

TOWARDS A CLOSING OF THE **GENDER PAY GAP**



Research Centre for Gender
Equality (KETHI), Greece

Towards a Closing of the Gender Pay Gap Country Report Greece

Nikos Ntermanakis, Panayota Petroglou, Natalia Sereti, Maria Zervou
Research Centre for Gender Equality

With support from the European Commission

Programme relating to the Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality (2001-2005)
The conference content does not necessarily reflect the position or opinion of the European Commission



The Norwegian Centre
for gender equality

Towards a closing of the gender pay gap
Country report
Greece

October 2002

Nikos Ntermanakis, Panayota Petroglou, Natalia Sereti, Maria Zervou

Research Centre for Gender Equality

The Norwegian Centre for Gender Equality
Postbox 8049 Dep
N-0031 Oslo
Norway
www.likestilling.no

ISBN 82-7937-021-8

This report is prepared for the European study *Towards a Closing of the Gender Pay Gap (2001-03)*, managed by the Norwegian Centre for Gender Equality and funded by the *European Commission's Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality (2001-05)*.
The project is financially supported by the *Norwegian Ministries of - Labour and Government Administration - Children and Family Affairs - Education, Research and Church Affairs and the Norwegian Confederation of Trade Unions*

Web-site for the project: www.genderpaygap.no

Towards a closing of the Gender Pay Gap
Country report on pay differentials between Men and Women
Greece

1. Introduction	6
2. Institutional framework: attitudes, legislation and wage formation.....	8
2.1. Public policy, the role of social partners.....	8
2.1.1. Gender equality legislation	8
2.1.2. Labour law provisions on working hours, part time employment, temporary contracts etc.	12
2.1.3. Programmes, campaigns and measures.....	13
2.1.4. Institutions implementing gender equality measures.....	14
2.2. Wage formation systems.....	16
2.2.1. Legal framework of collective bargaining.....	16
2.2.2. Gender equality issues in collective agreements.....	17
2.2.3. Individual pay agreements.....	18
2.3. What's on?	18
2.4. Labour market statistics, 1993-2000.....	20
2.4.1. Recent trends in labour force	20
2.4.2. Recent trends in employees	21
2.4.3. Employees in private and public sector	24
3. Three target occupations.....	26
3.0. Introduction	26
3.1. Secondary education teaching professionals.....	26
3.2. Manufacturing labourers in food & drink processing industries.....	31
3.3. Employed in physical, mathematical and engineering professions.....	35
4. The case study	40
4.1 Teaching associate professionals	41
School A	41
School B	43
School C	44
4.2 Food processing workers	46
Firm A.....	46
Firm B.....	46
Firm C.....	47
Comments.....	48
4.3 Engineering professionals.....	48
Company A.....	48
Company B.....	49
Comments.....	50
A Final Discussion.....	51
5. Summary and conclusions	53
References	58
Appendix I.....	60

1. Introduction

The Research Centre for Gender Equality (KETHI), which is supervised and funded by the General Secretariat for Equality (Ministry of the Interior, Public Administration and Decentralisation), is participating in the transnational European project “*Towards a Closing of the Gender Pay Gap*”. The project is co-ordinated by the Centre for Gender Equality of Norway and is funded by the European Commission's Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality (2001-2005) and by Norwegian national authorities.

The objective of the project is to examine the gender pay gap in a broad perspective, in relation to the wage formation and pay systems. The project aims to identify an efficient mix of tools to close the gender pay gap in the context of each partner country. Three target occupations, teachers, engineers and unskilled labourers in the food processing industry are specifically examined by a case study in each partner country (Norway, Austria, Greece, Iceland and United Kingdom) in order to analyse the gender pay gap, and how the pay gap differs across countries and occupations.

KETHI's participation in the project, beyond the afore mentioned objective, aims by this action:

- to activate the substantial public debate in Greece on “equal pay for work of equal value” between men and women
- to sensitise and motivate the social partners on “equal pay” between men and women and to highlight the need of introducing this issue in collective bargaining
- to “inform” and raise the awareness of the officials of relevant government agencies who are responsible in designing and implementing policies and measures for the promotion of women's employment

According to the authors of an unfinished study on the determinants of the gender pay gap in Greece, recently commissioned by KETHI¹:

“Greece has a relatively narrow gender pay gap in comparison with its partners in the EU. According to ESES data, in 1995, the female-male earnings ratio in Greece was equal to 77%, while in Sweden – the EU Member State with the narrowest gap – it rose to 82% and in the UK – the EU Member State with the widest gap – to 59% (estimations based on gross hourly earnings).

Improvement of women's position in the Greek labour market during the last decades has also been reflected in women's relative pay. The female-male earnings ratio in a great number of sectors has followed an upward trend during the eighties and nineties. However, in some high-wage sectors, this trend has been reversed since the late 1980s.

Gender differences and changes in women's behaviour and relative position in the employment system is a rather under-developed field of labour market research in Greece. As far as gender pay discrimination is concerned, only four studies have been carried out so far (Kanellopoulos 1982, Psacharopoulos 1983, Tzannatos 1989, Kanellopoulos & Mavromaras 2000). Until recently, this was due to the lack of statistical surveys providing data on both wages and personal, family and work features of employees...

...The existing data sources on wages provide long time series only for a small number of sectors of the Greek economy. The trends in female-male earnings ratios calculated from these time series have varied across sectors and forms of pay during different periods (Figures 1 & 2). For instance, while women's relative monthly earnings in manufacturing declined between 1965 and 1973, their relative hourly earnings increased. The opposite happened between 1976 and 1981: women's relative monthly earnings in manufacturing rose, while their relative hourly earnings in the same sector fell in parallel with female relative monthly earnings in retail. It is nevertheless a fact that in 1981 the gender gap of monthly earnings in manufacturing was wider than in 1965. In contrast, the gender gap of hourly earnings in the same sector was narrower.

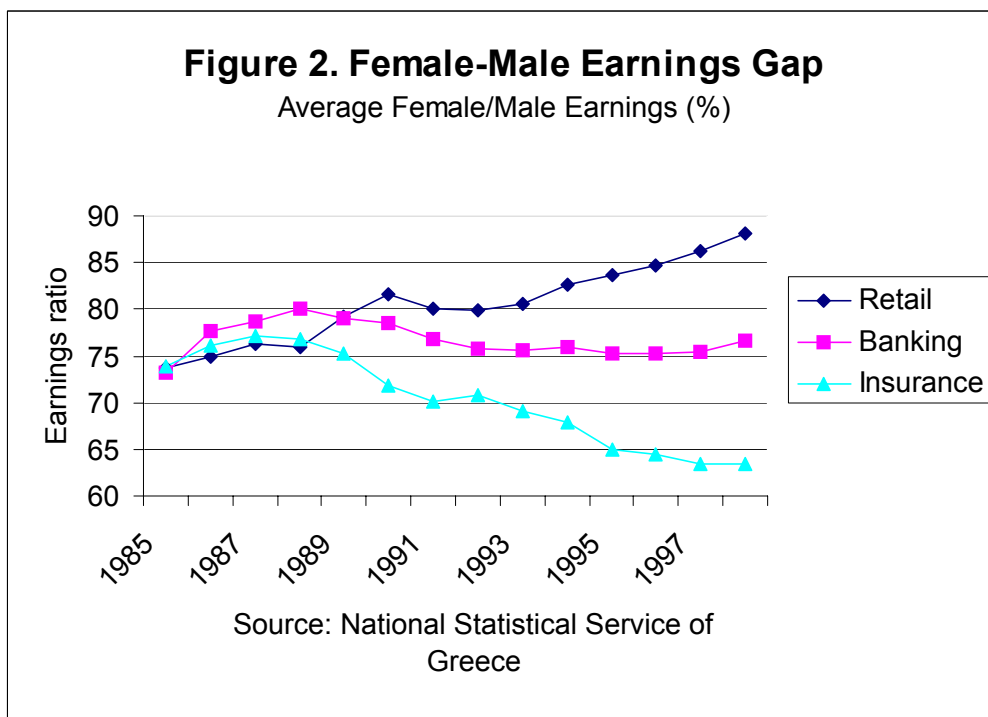
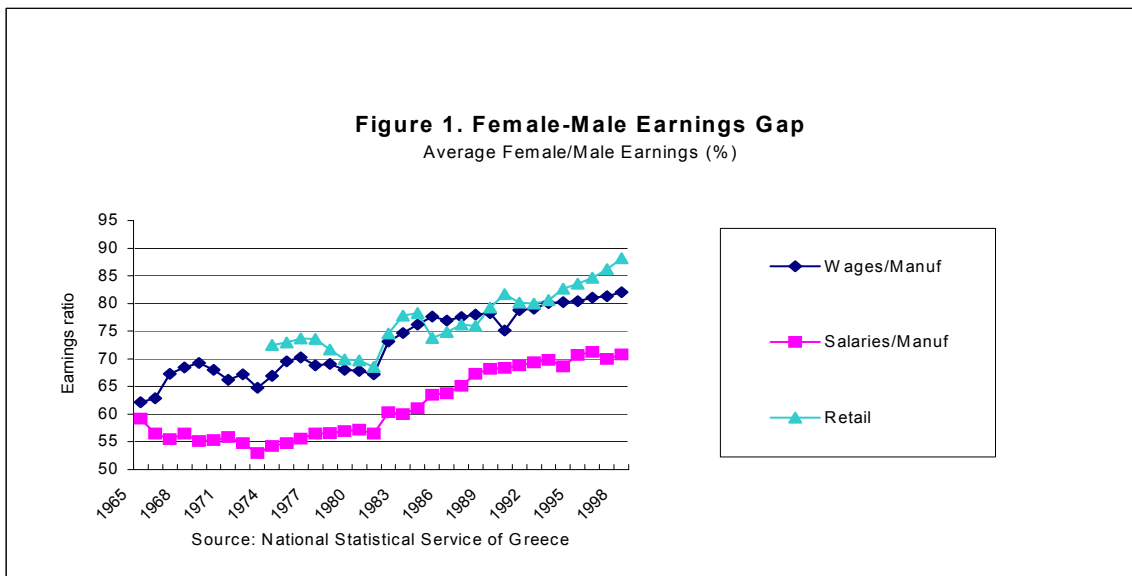
Ever since 1981 the female-male earnings ratio has followed an upward trend in both manufacturing and retail. It seems that this also occurred in the banking and insurance. In these sectors though the trend has been reversed since the late eighties.

Explanation of trends needs further research and requires overcoming data limitations. However, the substantial rise of the female-male earnings ratio in 1982 should be undoubtedly put on the account of incomes policy. Indeed, in 1982, the newly elected socialist government imposed over the whole economy a 32% rise of the minimum wage and a 37% rise of the minimum salary. Given that national minima have a large impact on sectoral and occupational minima and women are more concentrated the men at the lower end of the wage structure, the impact of incomes policy on the narrowing of the gender pay gap in 1982 and subsequent years has been decisive”.

¹ Karamessini M. & E. Ioakimoglou, ‘Determinants of the gender pay gap in Greece’, draft paper, 2002.

Given the “non-existence” of a public debate on the issue of “equal pay” in Greece and following the above mentioned observations and data, we note the importance of KETHI’s participation in the project, which is a first attempt of an organisation of the national mechanism for the implementation of gender equality, to actively be involved in a multidimensional project on the gender pay gap.

Especially, the programme’s prerequisite for the establishment of the national reference group, whose composition involves every key player on this issue (general confederation of trade unions and employers, the federations of the target occupations, national authorities and expert on gender/employment issues), consists the most effective tool – at this point - for the promotion of debate and actions on “equal pay”.



Note: Figures 1 and 2 come from the above mentioned draft paper (Karamessini & Ioakimoglou 2002).

2. Institutional framework: attitudes, legislation and wage formation

2.1. Public policy, the role of social partners

2.1.1. Gender equality legislation²

In the Greek legal order, the Constitution is written and rigid and prevails over both previous and subsequent statutes.

According to Article 4(1) of the Greek Constitution “All Greeks are equal before the law”. Till last year, derogations from this principle were allowed by Article 116(2), which stipulated that: “Derogations from the provision of Article 4(2) are allowed only for sufficiently justified reasons, in cases specifically provided for by statute”, and had often served as an excuse for curtailing women’s rights. Within the framework of the Constitutional revision of 2001, Article 116(2) was replaced by a new provision, inspired by Article 4(1) of the UN Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), providing that: “Positive measures for the promotion of equality between men and women do not constitute gender discrimination. The State is committed to abolish inequalities which exist in practice, in particular those which are detrimental to women”. This Constitutional amendment was largely due to the campaigns and efforts of Greek women NGOs, and in particular the Hellenic League for Women’s Rights and its President Alice Yotopoulos-Marangopoulos, which met with the approval and the support of women politicians³.

Moreover Article 22(1)(b) of the Constitution stipulates that "All workers, irrespective of sex or other distinction, are entitled to equal pay for work of equal value".

According to Article 28(1) of the Constitution, international treaties which have been introduced into the Greek legal order by virtue of a statute and have been ratified, prevail over both previous and subsequent statutes as well.

Greece has already signed and ratified by Act 1342/1983 the UN Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and recently the Optional Protocol on collective complaints to the CEDAW. Moreover, as regards gender equality, Greece has signed and ratified ILO Convention No 100 (Equal Pay between Men and Women) by Act 46/1975, ILO Convention No 103 for the protection of maternity by Act 1302/1983 and ILO Convention No 156 (Workers with family responsibilities) by Act 1576/1985⁴.

Community law applies in Greece since 1.1.1981 (date of accession to the European Community). Thus, article 141 (ex Article 119) of EC Treaty produces direct effects since then. Directives already in effect came into effect in Greece on 1.1.1981.

• Equal pay/Equal treatment

Act 1414/1984 (Application of gender equality principle in the employment relationships) implemented Directives 75/117 and 76/207 three years after they came in effect. It covers employment governed by labour law, employment in liberal professions (e.g. doctors, attorneys-at-law, architects, engineers, etc.) and contracts of independent employment (i.e. not subject to employer’s control). However Act 1414/1984 does not apply to employment governed by public law which is covered, however, by Article 4(2) of the Greek Constitution and the relevant provisions of the Civil Servants Code.

² For gender equality legislation and legislation on reconciling family and working life see: Sophia Koukoulis-Spiliotopoulos, Athena Petroglou and Panayota Petroglou, Equality litigation in Greece, June 1995, Greek report in the framework of the comparative study on the Utilisation of sex equality litigation procedures conducted in the years 1993-1995 by B. Fitzpatrick, U. O’ Hare, J. Gregory, R. Knecht and J. Blom for D.G. V, European Commission, E.C. V/782/96-EN; Maria Karamessini, Sophia Spiliotopoulos with the collaboration of Athena Petroglou and Panayota Petroglou, The Greek Care System and its Implications for Women’s Employment, 1998, Greek report in the framework of the comparative study “Care in Europe” performed jointly by the “Gender and Employment” and the “Gender and Law” networks of the European Commission; Panayota Petroglou, Good practices on reconciling family and working life, Greek report in the framework of the project “Good Practice Guide on reconciling family and working life”, led by the Instituto de la Mujer, Madrid, 2000-2001.

³ See Sophia Spiliotopoulos, From formal to substantive gender equality: case law, constitutional and statutory developments.

⁴ ILO Convention No 156 was implemented by Act 1483/1984 (Protection and facilitation of workers with family responsibilities).

