is a term used to describe the economic impact of taking time out of the labour market to look after children. For some women this results in extended periods of working part-time in often lower paid positions. The length of time which women work on a part-time basis, as well as the number of hours worked, are significant determinants of their levels of pay, their promotion prospects, and their income in retirement. At the same time, it reduces women’s ability to build their human capital, and propensity to progress their careers.

**Part time working:** A part-time employee in Ireland is defined in law as an employee whose normal hours of work are less than the normal hours of work of an employee who is a comparable employee. For this paper anyone whose full time employment status (FTE) is less than one is assumed to be working part time.

**Mean:** The result when a sum of values is divided by the number of values.

**Median:** The middle value when a set of values are ordered from lowest to highest. If there are two middle values then it is the mean of these two values.

**Unadjusted Gender Pay Gap:** When the Gender Pay Gap (GPG) is calculated by comparing the pay of all males to that of all females.

The formula used to calculate the unadjusted GPG is: (Mean Annual Salary for all Males minus Mean Annual Salary for all Females) divided by Mean Annual Salary for all Males.

**Adjusted Gender Pay Gap:** Measures the pay gap after adjusting for various factors that might influence the pay gap such as type of occupation and experience etc.
Executive Summary

The Gender Pay Gap (GPG) is an issue of significant policy concern. In broad terms the GPG is a metric that tells us the difference in the earnings of males and females in the labour market and is a mechanism used to assess the extent of gender inequalities in the labour market. The Research & Data Analytics unit (RDA) in the Department of Justice (DoJ) was asked to examine the GPG for the department.

Key findings from the research

Work Profile 2020

- There were over 2,600 employees in the DoJ in 2020. Of these, 53% were department employees and 47% were employed in agencies/bodies under the aegis of the Department.
- For department and agency employees collectively, 60% were females and 40% were males. For department employees only 56% were females and 44% were males.
- Women were more likely to take leave (beyond statutory annual leave) than men. Overall, 78% of department employees who took a leave of absence were females and 22% were males.
- Men were more likely to be working full time: 97% of males and 78% of females had an FTE status of 1 in 2020 (department employees).
- Overall, women had a longer period of service: 46% of female and 30% of male department employees have worked in the civil service for 16 or more years.
- In 2020 44% of all employees had dependents, 52% of females had dependents while 34% of males did.

Income and Gender Pay Gap

- There are two measures for the Gender Pay Gap: unadjusted and adjusted.
- The unadjusted measure provides a straight comparison between the pay of men and women. It does not take into account any other factors (for example, years of service, grade or any period of statutory leave). The unadjusted GPG for the department (department employees only) for 2020 is 9%. For 2020, the average male annual earnings across the department were higher than their female counterparts at €47,040 and €42,953 respectively.
- The unadjusted GPG has remained relatively stable over the last three years.
- The adjusted measure attempts to match up males and females across a range of measures so that there is, as much as possible, a comparison of like with like. The adjusted GPG is 4% for the department.
- The analysis of the adjusted GPG showed that it was the lowest for employees with no children at 2% after which the gap between male and female employees rises sharply to 22% for employees with one child and 21% for employees with two children. The gap widens to its largest point for employees with three children at 39%.
- The GPG for employees with no dependents stands at 2% and rises to 18% for employees with dependents.
- The GPG was higher for both department and agency employees in 2018 at 10% and 9% respectively. Both GPG figures have stayed constant from 2019-2020 at 9% for department employees and 8% for agency employees as shown in the graph below.
Unadjusted Gender Pay Gap 2018-2020

Adjusted Gender Pay Gap 2018-2020

Unadjusted GPG of some selected Organisations
Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021

Notes:

- GPG for Revenue is for 2019\(^1\), the Department of Foreign Affairs is for 2020, the Ministry of Justice in the UK is for 2020 and the Central Bank\(^2\) is for 2020.

- Ireland’s overall Pay Gap was found to be 14.4% according to Eurostat (Annex 1) below.

- The GPG for the Ministry for Justice in the UK is 5.8\(^3\). The GPG is measured using the mean hourly pay.

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1. Introduction

1.1 Overview

The following research has been conducted by the Research and Data Analytics (RDA) unit into the GPG in the department. In order to provide some context to the analysis, research was carried out into the GPG for the civil service as a whole, the private sector in Ireland, along with a range of countries as part of an international comparator piece.

The paper also touches on the Motherhood Pay Gap (MPG). This measures the pay gap between women with children and women without children, with the latter defined in most econometric studies as women without dependent children. It can also be used to measure the pay gap between mothers and fathers. This is different from the GPG, which measures the pay gap between all women and all men in the workforce.

It is important to note that this project only looks at calculating the GPG for the DoJ. This paper also does not consider the impact of COVID-19 on employees.

While every effort has been made to accurately reflect the GPG, there may be limitations to the conclusions that can be made due to the quality or richness of the data. For example, it has not been possible to capture in this exercise the corresponding level of educational attainment thus these are not part of the analysis. There will also be limitations when comparing the GPG for the private sector and in other jurisdictions because of different data collection methods, the timing of the data collection and general methodology differences.

1.2 Objectives

The objectives of the paper are as follows:

1) Estimate the GPG within the DoJ.

2) A high level comparison of the GPG between the department & the civil service as a whole.

3) A high level comparison of the GPG between the department and the private sector.

4) A high level examination of the GPG of selected International jurisdictions.

This paper is broken into the following sections:

Section 1 – Introduction

Section 2 – Methodology

Section 3 – Organisation Profile

Section 4 – Department of Justice Gender Pay Gap

Section 5 - Conclusions and Recommendations

Section 6 – Appendix, gives further information around the following;

- Department Profile
- Gender Representation in the civil service
- Gender Representation in the private sector
- Factors in the GPG
- Further analysis on the Unadjusted GPG
Section 7 – Annex 1 - International Comparisons
2. Methodology

2.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the methodology and assumptions used in the paper, explains the research approach, the data collected and the techniques used in analysing the data. It is important to note, there does not appear to be a defined methodology for how a GPG analysis is undertaken in the civil service. As such, it is important to set out the approach that was taken.

In order to carry out the analysis, data was received from the Human Resource (HR) unit of the DoJ. Additional contextual information was collected from the CSO Labour Force Survey, and various other international sources such as Eurostat which is based on a mix of several national data sources and EU-SILC data.

Before any analysis began the data was prepared. The dataset was checked for missing data and outliers. Civil service salary pay scales were used. A margin of error was applied to each salary scale to ensure any hidden variation was picked up. Refer to 2.1.1 below for an explanation of the methodology used.

2.1.1 Methodology for combining and cleaning data

The data used in the analysis on the GPG for the DoJ was accessed from the Human Resources Management System within the DoJ which records employee information. The cut of data used was for the years 2018 to 2020 inclusive. Salary data and the point on pay scale came from National Shared Services Office (NSSO). The pay scale point is for a point in time, in this case the 31st December for each of the years in question. It must be noted that when the term salary is used, it refers to gross salary unless noted otherwise.

Relevant fields from each file received were combined into one larger file using the Identifier field to match records across datasets. A new “Year” field was created to distinguish between records from different years as three years of data was received in three separate files.

Once the files were combined, the dataset contained 7,951 records. Due to data quality issues (see below), 304 records were removed (4% of records) and the final dataset used for analysis contained 7,647 records.

The Annual Rt and FTE status fields were examined (annual rate and full time equivalent status). A new field was created which estimated what the annual rate for each employee would be if their FTE status was 1. Records were then excluded if the estimated Annual Rt was:

- Equal to zero (22 records)
- Over 10% less than the starting point on their salary scale (60 records)
- Over 10% more than the end point of the higher rate of their salary scale (12 records)
- Less than €10,000 for the NPI and SVO Sal Plan (4 records).

Records were also excluded if:

- The Grade Date or Hire Date was blank
- The Hire Date was more recent than the Justice Date, Grade Date or Position Date
- The gender was unknown
- The Work Schedule was blank
The FTE was 1 but the Work Schedule was not recorded as a standard week
The FTE was 0.5 but the Work Schedule was recorded as a standard week
The Job Code did not match the Salary Plan (except for PTP).

In the remaining records Position date was blank for 21 records. However as this field was not being used in the analysis these records were kept in the final dataset.

2.1.2 Limitations

The salary data refers to all department and agency employees who were on the payroll on 31st December for the given year. Below are some of the limitations:

- Any employee who left during the year, including on retirement, is not included. Employees who are on Sick Leave still appear on payroll data, but it is not possible to determine if their pay levels refer to, for example, Half Pay.
- No indicators are recorded for those who are on secondment or who are being paid by an external organisation.
- Annual gross salary was used to calculate the unadjusted GPG. The NSSO were unable to provide individual’s hourly rates, but as a check into the GPG, RDA calculated the GPG per hour, which was approximately the same in most cases as worked out using annual gross salary.
- Only basic salary has been used in any calculations carried out in this report. Non-basic pay such as allowances, overtime etc. as outlined in Government pay circulars have not been included.
- The level of education attainment for individuals when joining the civil service or DoJ was not available. Only courses undertaken prior to joining were available. Upon review of this data, it was decided against using this data as a proxy for education attainment.
- Individuals who were entitled to take parental leave but who did not may not be recorded and thus could lead to under reporting. Conversely those who may have taken parental leave prior to 2018 will not be included.
- Employee trends were not observed due to the cut of data being at a particular time period, for example an individual promoted to a higher grade after the data cut was taken.