As regards equal pay, Article 4 of Act 1414/1984 provides that: “1. Men and women are entitled to equal pay for work of equal value. 2. Pay means the salary and any other additional advantage paid by the employer to the employee, directly or indirectly, in cash or in kind, in exchange for the work provided. 3. A job classification system for determining pay must be based on the same criteria for both male and female workers and so applied as to exclude any discrimination on grounds of sex. 4. Beneficiary of the marriage allowance is the family and of the child allowance the children. 5. Marriage allowance and child allowance which are established for the first time or are readjusted shall henceforth be granted in full to every working spouse or parent regardless of sex”.

Moreover, clauses of collective agreements or of internal rules of undertakings, which discriminate on grounds of a worker’s sex as regards occupational social security schemes, are null and void (Article 5(3) of Act 1414/1984).

With regard to equal treatment, Article 2 of Act 1414/1984 prohibits any discrimination on grounds of sex and family status: a) with regard to access, content and application of all types of programmes or systems of vocational guidance, vocational training, apprenticeship, advanced vocational training, retraining, training for a job change, information of workers or their families and, in general, of programmes that contribute to the mental, financial and social development of the workers and b) with regard to participation in examinations and when determining the conditions of acquisition or award of diplomas, certificates or other degrees, as well as with regard to granting of scholarships and educational leaves or other educational advantages.

Moreover, it is provided that access to all branches and grades of any occupation shall be without discrimination on grounds of sex and family status. In announcements, advertisements, proclamations, circulars and internal rules, concerning the selection of personnel for vacancies or the provision of education or vocational training or the granting of a professional license, it is prohibited to make reference to the sex or family status or to use criteria and data which, even indirectly, lead up to sex discrimination. An employer cannot refuse to hire a pregnant woman. In jobs, where a medical certificate is required for hiring, a pregnant woman can be hired without this medical certificate, if the medical tests required are dangerous for her health or the health of her baby. In this case, the medical certificate is produced after the end of the maternity leave (Article 3 of Act 1414/1984).

Discrimination on grounds of sex is prohibited also as regards working conditions and hierarchical advancement and career. Overtime work and work on Sundays and holidays should be provided under the same conditions for both sexes (Article 5 of Act 1414/84).

Dismissal is prohibited: a) on grounds of sex and/or b) when it constitutes an employer’s reaction to a worker’s judicial or other complaint aimed at enforcing sex equality rights in working conditions (Article 6 of Act 1414/1984).

Trade unions and employers’ organisations are entitled to inform workers on the content of Act 1414/1984 and on the measures taken for its implementation and the application of the equal pay and equal treatment principles for women and men. Employers are obliged to facilitate them in this campaign, which can take place either by written at the announcement boards of the undertaking or orally or by distributing leaflets in the working place (Article 7 of Act 1414/84).

Provisions of laws, of decrees, of collective labour agreements, of arbitration decisions, of ministerial decrees and of internal rules or governing instruments of undertakings or businesses, terms of individual contracts and rules governing the exercise of a profession, in so far as they are contrary to the provisions of Act 1414/1984 must be abolished (Article 15 of Act 1414/1984).

- **Maternity protection**

As regards *access of pregnant women to work*, an employer cannot refuse to hire a pregnant woman. In jobs, where a medical certificate is required for hiring, a pregnant woman can be hired without this medical certificate, if the medical tests required are dangerous for her health or the health of her baby. In this case, the medical certificate is produced after the end of the maternity leave (Article 3(3) Act 1414/1984).

Moreover, Presidential Decree 176/1997 implemented Directive 92/85 (Maternity Directive), providing measures on assessment of risks to the *safety or health* of pregnant workers and workers who have recently given birth or are breastfeeding, information and action further to the results of the assessment, prohibition of exposure, measures to be taken in the case of night work, time off for ante-natal examinations, etc. In particular, any *dismissal*: i) during pregnancy or ii) within the year following confinement or iii) later, during absence due to illness provoked by pregnancy or confinement, is expressly prohibited, unless there is a serious reason. If this is not the case, the dismissal is declared null and void, even if the employer ignored the pregnancy; according to well-established jurisprudence of the Greek courts, there is no obligation to inform him/her. Thus, Greek legislation is more advanced than Directive 92/85 on this issue. Decrease of output due to pregnancy is not considered a serious reason. Moreover, when a serious reason is invoked by the employer, the termination has to be duly justified in written and submitted to the Labour Inspectorate; otherwise, it is null and void, whatever the serious reason invoked by the employer [Article 10(2) of Decree 176/1997, in conjunction with Article 15 of Act 1483/84, as construed by jurisprudence].

Maternity leave for women in the public sector is 5 calendar months (2 before, 3 after confinement) and in case of adoption, 3 calendar months in the first six months' period after the completion of the adoption, in both cases with full pay; in the private sector it is 17 calendar weeks (8 before, 9 after confinement) with full pay, the largest part of which is paid by the social security and employment organisations and only to a very small extent by the employer. In both sectors the leave for the above mentioned period is mandatory.

- **Provisions for workers with family responsibilities.**

Child care leave is provided as follows: i) *in the private sector*⁵ during the 30 months period after confinement, a working mother (or a working father, if she does not make use) is entitled to start work 1 hour later or to leave work 1 hour sooner; upon agreement with the employer, she may work two hours less per day for the first year and 1 hour less per day for the next 6 months. Thereto are entitled also adoptive parents of children under 6 years under the same conditions, the adoption being considered as the starting point of their entitlement. ii) *in the public sector*⁶ a mother civil servant is entitled to work 2 hours less per day for children under 2 years, one hour less for children aged 2-4 years; in case the mother civil servant does not make use of above mentioned reduced working hours, she is entitled to 9 months' paid leave; there is no such entitlement if her husband (civil servant) is on parental leave. In both the public and the private sector, this leave is paid and considered as employment time for labour and social security benefits.

*Parental leave*⁷ for the care of children born in or out of wedlock or adopted is provided to workers with at least one year of service by the same employer in both the private and the public sector till 3,5 months for each parent of children under 3,5 years. However, in both sectors parental leave is unpaid and there is no social security benefit to replace wage loss even in part. In the private sector workers can choose to pay both their own and the employer's social security contributions in order to retain social security coverage.

According to a more recent and favourable provision, in the public sector parental leave is provided till 2 years for each parent of children under 6 years⁸.

In both the private and the public sector, termination of employment due to the exercise of the right to parental leave is null and void. Moreover, after the end of parental leave, there is a right to return to the same or similar post, which in no case can be inferior to the one held by the worker before the parental leave. [Article 5 of Act 1483/1984, as amended by Article 25 of Act 2639/1998].

Paternity leave: In the private sector⁹, upon birth of the child, the working father is entitled to 2 days paid leave.

Marriage leave: In the private sector¹⁰, upon marriage male and female workers are entitled to 5 days of paid leave.

⁵ Article 6 National General Collective Agreement 2002-2003.

⁶ Art. 53(2) Act 2683/1999 (Civil Servants' Code), which applies also to the personnel on a contractual basis of the State, local government authorities and other legal persons governed by public law according to Article 4(5) Act 2839/2000.

⁷ Article 25 Act 2639/1998.

⁸ Article 53(1) in conjunction with Article 51(2) Act 2683/1999 (Civil Servants Code), which applies also to the personnel on a contractual basis of the State, local government authorities and other legal persons governed by public law, according to Article 4(5) Act 2839/2000.

⁹ Article 10 National General Collective Agreement 2001/2001.

Leave for illness of dependent family members¹¹ is provided in both the private and the public sector. Moreover, in the public sector an unpaid leave¹² up to 2 years is provided in case of severe personal whereas no such provision exists in the private sector. Thereto are entitled workers with: a) children born in or out of wedlock or adopted, under 16 years -without age limit if they need special care, due to serious or chronic illness or invalidity-, provided they are under the parent's custody; b) spouses who cannot take care of themselves due to serious or chronic illness or invalidity; c) parents or unmarried brothers/sisters who cannot take care of themselves due to serious or chronic illness or invalidity or old age, provided they are under the worker's care and their annual income does not exceed 300 minimum daily wages per year. This leave is unpaid and is up to 6 working days a year in case of illness of dependent children or above mentioned relatives; the leave can be taken continuously or not; it arises to 8 working days for each single working parent or each working married couple with 2 children and to 10 days in case of working parents of more than two children. This leave is restricted to full-timers only, which constitutes an indirect discrimination given that the majority of part timers are women. The period of absence is considered as working time for all purposes.

Parental leave for school visit: Entitled thereto are: i) in the private sector¹³ full-timers only, parents of children born in or out of wedlock or adopted under 16 years, irrespective of size of undertaking or service, ii) in the public sector¹⁴; parents of children who attend elementary or high-school education. This leave can be used for some hours or the whole working day, up to 4 working days a year. It is a paid leave, the period of absence being considered as working time for all purposes.

Additional leave for lone parents: In the private sector¹⁵ widows and widowers and unmarried parents, who have the custody of their child, are entitled to 6 working days per year paid additional leave (8 days in the case of parents of 3 or more children).

Leave on the event of death of close relatives: In the private sector¹⁶, workers are entitled to 2 working days paid leave in the event of death of husband/wife, children, parents and brothers/sisters.

- **Positive action**

As above-mentioned, since 2001, positive action in particular in favour of women, is provided in the Greek Constitution as a means to achieve substantive equality.

At legislative level, according to Article 10 (2) of Act 1414/1984, measures taken in favour of one sex, in order to combat inequality and to re-establish equality of opportunities do not constitute discrimination and are not prejudiced by the provisions of this Act. Such measures could be in particular programmes of occupational training, motives for employment in sectors with low representation of one sex and special care for persons with particular family responsibilities.

As regards employment conditions, according to Article 29 of Act 2085/1992 all service councils provided by law should include at least one woman having the required qualifications to become a member thereof. This provision was later repealed by Article 38(1) Act 2190/1992, without any justification. The Council of State Full Court by its judgement No 1933/1998 ruled that this provision “*was dictated by the necessity to take positive measures in favour of women aimed at correcting an unequal situation detrimental to them, which existed in practice*” and, thus, was in harmony with the constitutional gender equality principle, applied in the light of Directive 76/207 and the CEDAW.

Eight years later, Article 6 of Act 2839/2000 was adopted, providing that among persons who are appointed by the State as members of service councils of the public service, local authorities and other legal persons governed by public law, at least one third should belong to each sex; the same applies to the members of the boards of legal persons of the public sector, who are appointed by the State, local authorities or other legal

¹⁰ Article 10 National General Collective Agreement 2001/2001.

¹¹ Article 7 Act 1483/1984 and Presidential Decree 193/1988.

¹² Article 51 (2) Act 2683/1999 (Civil Servants' Code).

¹³ Art. 9 Act 1483/1984.

¹⁴ Art. 53 (5) Act 2683/1999 (Civil Servants Code), which applies also to the personnel on a contractual basis of the State, local government authorities and other legal persons governed by public law, according to Article 4(5) Act 2839/2000.

¹⁵ Article 7 National General Collective Agreement 2002/2003.

¹⁶ Article 9 National General Collective Agreement 2002/2003.

persons of public law, provided, in all cases, that the persons appointed possess the qualifications required by relevant legislation. According to the explanatory report of the relevant bill, this provision is aimed at implementing Council Recommendation 96/694 on the balanced participation of women and men in the decision-making process.

In the field of sports, Article 24(9) of Act 2725/1999 provides that in athletic federations, which cover games or branches of games in which athletes of both sexes participate, at least 20% of the board members must belong to one sex, provided that the number of candidates of each sex is in each case at least double the number which corresponds to this 20%.

Finally, according to Article 75 of Act 2910/2001, the number of candidates of local government councils of each sex shall correspond to at least one third of the total number of the candidates of each ballot. Eventual decimal number should be rounded to the next whole number, when the fraction is more than half point. This provision is the result of information and sensitisation campaigns led by women NGOs and women politicians since 1988, combined with the political will of the (then) Minister of Interior Affairs Vasso Papandreou. For the first time this provision will be implemented in the municipal and prefectural elections of 13 October 2002.

2.1.2. Labour law provisions on working hours, part time employment, temporary contracts etc.

Maximum *working hours* fixed by law can be reduced mainly through legally binding collective agreements and arbitration decisions. Thus, the National General Collective Agreement of 14.2.1984 established a ceiling of 40 working hours per week. Even shorter working hours have been established by collective agreements in sectors with strong unions, i.e. in the banks (currently 37 hours per week). Moreover, internal rules¹⁷, undertaking practices¹⁸ and individual contracts of employment, taking into account the needs of the enterprise, can provide less working hours per week or regulate them during the week within the framework set out by law and legally binding collective agreements.

*Part-time employment*¹⁹, as regular employment for fewer hours than normal (i.e. fixed by the law or collective agreements), is covered by labour law and gender equality law (with the exception of non entitlement of part-timers to leave for illness of children or other family members and leave for school visits, which can be considered as indirect sex discrimination).

The part-time employment contract should be agreed in writing and submitted to the Labour Inspectorate. The wages of part-timers cannot be lower than those that are provided for full-timers in the same work and correspond to the working hours of part time work. Part-timers are entitled to paid recreational leave and the relevant allowance on the basis of the pay that would have received, if they were employed during their leave. The duration of the leave is governed by the same provisions that apply to full-timers. The period of part time work is taken into account for the purposes of seniority. In this case 8 hours of part time work are equal to 1 day of seniority. Moreover part-timers are entitled: a) to in-the-job training under proportional conditions to those of full-timers and employees under an employment contract of indefinite duration and b) to the same social services provided for the rest of the workers in the enterprise. They have a priority right to any full-time working post offered by the employer, given that they compete on equal terms within the same category of workers. Workers who were hired for or turned to part-time work due to family reasons are entitled to full-time employment, if such a work post exists, irrespective of whether the reasons that drove them to part-time employment continue or not to exist²⁰. Finally, part-timers with family care reasons cannot be asked by the employer to work overtime. Part-timers are insured to social security organisations without any prerequisite based on the number of working hours²¹.

17 Internal rules fix personnel status (qualifications, grading, working conditions, promotion, termination of employment). Their legality is reviewed by all courts.

18 Undertaking practices constitute part of the contract and are binding towards all workers in same situation.

19 Art. 2(7),(8),(10),(11),(14) Act 2639/1998, which amended Art. 38 Act 1892/90.

20 Art.10 Act 1483/1984.

21 Art. 39 Act 1892/1990.

A fixed-term contract²² is terminated automatically upon expiry of the agreed term. It may be terminated earlier on serious grounds only. A fixed-term contract is lawful only if justified by the nature and purpose of the work or by special short-term needs of the undertaking. However, in both the private and the public sector there is a quite common practice of short-term, consecutive contracts which dissimulate indefinite duration ones.

Another “atypical” form of employment is the contract for services²³, which is aimed at the result and is terminated without compensation upon accomplishment of the task or expiry of the term agreed upon. Most manual and white collar home workers (predominantly women) are under such contracts, which are not covered by labour law nor, in principle, by gender equality law.

The employment of family workers²⁴ (predominantly women) is totally atypical and unpaid. Assisting spouses and close relatives are entitled – not mandatory - to social security (pension, sickness and maternity but not unemployment benefits).

2.1.3. Programmes, campaigns and measures.

As it is reported the issue of “equal pay” has only lately been a central issue of policy due to the priority set by the E.C. the last two years. The Research Centre for Gender Equality (KETHI) is the main organisation carrying out most the relevant projects.

In the framework of the programme *"Equality rights: from legislation to everyday life"*, a 8-pages leaflet with the same title was issued in March 2001 by KETHI in 10.000 copies and has been almost exhausted. It contains a list of all the equality rights (equal pay, equal treatment, protection of maternity, measures for workers with family responsibilities) in a simplified and comprehensive way and the addresses and telephone numbers of trade unions, Labour Inspectorates and the Information and Counselling Centres of KETHI, where legal information and advice can be sought.

In the past two years, in the framework of the programmes *"Equality rights: from legislation to everyday life"* and *"Equal Pay – Mind the Gap"*, run by KETHI within the IV and V Community Action Programmes, training seminars for lawyers on gender equality legislation and jurisprudence (both Community and national) were organised in Athens and the 4 major Greek cities (Thessaloniki, Patras, Heraklion, Volos). The rate of participation was unexpectedly high, the seminars proved to be a success. Moreover, in the framework of the same programme such seminars were organised for labour inspectors in Athens and Thessaloniki.

Moreover, in the framework of the above-mentioned programmes, the Research Centre for Gender Equality (KETHI) has promoted the creation of pilot legal aid schemes for gender equality cases. Since 2000, in close collaboration with the Athens Bar Association, 5 legal aid schemes have been set up within the local Lawyers' Bars in Athens and the 4 major Greek cities (Thessaloniki, Patras, Volos and Heraklion). The aim of this project is to offer free legal advice and representation before the Greek courts of all jurisdictions and instances and the European Court of Justice to women victims of sex discrimination who have not sufficient economic means (not necessarily paupers). However, independently of this condition, cases of general importance ("pilot test cases") can be funded by these legal aid schemes as well, when they involve a disproportionately high cost for the claimant. The interested parties can choose their own lawyer or a lawyer from a list prepared by each Bar who offers free legal services and representation and is paid the minimum fees provided for each jurisdiction and instance directly from the local Bar through KETHI funding. Local lawyers interested in handling equality cases have already been recruited and trained thereto and the first cases have already been taken over. In view of the admitted success of this programme, efforts are made to support and continue the function of the already created legal aid schemes and to encourage and promote the creation of new ones all over Greece.

Moreover, several seminars and conferences have been organised by judges' unions, as well as Universities, lawyers' and bar associations on sex equality and Community social legislation in general, mostly in

²² See Sophia Koukoulis-Spiliotopoulos, Athena Petroglou and Panayota Petroglou, Equality litigation in Greece, op.cit.

²³ Ibid.

²⁴ Ibid.

collaboration with and with the support of the European Commission aimed at judges, lawyers and government officials; the proceedings of several of them were published in books and/or law reviews and they seem to have had a mostly significant impact.

KETHI has prepared a major two-month information campaign within the framework of the community programme “*Equal pay – Mind the gap*”, which will commence in November 2002. The campaign includes TV and radio spots, free “post-cards”, magazine and newspaper advertisements and the operation of a call-centre which will provide information and will guide the applicants to the counselling centres of KETHI for more detailed information.

Also a conference on “equal-pay” within the above-mentioned community programme, will take place as a parallel event of the Greek Presidency of the E.U. from 30 January to 1st of February 2003.

Other measures, implemented the last five years, aiming to promote equal opportunities for women and men in employment:

- Increase the number of public crèches and nurseries and extension of operating hours
- Daylong kindergartens and primary schools
- New Centres of Creative Activities for Children
- Creation of Social Welfare Care Centres for the Elderly
- Favourable treatment of women in job creation schemes (higher amount of subsidy or longer subsidizing period for employers, higher grants to unemployed women willing to start a business of their own);
- Quotas for women in all employability measures, according to their share of unemployment
- Special information and counselling units for unemployed women.
- Specialized training of job counsellors and officers of the Employment Promotion Centres to assist unemployed women
- Financial and technical support to unemployed women willing to start a small business of their own
- Monthly allowance to long-term unemployed over 35 years who take up part-time jobs of at least four hours daily
- Premium of 7.5% on pay of part-timers receiving the minimum hourly wage and working less than four hours daily. The measure is meant to make short part time acceptable to the unemployed and the inactive, especially women.
- Exemption from social security contributions of full-time employees receiving the minimum wage
- Increase of the ceiling, below which income is tax free The ceiling increased by 5% for income obtained in 2001, that is slightly more than inflation during the same year. It rises today to 2.100.000 drs (6,163 Euros). The government recently increased further this ceiling, to 3,500 for the income of 2002.
- Removal of administrative and other barriers to business start up
- Discount of two percentage points in employer social security contributions for workers and newly hired employees receiving up to 200,000 drs.
- Implementation of a programme to combat exclusion from the labour market of single parent families.

2.1.4. Institutions implementing gender equality measures

In Greece there is no Equal Opportunities Commission or similar institutions (e.g. Equality Ombudsman) entitled to defend workers rights under gender equality law.

The General Secretariat for Equality (GSE), which was established in 1985, is the main the government agency responsible for gender equality issues and is supervised by the Ministry for the Interior, Public Administration and Decentralisation. Regarding GSE’s jurisdiction on legislation matters, it constitutes experts’ groups on several issues, reports on the present situation and proposes general guidelines on measures and areas in need of legal change to the competent ministries. GSE suggests regulations and comments on bills, before they are introduced in parliament by the competent ministry. The suggestions and comments may not be taken into consideration.

The control of the application and effectiveness of labour legislation lies with the **Labour Inspectorates** (S.E.P.E.), who is competent to provide information and advice on labour legislation and to supervise and

control of the application of labour legislation, imposing administrative fines provided by equality law and lodging complaints with criminal courts for infringement of labour law. In its first capacity as advisory body, the Labour Inspectorate offers legal (and technical as far as it concerns health and safety regulations) information and advice to any interested party: employers, accountants, trade unionists, lawyers and workers. Especially in the case of workers, the advisory role of Labour Inspectorate is particularly important, not only for information on their rights and obligations derived by labour legislation but in particular as far as it concerns the immediate satisfaction of their claims in the form of out-of-court settlements. Actually, it is mostly to Labour Inspectorates that workers and unions immediately turn in case of problems and in an important number of cases Labour Inspectorates intervene effectively between employers and workers, achieving a peaceful solution of their disputes. However, Labour Inspectorates admittedly suffer from lack of staff and means, limited information and further training on gender equality issues. According to the findings of an investigation carried out in the major Labour Inspectorates of the area of Athens in 1993, Labour Inspectors lack information and expertise on sex equality national and Community law and case law developments: they know the existing Greek equality legislation but not enough on Greek case law and nothing about Community sex equality law and ECJ case law; they are most aware of pregnancy and maternity protection regulations, issues most usually brought before them. Labour Inspectors do not have locus standi to bring cases before civil or administrative courts.

The **Research Centre for Gender Equality (KETHI)** is a legal entity under private law, founded in 1994 and supervised and funded by the General Secretariat for Equality of the Ministry of the Interior, Public Administration and Decentralisation. The basic aim of KETHI's activities is women's advancement in all areas of political, economic and social life, within the framework of the policies defined by the General Secretariat for Equality.

KETHI aims consist in: a) carrying out research and scientific studies on gender equality, b) supporting experimental institutions aiming at women's empowerment, c) providing documentation and information on issues regarding gender equality in all areas of social, political and economic life, d) informing and consulting women wishing to integrate into the labour market, e) supporting women who are subject to male violence, marginalisation and social exclusion, f) informing and advising bodies, agencies, groups, organizations and individuals regarding gender equality, g) undertaking initiatives promoting gender equality, h) planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating projects promoting gender equality in different policy areas, i) organising events, seminars, conferences and public campaigns on gender equality issues and k) raising awareness on gender equality by printing and publishing studies, research and other informative material as well as through the production of audio-visual material.

In this framework, KETHI runs 5 Information and Counselling Centres for Women's Employment and Social Integration in Athens and the 4 major Greek cities Thessaloniki, Patras, Volos and Heraklion with the scope:

- to facilitate the integration and re-integration of women in the labour market
- to promote women's entrepreneurship
- to offer counselling to unemployed women, enabling them to effectively pursue their personal and professional aims
- to provide psychological-social support
- to offer counselling to socially excluded women for their integration or reintegration in the labour market and in the society
- to tackle the causes of social exclusion.

2.2. Wage formation systems

2.2.1. Legal framework of collective bargaining²⁵

The right to collective bargaining is guaranteed by Art. 22(2) of the Greek Constitution²⁶. Moreover, Act 1876/1990 relating to “free collective bargaining” sets the conditions of conclusion, the scope and the legal effect of collective agreements.

Collective agreements are concluded after collective bargaining between unions and employers’ organisations or individual employers and are **legally binding**. They may include workers covered by labour law (i.e. those employed under a private law employment relationship subject to employer’s control), agricultural workers and home workers (*personal scope*) and provide on terms and conditions of employment and social security -except pensions- (*material scope*).

Collective agreements appear in the following categories:

- *national general collective agreements* concluded by the Greek General Confederation of Labour and employers’ national level organisations; they fix obligatory national *minimum* standards for all manual and white collar workers covered by labour law).
- *branch collective agreements* (covering several undertakings which produce the same or similar products in a certain town or region or in the whole country);
- *undertaking/enterprise collective agreements* (covering an undertaking/enterprise);
- *national professional coll. agreements* (covering a certain profession);
- *local professional collective agreements* (covering a profession in a certain town or region)

Branch and professional collective agreements fix minimum standards that bind the member of unions and employers’ organisations or individual employers who have signed them or have adhered thereto. Undertaking collective agreements apply to all workers of the undertaking.

A collective agreement or arbitration decision that binds employers employing at least 51% of the workers of a branch or profession **can be extended by decision of the Minister of Labour to the whole branch or profession**, at the request of the competent union or employers’ organisation. Extension of collective agreements and arbitration decisions is rather common.

If collective bargaining fails to lead to a collective agreement and there is no agreement on mediation or arbitration, one or both parties can have recourse to **mediation and/or arbitration** provided by the law. Mediators and arbitrators constitute a special corps. Arbitration decisions are assimilated to collective agreements in all respects. They can be extended and annulled like collective agreements.

There are no official data on the number or percentage of workers covered by collective agreements. Unionists estimate that about 85% of the total workforce is covered by collective agreements or arbitration decisions, whilst the remaining 15% are covered only by national general collective agreement, i.e. are entitled to only the minimum wages provided thereby.

According to Article 4(4) Act 1876/1990, trade unions are entitled to ask from employers full and exact information and the provision of all data necessary for the facilitation of collective bargaining on the relevant subject-matter and related to the financial and the human resources policy of the undertaking.

Moreover in collective bargaining apply proportionally the provisions of Article 13 Act 1767/1988 on the obligation of employers to inform the Council of workers, before applying their decisions on the following topics:

- change of the legal status of the enterprise
- (complete or partial) transfer, extension or restriction of the undertaking
- introduction of new technology

²⁵ See *Sophia Koukoulis-Spiliotopoulos, Athena Petroglou and Panayota Petroglou*, Equality litigation in Greece, op.cit.; *Panayota Petroglou*, Good practices on reconciling family and working life, op. cit.

²⁶ The general conditions of employment are set by law and are complemented by collective agreements concluded through free negotiations and, in case these fail, by the rules set by arbitration.

- change in the structure of personnel, reduction or increase of the number of workers, temporary suspension or employment rotation
- annual programming of the investments for the centres for health and safety of the enterprise
- programming of eventual overtime employment
- general trends of the enterprise in the financial sector and in the programming of the production
- balance and annual report of the enterprise
- drafting of internal rules of the enterprise, regulation on health and safety, programmes for information on new methods of organisation of the enterprise and use of new technologies, programming of in the job training, continual training and retraining of the personnel, especially after change of technology, control of the presence and the behaviour of the personnel in order to protect the personality of workers and protection from the audiovisual media, programming of leaves, reinstatement of persons incapacitated due to job accident in appropriate posts of employment, programming and control of cultural, recreation and social events.

On the other hand, in the framework of collective bargaining public authorities are obliged to provide trade unions with the necessary information related to the development of national economy as well as data on employment, prices and wages.

2.2.2. Gender equality issues in collective agreements

There are no official data on the degree of union density nor the sex division of unionised workers and of trade unionists involved in collective bargaining. According to a gallop which was ordered by the Greek General Confederation of Labour in April 1997, in a sample of 1.100 workers in the area around Athens, a 35% of the total workforce was found to be unionised, (40% of male and 30% of female workers). However, it seems that there are no women in the top-scale hierarchy of trade unions involved in collective bargaining, even in female dominated sectors, with the exception of very few cases such as the Federation of Private Employees and the trade unions of airhostesses and cosmeticians. Moreover, in the special corps of mediators/arbitrators, out of 23 mediators there are 16 arbitrators of whom 13 are men and 3 women.

This situation is not expected to change in the near future, as there are no legislative or other type of measures to promote a larger proportion of women in decision-making and collective bargaining.

In the framework of collective bargaining, trade unions used to concentrate mainly on monetary issues, such as pay increases and various monetary allowances; some of the latter were aimed to promote maternity protection and reconciling family and working life, such as: child allowances paid by the employer (they are provided for by collective agreements as a percentage of the worker's basic wages), allowances for crèche/nursery services paid by the employer (e.g. in the bank workers collective agreement 160 Euros since 1.1.2002), confinement allowances (e.g. in the bank workers collective agreement 1.084 Euros since 1.1.2002).

On the other hand, non-monetary issues, such as parental leaves and leaves for family reasons do not appear often on the agenda of collective bargaining. At national level such issues appeared for the first time in the 1993 national general collective agreement²⁷ and later in the 2000/2001²⁸ and the 2002/2003²⁹ ones. Nevertheless, the minimum standards for the duration and compensation of such leaves set by generally binding national general collective agreements and legislative provisions are often improved in the framework of sectoral collective bargaining in sectors with very strong trade unions with high participation

²⁷ The 1993 national general collective agreement was considered a big success, because: maternity leave was raised to 16 weeks; parental leave was provided to 3 ½ months for each parent until child is 3 years in private undertakings with at least 50 workers; child care leave (reduced working day) was provided for 2 years after confinement) for mothers/fathers of children under 2 years; employers should avoid the employment of pregnant women in night shifts. Moreover, at any time of the pregnancy, the pregnant worker can ask to be removed to day shift for reasons of health. *The obvious reason of the success of this agreement is that the Greek General Confederation of Labour and the Employers' Confederation representation included women, sensitised in equality issues, who took up the burden of bargaining on such issues.*

²⁸ According to the provisions of the 2000/2001 national general collective agreement: maternity leave was raised to 17 weeks; the right to reduced working hours was extended to adoptive parents of children under 6 years; 2 days paid paternal leave was provided on the event of a child's birth; the unpaid leave for illness of dependent family members was raised to 12 working days per year in case of working parents with more than 3 children.

²⁹ According to the provisions of the 2002/2003 national general collective agreement: the child care leave (reduced working hours with full pay) was prolonged from 2 to 2,5 years after the end of maternity leave; an additional recreation 6 days paid leave was provided for lone parents; a 2 days paid leave was provided on the event of a close relative's death.

of women, such as in the banks (e.g. the 1997-1998 bank sector collective agreement provided for 2 more weeks of maternal leave).

Another example of gender equality friendly provisions in sectoral collective agreements is the declaration of the parties' intention to promote equal opportunities along with the creation of institutional equality committees at sectoral³⁰ and enterprise³¹ level or committees aimed to prevent and combat sexual harassment at the workplace³².