2.1.3 Unadjusted and adjusted Gender Pay Gaps

When comparing the earnings of males and females, the two ways in which the magnitude of the GPG can be estimated is in the unadjusted and/or adjusted form. When the GPG is calculated by simply comparing the pay of all males to that of all females the estimate is known as the unadjusted GPG. When calculated in this way, the GPG does not take into account all of the different factors or characteristics of males and females that may play a role in determining or explaining the differences, such as differences in education, occupation, sector of employment, hours worked etc. When the GPG is calculated after taking into account or controlling for underlying differences in characteristics between males and females the estimate is known as the ‘adjusted’ GPG.

The unadjusted GPG is useful in measuring overall gendered pay equality due to its straightforward calculation but it does not measure the difference in earnings between male and females doing the same job, in the same sector, with the same working pattern or with the same level of educational attainment. It also does not measure the difference in earnings between males and females with the same family circumstances. Moreover, the unadjusted GPG does not show that
the size of the GPG varies across different characteristics. For example, previous research has found there to be a large gender gap in earnings amongst males and females with children, whereas only a small gap in the earnings of males and females without children\(^4\).

The unadjusted GPG also does not allow us to see if and how much of the difference in earnings between males and females can be explained by differences in the average characteristics of male and female workers, for example research has found that females are more likely to work part-time whereas males are more likely to work full-time in higher-paying sectors.

In contrast, the adjusted GPG takes into consideration differences in the average characteristics of male and female workers. This allows an estimate of how much of the gap in earnings remain after the differences in characteristics of males and females are accounted for. In this way, the adjusted GPG allows for how much of the GPG can be 'explained' by differences in characteristics and how much of the gap remains 'unexplained'. Thus, the adjusted GPG gives a closer estimate of how much of the GPG is owing to 'unequal pay for equal work'.

It is important to point out that within the adjusted GPG, the proportion of the unadjusted gap that remains is not entirely explained by differences in observable related characteristics. The residual unexplained GPG is particularly interesting as it is often held up as a metric of the discrimination that women may continue to face. However, it is likely to reflect differences in the choices that men and women make as well as discrimination\(^5\). It seems likely that at least some of the unexplained gender wage gap is due to labour market discrimination; even though direct discrimination has been outlawed, the elimination of the unconscious biases that affect women’s opportunities for promotion may take some time to achieve.

Thus, while discrimination may well be a factor, its relative weight remains unknown. It is important to bear in mind that some of the factors that are known to contribute to the GPG might also obscure various levels of discrimination that work indirectly. For instance, females might choose to undertake various forms of education or enter certain occupations which they consider more accessible to them\(^6\). Importantly, this work, whilst identifying the extent of the GPG does not in itself explain it. This requires further work beyond the scope of this initial project.

2.1.4 Which measure to use?

Which method is the best to use has been researched in depth by those in the field, with some arguing for the adjusted measure of the GPG as the unadjusted measure does not control for differences between male and female characteristics, that the unadjusted GPG reflects simply the differences between men and women and does not accurately reflect the GPG. An assumption is being made that the true measure of the GPG is one which captures the extent and role of gender based discrimination in pay differences between the genders.

The unadjusted GPG provides an insight into the economic returns of men and women in the labour market as a whole. Similarly it is difficult to compare assessments of the adjusted GPG, as various studies adjust for different characteristics and there is no consensus on which characteristics should be adjusted for. Also because there is no set methodology, it is difficult to assess how the measure of the adjusted GPG is being driven by data quality, data availability and by which exploratory characteristics. The adjusted GPG however derives its strength from its ability to explain the influences of different factors on the size of the GPG and how much is owed to

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\(^4\) The NERI Institute, How Unequal? The unadjusted gender pay gap in earnings in Northern Ireland & the Republic of Ireland


\(^6\) ibid
unexplained factors and provides an interesting insight into the nature of the unadjusted GPG. Therefore given the advantages and disadvantages of both measures it is hard to choose one over the other, with the use of both being complementary rather than opposing. Therefore both measures are included in this report.

2.1.5 Mean or median?

Another question when measuring the GPG, is whether to use the mean or median measure of earnings. As outlined previously, the mean is the result when a sum of values is divided by the number of values (essentially the average) and the median is the middle value when a set of values are ordered from lowest to highest. For example, in this sequence: 2, 5, 11, 18, 30 the median would be 11. If there are two middle values then it is the mean of these two values. The mean measure of central tendency is the most commonly used and therefore has its advantages when comparing results against other assessments of the GPG. The up side of using the mean measure is that it provides a summary statistic that considers the earnings of every worker. The downside is that earnings at the extreme, be they high or low, impact the value of the mean.

The median on the other hand is less affected by those values at the extreme i.e. a small number of high or low earners. Its downsides are that the median value is affected by the number of low earners and high earners as this would affect the middle value of the distribution. Given that in general males are on the high end of high earners and females on the high end of very low earners the mean measure captures the skewed nature of earnings between men and women and better captures the differences between men and women’s earnings across the distribution.

For this paper it was decided to use mean over median for two principal reasons, firstly following the data cleaning process, extreme values were removed and secondly due to the nature of the grades in the civil service along with the pay scale point system, the chances again of extreme values are also greatly reduced.

Using the mean, the formula used to calculate the unadjusted GPG in this document is:

\[
\text{Unadjusted GPG} = \frac{\text{Mean annual earnings of men} - \text{Mean annual earnings of women}}{\text{Mean annual earnings of men}}
\]

7 The NERI Institute, How Unequal? The unadjusted gender pay gap in earnings in Northern Ireland & the Republic of Ireland
8 Ibid
3. Organisation Profile

3.1 Profile of the Department

Before going onto examine the adjusted and unadjusted GPG it is worthwhile setting out the gender profile of the organisation in order to provide context. This section provides analysis on the makeup of employees in the Department of Justice. It includes a breakdown of employees by gender, grade, age, number of dependents and part-time status. Further information on pay scales, lengths of service and work schedules is provided in the Appendix. A brief examination of the wider civil service and the private sector is also included in the Appendix.

3.1.1 Employee summary

There were over 2,600 employees in the Department of Justice in 2020. Of these, 53% were department employees and 47% were employed in agencies/bodies under the aegis of the Department (see the Appendix for a list of agencies). When looking at employees in the department and its agencies collectively, 60% were females and 40% were males. This report will mainly focus on department employees where 56% were females and 44% were males. In this section, charts and tables refer to department employees unless otherwise stated.

**Figure 1: Employees by Area and Gender in 2020**

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021

3.1.2 Grade breakdown

Figure 2 below shows the percentage breakdown of department employees in the DoJ by grade. Around 41% of employees are COs and CO higher and 25% are EOs and EO higher. The next most common grade is HEO and HEO higher with 14%. AP and AP higher make up 9% of employees and PO and PO higher make up 4%. The higher grades here are an assumption based on the salary of employees at the regular grades. If the salary for an employee was higher than the top of the regular pay scale for that grade, then it was considered to be higher. Any employees which were at the higher grades, but whose salary was not above the top of the regular pay scale, were not identified as being at the higher grade.
Looking at the breakdown of grades by gender, males outnumber females in the grades SVO, AO, PO, PO higher, ASec and PTP. Females are in the majority in all other grades, as shown in Figure 3 below. The percentage of females to males is at its highest at the CO higher grade (81% females). This reduces to 11% at the ASec grade. Certain grades with a low number of employees are also shown as 100% female (AO higher, DS and Sec).

While there are more females than males at the AP grade, 7% of all females are APs and 8% of all males are. There are fewer male employees but males are more likely to be at a higher grade.
3.1.3 Age of employees

Overall, when looking at the age profiles, in general men had a lower age profile than women. For department employees, men outnumbered women in the age groups 25 – 34 years. Women outnumbered men in all other age groups, see figure 4 below.

Figure 4: Department employees by Gender and Age group, 2020

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021

The percentage share women had for each age group was examined next and is shown in the chart below. The age groups with the most even gender breakdown are 25 – 29 years (50% female) and 35 – 39 years (52% female). The largest percentage difference is in the 65 plus age group where females have a 64% share.

Figure 5: Breakdown of Age groups by Gender, 2020

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021
3.1.4 Employees with dependents

Overall, within the department, more females than males have dependents\(^9\). As outlined in previous sections, this would be expected since there are more females employed than males employed. The proportion of male employees with each dependent was examined too. However there is still a higher proportion of females with dependents than males Figure 6 below.

In 2020 44% of employees had dependents, 52% of females had dependents while 34% of males did. More employees in their 40s and 50s have dependents than any other age groups. The most common type of dependent is a child, followed by a spouse/partner and parent. 40% of female employees and 21% of male employees have a child recorded as a dependent.

Figure 6: Dependents Breakdown

\(^9\) A list of dependents per employee was provided by HR. The dataset examined did not include information on dependents for employees at grades ASec, DS or Sec due to potential identification issues because of the small sample size. These grades are excluded from the analysis below.
3.1.5 Part – Time Status

More females than males work part time. 97% of males and 78% of females had an FTE status of 1 in 2020. Those with fewer years of service are less likely to be working full time.

Figure 7: Percentage of Males and Females by FTE status, 2020

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021
Anyone whose FTE status was less than one was assumed to be working part time. As shown in Figure 8 below, those at the grades of AO, AP and above were less likely to be working part time.

**Figure 8: Percentage share of Male and Females by FTE status and Grade, 2020**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>% Share of female</th>
<th>% Share of male</th>
<th>% Share of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PT</td>
<td>FT</td>
<td>PT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVO</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO higher</td>
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<td>59</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EO</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EO higher</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO higher</td>
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<td>100</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEO</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEO higher</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>75</td>
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</tr>
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<td>AP</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP higher</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO higher</td>
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<td>PTP</td>
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<td>75</td>
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</tr>
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<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>78</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021*
4. Department of Justice Gender Pay Gap

This section examines and calculates the unadjusted GPG for department and agency employees for comparison purposes. The adjusted GPG is then calculated for department employees only. See the appendix for summary tables containing the findings of this analysis. The appendix also contains information on the unadjusted GPG in the private sector and briefly discusses factors in the GPG.

The empirical analysis in this paper gives a headline overview of the unadjusted GPG. It then goes onto compare ‘like with like’ by grade, age, those with and without dependents, those with and without children and those in full-time and part-time work. It shows how the unadjusted GPG manifests itself across the earnings distribution and whether or not the gap in earnings is evenly spread. This is used to help inform the adjusted pay gap.

Overall, the unadjusted GPG for department employees is 9%. When gender, FTE status, years of service, years at grade, number of dependants and number of children are examined, the adjusted GPG is 4%. These results are described in more detail below.

4.1 Unadjusted GPG Department of Justice

This section will use mean annual earnings in the calculation of the unadjusted GPG and will examine the GPG using this measure across grades, age groups, dependents and then children specifically.

Using the formula outlined in section 2, the unadjusted GPG for department staff for the year 2020 is calculated as such:

\[ 9\% = \frac{\text{€47,040} - \text{€42,953}}{\text{€47,040}} \]

4.1.1 Grade

Figure 9 and Figure 10 below show mean annual earnings for department and agency employees by grade for the year 2020. Some key observations are as follows;

- For male and female employees in both the department and agency, the lowest mean annual earnings was at CO level.
- The highest mean annual earnings for male employees was at ASEC level for department staff and SEC level for agencies.
- The highest mean annual earnings for female employees was at SEC level for department staff and DS level in agencies.
- Male mean annual earnings across grades were generally higher than female earnings for both the department and agencies.
- Female core employees at EO and AO level had higher mean annual salaries than their male counterparts. On average females spend longer at their current grade than males for most grades.
- Female employees in agencies/bodies at CO, AO higher, PTP, ASC and DS had higher mean annual salaries than their male counterparts.
In the department, the gap was widest against females for PTP (15%), AP (12%) and CO higher (10%).

In agencies/bodies the gap was widest against females for HEO higher (14%), EO higher (11%) and CO higher (10%).
Figure 9: Mean Annual Earnings by Grade, Department 2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean (Overall)</td>
<td>€42,953</td>
<td>€47,040</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC</td>
<td>€201,155</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DS</td>
<td>€183,882</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC</td>
<td>€141,449</td>
<td>€150,980</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO Higher</td>
<td>€111,619</td>
<td>€113,773</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO</td>
<td>€96,561</td>
<td>€98,858</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP Higher</td>
<td>€78,561</td>
<td>€88,771</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>€73,461</td>
<td>€76,968</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTP</td>
<td>€59,205</td>
<td>€69,699</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO Higher</td>
<td>€64,818</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO</td>
<td>€39,965</td>
<td>€37,349</td>
<td>-7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEO Higher</td>
<td>€59,872</td>
<td>€64,357</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEO</td>
<td>€53,426</td>
<td>€54,904</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EO Higher</td>
<td>€51,456</td>
<td>€51,002</td>
<td>-1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EO</td>
<td>€39,210</td>
<td>€38,417</td>
<td>-2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO Higher</td>
<td>€35,988</td>
<td>€39,936</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>€28,902</td>
<td>€29,211</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVO</td>
<td>€29,915</td>
<td>€30,568</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021
Figure 10: Mean Annual Earnings by Grade, Agency 2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean (Overall)</td>
<td>€52,266</td>
<td>€56,838</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>€229,041</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DS</td>
<td>€185,997</td>
<td>€162,177</td>
<td>-15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC</td>
<td>€159,776</td>
<td>€144,318</td>
<td>-11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO Higher</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>€103,789</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO</td>
<td>€99,172</td>
<td>€99,439</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP Higher</td>
<td>€88,479</td>
<td>€88,847</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>€74,581</td>
<td>€74,573</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTP</td>
<td>€62,250</td>
<td>€61,370</td>
<td>-1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO Higher</td>
<td>€66,371</td>
<td>€65,302</td>
<td>-2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO</td>
<td>€42,052</td>
<td>€44,163</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEO Higher</td>
<td>€54,700</td>
<td>€63,436</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEO</td>
<td>€53,208</td>
<td>€54,552</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EO Higher</td>
<td>€45,192</td>
<td>€50,805</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EO</td>
<td>€37,711</td>
<td>€37,635</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO Higher</td>
<td>€36,797</td>
<td>€40,876</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>€29,488</td>
<td>€28,428</td>
<td>-4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVO</td>
<td>€30,260</td>
<td>€30,275</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021
4.1.2 Age

Figure 11 overleaf shows mean annual earnings for department and agency employees by age groupings for the year 2020. Essentially, for the department, if we considered only age, in broad terms there is a GPG difference in favour of men over women that increases significantly from 55 years old onwards. The only age period where women have a GPG in their favour is in the 25 and 34 age category.

For staff working in an agency, there is more variation. For example, there is a GPG in favour of women between the ages of 40 to 44. However, this subsequently changes as age increases. Indeed, for both the department and the agencies, the difference in the GPG increases with age.

- Mean annual earnings for female core employees decreased by approximately €8,600 between the 55-59 years and 60-64 years age groupings, compared with a decrease of approximately €300 for male employees. 20% of those aged 55-59 are at the grades AP to PO higher. 0% of those aged 60-64 are at these grades.
Figure 11: Mean Annual Earnings by Age, 2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean (Overall)</td>
<td>€42,953</td>
<td>€47,040</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>€27,401</td>
<td>€27,887</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>€34,545</td>
<td>€32,843</td>
<td>-2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>€37,700</td>
<td>€36,586</td>
<td>-3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>€40,725</td>
<td>€46,467</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>€42,770</td>
<td>€47,033</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>€47,172</td>
<td>€52,194</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-54</td>
<td>€46,670</td>
<td>€50,841</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-59</td>
<td>€50,238</td>
<td>€61,178</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-64</td>
<td>€41,578</td>
<td>€60,863</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>€36,149</td>
<td>€52,745</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021
4.1.3 Dependents

A dependent can include a partner/spouse, son/daughter, child, parent or other person’s dependent on that employee. As noted earlier in this report, women are the main providers of unpaid care. The high costs of child care may lead to some women choosing to work part time or take career breaks to provide this care to those dependent on them. This is similarly true for care for elderly family members which, as noted, may increase as Ireland’s population ages.

For the department and agencies, the general trend is that as the number of dependents increase, then the GPG also widens with women being disadvantaged compared to men. For department employees, the GPG changes from 2% with no dependents to 11% with two dependents to over 30% once there are more than two dependents. With agency employees the GPG also increases from 2% with no dependents to over 20% with four or more dependents.

Employees with dependents earn more than employees without dependents. As shown in Figure 12 below,

**Figure 12: Dependent pay gap, 2020**

![Graph showing the dependent pay gap for different categories.](source)

**Source:** IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021

Figure 13 also shows that as the number of dependents increases, generally so too does the GPG for both department and agency. It should be noted that for those with six dependants the sample size is small. For the department two female employees have six dependants and for the agencies three female employees and two male employees have six dependants. It is important to note that;

- Women without dependents makes up majority of younger age groups (20-34) &,
- Women without dependents make up more of CO, AO, AO higher, ASC, DS and SEC grades.
Figure 13: Dependent pay gap, 2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of Dependents</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>GPG %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>€42,953</td>
<td>€47,040</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>€39,639</td>
<td>€40,616</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>€44,826</td>
<td>€51,158</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>€44,826</td>
<td>€51,158</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>€46,453</td>
<td>€52,268</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>€46,453</td>
<td>€52,268</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>€46,453</td>
<td>€52,268</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021
4.1.4 Children

The “motherhood pay gap” may account for a significant proportion of the GPG, as the pay gap between mothers and females with no children could in fact be larger than the pay gap between men and women. Studies have found it difficult to distinguish between whether actual differences in productivity between mothers and those with no children are behind the motherhood pay gap or whether it is rooted in discrimination. It can also measure the pay gap between mothers and fathers.