As regards *part-time and atypical employment*, it should be noted that collective agreements may include workers covered by labour law, i.e. those employed under a private law employment relationship subject to employer's control, agricultural workers and home workers. Thus, new forms of work, including telework, fall into the scope of collective agreements to the extent that appear under the same or similar conditions as employment relationship. For the first time the 2000-2001 national general collective agreement provided that independent workers are entitled to the same or proportionate treatment as the rest of the employees, when this is imposed by the conditions under which they render their services. Equal treatment has to be safeguarded mainly in issues of: health and safety, protection from any discrimination based on sex, nationality or race, opinions, minimum age of employment, maternity protection, access to training or retraining, respect of the freedom of unionisation, facilitation of access to the national social security and educational systems.

Moreover, it should be stressed that the 1993 national general collective agreement was the first one to tackle the issue of part time employment, providing for part-timers: the possibility to participate in in-the-job training activities of the undertaking under the same conditions as full-timers, the same social services and equal (proportionate) rights to annual leave, redundancy compensation, monetary supplements and programmes of supplementary social security systems; employment authorities are asked to keep and publish specific lists for posts of part time employment; employers are obliged to inform the representatives of the workers about the number of part-timers compared to the total number of workers and about the perspective of hiring full time workers.

2.2.3. Individual pay agreements

Individual contracts of employment prevail over collective agreements/arbitration decisions and internal rules³³ only if they are more favourable to the worker. For this purpose, the comparison is only allowed on the basis of the total pay (basic wages plus the total of various allowances) and not per element of pay.

Well established Greek case-law, rejects comparisons between workers covered and workers not covered by collective agreement/arbitration decisions, as well as between workers under a private law and workers under a public law employment relationship, even when they perform the same work in the same workplace.

2.3. What's on?

In 1983 the Council of State, reversing its well-established case-law, deprived workers of the locus standi to raise petitions for annulment of collective agreements/arbitration decisions which had proved a most effective remedy. Since then, workers can only bring actions for amounts denied by virtue of an illegal clause in First Instance Civil Court, but the clause remains valid. This is one of the reasons why discriminatory clauses have persisted until recently and discrimination in pay is perpetuated in pensions, as it has happened in the case of sex discriminatory clauses on family allowances of a 1981 arbitration decision covering contractual personnel of public hospitals. This case led to the European Court of Justice judgment of 28.10.1999 (case C-187/98 Commission v. Hellenic Republic), by which the Hellenic Republic was found to have failed to fulfil its obligations under Community law [Article 119 of the EC Treaty, Article 3 of Council Directive 75/117/EEC and Article 4(1) of Council Directive 79/7/EEC] by not abolishing with retroactive effect, from the date of entry into force in Greece of these Community-law provisions, regulations which impose conditions on married female workers which are not imposed on their married male counterparts in respect of the grant to employees of family or marital allowances, allowances which are taken

³⁰ See e.g. sectoral banking collective agreement 1990.

³¹ See e.g. sectoral banking collective agreement 1994-5.

³² See e.g. sectoral insurance collective agreement 1997, 1998.

³³ Internal rules fix personnel status (qualifications, grading, working conditions, promotion, termination of employment). Their legality is reviewed by all courts.

into account in determining their income for purposes of calculating pension rights. In compliance with this ECJ judgement, Article 35 of Act 2956/2001 provided that such discriminatory provisions of any act, decree, ministerial decision, collective agreement or arbitration decision, internal rules or statutes of enterprises and undertakings, as well as any condition of individual employment contracts, are abolished retroactively as of 1.1.1981 if they had detrimental consequences as regards the sum of the pensions paid after 23.12.1984. It was also provided that married women pensioners of state social security schemes could ask for the readjustment of their pensions within 6 months of the coming into effect of this Act; however their right to retroactive pay was limited to the last 5 years prior to the submission of their petition. In fact, this provision did not get the due publicity, thus almost no women were aware and made use of it.

On the contrary, a gender equality issue which attracted wide publicity in the media, was the 15% percentage set for women's access to the police academy in April 2002 and the exemption of pregnant women or women who had recently given birth from access thereto. The European Commission has already initiated infringement proceedings against Greece for this reason.

It should be noted that till very recently, by well established jurisprudence of the Council of State Full Court, quotas impeding access of women to the police academy had been found contrary to the constitutional principle of gender equality and Directive 76/207/EOC. However, 5 recent judgements of the Greek Council of State (No 1850-1855/2002) reversed the above equality friendly jurisprudence, the more so by abstaining from referring the Case to the Council of State Full Court or from submitting a preliminary reference to the European Court of Justice. The latter judgment, in conjunction with the above mentioned quotas in recent announcement of the police academy, have provoked a big concern among women NGOs and human rights activists, who are considering taking action before international institutions.

High publicity attracted also a recent judgment of the Supreme Civil Court (No 245/2002), which ruled that pregnant workers do not have to inform their employer of their pregnancy and their dismissal is null and void irrespective of the employer's knowledge thereof.

A last issue high on the equality agenda is the above mentioned recent legislative provision on women's participation by at least 1/3 of the total number of candidates appearing on each ballot in the elections for the local government councils which will be applied for the first time in the municipal and prefectural elections on 13 October 2002 (Article 75 of Act 2910/2001). Among the male status quo this provision caused reactions of the sort: "*We cannot find any women candidates*" or "*Where are we going to find them?*" or even "*We cannot exclude experienced men to include inexperienced women*", to such extent that the competent Minister of Interior Affairs had to confirm that "the law will be applied"(!) in a conference of the Network of Women Elected in Local Government in March 2002³⁴. However, the importance of increased participation of women in the decision-making centres at local government level is crucial, the more so as the competences of the local government are constantly extending to important fields, such as social, environmental and cultural policy.

³⁴ See *Soula Panaretou*, The legal guarantee of quotas in the local government councils: a fuss or an opportunity for the political/administrative system?, Women's Struggle (O Agonas tis Gynaekas), Hellenic League for Women's Rights, No 72, January-June 2002.

2.4. Labour market statistics, 1993-2000.

2.4.1. Recent trends in labour force

One of the most significant changes observed in the Greek labour market during the period 1993-2000 was the relative high increase of female participation (activity) and employment rates. However, by the end of that period the labour market conditions and the pattern of work for men and women were still quite different.

Between 1993 and 2000, the participation and employment rates of women (2000: 50% and 1993: 42%), despite their significant increase, were still lower than those of men (2000: 77% and 1993: 76%), while at the same time they were among the lowest rates between the Member States of European Union (see, "Employment in Europe 2001"). Women's access to labour market expressed by a relative high growth rate, higher than that of men, while at the same time they managed to have a better performance in placing in new jobs. For each 10 new jobs created during the period 1993-2000, 8 were taken over by women (Table 1).

Table 1. Labour force and employment. National level indicators, 1993 and 2000

	1993			2000		
	All	Women	Men	All	Women	Men
Total population, (000) persons aged 15-64 (P1564)	6733	3474	3258	6876	3536	3339
Labour force, (000) persons aged 15-64 (LF1564)	3952	1471	2481	4330	1757	2573
Labour force, (000) per cent of P1564	58,7	42,3	76,2	63,0	49,7	77,1
Labour force, (000) persons aged 25-64 (LF2564)	3417	1226	2191	3810	1511	2299
Education (per cent of LF2564)						
- primary education (ISCED level 0,1)	46,9	46,7	47,0	32,2	32,0	32,4
- secondary education (ISCED level 2,3,4)	32,8	30,2	34,2	38,3	34,5	40,8
- tertiary education (ISCED level 5,6)	20,4	23,0	18,9	29,5	33,5	26,8
Employment rate (employment /population ratio), EM1564/P1564	53,5	36,4	71,7	55,9	41,3	71,3
Unemployment rate (unemployment/ labour force ratio), 100 x (U1564/LF1564)	8,8	13,9	5,8	11,3	16,9	7,5
Employment, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EM1564)	3603	1266	2337	3840	1460	2381
- in private sector (per cent of EM1564)	77,9	76,3	78,8	78,3	76,6	79,3
- in public sector (per cent of EM1564)	22,1	23,7	21,2	21,7	23,4	20,7
Employment status per cent of EM1564						
- employers and self-employed (per cent of EM1564)	33,4	19,1	41,2	31,3	21,1	37,5
- employees (per cent of EM1564)	54,6	56,4	53,7	59,7	62,5	57,9
- family workers (per cent of EM1564)	11,9	24,5	5,1	9,1	16,3	4,6
- unknown (per cent of EM1564)	-	-	-	-	-	-

Sources: Greek Labour Force Survey 1993-2000

Notes: population in 000s

Unemployment rate was markedly higher for women while the relevant percentage was one of the highest between the Member States of European Union. In 2000, the female unemployment rate reached 16,9%, three percentage points higher in comparison with 1993. A 2,5% was the increase in male unemployment rate at the same period, where in 2000 the rate rose to 7,5%. Over the examined period, women accounted for 2/3 of new cases of unemployment created (unemployment rate 2002bq: 14,6% W and 6,2% M).

The labour force, by the end of the examined period (1993-2000) had higher educational qualifications in comparison with the labour force in 1993. This improvement in educational qualifications was the result of the increase of participation in labour force of those who had acquired a university degree or had completed tertiary educational level (from 20,4% in 1993 to 29,5% in 2000). Women with a third level education degree presented a bigger increase in participation in the labour force than men (women: from 23% in 1993 to 33,5% in 2000 – men: from 18,9% in 1993 to 26,8% in 2000).

In 2000, almost 78% of total employed were working in private sector and the rest 22% were working in public sector. Comparatively less men than women worked in public sector (men: 20,7%, women: 23,4%). The proportions either in total or by sex, between private and public sector did not show significant changes during the examined period. Hence both sectors contributed in the process of creation of new jobs. The private sector, however, contributed relatively more in the creation of new jobs comparing with its participation in total employment (83% of net job increase during the examined period). In the public sector, all the net job creation corresponded to the increase of women's jobs in the sector.

The "employment status" is one more point where working patterns of men and women are still quite different. The number of *employees* increased for both men and women, however, that increase was more intensive for women (percentage change 1993-2000: +6,2% for women and +4,2% for men). In 1993, 1 out of 4 women employed was working as *family worker* without being paid. That proportion was one of the highest in the European Union and despite its decline since the beginning of the examined period, in 2000 was still high (16,3%).

The increase of *self-employed* (with or without employees) women (from 19,1% in 1993 to 21,1% in 2000) appeared at the same period where the importance of self-employment in male employment declined (from 41,2% in 1993 to 37,5% in 2000)³⁵. At the end of the examined period (2000) 1 out of 5 women was self-employed (with or without employees). The relevant proportion in male employment distribution by employment status was 2 out of 5 men.

2.4.2. Recent trends in employees

The main trend observed in the professional status of the employed women during the period 1993 –2000, is the significant decrease of female family workers and the increase of women employees and employers. In 1993 women family helpers were 25% of all women employed in Greece. The decrease of family workers by 23% and the increase of employees and employers/self-employed by 28% and 26% respectively, was a very positive development in female employment. For each 5 new jobs created for employees, the 3 consisted an increase of the employment of women employees (Tables 2 & 3). In 2000, employees were 62,5% of total female employment and 58% of total male employment. Family helpers dropped to 17% of all employed women, including those in agriculture.

In 2000, the composition of employees by educational attainment appeared improved in comparison with 1993. The increase of employees was accompanied with an increase in participation of those who had completed tertiary education and a decline in participation of those who had completed primary education. The number of female employees increased in real terms only for those who had completed tertiary education. The number of male employees increased in real terms mainly for those who had completed tertiary education while a smaller increase appeared in male employees who had completed a secondary educational level.

In 2000, migrants/immigrants³⁶ employees were 5,4% of female employees and 5,8% of male employees, proportions twice higher in comparison with 1993³⁷. The increase in participation of male migrants/immigrants employees during the examined period was slight higher than the increase in participation of female migrants/immigrants employees.

³⁵ This percentage includes the self-employed in agriculture where self-employment is very high (41% of self-employed women work in agriculture and 38% of men) despite the decrease of employment in the sector during the period 1993-2000 (13% less women and 16% less men work in agriculture).

³⁶ Persons that are not Greek citizens.

³⁷ The relevant percentages were calculated using data from EU Labour Force Survey, which underestimate the number of migrants/immigrants in labour force. The improvement of LFS on this subject will be done when the results of 2001 census data are available.

Male employees tend to work on average longer hours than female employees. Women employees have greater participation in part-time jobs than men. In 2000, female employees worked on average 38,3 hours per week, while at the same year male employees worked 41,3 hours per week.

About 10,5% of female employees worked “less than 30 hours per week”, while the same proportion in male employees was 3,6%. Both proportions were higher in 1993 (12,7% for women and 4,8% for men).

On the other hand, the proportions of male and female employees who worked “more than 45 hours per week” increased during the period 1993-2000 (women: from 12,9% to 14,2% and men: from 20,9% to 22,9%).

Table 2. Employees and wages. National level indicators, 2000

	All		Private sector		Public sector	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Employees, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EE1564)	912,6	1378,2	574,2	890,2	338,4	488,0
Employees, (000) persons aged 25-64 (EE2564)	791,0	1238,9	468,8	767,7	322,2	471,2
Education (per cent of EE2564)						
- primary education (ISCED level 0,1)	16,9	23,1	22,1	27,7	9,5	15,7
- secondary education (ISCED level 2,3,4)	36,7	43,3	42,3	46,6	28,5	38,1
- tertiary education (ISCED level 5,6)	46,4	33,6	35,6	25,8	62,0	46,3
Migrants / immigrants among EE1564 (%)	5,4	5,8	8,3	8,8	0,5	0,4
Working time, average EE1564						
- Usual/ contracted working hours per week						
- Actual working hours per week	38,3	41,3	39,8	43,0	35,6	38,4
- - less than 20 hours per week (per cent)	3,1	0,7	3,2	0,6	3,1	1,0
- - less than 30 hours per week (per cent)	10,4	3,6	8,6	2,5	13,3	5,5
- - 45 hours per week or more (per cent)	14,2	22,9	20,8	31,5	3,0	7,4
Employees, per cent of EE1564						
- temporary contracts	15,6	11,5	18,5	14,7	10,8	5,7
- members of unions	29 ⁴¹		23		49	
- covered by collective agreements			85 ³⁸			
Wages EE1564 – all						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x
Wages EE1564 - only full time workers						
- average gross wage rate per hour in services (EURO)			3,76	4,70		
- gender pay gap in services, per cent		x	-20 ³⁹	x		x
- adjusted pay gap in services, per cent				x		
- average gross wage rate per hour in industry (EURO)			3,67	5,3		
- gender pay gap in industry, per cent		x	-31	x		x
- adjusted pay gap in industry, per cent				x		

Sources: Greek Labour Force Survey 1993-2000, ESES 1995

³⁸ All employees, men and women; see page 20.

³⁹ Data ESES 19995; Ntermanakis N., 2002.

Unfortunately there are no reliable data on union density in Greece, especially by occupation and sex. The overall estimation⁴⁰ for all workers for the year 1998 indicates that 29% of employees are unionised. The union density indicator in the public sector it is 49% and it is more than double of the relevant indicator in the private sector, which is 23%.

Table 3. Employees and wages. National level indicators, 1993

	All		Private sector		Public sector	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Employees, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EE1564)	713,5	1255,3	415,4	767,2	298,1	488,1
Employees, (000) persons aged 25-64 (EE2564)	601,4	1112,8	320,4	643,3	281,1	469,5
Education (per cent of EE2564)						
- primary education (ISCED level 0,1)	28,0	35,0	40,9	46,1	13,2	19,7
- secondary education (ISCED level 2,3,4)	37,7	39,9	40,3	38,4	34,7	42,0
- tertiary education (ISCED level 5,6)	34,3	25,1	18,8	15,5	52,1	38,3
Migrants / immigrants among EE1564	2,1	2,2	3,3	3,3	0,4	0,4
Working time, average EE1564						
- Usual/ contracted working hours per week	38,1	41,2	39,8	42,9	35,7	38,5
- Actual working hours per week						
- - less than 20 hours per week (per cent)	3,4	1,1	3,2	0,8	3,8	1,5
- - less than 30 hours per week (per cent)	12,7	4,8	8,7	2,7	18,3	8,1
- - 45 hours per week or more (per cent)	12,9	20,9	19,6	29,1	3,7	8,0
Employees, per cent of EE1564						
- temporary contracts	11,1	10,0	15,1	14,3	5,5	3,4
- members of unions						
- covered by collective agreements						
Wages EE1564 – all						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x
Wages EE1564 - only full time workers						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x

Sources: Greek Labour Force Survey 1993-2000

Notes:

As for the coverage of employees by collective agreements we may assume that this indicator is decreasing both in public and in private sector. This assumption is based on the reform of the status of part of “salaried employment”, either to an idiomorphic “self employment” - the worker is hired by the enterprise or by a subcontractor of the enterprise on a *contract for services*, - or to an employment of limited duration or to illegal and not insured and registered employment (migrants, women and youth).

Women employees had a greater participation than men employees in jobs with limited duration. In 2000, 15,6% of female employees was working in a job under a temporary contract, while the corresponding proportion for men employees was 11,5%. The number of employees who worked under a temporary contract increased for both men and women during the period 1993-2000. That increase was bigger for women. One out of every 3 new women’s jobs and 1 out of every 4 men’s jobs was of limited duration.

⁴⁰ This percentage refers to all employees men and women, data 1998, Palaiologos N., “From tradition... to the need of reform: critical thoughts on the structure and functioning of the Greek trade union’s movement”, to be published in the Labour Yearbook 2002, Institute of Urban Environment and Human Resources, Panteion University, Athens.

The employees working on limited duration contracts have increased far more in the public sector than in the private sector. The relevant increase for women on fixed term contracts, during the examined period, was 96% in the public sector and 23% in the private sector. Men on limited duration employment contracts increased in the public sector by 68% and in the private sector just 3%.

Table 4. Female employees 1993 and 2000

<i>ISCO-88 OCCUPATION</i>	<i>1993</i>	<i>2000</i>	<i>Distribution 2000</i>	<i>Change 93-00</i>
10 Armed forces	3,799	2,961	0,3%	-22%
110 Legislators and senior officials	0,397	0,220	0,0%	-44%
120 Corporate managers	2,691	9,080	1,0%	237%
130 General managers	1,309	0,904	0,1%	-31%
210 Physical, mathematical and engineering science professionals	7,053	10,827	1,2%	53,5%
220 Life science and health professionals	14,636	14,897	1,6%	2%
230 Teaching professionals	93,761	114,400	12,5%	22,0%
240 Other professionals	24,265	35,597	3,9%	47%
310 Physical and engineering science associate professionals	10,086	12,350	1,3%	22%
320 Life science and health associate professionals	26,615	39,729	4,3%	49%
330 Teaching associate professionals	2,364	4,653	0,5%	97%
340 Other associate professionals	25,947	55,975	6,1%	116%
410 Office clerks	162,507	203,853	22,3%	25%
420 Customer services clerks	26,905	40,537	4,4%	51%
510 Personal and protective services workers	64,846	89,358	9,8%	38%
520 Models, salespersons and demonstrators	53,959	86,180	9,4%	60%
610 Market-oriented skilled agricultural and fishery workers	4,572	3,807	0,4%	-17%
710 Extraction and building trades workers	2,034	2,603	0,3%	28%
720 Metal, machinery and related trades workers	2,115	1,981	0,2%	-6%
730 Precision, handicraft, printing and related trades workers	4,915	5,105	0,6%	4%
740 Other craft and related trades workers	72,908	46,484	5,1%	-36%
810 Stationary-plant and related operators	1,834	1,658	0,2%	-10%
820 Machine operators and assemblers	17,435	20,043	2,2%	15%
830 Drivers and mobile-plant operators	0,776	1,120	0,1%	44%
910 Sales and services elementary occupations	72,255	98,015	10,7%	36%
920 Agricultural, fishery and related labourers	4,024	3,226	0,4%	-20%
930 Labourers in mining, construction, manufacturing and transport	11,699	10,410	1,1%	-11,0%
Total women	715,707	915,974	100,0%	28%

According to data of 1995 (ESES) the gender wage gap⁴¹ in services (private sector) was 20% for full time employees. The relevant gap in industry it was 31%.

2.4.3. Employees in private and public sector

As mentioned above, during the period 1993-2000, for each 5 new jobs created (net change) for employees, 3 of them correspond to equivalent increase of women employees. Private sector created nearly 87% of new jobs for employees, of whom 56% were women's jobs and 44% men's. Public sector created the remaining 13% of new jobs for employees and all of them were women's jobs (net change).

The educational qualifications of employees in the public sector were relatively higher than those of employees in the private sector. In 2000, 62% of women employees and 46,3% of men employees in the public sector had completed tertiary educational level, while in private sector the same level of education had been completed by the 35,6% of women employees and the 25,8% of men employees. During the period in question, both sectors presented an increase in jobs for employees with a university degree. That increase was more intensive in the private sector. In both sectors the increase in participation of female employees

⁴¹ Estimated on average gross wage per hour, overtime payments excluded.

with a university degree to employment was greater than the increase in participation of male employees with a university degree.

A significant decrease occurred in private sector in the participation of employees with primary educational level, while a small decline appeared in participation of employees with secondary educational level. In public sector, the decrease in participation of employees with primary educational level was smaller than in private sector, while there was also a decrease in participation of employees with a secondary educational level.

3. Three target occupations

3.0. Introduction

In order to make comparisons of pay systems and gender pay gap at the European level, three specific occupations were selected. The first target occupation is teachers, or more precisely, “*secondary education teaching professionals*” (defined with code 232 in the ISCO-88 COM classification and code 80 in the NACE Rev. 1 classification). The second target occupation is manual workers in the food and drink processing industries or more precisely, “*manufacturing labourers in food and drink processing industries*” (defined with code 932 in the ISCO-88 COM classification and code 15 in the NACE Rev. 1 classification). The third target occupation is engineers or more precisely, “*physical, mathematical and engineering professionals*” (defined with code 21 in the ISCO-88 COM classification).

3.1. Secondary education teaching professionals

The occupation of teaching professionals, in all educational levels in 2000, is one of the most important occupations in female employment and is equivalent to 12,5 per cent of women employees. It is the second biggest occupational group of women after office clerks.

Secondary education teaching professionals (teachers) were about 80.000 persons or 2,1% of total employment. Women accounted 57% of total employed in this occupational group. The significance of this occupational group was greater in female employment, (3,1% of total female employment and 1,5% of male employment). Nearly all the employed of this occupational group were employees, while 9 out of 10 were working in public sector.

Between 1993 and 2000, the employment growth rate was 16,6%. The employment growth rate of female employees was higher than the rate of male employees (17,5% than 15,4%).

Migrants accounted for less than 1% of total employment in the occupational group. Only in private sector the participation of migrants in employment was higher (more than 3% for both men and women).

The average working time per week, in 1993 and in 2000, was nearly the same for men and women (27 hours). In 1993, men and women, in private and public sector, had the same average working time per week. However, by the end of the examined period, in the private sector, the average working time of men increased by 2 hours a week, while at the same period the average working time of women decreased by 2 hours per week.

Table 5. Secondary education teaching professionals, key figures 2000

ISCO-88 (COM): 232 - NACE: 80

	All		Private sector		Public sector	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Employment, persons aged 15-64 (EM1564)	45,9	35,1	2,9	3,7	43,0	31,4
Employees, persons aged 15-64 (EE1564)	45,5	34,3	2,6	3,2	42,9	31,1
Employees, persons aged 25-64 (EE2564)	45,4	34,3	2,6	3,2	42,8	31,1
Migrants / immigrants among EE1564 (per cent)	0,8	0,5	0	0	0,8	0,6
Working time, average EE1564						
- Usual/ contracted working hours per week	⁴²					
- Actual working hours per week	27,0	27,5	25,3	28,9	27,1	27,4
- - less than 20 hours per week (per cent)	11,5	8,0	10,4	2,1	11,6	8,7
- - less than 30 hours per week (per cent)	45,0	46,5	56,9	44,9	44,3	46,7
- - 45 hours per week or more (per cent)	1,5	2,6	0,0	0,0	1,6	2,9
Employees, per cent of EE1564						
- temporary contracts	8,5	4,9	20,9	8,1	7,8	4,6
- members of unions			13 ⁴³		52 ⁴⁴	52
- covered by collective agreements			n.a ⁴⁵	n.a	100	100
Wages EE1564 – all						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x
Wages EE1564 - only full time workers						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x

Sources: NSSG, Labour Force Survey 1993-2000

In Greece 7,2 per cent⁴⁶ of schools of general secondary and technical secondary education are private. The contracted working time (teaching - in the classroom) for full-time teachers, both in public and in private sector, is about 20 hours for men and women.

The following table shows the minimum contracted teaching hours (in classroom) according to the collective agreements of the teachers' federations of secondary education. The working time of teachers in the school may be extended up to 30 hours per week for administrative and other non-educational duties (which is the usual working time for teachers in private schools). The contracted time decreases according to seniority.

Table 6. Minimum teaching hours per week for full time teachersPublic schools

Gymnasium and Lyceum

16 to 21 hours according to seniority

⁴² See page 34 "Table 6. Minimum teaching hours per week for full time teachers"⁴³ This percentage refers to all employees, men and women and in all levels of private schools and institutions.⁴⁴ Source: Federation of Secondary School Teachers of Greece. A teacher is considered unionised if he/she has paid his/her annual contribution to the union and has the right to vote.⁴⁵ Not covered by collective agreements: a) "self-employment status" of employment as "the contract for services", which is aimed at the result and is terminated without compensation upon accomplishment of the task or expiry of the term agreed upon plus not providing social insurance and b) with no contract at all, not registered employment.⁴⁶ Data 1998/1999, Education Section National Statistical Service of Greece.

Private schools and "frontistiria"

Private schools	18 to 21 hours according to seniority
"frontistiria" ⁴⁷	21 hours
Foreign language "teaching centres"	18 hours
Vocational Training Institutes	18 hours

The average working time per week in this occupational group was shorter in comparison with the most of the rest occupational groups. In 2000, 45% of female and 46,5% of male employed in this occupational group used to work "less than 30 hours per week". About the same were the percentages for both men and women in private and in public sector.

In private sector, women presented greater participation than men in jobs with average working time per week "less than 30 hours" (57% than 45%), while in jobs with average working time "less than 20 hours", women also showed greater participation than men in both sectors, public and private sector.

The participation of women in jobs with limited duration (temporary contracts) was more significant than that of men. In 2000, 8,5% of women and 4,9% of men of the target occupation were working in jobs with limited duration. This was more intensive in female employment in the private sector where 1 out of 5 women (21%), were working in jobs with limited duration. In the public sector almost 8% of women worked on limited duration contracts.

However, the pattern of male employment in the private sector has changed after 1993. Almost 1 out of 5 men had a limited contract in private sector in 1993. By the end of the examined period (1993-2000) the employment of men increased and the jobs that were created were not of limited duration.

On the other hand the number of female employees decreased in private sector, while at the same time a great part of the jobs that remained were converted into jobs with limited duration. It is important to note at this point that the share of private sector employment for women teachers dropped during the period examined from 8% to 6%, while men's increased from 8% to 9% of total male employment of employees.

As reported from the representative of the Federation of Secondary School Teachers of Greece (OLME) in the reference group of this study, women consist 56% of teachers in secondary public schools. Their participation defers according to the type of school. They are 65% of the teaching staff in Gymnasiums, 48% of teachers in Lyceums and 44% of the teachers of Technical Vocational Schools.

⁴⁷ Private afternoon and evening "university exams" preparatory schools.

Table 7. Secondary education teaching professionals, key figures 1993

ISCO-88 (COM): 232 - NACE: 80

	All		Private sector		Public sector	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Employment, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EM1564)	39,1	30,4	5,4	3,8	33,7	26,5
Employees, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EE1564)	37,7	28,7	4,1	2,2	33,6	26,4
Employees, (000) persons aged 25-64 (EE2564)	36,5	28,5	3,1	2,2	33,3	26,3
Migrants / immigrants among EE1564 (per cent)	1,0	0,5	3,5	3,2	0,7	0,3
Working time, average EE1564						
- Usual/ contracted working hours per week						
- Actual working hours per week	26,9	27,2	27,1	27,1	26,8	27,2
- - less than 20 hours per week (per cent)	14,7	13,1	22,7	16,5	13,8	12,8
- - less than 30 hours per week (per cent)	59,4	57,3	56,8	61,7	59,7	56,9
- - 45 hours per week or more (per cent)	1,9	2,0	5,3	1,4	1,4	2,1
Employees, per cent of EE1564						
- temporary contracts	6,4	5,1	12,6	23,1	5,6	3,5
- members of unions						
- covered by collective agreements						
Wages EE1564 – all						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x
Wages EE1564 - only full time workers						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x

Sources: NSSG, Labour Force Survey 1993-2000

Women and men teachers in public secondary schools participate at the same extent in their trade unions, by 52%. The 84 unions of teachers of secondary public schools are the members of the Federation of Secondary School Teachers of Greece. Women constitute 17% of the members of the administrative boards of the teachers unions and they are not represented in the administrative board of the federation (11 members, all men).

In the private sector, as reported from the representative of the Federation of Private School Teachers of Greece (OIELE) the rate of unionisation is 13% for all teachers in all educational levels. Women constitute 27% of the administrative board of the federation - 3 women and 8 men - and their representation in the unions is as follows:

Table 8. Members of Unions of Private School Teachers

Unions of Private School Teachers	Members of the unions (%)		Members of the administrative boards	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Attiki and rest of Greece	68	32	4	7
Northern Greece	63	37	2	5
Patras	60	40	1	4
Herakleion	80	20	1	4
Ioannina	65	35	0	5
Thessalia	58	42	6	1
Hellenic American Educational Foundation / Psychiko	26	74	0	7
Pierce College	54	46	1	4
German speaking teachers of German School	91	9	4	1
American Community School	65	35	5	2
"Frontistiria" of Athens	54	46	1	6
"Frontistiria" of Thessaloniki	50	50	3	4

Both the teacher's federations of public and private schools, OLME and OIELE, negotiate centrally with the Ministry of Education, their wage increase and working conditions. Law defines wages of teachers in public education. The same law also applies to all collective agreements in the private sector of education, including all benefits and allowances of the public teachers, as a minimum standard.

In public sector of secondary education the teachers may have permanent duration contracts or limited duration contracts. The permanent teachers are employed at first for a two-year trial period at the end of which, they are considered permanent civil servants. The substitute teachers, on contracts of limited duration are employed from the day of recruitment till the end of the school year (maximum 9 months). In public schools temporary teachers, who work up to 10 hours per week, are remunerated on an hourly wage basis.