While there is a considerable international literature on the motherhood gap, differences in methodologies used and in how mothers, those with no children and fathers are defined using available data creates difficulties in comparing estimates\(^\text{10}\). Globally, the motherhood gap tends to increases as the number of children a woman has increases. In many European countries, for example, having one child has only a small negative effect, but women with two and especially three children experience a significant wage penalty\(^\text{11}\).

**Figure 14: Children GPG, 2020**

![Figure 14: Children GPG, 2020](image)

**Source:** IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021

The mean annual earnings of females and males based on the number of children they have is shown Figure 15 overleaf for agency and department. The broad trend is that as the number of children increases so too does the GPG in favour of men and to the disadvantage of women. For department employees the GPG changes from 2% with no children, to around 22% with two or three children, before increasing to 39% for three or four children. For agency employees the GPG increases from 4% with no children to over 25% with three children and 37% for those with four children.

\(^{10}\) [https://eige.europa.eu/resources/wcms_371804.pdf](https://eige.europa.eu/resources/wcms_371804.pdf)

\(^{11}\) Ibid
Figure 15: Children pay gap, 2020

**Department**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of Children</th>
<th>Female Mean (Overall)</th>
<th>Male Mean (Overall)</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>€42,953</td>
<td>€47,040</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>€41,452</td>
<td>€42,198</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>€45,734</td>
<td>€57,820</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>€44,705</td>
<td>€72,968</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>€36,308</td>
<td>€58,187</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Agency**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of Children</th>
<th>Female Mean (Overall)</th>
<th>Male Mean (Overall)</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>€52,266</td>
<td>€56,838</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>€49,127</td>
<td>€50,961</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>€51,982</td>
<td>€64,276</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>€57,209</td>
<td>€66,709</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>€47,810</td>
<td>€75,595</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021
Figure 16 allows the extent of inequality in earnings for all employees, as well as the extent of the gap between males and females at different parts of the earnings distribution.

The two lowest decile groups combined make up the lowest quintile group. As shown in Figure 16, for the first and second (the two lowest income deciles) the GPG is zero, the GPG for the 4th decile drops to -17% which means that females make more than their male counterparts. This changes for the 8th and 9th decile where the GPG is 7% and 11% respectively. The GPG is at its lowest in the tenth decile, one reason for this may be that females make up the grades of DS and Sec.

**Figure 16: Department Income Distribution by Gender 2020**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decile</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean (Overall)</td>
<td>€42,953</td>
<td>€47,040</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Decile</td>
<td>€26,195</td>
<td>€26,195</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd Decile</td>
<td>€28,577</td>
<td>€28,577</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd Decile</td>
<td>€32,677</td>
<td>€30,926</td>
<td>-6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th Decile</td>
<td>€38,613</td>
<td>€33,053</td>
<td>-17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th Decile</td>
<td>€40,592</td>
<td>€38,613</td>
<td>-5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6th Decile</td>
<td>€45,853</td>
<td>€44,213</td>
<td>-4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7th Decile</td>
<td>€51,220</td>
<td>€51,359</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8th Decile</td>
<td>€57,123</td>
<td>€61,671</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9th Decile</td>
<td>€73,988</td>
<td>€83,450</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10th Decile</td>
<td>€201,155</td>
<td>€155,908</td>
<td>-29%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021*

*Note: GPG is not broken down by work schedule when calculating the GPG for each decile.*

4.1.5 Full and part time work

One disadvantage of using a measure that includes all employees is that the combining of full-time (1 FTE) and part-time (< 1FTE) workers makes it impossible to see how much of the gap relates to the different composition of males and females into full-time and part-time work and the fact that
full-time and part-time work is rewarded differently. This is important because those who are employed on a part-time basis earn significantly less, even on an hourly basis, than those who are employed full-time.

The GPG can be further broken down between full time and part time workers. The separating out of full time and part time workers adjusts for how different working patterns affect the nature of the GPG. This helps to illustrate the fact that the differences in pay are not just influenced by gender but by other differences that exist between part time and full time workers\(^\text{12}\).

The average annual earnings for part-time department employees is €35,236 for males and €32,165 for females, constituting a 9% unadjusted GPG for part-time department employees. The average annual earnings for full-time department employees, as expected, is higher than that of part-time department employees at €47,419 for males and €45,982 for females constituting a 3% unadjusted GPG for full-time employees. This is shown in Figure 17 below.

The average annual earnings for part-time agency employees is €45,035 for males and €38,443 for females, constituting a 15% unadjusted GPG for part-time agency employees. The average annual earnings for full-time employees, as expected, is higher than that of part-time employees at €57,500 for males and €54,240 for females constituting a 6% unadjusted GPG for full-time workers.

For both department and agency employees there is a wider gap between female full time and part time employees than male employees. Male full-time department employees earn 26% more than male part-time department employees. This figure comes with a caveat, as 97% of males are full time thus the sample size for part time males is very small. Female full-time department employees earn 30% more than female part-time department employees. Male full-time agency employees earn 22% more than male part-time agency employees. Female full-time agency employees earn 29% more than female part-time agency employees.

**Figure 17: Full time and part time pay gap, 2020**

![Graph showing pay gap between full-time and part-time employees](image)

**Source:** IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021

---

\(^{12}\) NERI “Unadjusted gender pay gap in Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland 2020” p12
4.2 Adjusted GPG

4.2.1 Department Regression Analysis

We have noted above that there are various factors where, when we control ‘like for like’, show
and impact on GPG. However, the challenge is how do bring all of these ‘like for like’ measures
together to produce a single figure for GPG. Essentially, how do we assess the impact of age,
together with grade, number of dependents, number of children etc. to get an adjusted GPG.

One way that this can be done is to use a technique called regression analysis. At its most basic
level, a regression analysis tells us how much one predictor variable (for example, grade) accounts
for changes in an outcome variable (such as pay). However, we can also add other predictor
variables (in our case it would be gender, grade, years of service, the number of dependents, and
the number of children) to tell us how much they individually contribute to change in our outcome
variable (pay). This technique, known as multiple regression, is also able to isolate the impact of
specific variables. This allows us to look at it in terms of an adjusted GPG, because it is able to
isolate the other variables and look solely at gender.

In using such an approach, there is an estimated of how ‘good’ the model is – essentially how
much does the predictive variables that we identify account for changes in the outcome variable.
The adjusted R squared value is used to represent the proportion of variation that can be explained
by the model. It is a modified version of R-squared that accounts for predictors that are not
significant in a regression model. In other words, the adjusted R-squared value shows whether
adding additional predictors improves a regression model or not. If it increases this could be an
indication that the predictor variable added to the model improves it.

A simple linear regression model was fitted to a number of predictor variables for annual earnings
for department employees. The variables used as predictor variables were; the gender of an
employee, the FTE status of an employee, the number of years an employee was at their current
grade, the number of years an employee has been in the civil service, the number of dependents
an employee has and the number of children an employee has. A multiple regression model was
then fitted to predict the response using all of these predictors.

The adjusted R-squared value increased with the addition of variables to the multiple regression
model, suggesting it was a better fit. The results are shown in Figure 18 below. Based on these
results we can say that using this model, FTE status, years at current grade and years of service
impact annual earnings, which would be expected. Gender and the number of dependents also
impacts annual earnings, though not as significantly. However we cannot say that the number of
children (a subset of the number of dependents) a department employee has will impact their
annual earnings. The statistical significance of the estimates is indicated by one to three asterisks,
while those without asterisks are not considered statistically significant.
The key figure in the table below is in the first line. The variable used here, ‘male’, is essentially asking what is the relationship between men and women in annual salaries. The figure, 0.042 can essentially be read as a percentage – 4.2%. It means that for every unit you increase (in our case a Euro of salary) for women, for men it increases by €1.04. This is after for controlling for the other variables noted below. The adjusted R square for the model is 0.44 – this essentially means that, whilst the variables contained in the model account for some change, they do not account for it all. It is important to note that other variables not considered here would also impact results. However, the key question is whether these variables are recorded or not (such as education).

**Figure 18: Regression analysis – Annual earnings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coefficient</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.0423211 *</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FTE</td>
<td>1.6210951 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years at current grade</td>
<td>-0.0120659 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of service</td>
<td>0.0191730 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>0.0501209 **</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child</td>
<td>-0.0227639</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>8.7880840 ***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R-squared</td>
<td>0.4415</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021

**Note:** As stated previously there was no dependent or children information supplied due to identification concerns for the grades above that of PO Higher, even though these grades are included in the regression calculations.
5. Conclusion and Next Steps

The unadjusted GPG for the department (department employees only) for 2020 is 9%. For 2020, the average male annual earnings across the department were higher than their female counterparts at €47,040 and €42,953 respectively. The GPG for the department is lower than Ireland’s overall Pay Gap which is 14.4%. The department’s GPG is also lower than some other departments but is higher than that of An Post or the Central Bank. Some of the difference can be attributed to the make-up of the workforce in each organisation and ratios of male/female workers, levels of pay generally, impact of senior appointments on organisations, having a targeted campaign to recruit more women at senior management level or introducing recruitment targets such as 60:40 of female to male ratio for panels established for recruitment.

One potential reason why the GPG for the department is lower than in other departments is that the structures for each department and the profile of employees could be different. It is also worth noting that there are a small number of positions at the top of the department and depending on the year you examine the employee profile, these positions vary between male/female occupants.

This report does not provide a qualitative narrative of individual experiences of employment in the Department or its Agencies/Bodies nor does the report consider the impact of COVID-19.

The Department however, will publish its first Equality, Diversity and Inclusion Strategy in early 2022 which commits to creating a positive and inclusive work environment where everyone’s contribution is valued and personal differences and circumstances are cherished and respected.

The Strategy prioritises three areas of focus for strategic impact:

- achieve better policy outcomes and improve the accessibility and quality of our services;
- support the development of a skilled and diverse workforce;
- **build and embed a workplace culture which facilitates, supports and encourages contributions from all**

Each of these strategic outcomes are underpinned by a number of actions which the Department will implement over a three year period (2022-2024). Specifically, we will use the quantitative data in this Gender Pay Gap Report and do further qualitative work to understand why differences occur, not just in pay but potentially in career progression and opportunities for varied roles.

This data will also be important in the context of the development of the Department’s Blended Working policy which will be published in 2022. Blended working, as another flexible working arrangement, will be available for both men and women and the Department is committed to monitoring any potential disparities including the gender pay gap in its future blended workplace.
## 6. Appendix

### 6.1 Mean Annual Earnings

**Table 1: Department Mean Annual Earnings & Unadjusted GPG DoJ 2020**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Mean male Annual Earnings</th>
<th>Mean female Annual Earnings</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean (Overall)</td>
<td>€47,040</td>
<td>€42,953</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>€201,155</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DS</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>€183,882</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC</td>
<td>€150,980</td>
<td>€141,449</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO Higher</td>
<td>€113,773</td>
<td>€111,619</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO</td>
<td>€98,858</td>
<td>€96,561</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP Higher</td>
<td>€88,771</td>
<td>€78,561</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>€76,968</td>
<td>€73,461</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTP</td>
<td>€69,699</td>
<td>€59,205</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO Higher</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>€64,818</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO</td>
<td>€37,349</td>
<td>€39,965</td>
<td>-7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEO Higher</td>
<td>€64,357</td>
<td>€59,872</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEO</td>
<td>€54,904</td>
<td>€53,426</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EO Higher</td>
<td>€51,002</td>
<td>€51,456</td>
<td>-1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EO</td>
<td>€38,417</td>
<td>€39,210</td>
<td>-2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO Higher</td>
<td>€39,936</td>
<td>€35,988</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>€29,211</td>
<td>€28,902</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVO</td>
<td>€30,568</td>
<td>€29,915</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Age**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Mean male Annual Earnings</th>
<th>Mean female Annual Earnings</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>€27,887</td>
<td>€27,401</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>€32,843</td>
<td>€34,545</td>
<td>-5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>€36,586</td>
<td>€37,700</td>
<td>-3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>€46,467</td>
<td>€40,725</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>€47,033</td>
<td>€42,770</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>€52,194</td>
<td>€47,172</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Mean male Annual Earnings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male Earnings</th>
<th>Female Earnings</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50-54</td>
<td>€50,841</td>
<td>€46,670</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-59</td>
<td>€61,178</td>
<td>€50,238</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-64</td>
<td>€60,863</td>
<td>€41,578</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>€52,745</td>
<td>€36,149</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Mean female Annual Earnings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependents</th>
<th>Male Earnings</th>
<th>Female Earnings</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 dependents</td>
<td>€40,616</td>
<td>€39,639</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 dependent</td>
<td>€51,158</td>
<td>€44,826</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 dependent</td>
<td>€52,268</td>
<td>€46,453</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 dependent</td>
<td>€66,318</td>
<td>€45,229</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 dependents</td>
<td>€66,755</td>
<td>€44,097</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 dependents</td>
<td>€56,446</td>
<td>€37,802</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 dependents</td>
<td></td>
<td>€35,974</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Children</th>
<th>Male Earnings</th>
<th>Female Earnings</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 children</td>
<td>€42,198</td>
<td>€41,452</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 child</td>
<td>€54,647</td>
<td>€42,511</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 children</td>
<td>€57,820</td>
<td>€45,734</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 children</td>
<td>€72,968</td>
<td>€44,705</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 children</td>
<td>€58,187</td>
<td>€36,308</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 children</td>
<td></td>
<td>€35,974</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Working arrangements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Working arrangements</th>
<th>Male Earnings</th>
<th>Female Earnings</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Full-time</td>
<td>€47,419</td>
<td>€45,982</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part time</td>
<td>€35,236</td>
<td>€32,165</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Table 2: Agency Mean Annual Earnings & Unadjusted GPG DoJ 2020

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Mean male Annual Earnings</th>
<th>Mean female Annual Earnings</th>
<th>GPG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean (Overall)</td>
<td>€56,838</td>
<td>€52,266</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEC</td>
<td>€229,041</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DS</td>
<td>€162,177</td>
<td>€185,997</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ASC</td>
<td>€144,318</td>
<td>€159,776</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO Higher</td>
<td>€103,789</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PO</td>
<td>€99,439</td>
<td>€99,172</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP Higher</td>
<td>€88,847</td>
<td>€88,479</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>€74,573</td>
<td>€74,581</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PTP</td>
<td>€61,370</td>
<td>€62,250</td>
<td>-1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO Higher</td>
<td>€65,302</td>
<td>€66,371</td>
<td>-2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AO</td>
<td>€44,163</td>
<td>€42,052</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEO Higher</td>
<td>€63,436</td>
<td>€54,700</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEO</td>
<td>€54,552</td>
<td>€53,208</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EO Higher</td>
<td>€50,805</td>
<td>€45,192</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EO</td>
<td>€37,635</td>
<td>€37,711</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO Higher</td>
<td>€40,876</td>
<td>€36,797</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CO</td>
<td>€28,428</td>
<td>€29,488</td>
<td>-4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVO</td>
<td>€30,275</td>
<td>€30,260</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24</td>
<td>€34,112</td>
<td>€29,872</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29</td>
<td>€37,573</td>
<td>€37,557</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>€41,068</td>
<td>€42,991</td>
<td>-5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>€52,747</td>
<td>€49,121</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44</td>
<td>€53,731</td>
<td>€59,749</td>
<td>-11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>€60,035</td>
<td>€56,130</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-54</td>
<td>€64,152</td>
<td>€56,820</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-59</td>
<td>€68,001</td>
<td>€53,065</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-64</td>
<td>€69,546</td>
<td>€56,242</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>€80,240</td>
<td>€49,699</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean male Annual Earnings</td>
<td>Mean female Annual Earnings</td>
<td>GPG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dependents</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 dependents</td>
<td>€47,496</td>
<td>€46,370</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 dependent</td>
<td>€63,654</td>
<td>€56,915</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 dependents</td>
<td>€65,199</td>
<td>€54,683</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 dependents</td>
<td>€71,685</td>
<td>€58,641</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 dependents</td>
<td>€76,496</td>
<td>€58,822</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 dependents</td>
<td>€75,595</td>
<td>€54,111</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 dependents</td>
<td>€72,785</td>
<td>€52,060</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Children</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 children</td>
<td>€50,961</td>
<td>€49,127</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 child</td>
<td>€64,276</td>
<td>€51,982</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 children</td>
<td>€66,709</td>
<td>€57,209</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 children</td>
<td>€78,429</td>
<td>€59,212</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 children</td>
<td>€75,595</td>
<td>€47,810</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 children</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>€62,041</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 children</td>
<td>€70,424</td>
<td>€42,525</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Working arrangements</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full-time</td>
<td>€57,500</td>
<td>€54,240</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part time</td>
<td>€45,035</td>
<td>€38,443</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.2 Department Profile

The following sections contains some further analysis of the department's profile.

6.2.1 Pay Scale Points

In the civil service, points on the pay scale are a unique aspect of gross salary differences. For example, one full-time PO could earn less than another full-time PO because they are at a lower point on the pay scale (in general, employees move up one pay scale point each year).

As shown in the chart below, the majority of males and females have spent less than four years at their current grade (77% of males and 68% of females).

**Figure 19: Percentage of Males and Females by years at current grade, 2020**

![Chart showing percentage of males and females by years at current grade, 2020](chart)

*Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021*

When looking at department employees in 2020, on average females have spent longer than males at their current grade (five years compared to four). Figure 20 below shows that on average females have spent longer at their current grade than males for most grades.

**Figure 20: Average number of years at Grade by Gender, 2020**

![Chart showing average number of years at grade by gender, 2020](chart)

*Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021*
6.2.2 Length of service

Years of service were also looked at and are shown in the chart below. 46% of female and 30% of male department employees have worked in the civil service for 16 or more years.