In private schools teachers are employed at first for a two-year trial period, at the end of which, the teachers may be dismissed at a percentage of 100%. If they are not dismissed, their contracts are renewed for four years. At the end of this period (6 years of service in total) the school may dismiss 33% of this category of teachers. If they are not dismissed they automatically have the status of a permanent employee.

Teachers in "frontistiria", foreign language teaching centres and Vocational Training Institutes may be employed on nine-month contracts or less if they are hired later than the opening of the schools.

Permanent public schools teacher's wages are defined legally and depend on qualifications, seniority and administrative position, so there is no real ground for the development of a significant gender wage gap. Any average wage differences, for men and women of this category of teachers, could be attributed to the fact that male teachers occupy almost all the high administrative positions.

The same could be assumed for permanent teachers in private schools but this allegation is rather infirm, as a bonus system exists, the stronger bargaining capability of men, the significant proportion of women working on fixed term contracts and the high unemployment rate of teaching professionals.

The federation of the private school's teachers states that women teachers are some times obliged not to use their rights in case of pregnancy and maternity, in order to renew their temporary contracts.

As stated, the biggest problem in the employment of teachers is the capability of private schools, especially the 'frontistiria', to repeatedly dismiss the teachers, the use of means to interpret salaried employment to self-employment and the lack of sufficient mechanism for the application of labour legislation.

3.2. Manufacturing labourers in food & drink processing industries

Manufacturing of food products and beverages is a highly expanding industry in Greece. The employment growth in all occupations and professional categories of the sector was 18% the period 1993 – 2000. Employees increased by 25% in all occupations, family workers by 13% and employers increased by 10%⁴⁸. Women corporate managers increased by 375% and they consisted in 2000 25% of all managers, from 14% in 1993.

In 2000, manufacturing labourers in food and drink processing industries were 5.100 (Table 9). This number is quite small in order to be considered as statistical reliable. This is a limitation for the analysis of data concerning this occupational group. Thus, the following results should be considered only as an indicator of the employment conditions and pattern of work in this occupational group.

All employees of the occupational group in concern were working for the private sector. Although overall employment in the occupation of manufacturing labourers in food processing industries decreased by 6% during the examined period, the employment of salaried workers in the occupation increased by 4%. This change corresponds to an increased of women workers by 44% and a decrease of men workers by 38%. The occupation of unskilled manufacturing labourers in food processing industries from a male dominated occupation in 1993 (52%) becomes a female dominated. Over 70% of workers were women in 2000, while 1 out of 5 male workers were migrants (Tables 9 and 10).

Table 9. Manufacturing labourers in food processing industries, key figures 2000

ISCO-88 (COM): 932 - NACE: 15

	All		Private sector		Public sector	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Employment, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EM1564)	3,6	1,5	3,6	1,5	0	0
Employees, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EE1564)	3,6	1,5	3,6	1,5	0	0
Employees, (000) persons aged 25-64 (EE2564)	3,1	1,1	3,1	1,1	0	0
Migrants / immigrants among EE1564 (per cent)	0,0	18,3	0,0	18,3	-	-
Working time, average EE1564						
- Usual/ contracted working hours per week	40	40	40	40	-	-
- Actual working hours per week	40,7	41,0	40,7	41,0	-	-
- - less than 20 hours per week (per cent)	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	-	-
- - less than 30 hours per week (per cent)	3,0	0,0	3,0	0,0	-	-
- - 45 hours per week or more (per cent)	22,9	17,8	22,9	17,8	-	-
Employees, per cent of EE1564						
- temporary contracts	36,3	22,9	36,3	22,9	-	-
- members of unions	20-25	20-25	20-25	20-25		
- covered by collective agreements						
Wages EE1564 – all						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)	3,17 ⁴⁹	3,63	3,17	3,63	-	-
- gender pay gap	-13	x	-13	x		x
Wages EE1564 - only full time workers						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)	2,96	3,64	2,96	3,64	-	-
- gender pay gap	-19	x	-19	x	-	x

Sources: NSSG, Labour Force Survey 1993-2000

⁴⁸ Data source: LFS, Eurostat.

⁴⁹ ESES Data, 1995, over-time payments excluded.

The average working time per week, in 2000, was nearly 41 hours for both men and women, the same as in 1993. The distribution of employment according to working time per week showed that only a small part of employees in the occupational group was working “less than 30 hours per week”, while a relative high proportion for both men and women (1 out of 5) was working “more than 45 hours per week”. During the period examined women workers that were working more than 45 hours per week increased by 8,5% while men decreased by 5,8%.

Relative widespread were the jobs on limited duration contracts. In 1993, 1 out of 4 women were working in a job with a fixed term contract. In 2000, the proportion increased to 1 out of 3 women. The relative men’s proportion was stable during the examined period (1 out of 5 men was working in jobs with fixed term contracts).

As presented in table 9, women’s average wage rate per hour (overtime payments excluded) was 13 per cent less than men’s average wage for all workers. For full time workers the gender wage gap was even bigger reaching a 19 per cent difference.

Table 10. Manufacturing labourers in food processing industries, key figures 1993

ISCO-88 (COM): 932 - NACE: 15

	All		Private sector		Public sector	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Employment, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EM1564)	2,6	2,8	2,6	2,8	0	0
Employees, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EE1564)	2,5	2,4	2,5	2,4	0	0
Employees, (000) persons aged 25-64 (EE2564)	2,1	1,9	2,1	1,9	0	0
Migrants / immigrants among EE1564 (per cent)	2,9	0,0	2,9	0,0	-	-
Working time, average EE1564						
- Usual/ contracted working hours per week					-	-
- Actual working hours per week	41,4	41,2	41,4	41,2		
- - less than 20 hours per week (per cent)	0,0	1,5	0,0	1,5	-	-
- - less than 30 hours per week (per cent)	0,0	4,5	0,0	4,5	-	-
- - 45 hours per week or more (per cent)	21,1	18,9	21,1	18,9	-	-
Employees, per cent of EE1564						
- temporary contracts	25,8	21,6	25,8	21,6	-	-
- members of unions						
- covered by collective agreements						
Wages EE1564 – all						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x
Wages EE1564 - only full time workers						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x

Sources: Greek Labour Force Survey 1993-2000

As reported from the representative of the Panhellenic Federation of Workers in Milk, Food products and Beverages in the reference group of the study, the unionisation rate of employees in the sector is between 20 and 25 per cent. The unionised workers are employed mostly in big national and multinational firms. The majority of workers, who work in small firms, are not unionised. The workers are unionised in a percentage close to 100% in all firms that a union exists, irrespective of sex. There are also many big firms where the workers have not established unions. The unions of the sector are organised in 15 different federations. In order from the federations they are grouped either by similar products, by region or by relevant profession/sector. Some unions do not participate in any federation.

The members of the 31 unions of the Panhellenic Federation of Workers in Milk, Food products and Beverages are 80% men and 20% women. In the administrative boards of the unions the elected members are 92% men and 8% women. The Presidents of the 31 unions are 29 men and 2 women. The representatives in the federation are 103 men and 3 women. All members of the administrative board of the federation are men. According to LFS statistics women consist 34% of all employees in the sector of manufacturing of food products and beverages.

The following table presents more detailed data on the participation and the representation of women in the unions of one federation of the sector.

Table 11. Members of Unions of of Panhellenic Federation of Workers in Milk, Food products and Beverages

Unions of Panhellenic Federation of Workers in Milk, Food products and Beverages	Members of the unions		Members of the administrative boards	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Union of Dairy, milk pasteurisation , Attiki and Viotia	44	62	0	5
Workers Union "PROTO", Patras	7	43	0	7
Union of Milk "DODONI", Ioannina	70	189	1	6
Union of Milk, Lamia	2	23	0	5
Union of cheesemakers, Trikala	0	67	0	6
Union of cheesemakers, Ellassona	9	140	0	7
Workers Union "EVGA"	16	119	0	7
Union of cheesemakers, Almyros	2	23	0	5
Union of Milk, Trikala	8	52	0	5
Union "PEPSICO-IVI", Athens	26	174	2	7
Workers Union "COCA COLA"	54	292	0	7
Workers Union "KNORR"	35	45	4	3
Union of Beer, Beverages-Food, Attika Prefecture and the Islands	35	61	0	7
Union "PEPSICO-IVI" of Loutraki	13	56	0	7
Union of distilleries and can products, Lesbos Island	17	17	2	5
Workers Union "KOURTAKI"	29	97	0	9
Workers Union "VELK", Kerkyra	6	28	1	4
Workers Union "FAGE"	7	43	0	7
Workers Union "ACHAIA KLAOUS"	23	52	1	6
Workers Union "NESTLE"	21	103	0	5
Workers Union "TASTY FOODS"	98	95	1	5
Workers Union "METAXA"	19	51	0	4
Workers Union "PAVLIDI"	78	82	2	5
Brewery Workers Union, Northern Greece	2	85	0	7
Union of salespersons and drivers "COCA-COLA"	0	112	0	7
Union of salespersons and drivers "AMSTEL"	0	37	0	7
Workers Union "AMSTEL"	58	387	0	7
Workers Union "GAIA THRAKIS"	10	16	1	5
Workers Union "MEVGAL"	0	43	0	5
Workers Union "VATHYPETROU"	21	49	0	6
Workers Union "PAKO HELLAS"	5	43	1	6

Wages are set by national general collective agreements, branch collective agreements, national professional collective agreements, and local or enterprise agreements.

In nine of the above-mentioned firms a bonus system exists for the permanent employees. In 8 firms all employees receive a bonus payment, while in one firm the bonus is given to some workers, based on “special” criteria.

The Federation’s representative reported that many jobs which were performed, till recent years by blue collar workers, are now done by the personnel of subcontractors. This personnel does not belong to the firm’s staff or to the unions and it is estimated to be 20% of all employment in the sector. The majority of these workers are immigrants and they work without contracts (they work on piecemeal or they are at the disposal of the subcontractor for job vacancies). The ones that are registered are paid according to minimum wages of the national general collective agreement and are employed on fixed term contracts. The workers of certain sub-occupations are hired on a “contract for services” which is considered as self-employment. The federation’s representative considers this situation as the main problem of the sector, because the relevant social insurance fees are not paid and so the national insurance funds lose great recourses, these workers are not insured, no income taxes is paid by the unregistered workers and the permanent workers’ jobs are in risk. Mothers with young children who are employed under these statuses lose all the relevant benefits. The lack of sufficient mechanism for the application of labour legislation was noted.

3.3. Employed in physical, mathematical and engineering professions

In 2000, the employed persons in physical, mathematical and engineering professions (engineers) were 73.400 or 1,9% of total employment (Table 12 & Table 13). The number of employed in this occupational group has presented a great potential during the last decade, as a result of the growth in economic activity mainly in the construction sector (Major projects through the second and third Community Support Framework (CSF) and projects for the Athens 2004 Olympic Games).

Female employment in this occupational group was quite limited, since 78,6% of all employed were men. At the same time the employed included in this group by sex, had greater participation in total male employment rather than in total female employment (2,4% in male employment than 1,1% in female employment).

During the last years, however, there was a considerable potential in female employment in this occupational group. The growth rate of female employment was greater than that of male employment. From 1993 to 2000 female employment increased by 47% while male employment increased by 30%. The difference in growth rate was even bigger for employees (1993-2000: 54% in female employees than 25% in male employees).⁵⁰

⁵⁰During the examined period In Greece, the growth rate of female employment in technical occupations was high and even higher in comparison with most European countries. For more information see: (2000) Nikos E. Ntermanakis, “Report on trends of female employment in technical occupations in Germany, Greece, Finland, France and United Kingdom”, P.A.C. Leonardo Da Vinci, Research Centre for Gender Equality.

Table 12. Physical, mathematical and engineering professionals, key figures 2000

ISCO-88 (COM): 21

	All		Private sector		Public sector	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Employment, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EM1564)	15,7	57,7	11,4	44,6	4,3	13,1
Employees, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EE1564)	10,8	31,2	6,5	18,3	4,3	12,9
Employees, (000) persons aged 25-64 (EE2564)	9,9	30,6	5,5	17,9	4,3	12,7
Migrants / immigrants among EE1564 (per cent)	5,9	1,5	7,1	2,5	4,0	0,0
Working time, average EE1564						
- Usual/ contracted working hours per week			40	40	37,5	37,5
- Actual working hours per week	39,4	41,0	40,5	42,2	37,8	39,4
- - less than 20 hours per week (per cent)	1,6	0,0	2,7	0,0	0,0	0,0
- - less than 30 hours per week (per cent)	3,2	0,0	2,7	0,0	4,0	0,0
- - 45 hours per week or more (per cent)	7,9	9,8	13,2	15,2	0,0	2,2
Employees, per cent of EE1564						
- temporary contracts	14,0	2,0	12,3	3,5	16,7	0,0
- members of unions						
- covered by collective agreements			n.a.	n.a.	100	100
Wages EE1564 – all						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x
Wages EE1564 - only full time workers						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x

Sources: Greek Labour Force Survey 1993-2000

In 2000, 3 out of 4 employed in this occupational group were working in the private sector. The same proportion in 1993 was 2 out of 3 employed. This change occurred because the total increase of employment in the examined occupational group appeared in private sector while the employment in public sector –even marginally – decreased. During the examined period, 1 out of 4 new jobs created in the private sector went to women. That proportion was higher than the participation of women in the employment of the occupation (1 out of 5 employed were women).

In 1993, the participation of migrants in the employment of the selected occupational group was 4% of male employees and 1% of female employees. In 2000, the participation of male migrants decreased to 1,5%, while the participation of female migrants reached 5,9%. This trend in female employment was evident in both, private and public sector. In the private sector the participation of female migrants reached in 2000 7,1% and in the public sector the participation reached 4%.

In 2000, the average working time per week of women was 39,4 hours, while the average working time of men was 41 hours per week. Working time increased for both men and women during the examined period (1993-2000). However, that increase was more significant among female employees.

In the private sector the average working time per week was longer reaching 40,5 hours for women and 42,2 hour for men employees. On the other hand, in public sector the average working time per week was shorter, while it did not actually change during the examined period.

Table 13. Physical, mathematical and engineering professionals, key figures 1993
ISCO-88 (COM): 21

	All		Private sector		Public sector	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
Employment, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EM1564)	10,7	44,5	6,7	30,4	4,0	14,1
Employees, (000) persons aged 15-64 (EE1564)	7,0	24,9	3,1	11,1	3,9	13,8
Employees, (000) persons aged 25-64 (EE2564)	6,6	24,6	2,7	11,0	3,9	13,6
Migrants / immigrants among EE1564 (per cent)	1,0	4,0	2,3	8,3	0,0	0,5
Working time, average EE1564						
- Usual/ contracted working hours per week						
- Actual working hours per week	38,5	40,4	39,4	42,0	37,9	39,1
- - less than 20 hours per week (per cent)	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0	0,0
- - less than 30 hours per week (per cent)	4,1	0,9	4,6	1,3	3,7	0,5
- - 45 hours per week or more (per cent)	2,5	9,0	5,6	15,3	0,0	3,9
Employees, per cent of EE1564						
- temporary contracts	7,6	1,7	9,3	1,8	6,3	1,6
- members of unions						
- covered by collective agreements						
Wages EE1564 – all						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x
Wages EE1564 - only full time workers						
- average gross wage rate per hour (EURO)						
- gender pay gap		x		x		x

Sources: Greek Labour Force Survey 1993-2000

Notes:

After the analysis of working time per week by sex it can be said that the most significant changes in working time appeared in female employees and especially in female employees who were working in private sector. In 2000, the proportion of women who were working “more than 45 hours per week” was 7,9%, while the same proportion in 1993 was 2,5%. The distribution of male employees in the examined bands of working time remained relatively the same during the period in question.