Figure 21: Percentage share of Males and Females by years of service, 2020

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on HR data supplied March 2021

6.2.3 Work schedule

Leave of absence

Overall, 78% of employees who took a leave of absence were females and 22% were males. The most common type of leave of absence for males and females is the shorter working year. The chart below shows the female and male share of different types of leave. While the numbers are small, slightly more males than females took a career break for private sector employment, study and travel.
Parental leave

Parental leave entitles parents to take unpaid leave from work to spend time looking after their children. An individual can take up to 26 weeks’ parental leave for each eligible child before their 12th birthday. Before September 2020, parental leave was 22 weeks for each eligible child.13

Approximately 11% of employees took parental leave from 2018 – 2020. Of these, 86% were females and 14% were males. Looking at the proportions of each gender which take parental leave, 16% of females took parental leave while 3% of males did.

Maternity leave

It has been identified in past studies of the Irish civil service that females felt that taking even the minimum level of maternity leave could hinder their chances of promotion and that it would not be possible to reach Assistant Principal level without returning to full-time work.14

Figure 23 below shows the percentage of department female employees who took maternity leave and extended maternity leave by grade. Overall 6% of female employees took maternity leave and 5% took extended maternity leave. Additional maternity leave for up to 16 more weeks, beginning immediately after the end of your 26 weeks’ basic maternity leave, can be taken. This is known as extended maternity leave.

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6.3 Gender Representation Irish Civil Service

Although the gender balance within the Irish civil service is improving, there are still substantial differences in the positions that males and females occupy. Males are around twice as likely as females to occupy senior grades, even when compared to females with the same level of qualifications and length of service\textsuperscript{15}. Similar differences are found across both public and private sector employment. According to figures from the Gender Balance in Business Survey carried out by the Central Statistics Office (CSO) in 2019, females made up only 28% of senior executives in the private sector and only 7% of chairpersons. Figures for the public sector show that females accounted for 73% of employees but occupied only 60% of managerial positions\textsuperscript{16}.

The civil service has made progress over the last ten years in the area of gender equality in management grades. In 2007, as part of the National Women’s Strategy 2007 – 2016, the civil service signed up to a target for female representation of 33% at Assistant Principal (AP) level and 27% at Principal Officer (PO) level. As of the end of 2017, the figures stood at 49% of female representation in the AP grade and 42% of female representation in the PO grade\textsuperscript{17}.

The Civil Service Renewal Plan launched in 2014 contained a commitment to improving gender balance across the civil service. While the gap in gender representation has decreased in recent decades, there are still occupational differences between males and females across and within departments. In particular there are a disproportionate number of females at lower grades and females are underrepresented at higher grades.

In 2017, the Minister for Public Expenditure and Reform announced a number of initiatives which aimed to ensure that the composition of the civil service would reflect a greater gender balance

\textsuperscript{16} Management positions are assumed to be Assistant Principal or higher.
\textsuperscript{17} Ibid
with a particular emphasis on gender representation at senior grades. A target of 50/50 gender balance in appointments at senior levels was announced with the merit based approach of best person for the job still continuing to apply. However, in such cases where candidates who compete for Top Level Appointments Committee (TLAC) positions are of equal merit, then priority would be given to the female candidate where they are under represented on the management board of the department or office in question.

Figure 24 shows the gender representation in the civil service and DoJ by grade for 2020. Females constituted the largest portion of civil servants in 2020 with the gender breakdown of the work force being roughly 60% female and 40% male, while for DoJ it was 56% females and 44% males. As can be seen, the percentage of males in senior management positions is higher in the DoJ at 73% compared to 64% for the civil service as a whole.

**Figure 24: Gender breakdown comparison between the Civil Service and DoJ by Grade (2020)**

![Graph showing gender breakdown comparison between the Civil Service and DoJ by grade (2020)]

**Note:** Senior Management includes Secretary General, Deputy Secretary & Assistant Secretary. Directors in the department are usually at PO level so are included in that calculation.

**Source:** IGEES Unit, DoJ based on Department of Expenditure and Reform Spending Review paper 2020 & HR data supplied March 2021.

The ERSI in their report “A study of gender in senior civil service positions in Ireland” from 2017 builds on survey data collected in the Civil Service Employee Engagement Survey 2015, examining the role and representation of women across the civil service. The report again highlighted the overrepresentation of females at lower levels of the civil service and their under representation at Senior Civil service (SCS) grades.

Figure 25 below shows the gender trends of new joiners\(^\text{18}\) to the civil service. New joiner refers to individuals who joined the civil service in a specified year and have no prior civil service experience\(^\text{19}\). Across all grades more females joined in the 2006 to 2008 time period than from

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\(^\text{18}\) New joiners refers to individuals who joined the Civil Service in a specified year and have no previous civil service experience

\(^\text{19}\) Ibid
2017 to 2019 but this could for example be put down to a high number of CO's starting between 2006 to 2008. More males than females joined at senior management and PO grades, while more females than males joined at CO and AP level. Also more males than females joined at EO grade while there was approximately an even split at AO level between 2017 and 2019.

**Figure 25: Gender breakdown of new joiners to Civil Service between 2006 to 2008 and 2017 to 2019**

![Gender breakdown of new joiners to Civil Service between 2006 to 2008 and 2017 to 2019](image)

**Source:** IGEES unit, based on DPER's, CSHR Databank

Figure 26 below shows female representation at senior civil service grades for 1997, 2007 and 2018. Female representation at Sec General level has risen from 5% in 1997 to 20% in 2018. It has remained at this level since 2007 when it was 19%. At D/Sec and A Sec level, female representation has risen from 10% in 1997 to 35% in 2018. The same trend occurs at both PO and AP levels where female representation has risen from 12% to 43% and 24% to 50% respectively from 1997 to 2018.

**Figure 26: Female Representation at Senior Civil Service Grades**

![Female Representation at Senior Civil Service Grades](image)

**Source:** IGEES unit, based on Department of Foreign Affairs, 2020
6.4 Gender Representation Irish Private Sector

The Gender Balance in Business Survey was conducted by the CSO in 2019 to provide benchmark statistics on gender representation in Senior Executive teams and Boards of directors in Irish business. This survey found approximately 1 in 9 CEOs in Ireland were female.\(^{20}\) As Figure 27 shows, female representation across all levels of senior management was considerably lower than their male counterparts with women occupying 28% of Senior Executive roles, 7% of Chairpersons roles and 20% of the overall composition of Boards of Directors positions.

Figure 27: Women in at Senior Positions Ireland 2019

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![Gender Representation Graph](https://www.cso.ie/en/releasesandpublications/ep/p-sy/2019/hus/genderbalanceinbusiness/

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on CSO Gender Balance in Business Survey 2019

6.4.1 The 30% Club

The 30% club is a global campaign supported by CEO’s and Chairpersons of medium and large organisations who are committed to achieving better gender balance at leadership levels. There are currently 260 organisations in the club who represent more than 600,000 employees in the Irish chapter. The clubs aim is to support the achievement of a minimum of 30% gender balance at all senior decision-making tables across Ireland, including boards and c-suite roles (highest-ranking senior executives in an organisation).

Investor Research published by the 30% Club shows that while in 2015 just 16% of organisations surveyed had a formal diversity and inclusion policy in place, now 46% have such a policy\(^ {21}\). Data from 2015 to 2018 show the number of females in the lower levels of management increased from 30% to 45% over that period, while the proportion at executive director level rose from 23% to 30%, and at CEO level from 14% to 18%\(^ {22}\).

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\(^{20}\) CSO Gender Balance in Business Survey 2019


6.5 Factors in the GPG
There are many factors which can contribute to the existence of the GPG, as mentioned previously, the average characteristics of employees such as occupation, sector, age and education etc. The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) lists six factors from which the GPG can result from. While this list is not exhaustive, it can help to identify some of the causes of the GPG23.

6.5.1 Part time working
Jobholders working part time, regardless of gender, tend to earn less per hour than those in full time employment. One reason may be due to the oversupply of females looking for part time and local work leading to an oversupply of labour and depressing pay rates. In 2018 one third of women worked part time while only 8% of men worked part time across the E.U.24

6.5.2 Perceived differences in male and female human capital
Females are more likely to achieve pay parity when they mirror the behaviour of males, if they work full time and don’t take time out to have children. Employees who work full time are perceived as accumulating valuable skills and experience while those who take time out or work part time are not. This reduction in human capital is also viewed as permanent. In the absence of evidence at the individual level of a reduction of human capital this phenomenon can be seen as a form of gender stereotyping.

6.5.3 Occupational segregation
Occupational and sectoral segregation can be seen as contributing to the GPG as many roles in the Irish labour market are segregated by gender. Approximately 30% of the overall EU GPG in 2018 can be explained by an over representation of females in relatively low paying sectors such as care, sales and education while sectors such as science, technology and engineering are male dominated (80% or more)25.

6.5.4 The under valuing of Women’s work
The CIPD report notes that the problem with occupational segregation isn’t that males and females are doing different types of work but rather that these jobs are being valued differently. Many “female jobs” involve tasks which were traditionally carried out by females in the home, resulting in the assumption that these jobs call for only low level skills. Additionally, on average females do more hours of unpaid work such as childcare and housework. The difference in unpaid hours of work by gender varies across the E.U from 6 to 8 hours in the Nordic countries to more than 15 hours in Italy, Croatia, Slovenia and Austria in 201526.

6.5.5 Discrimination
While the extent of which gender discrimination contributes to the GPG is debatable it is still considered a risk factor. Gender discrimination can either be “direct”, paying a female less because of her gender, or “indirect” which includes paying a group of workers less because they work part time or failing to reward the emotional demands of jobs that involve caring for others. Direct discrimination may be masked with different job titles or work patterns, indirect discrimination can occur when there are overly complex pay systems and/or occupational segregation. The law which

25 Ibid
26 Ibid

6.5.6 Unpaid care responsibilities

The report also notes that females are the main providers of unpaid care. High costs of child care for example may provide a barrier to work, as a female employee may choose to work part time to reduce child-care costs or leave the workforce altogether. Leaving the workforce altogether for a short period of time or taking reduced hours can lead to the phenomenon of human capital differences.

The factors listed above will have varying degrees of relevance to the department and the civil service in general than it will to the private sector at large given the differences in make-up of both sectors. For example the U.K Department of International Trade found that the main contributor to their GPG is the spread of their workforce. If the proportion of males and females in each grade were equal to the overall distribution, their mean GPG would decrease by 70%.

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6.6 Unadjusted GPG Ireland

6.6.1 The GPG Information Bill

In 2018, the Minister for Justice announced the GPG Information Bill, as part of a range of measures aimed at reducing the GPG and promoting wage transparency. The Bill sought to amend the Employment Equality Act 1998 to require that regulations be made that would require certain employers to publish information in relation to the GPG in their organisations. The Bill sought to require employers to publish information relating to the pay of their employees for the purpose of showing whether there are differences in relation to gender and, if so, the size and reason for such differences. The regulations as laid out were only to apply to employers with 250 or more employees in the first two years after introduction. In the third year, the requirements would also apply to employers with 150 or more employees and thereafter, the requirements would apply to employers with 50 or more employees.29

Under the proposed regulations employers must provide the following:

- mean hourly GPG, expressed as a percentage;
- median hourly GPG, expressed as a percentage;
- mean bonus GPG, expressed as a percentage;
- median bonus GPG, expressed as a percentage;
- mean hourly part-time GPG, expressed as a percentage;
- median hourly part-time GPG, expressed as a percentage;
- percentage of male and female employees who are paid bonuses;
- percentage of male and female employees who receive benefits in kind.

Also, employers will be required to publish, along with the above GPG information, the reasons such differences exist and the measures (if any) taken or proposed to be taken by the employer to eliminate or reduce such differences. The Bill progressed to the fourth committee stage of the Dáil in July of this year (Houses of the Oireachtas, 2020).30

As mentioned previously in this report, the unadjusted pay gap is the most frequent measurement used by organisations when analysing the existence of disparity between the earnings of men and women. Figure 28 below shows the unadjusted GPG in the Republic of Ireland from 2002-2018 and how the gap has changed during this time period.

As shown in the graph below the GPG grew from 15.1% to 17.3% from 2002 to 2007. Following the start of the financial crises the GPG fell 4.7 points to 12.6% in 2008, rising again during the period of economic recovery from 2012 to 2017 to 14.4%. The GPG fell 3.1 points from 2017 to 2018 to 11.3% representing the smallest GPG figure during this 16 year period.

29 The NERI Institute, How Unequal? The unadjusted gender pay gap in earnings in Northern Ireland & the Republic of Ireland
6.6.2 Public vs Private Gender Pay Gap

The most recent data available on the GPG in the Irish public and private sector is taken from Eurostat for 2014. Figure 29 below shows the unadjusted GPG for the Irish public and private sectors from 2008-2014. It also shows the overall unadjusted GPG for the years shown.

The unadjusted GPG in the public sector from 2008-2014 was consistently lower than the gap in the private sector. In 2008 public sector GPG stood at 12.5% compared with 21.4% in the private sector. The public sector GPG reached its lowest level during this time period in 2013 at 7.3% compared with a 19.5% gap in the private sector in the same year. In 2014, the last year in which data is available on the GPG for the public and private sector, the GPG stood at 9.6% and 19.7% respectively, a difference of 10.1 points. The GPG in the public sector was also lower than the overall GPG for all sectors in 2014 which stood at 13.9% constituting a difference of 4.3 points between the public sector and the overall total. As can be seen the public sector helps reduce the GPG down from close to 20% in 2014 to under 15%. This was also the trend from 2008 to 2013.
Figure 29: Unadjusted GPG Ireland Public and Private Sector 2008-2014

Source: IGEES unit, DoJ, using EIGE database

31 European Institute for Gender Equality (EIGE), Gender Statistics Database: https://eige.europa.eu/gender-statistics/dgs/indicator/bpfa_f_ofic_I8__bpfa_I8p/datable
List of Agencies/Bodies included in Data

Property Services Regulatory Authority
Private Security Authority
Insolvency Service of Ireland
International Protection Appeals Tribunal
Irish Film Classification Office
Dublin Coroner’s Service
Garda Síochána Inspectorate
Office of the Inspector of Prisons
Probation Service
Office of the State Pathologist
Forensic Science Ireland
Parole Board
7. Annex 1 – International Comparison

A number of different jurisdictions were examined in order to understand the GPG internationally and compare it to Ireland’s GPG. The EU overall, the UK, Belgium, Denmark and New Zealand were examined and are discussed below.

7.1 EU

The right to equal pay for the same work or work of equal value between female and male workers has been a founding principle of the European Union since the 1957 Treaty of Rome. A 2006 Directive (Directive 2006/54/EC) on equal treatment of females and males in matters of employment and occupation already requires employers to ensure equal pay for equal work or work of equal value between females and males. It was complemented in 2014 by a Commission Recommendation on pay transparency. Despite this legal framework, the principle of equal pay is not fully implemented and enforced. The GPG in the EU remains at 14.1% for 2019.32

The GPG indicator that is currently being published by Eurostat is based on a mix of several national data sources and EU-SILC data. It is unadjusted for composition effects (differences in composition characteristics between male and female), and is unadjusted for selection effects.

Lack of pay transparency is one of the key obstacles to enforcing this right. It stops workers from knowing how their pay, on average, compares to that of their colleagues of the other sex doing equal work or work of equal value. Lack of pay transparency thus creates a grey area favourable to the continuation of gender bias in the setting of salaries. Several countries have begun to look at the effectiveness of existing approaches and consider supplementary measures. One of the main mechanisms that is being used currently in this regard in both the United Kingdom and Ireland is pay transparency legislation. In essence, pay transparency legislation seeks to force employers to track, report, understand and ultimately explain their unadjusted GPG.

Within the EU, there are considerable differences between countries. Estonia, Greece and the Czech Republic are at the top of the rankings. Romania, Italy and Luxembourg have the lowest gender pay gap. In countries where female labour market participation is low, the GPG is also generally lower. This is the case for Romania and Italy, for example. Women in the EU are less present in the labour market than men. The gender employment gap stood at 11.7% in 2019, with 67.3% of women across the EU being employed compared to 79% of men (EU27 data).

The GPG using gross hourly earnings in the EU stands at 14.1% in 2019 and has only changed minimally over the last decade. It means that women earn 14.1% on average less per hour than men. Women in the EU earned 39.6% less than men overall in 2014. One of the reasons is the fact that on average females spend fewer hours in paid work than males: Whereas only 8% of males in the EU in 2019 worked part-time, almost a third of females across the EU (30.7%) did so.33

The EU's GPG won't be eliminated until 2104, according to a new report by one of Europe's largest workers' unions. The European Trade Union Confederation's (ETUC) research demonstrates that at the current pace of change and unless action is taken, women won't be paid the same as men until the beginning of next century at the very earliest.34 In Italy and Germany, the gap won't be

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closed until 2074 and 2121 respectively, whereas in France, at the present speed, it wouldn't be eliminated for over 1000 years. Yet some countries are still on track for equal pay this decade, such as Romania, which is on course for equal pay by 2022 and Belgium by 2028.

Currently, only 10 EU countries, Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Spain, Finland, France, Italy, Portugal and Sweden have adopted legal frameworks on pay transparency. In March 2021, the Irish government approved GPG legislation proposals\(^\text{35}\). Evidence on the impact of such policies is limited, but one research paper found that in Denmark, a 2006 pay transparency bill narrowed the GPG by 13 percent. At the current pace, estimates predict that it would take over 250 years to completely close the earning gap between males and females\(^\text{36}\).

**Figure 30: GPG for EU, 2019**

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on European Commission data on the Gender Pay Gap


\(^{36}\) https://www.politico.eu/article/brussels-gender-pay-gap-transparency/
7.2 UK

In the United Kingdom, GPG reporting regulations were introduced in 2017 under the Equality Act 2010 and require public, private and voluntary sector organisations with 250 or more employees to publish and report specific figures about their GPG in England, Scotland and Wales, but not Northern Ireland. In Northern Ireland the Employment Act (Northern Ireland) 2016 provides for similar GPG reporting regulations to be introduced. However, as yet the Northern Ireland Executive has not imposed duties on employers via a set of statutory regulations. The regulations put in place the requirement for employers to publish their GPG annually using six different measures including the: mean GPG, median GPG, mean bonus gap, median bonus gap, bonus proportions; and the proportions of males and females which fall into each quartile pay band.