At the same period there was a significant increase in jobs with limited duration (temporary contracts). The new jobs with limited duration that were created, mainly concerned an increase of women employees (in 2000, the proportion of female employees who were working in a job with a limited contract was 14% from 3,5% in 1993 and in comparison with the 2% of male employees). A significant increase also occurred in jobs with limited duration for female employees in the public sector (from 6,3% in 1993 to 16,7% in 2000).

We may assert that the significant increase in jobs with limited duration is directly linked to new jobs on “contract of services”, which are considered as self-employment and are very common in this occupation. As a result to this widespread type of employment, the career prospects of women and the advancement in position is limited, the relevant social insurance fees are not paid by the employer, the income tax is much higher and mothers employed under this status, lose all the relevant benefits.

The wages of permanent employees in the public sector are defined by the professional collective agreements and depend on qualifications, seniority and administrative position, so there is no real ground for the development of a significant wage differences between men and women.

According to statistical data drawn from the registration catalogues of the Technical Chamber of Greece, there were in year 2000 84.305 engineers in total of whom 18.6% were women. The gender percentage distribution of Greek Engineers by specialisation overtime is clearly depicted in “Figure 3” The gender distribution by special field of engineering science shows an explicit picture of the preferences that are perhaps still based on traditional stereotypes (see Figure 4).

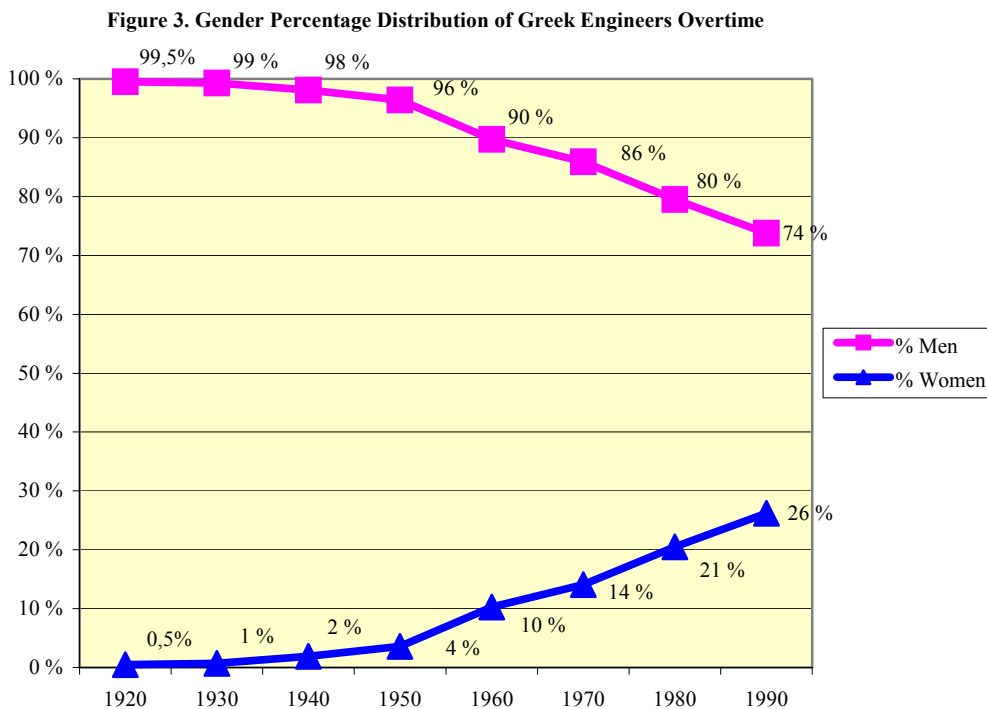
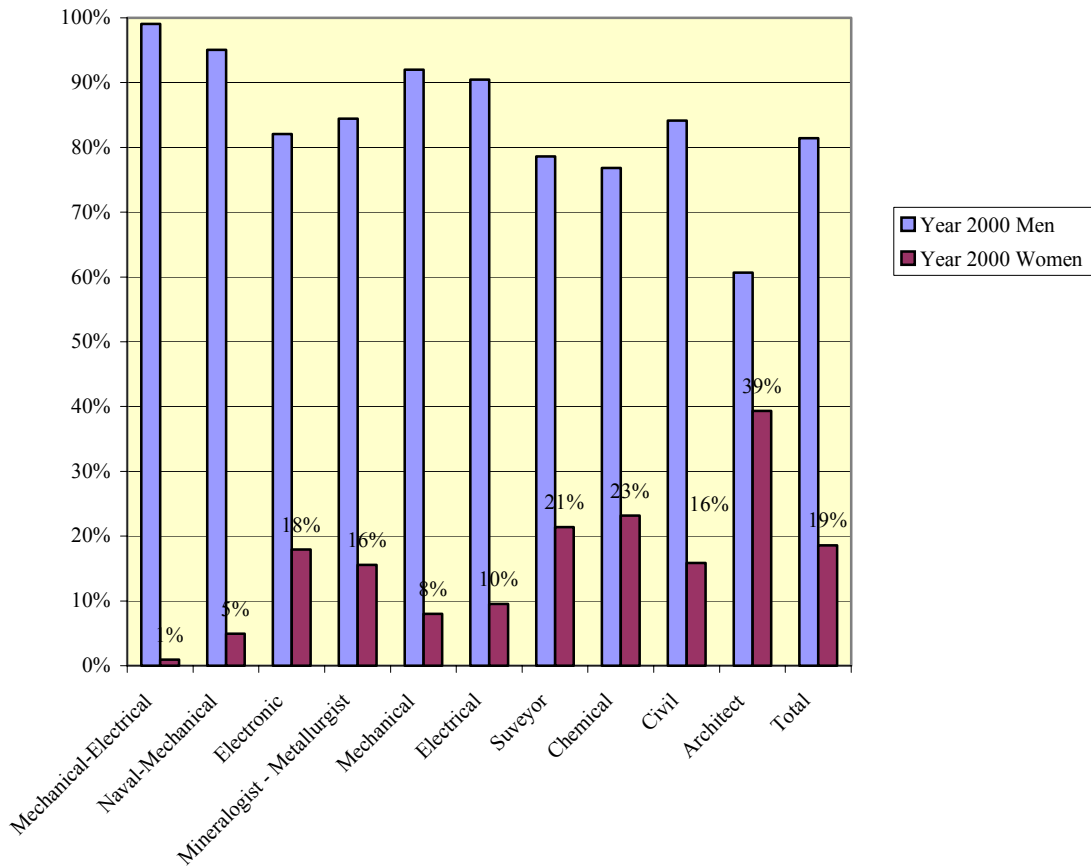


Figure 4. Gender percentage distribution of Greek Engineers by field of Specialisation, 2000



Source: Technical Chamber of Greece, 2002.

4. The case study

Purpose of the study, research tools, criteria fulfilment and constraints

The purpose of the present fieldwork, conducted at several workplaces, is the investigation of the overall situation and the working conditions that prevail at different working places engaging personnel of the three target occupations of the case study: a. Teaching Associate Professionals, b. Food Processing Workers, c. Engineering Professionals. The main objective of the fieldwork is the “de-codification” of the formal and informal mechanisms and procedures that formulate the employment conditions within companies and organisations. The effort to rough out a picture of the gender pay gap that emerges at multiple working places and occupations needs to be done through the recording of all aspects concerning conditions at work. The collection and comparison of harmonised national statistical data does not fully depict the reality that occurs into the labour market in each country. The completion of the study, therefore, with a qualitative survey instrument is a considerable part, since it puts an extra added value in describing actual conditions at work that perhaps cannot be picket up by quantitative large-scale research.

Taking into account the institutional and legislative framework as well as the labour market conditions at the national level concerning the three specific target occupations chosen for the study, research tools have been designed in the context of the programme’s transnational partnership. In addition, local adjustments have been made aiming at a better fitting of the fieldwork at the national and local circumstances and particularities. Moreover, other research and studies related to the issue of the present project and run by women’s organisations and scholars have been considered and mentioned, as they add lots of observations that were difficult to be captured within the present small-scale qualitative research.

The research tools have been designed in a sense to incorporate issues of the internal organisation of work, the system of contracts, the wage formation regulations, the system and promotion perspectives, the management and administrative approaches and the ideas of companies’ management related to the gender composition of the companies’ staff and other relevant issues. Hence, the picture that can be derived by the fieldwork will illustrate not only probable wage differentials but also the comprehensive and in detail grasp of the situation concerning both sexes at work in the companies and schools selected.

The selection of the appropriate working places has been based upon the requirements set by the central research design. The fieldwork has slightly deviated from the selection criteria since instead of ‘fish processing workers’ it examined the case of ‘food processing workers’. This was basically due to the fact that plants of fish production and processing are located in the islands of Greece, and it was extremely inconvenient to reach them. Accordingly, this sector of economic activity is actually under restructure and mechanisation of production procedures in Greece and counts for only 5000 unskilled workers, a number that indicates the new trends and small-scale traditional enterprising, the lack of collective bargaining and union representation, thus a low level of collective action.

Due to lack of time, low budget and methodological tool constraints the description and results developed in the following section of the case study have to be viewed not as evidence of inequalities for all sectors, the whole labour market, a whole sector, or the whole country. The elements discussed and the presentation of practices used in the workplaces visited, are not necessarily representing opinions that women are being unequally treated or disadvantaged in these working places. They, on the contrary, attempt to reveal the potential or latent (invisible, hidden) unequal treatment of women within commonly used methods, approaches and practices. Much more efforts have to be made in the future in terms of research in order to get a full understanding of the sources of the pay gap, enabling political and social design and policy implementation to close it. Besides, the pay gap is just one of the aspects of gender discrimination at work, which does not exhaust this big issue. Other aspects might be equally or more significant such as promotion perspectives of women at work compared to their male counterparts, namely the verified “glass ceiling” that women very often experience and that frequently constitutes the starting point of the gender pay gap.

Fieldwork characteristics

More specifically, three school units of secondary education were randomly chosen, two public and one private. The directors were asked to fill in a preliminary questionnaire aiming at collecting the quantitative data of each working place. Thereafter appointments were set and the analytic, in depth interviews, were conducted. The interviews have been conducted in March and April 2002. Most of them were taped, yet there were interviewees who preferred persistently notes to be kept.

Many large companies /industries of food processing and production have been contacted since March 2002. There was one company that accepted to take part in the research, it however did not fulfil the criteria. Two other companies have been selected and have agreed to take part in the research, both private; they haven't been able to appoint for the interviews meeting yet due to lack of time and internal pressure. Still one of them has filled in the preliminary questionnaire, which gives an indicative short picture of its internal organisation. After an intensive effort in July 2002 and with the consultative contribution of a National Reference Group Member, it has been possible for a big promising industry to participate in the fieldwork. The Human Resources Director has been interviewed, while two production labourers answered the interview questionnaires in writing since it was impossible for them to be reached at their workplace, as it was located in another city.

Accordingly, two companies employing mainly professional engineers were chosen as being the most typical and well-known ones actually in Greece. The one is a private company established by the state and thus functioning in public legal terms and the other fully private. The fieldwork process has been completed with the first one during May 2002, while the private company has been able to appoint a date for the interviews in June 2002. In the first company the Human Resources Manager asked for the permission to look at the interview's questions the eve of the interview meeting. For the engineering professionals case of study, few things related to their institutional context of work need to be mentioned. There are in Greece many small-scale engineering enterprises, usually run by an engineer who hires few more colleagues (5-10 persons) with fixed-term contracts as contractors. This working regime often deprives people from fundamental rights in the workplace (rights that are recognised in the context of a dependant employee status), since these contractors, although *in fact* are employees with dependent working relation to their employer, are self-employed. . It would have been therefore of major significance for the present fieldwork to involve one such company in it. It was, however, impossible to get a positive answer despite strong efforts with contacts even with the use of acquaintances and powerful arguments, made both by the research team and the member of the National Reference Group representing engineering professionals.

Overall, 16 persons have been interviewed so far, two persons from each public school, three from the private school, three from the first technical company, another 3 from the private technical enterprise and 3 more from the food processing industry.

4.1 Teaching associate professionals

School A

This is a public high school located in the suburbs of Piraeus, at the city of Korydallos that is a highly urbanised area, and is providing education to youngsters aged 12-15 years old. There are 25 teaching associate professionals employed in total, who are of multiple specialisations. Seventeen of them are women, namely 68% are women and 32% are men. The director of the school (a woman) was interviewed and a male teacher in Mathematics, who is actively unionised. Only 12 to 13 among all teachers of the school are estimated to be members of the union.

Most of the teaching associate professionals at this workplace are working there for more than 5 years (76%), with women comprising the majority of them (63%). Teaching professionals of secondary education in Greece, according to the educational system, and as mentioned at the institutional framework, are civil servants paid by the state. Their salaries are fixed according to multiple standards and they are harmonised for all, independently of gender, specialisation or other element. Their in site working week is comprised by 16 to 21 working hours in the class-room (following seniority), which may be extended up to 30 hours per week for administrative and other non educational duties. For the completion of their professional duties they are supposed to work for additional time (tutorial preparation, exam/tests corrections etc.). As many other schools in Greece, this school functions by weekly turns morning and afternoons, due to the school-buildings' shortage.

In special circumstances the teachers are asked to work overtime (i.e. examination periods for proctoring and/or correcting) and are paid extra per hour. Both the director and the second interviewee have not noticed any gender difference in terms of people who undertake overtime. By contrast other factors determine this matter such as specialisation or personal skills and interests.

Non-standard contracts are quite rare but often very much necessary due to vacant positions; actually there is one female teaching associate professional working at the school with a one-year fixed-term contract. As far

as the shortage of personnel is concerned, it strongly depends on the specialisation. There are some specialisations that hardly cover vacancies while there is a glut of other specialisations in the market with very high unemployment rates. For instance, there is a strong need for Informaticians by contrast to Philologists.

The internal organisation of the school unit is based upon three grades in the hierarchy: there is the director, the sub-director and the teaching staff. In other words, only two persons have a leading managerial position at school that are basically responsible for the management of the school and are paid slightly higher than their colleagues. The salary difference is not considered as significant -5% plus to the basic salary for the director and 3% plus to the sub-director (as reported by the interviewee, in spite of the fact that according to their collective agreement the 'responsibility allowance' is not proportional but monetary)- for this reason these positions do not have the prestige one could imagine. On the other hand these positions demand hard working and high level of responsibility, sometimes high frustration too; thus, people are not positively motivated in making efforts to get these posts, as reported by the director herself.

Training of the teaching staff is relatively rare, usually not compulsory and concerns the introduction of a new schoolbook in specific courses, or pedagogical issues concerning learning difficulties of students and so on. The widespread feeling, as pointed out by the interviewees, is that these training seminars are not satisfactory and interesting enough to attract their attention. It is important to notice that indeed during the year 2001 no one of the 25 teaching professionals of the school have attended training courses. Gender is not related to the willingness or the attending of training courses; most important seems to be the specialisation of the person and perhaps his/her age, since young teachers tend to be more interested in following training programmes in order to updating their know-how, and some specialisations such as informatics are more due to follow the evolution of new technologies. Both the salary improvement perspectives and the promotion perspectives are totally independent from training attended by teaching professionals in the public sector. Hence there is no practical motivation for them to go for it, as they firmly complain.