The GPG shows the difference in mean and median of both hourly pay and bonus payments for men and women across the organisation. The GPG is the percentage difference between men's and women's median hourly earnings, across all jobs in the UK; it is not a measure of the difference in pay between men and women for doing the same job.

The Office for National Statistics (ONS) in the UK when calculating the GPG do not include overtime. Overtime can skew the results because men work relatively more overtime than women and using hourly earnings better accounts for the fact that men work on average more hours per week than women.

Full-time is defined as employees working more than 30 paid hours per week (or 25 or more hours for the teaching professions). Part-time is defined as employees working less than or equal to 30 paid hours per week (or less than or equal to 25 hours for the teaching professions).

The reason why median earnings is used over mean earnings is because in earnings distributions, a relatively small number of high earners result in a positively skewed earnings distribution of employees. In a positively skewed earnings distribution, mean earnings are greater than median earnings as the mean is increased by those higher earners. In such cases median earnings (the middle earner in the economy or sector) may be a more reflective figure of the average earnings of employees in the economy.

Figure 31 below is the GPG for median gross hourly earnings in the UK from 1997 to 2020. The GPG in the UK has been declining slowly from 1997 to 2020; over the last decade it has fallen by approximately a quarter among full-time employees and by just over one-fifth among all employees.

In 2020, the gap among full-time employees fell to 7.4%, from 9.0% in 2019. Among all employees it fell to 15.5%, from 17.4% in 2019. The GPG is higher for all employees than for each of full-time employees and part-time employees. This is because women fill more part-time jobs, which in comparison with full-time jobs have lower hourly median pay.

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37 The NERI Institute, How Unequal? The unadjusted gender pay gap in earnings in Northern Ireland & the Republic of Ireland
38 ibid
39 https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/earningsandworkinghours/bulletins/genderpaygapintheuk/2020
A slightly higher proportion of men than women were furloughed with reduced pay in April 2020, as indicated in Figure 32. For both men and women, the vast majority of these employees were in the lowest-paying jobs; the 10% lowest-earners were substantially more likely than the average employee to fall into this definition\textsuperscript{40}. These findings suggest that – because the GPG is based on median pay – furloughing had a small impact on the GPG, and the majority of the reduction in the gap is because of underlying changes in pay.

**Figure 32: % of employees whose pay was reduced due to factors such as absence or reduced hours, 2020**

Source: IGEEES Unit, DoJ based on Office for National Statistics – Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE)

Figure 33 below shows the difference in gross hourly earnings (excluding overtime) for men and women at the top and bottom and median decile for the UK from 1997 to 2020 for full-time employees.

As can be seen, the 90 percentile male employee earns substantially more than the equivalent woman employee. The difference in pay, expressed in GPG terms, is 16.7% for full-time employees.

\textsuperscript{40} https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/earningsandworkinghours/bulletins/genderpaygapintheuk/2020
employees. This is much higher than among median earners (7.5%) and the bottom 10% of earners (2.3%).

Over time the gap has reduced at a far slower rate among the higher earners, although in 2019 and 2020 there are some signs that it may be starting to fall at a similar rate to the lower earners.

**Figure 33: Difference in Gross Hourly Earnings (excluding overtime) for men and women at the top and bottom and median decile for the UK from 1997 to 2020 for full-time employees**

![Graph showing the difference in gross hourly earnings for men and women at the top, bottom, and median decile for the UK from 1997 to 2020.]

**Source:** IGEES Unit, DoJ based on Office for National Statistics – Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE)

According to The Gender Wage Gap report published by the Institute for Fiscal Studies in 2016, after a child is born “there is a gradual but continual rise in the wage gap over the following 12 years, until it reaches a plateau of around 33%”.

Figure 34 below shows the GPG for England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland between 1997 & 2020. In the case of Northern Ireland, in particular, the GPG is impacted by a higher proportion of women working in the public sector where pay rates for some jobs are higher than in the private sector. London stands out as being the only region where the GPG is very similar now to its 1997 level. Drivers of the GPG are numerous and one reason for this is jobs in London have a greater skew to higher-skilled occupations. In 2018 the median GPG when comparing women’s and men’s full-time hourly rates of pay in Scotland was 5.7% and when all employees are included (both male and female and for both full and part time) it was 15.0%.

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42 CLOSE THE GAP WORKING PAPER20, 2019
Figure 34: The GPG for England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland between 1997 & 2020.

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on Office for National Statistics – Annual Survey of Hours and Earnings (ASHE)\textsuperscript{43}

7.3 Belgium

The first report in the area of the GPG was published by the Belgian government in 2007. The Institute for the Equality of Women and Men and the Federal Public Administration in charge of Employment were assigned this task\textsuperscript{44}.

The report published annually, presents seven quantitative indicators relating to the GPG. The indicators cover the following:

- gender pay ratios for all employees;
- part-time work;
- age;
- level of education;
- segregation in the labour market;
- personal features such as civil status, household composition or nationality; and finally;
- the factors contributing to inequality as defined by the Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition technique.

Belgian women are now better educated than their male counterparts, 49% of women aged 25 to 34 have a tertiary degree compared to 36% of men of the same age. The education advantage of young women is a strong improvement from the older cohorts: 21% and 26% of 55-64 year-old women and men have a tertiary degree respectively\textsuperscript{45}.

\textsuperscript{43} https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/earningsandworkinghours/bulletins/genderpaygapintheuk/2020
\textsuperscript{44} https://igvm-iefh.belgium.be/sites/default/files/downloads/45%20Gender%20pay%20gap.pdf
\textsuperscript{45} https://www.oecd.org/belgium/Closing%20the%20Gender%20Gap%20Belgium%20FINAL.pdf
In Belgium, women make up 50% of the bottom one percent of wage earners, but only 26% of the top one percent\textsuperscript{46}. Opportunities to climb the hierarchical ladder within companies vary between sectors, but overall, women tend to progress much less to a top position. Women earn on average 6% less per hour than men, according to the harmonised European GPG of 2018\textsuperscript{47}. It must be noted that the percentage of men who use parental leave is rather low and it is predominantly used by women.

The female labour force participation rate has increased significantly over the past two decades (from 46% in 1990 to 62% in 2010), but remains below the OECD average (65%) and the male participation rate in Belgium (73%). Closing the gender gap in labour force participation would translate into an increase in the GDP per capita annual growth rate of 0.6 percentage points\textsuperscript{48}. Female business owners in Belgium have one of the highest levels of educational attainment in the OECD, also considerably higher than their male counterparts: 52% of self-employed women have completed tertiary education compared to 33% on average in the OECD and 40% of Belgian self-employed men. Yet, they earn significantly less than male entrepreneurs and the gender gap in earnings is higher than for wage employment. A major factor in the earnings gap between male and female entrepreneurs is that women devote less time to their businesses than men. Nevertheless, Belgian self-employed women work some of the longest hours in the OECD, with a median of 45 hours per week, compared to the OECD average of 39 hours\textsuperscript{49}.

\textsuperscript{48} https://www.oecd.org/belgium/Closing%the%Gender%Gap%-%Belgium%FINAL.pdf
\textsuperscript{49} ibid
7.4 Denmark

In 2006 legislation changed so that firms with more than 35 employees are required to report salary data broken down by gender. Under the 2006 law, firms have the duty to inform their employees of wage gaps between men and women and explain the design of the statistics and the wage concept used. The paper “Do Firms Respond to GPG Transparency?” found that GPG reporting can help to close the GPG by encouraging organisations to hire more women and speed up their promotion and also found that reporting slowed the wage growth of men; so had a levelling effect on pay.

The report claims that the wide-ranging nature of the legislation has led to the significant reduction in pay disparity between men and women, suggesting “that a mandatory wage transparency reform covering all firms would provide an even larger reduction in the gender wage gap.”

**Figure 35: GPG for Denmark 2004 to 2019**

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on Statistics Denmark, Statbank

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50. Do firms respond to gender pay gap disclosure?
7.5 New Zealand

Many female workers in New Zealand work in occupations that are more than 80% female and these female-dominated occupations tend to be lower paid. Women are underrepresented in higher-level jobs\(^{52}\). Factors that contribute to the GPG in New Zealand are as follows:

- **the jobs women do**: while there are some notable exceptions in New Zealand today, women are more likely to be clustered in a narrow range of occupations and at the bottom or middle of an organisation.

- **the value put on women’s jobs**: the skills and knowledge that women contribute in female-dominated occupations may not be recognised or valued appropriately in comparison to other jobs.

- **work arrangements and caring responsibilities**: more women combine primary care giving with part-time work, which tends to be more readily available in lower paid occupations and positions. This limits women’s access to better paying occupations and positions.

In 2020, the Public Service GPG using median pay was 5.8%. This slight decrease from 6.2% in 2019 follows a large fall from 10.7% in 2018. The GPG using median pay for the entire workforce, as reported by Stats NZ, was 9.5% in 2020, similar to the last three years (9.4% in 2017, 9.2% in 2018, and 9.3% in 2019)\(^{53}\).

**Figure 36: GPG (Median hourly earnings) in New Zealand 1998 to 2020**

Source: IGEES Unit, DoJ based on Statistics Ministry for Women, New Zealand

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