Due to the fact that law fixes their salaries there appear no pay differentials according to gender. Therefore the issue is not included either in their union negotiations or in other public debate. According to the interviewees' opinions, their colleagues in general are not fully aware of the salary formation system. They just receive their payments without being interested to know how exactly these payments are formed.

(About the level of unionisation of teachers in public secondary education see page 34).

There are not specific family friendly services and measures addressed to the teaching professionals at school. Of course mothers of children up to 4 years old (or fathers in case mothers do not make use) are allowed by law to work reduced hours for a period of time for lactation reasons. More specifically, public teachers on permanent contracts (civil servants) are entitled to two hours less per day for children under 2 years of age, one hour for children aged 2-4 years; in case the mother civil servant does not make use of the above mentioned reduced working hours, she is entitled to 9-months paid leave (not the father though if she does not make use). The only noticeable element here is that all the teachers together agree to informally implement a flexibility in the educational timetable especially to facilitate their colleagues who are either pregnant, or young parents or stay far away from the school location (many teachers are employed on limited duration contracts). If, hence, there is a colleague in need of special timetable arrangement she/he can "take" second, third sessions with the mutual informal agreement of her/his colleagues.

In conclusion, as stressed by the interviewees, their profession experiences a disappointment and a discouragement in terms of training, career perspectives, salary improvement and the overall conditions of work. They claim they do not experience gender segregation; still there is a general tendency for women to make stronger efforts than men, to personally invest more of themselves and their aspirations in their careers. Men are very much discouraged and indifferent in claiming higher positions in the internal hierarchy due to the fact that these positions incorporate high demands, hard working and the financial monetary as well as the moral compensation and satisfaction are not respectively significant. Perhaps this is the reason why women more and more, especially in the urban areas, tend to undertake the directorship of secondary schools, as estimated by the interviewees⁵¹.

⁵¹ A new system has just been applied for the appointment of the Directors of schools, providing an allowance almost 30% of the teachers' salary.

At this point it would be interesting to refer to a complementary issue discussed ‘off the record’ with the interviewees of School A. In Greece, as in other Southern European countries⁵², the so-called black economy of the educational sector is very highly developed. This sector has developed as a consequence of reinforcing teaching needs due to high demands and competition for the entering of students in tertiary education. It occurs that there are well-established legal enterprises the ‘frontistiria’, private afternoon and evening preparatory schools as well as privately taught courses (tutorials) that function aside and complementarily to the formal public schools. Sometimes these tutorials offer more efficient educational services than the formal educational units, as regards the university introductory exams of students, because their teaching concentrates only in techniques on passing these examinations.

The professional teachers working at the ‘frontistiria’ or providing tutorials to students are sometimes the same people who are formally employed by the state, despite the Law ban⁵³. Many of them gain, in this manner, a considerable additional income⁵⁴ from ‘frontistiria’ and private lessons at home and so it could be argued that they invest more effort in their “informal”, atypical employment.

This is a whole rigid system of informal education very well established in Greece and this represents a Greek particularity that hasn’t been scientifically or officially examined and/or registered. Within this context, it is then important for one to investigate the equal opportunities for men and women professionals, their equal pay and so on. Furthermore, one may assume that there appears a tendency for men not to personally invest in their formal job -since the moral and financial compensation is not considered as significant - thus not willing at getting managerial positions and higher responsibilities no more, and to overwhelm the private informal educational sector. In this way top positions are not so attractive anymore, and are more and more vacant and allotted to women. Moreover, men conquer the sector acquiring the massive profits as additional income to their formal one, while women’s access is perhaps relatively limited due to reasons relative to gender roles and to household duties that are basically undertaken by women only. In discussing this issue during a National Reference Group’s meeting, a member analysed it further declaring that in her opinion this situation has developed within the framework of the taken-for-granted undervalued nature of women’s work. In particular she stressed attention to the fact that women’s work is by structure undervalued in the Greek society and labour market and even though men are distinguished in the informal and atypical sector their work is highly esteemed. It has also been noticed that women are connecting their success to prestige positions at work and other activities while their male counterparts are basically more interested at feeling financially successful; namely the motivations for being successful derive from different perceptions and values according to gender.

This broad issue, as others, needs further investigation and constitutes a subject for future research in Greece. Besides, the Greek governmental policy has developed new strategies lately to overcome or restrict the large development of the informal educational activity by introducing an institution of reinforcing teaching in the public school premises operating after the formal schooling. This is aiming at both reconciling parents’ family and working responsibilities since pupils are staying for longer hours at school and hence are finishing at the same time working parents leave their work, as well as at diminishing the necessity for pupils to follow extra private schooling which costs much to parents; in addition it creates more job opportunities to professional teachers who cannot be absorbed by the educational system as such.

School B

This is a public high school located in the suburbs of Athens, at the city of Kallithea that is an urbanised district, and is addressed to students aged 12-15 years old. Twenty-three teaching associate professionals are working there of which 61% are women and 39% men. The majority is working at the same school unit for more than 5 years (70%), and more specifically 69% of them are women and the remaining 31% are men. The director of the school who is Philologist (woman) and a teacher on Information Technology (man) were interviewed in the context of the fieldwork. The latter is a member of their local union.

⁵² As we are informed from the representative of the “Federation of Secondary School Teachers of Greece” in our National Reference Group this phenomenon exists also in Spain, Portugal and in particular in Japan.

⁵³ The law ban applies only to the permanent teaching staff of the public schools. Very few permanent teachers, only in the major urban areas, exercise a private profession in the ‘frontistiria’. More often they provide private lessons at home.

⁵⁴ In recent literature on informal economy, a fact that enchants the search for a second “atypical” job is considered to be the relatively low salaries in the public sector - Tatsos N. (2001)

Their standard working week consists of 16 to 21 hours of teaching in the classroom, according to seniority. The school functions on alternate weeks, namely one week during the morning and one week during the afternoon⁵⁵. Extra working hours are undertaken only in special occasions, e.g. proctoring during examinations, papers' correction etc., and they are compensated as extra teaching hours. These extra hours are undertaken by or assigned to teachers according to their field of specialisation and the appropriate needs. Gender does not appear as a factor influencing this issue.

The employer of teaching associate professionals of secondary level education is the state, more specifically the Ministry of Education and Religious Affairs. Their payments are set by law and are equal for all. The vast majority of them are permanent public teaching associate professionals apart from one person who has a one-year fixed-term contract and covers a vacant position. The reason for using this kind of agreements from time to time is the shortage of civil servants in special scientific fields, such as in informatics, music or else.

The internal organisation and management of the school unit is based upon three hierarchical levels: the director, the sub-director and the rest of the teaching team. Both the director and the sub-director are entitled to a responsibility allowance (it is not clarified though how this allowance is formulated).

Training opportunities are not as frequent and many as they should be, according to the interviewees opinions. The motivation is not considered as strong either. In the process of evaluation of teachers in order for them to become sub-directors and/or directors their training attendance is not taken strongly into account. The deep essence of the training provided to teachers is highly criticised by the interviewees. In other words, they do not trust the knowledge gained by these training courses. Still when there are training courses provided, both women and men have equally the opportunity to participate. The willingness of people to take part in such courses and seminars depends upon the personality and family responsibilities as well as their age and is not related to gender, as reported by the director.

As far as the formation of salaries is concerned, the interviewees think that their colleagues know perfectly the system and the way their salaries are formulated. They also know their colleagues' salaries as well.

For the reconciliation of family duties and work for teaching professionals, apart from the informal flexibility of the school timetable which facilitates colleagues in need, as applied in School A, there are no additional measures and arrangements to the legal ones. The second interviewee refers to the fact that women colleagues are most frequently absent than men, due to pregnancy and childcare; he reluctantly considers this absenteeism as a problem related to internal mobility and instability of the teaching timetable.

Both interviewees intensely believe that no gender inequalities appear in their sector, or at their working place.

School C

This is a private school-company addressed to pupils of all levels of education, from kindergarten to upper-secondary education (children aged 4-18 years old). Its premises are located in a semi-urban, semi-rural area, at a district in the suburbs of Athens called Vari. It employs 154 teaching associate professionals of secondary educational level in total of which 91 are women namely the 59%. There are two foreign –non-nationals- teachers from Germany teaching German language, and they are both women. Of all people in the target occupation 49% are working at the same school for more than 5 years. Of them 55% are women. The interviews were made with the president and director of the school-company (a man), a man Mathematician who is the director of the upper secondary school (Lyceum) and a woman Physicist who is a sub-director of the lower secondary school (Gymnasium).

The typical working week consists of 20 hours of teaching. There are two women working part-time which consists of 14 hours per week, and they teach foreign languages. There were 6 people in the target occupation that left their jobs at the school during 2001 and two of them were men. Four men and two women covered these vacant positions in the process as new hiring.

The pay system in principle is based upon the legal payment of teaching professionals, who by law are permanent salaried employees of the company, and there is an additional system of bonuses and fringe benefits that apply to all (catholic) but it is distributed upon proportional standards related to levels of responsibility of each position. The bonus system is based upon years of experience and success of the students' entry in the universities, which in other words consists of the company's profits progress.

⁵⁵ Many secondary schools in Greece function under this schedule due to shortage of school premises. A big programme is being realised the last years targeting to have only morning schools.

There is a rough amount of money allocated every year by the company to all educational levels teachers and other employees depending on the number of students who have succeeded to enter the tertiary education. This functions as a rewarding for the efforts made by all the teachers together and the other employees for the success of the students-clients of the school-company. In this sense, according to the management approach, the bonus system gives the incentives to the teachers to work hard and in such a manner to improve the effectiveness of the school services and accordingly its reputation and the increase in clients. There are fringe benefits as well, such as low tuition fees for the employees' children, cheap lunches in-site, mobile phones and cars for some employees, gym premises, free admission to cultural events, free transportation of their children with the school buses etc.

The internal organisation of the school-company as a whole shows a male-domination at managerial positions and high positions in the hierarchy, since only 31% of the management team collaborating with the board of the company are women. There are multiple levels in the hierarchy for each educational level. The Gymnasium has a director, two sub-directors and a head for each field of specialisation. In sum there are 25 persons who belong to the target occupation and have a higher position in the hierarchy. Only four of them are women though, namely the 16%. Despite the fact therefore that women exceed the number of men in the target occupation they are under-represented in the high levels of hierarchy. The Lyceum presents a similar situation.

Training is very much developed in this school. Continuous training is highly recommended and promoted under the auspices of the school administration. Training is included in the evaluation process of each employee and counts as a way to improve the quality of the services the school provides to its clients. Most employees of the target occupation are unionised. Their union (OIELE) is the main partner in the competent committee of the Ministry of Education, which approves and compensates the educational leave of private education teachers for attending a postgraduate doctoral or master's university programme. Family friendly facilities are not very much and in a formal way developed. There is an informal flexibility in facilitating young parents with their time schedule in cases of need, i.e. when their children are ill. As underlined by the woman interviewee sub-director of the gymnasium, this can be understood for both sexes and a young father is also allowed to accompany his child/-ren to the doctor. The director of the high school (lyceum) mentioned that there is sensitivity towards women colleagues in terms of difficult conditions of work, i.e. in the open-air teaching sessions when it's cold in winter time and people have to be on duty they prefer to appoint men instead of women.

All of the three interviewees stressed on their strong belief that there are no inequalities at their working place, due to the fact that their role as educators does not allow for the management of the school-company to cultivate inequalities. They claim that since both men and women teaching associate professionals provide education to children and this is so much important in their philosophy and mentality that cannot go along with unequal behaviour according to gender. Yet this claim does not fit with the observed discrepancies that appear in the distribution of women and men of the target occupation in the high levels of hierarchy at work.

Comments

In the public sector where women overwhelm the target occupation there appears a trend where women are allowed to claim higher positions or in other words the 'doors open' then when these high positions are under-estimated, they have a lost prestige and an extra load of work that is not correspondent to the financial or moral compensation.

No projects of equal strategy, equality plans and schemes have ever been developed at all these three workplaces. Awareness campaigns have never been centrally created and disseminated either and one may assume that people are not aware of what equality and inequality really mean when it comes to prevailed stereotypes and mentalities of social and structural definitions of gender. No programmes of equal opportunities or positive actions in favour of women have ever been implemented either by the central government or by other regional, public or private organisation in order to sensitise people in their opinions, projects, ambitions, and expectations.

Age of the interviewees as well as field of specialisation have not been taken into account as factors determining statements, perceived views, opinions and attitudes. A simple but not generalised observation is that women tend to have followed classical studies and humanities whilst men technological and positive fields of study.

4.2 Food processing workers

The effort to make a fieldwork at this sector has proven very complicated. Large private companies of that industry are obviously very busy with their everyday plans and activities, thus cannot devote time for a research. Apart from that it seems that in general in Greece research lags behind. People, workers, employees, employers, executives and the market as a whole have no consideration and appreciation of the role of research in the process of the market and society functioning. There appears a difficulty, reluctance, prejudice and distrust of people against any kind of research intentions. In particular, such companies/industries seem to have something to hide! Frequently their personnel is not unionised (this is indirectly not allowed by the administration board, even then when the number of employees is large, therefore there are managerial practices that are not workers-friendly).

Apart from that, another problematic issue raised was the definition of the unskilled workers. Many of the firm representatives (in principle the Human Resources Managers) had difficulties in defining the unskilled workers since, as they have been saying, this type of workers are disappearing due to the continuous training they receive, as well as due to the increasing mechanisation of the production process.

Anyway, there were two firms that were positive at being involved at our fieldwork in the beginning and have completed the preliminary questionnaire. Still the fieldwork process did not go on because the one did not satisfy our methodological criteria (Firm A) and the other (Firm B) could not find time in the end to devote for the interviews. Their basic statistical data are presented here just to add elements at our overview.

A personal in-depth face-to-face interview with the Human Resources Director of a standardised- food production industry (Firm C) has been made. The remaining interviews with the two employees of the firm have been self-administered due to geographical distance limitations that prohibited the possibility for face-to-face interviews.

Firm A

This is a private industry of olive oil, seed-oil and margarine production and standardisation for consumption and for professional use. It is reported as a daughter firm of a bigger industry. The total number of employees is 205 of whom 80% are men and only 20% are women. There are 70 unskilled workers of whom 69 are men; there is only one woman. More than 55% of them are working at the same workplace for more than 5 years. The Human Resources Manager explained this by the fact that the appropriate work demands physical strength and arduous tasks. There are 7 persons in total who are involved in the top management of the firm, all men⁵⁶. There are no part-time workers and the employees work for 40 hours per week. All new engagements of the target occupation in 2001 and 2002 are men (20 persons). The relation of the firm's employees with their trade unions is not explicit. There is no bonus system applied but there are several fringe benefits provided such as health and pharmaceutical coverage, retirement programme, interest-free loans, low value at the firm's products, additional leave.

Firm B

This is a daughter company of a multi-national food industry. The Greek firm employs in total 518 employees of whom 76% are men and 24% are women. There are 180 unskilled workers of the food-production and –processing industry who are by 77% women. Among the firm's staff there are 42 persons involved in the top administrative positions of the firm who are mostly men, by 76%. There are no part-time employees at the firm and the working week is by rule comprised by 40 hours. Among the 180 persons belonging in the target occupation the 44% is working at the same firm for more than 5 years, 81% of them being women. New engagements during 2001 and 2002 count for 65 persons in the target occupation, of whom 58% are women. The unionisation of the target-occupation-employees is not clear according to the filled questionnaire. Finally there is a bonus system that concerns basically other occupations such as the merchandisers and dealers, and fringe benefits for all such as additional health and pharmaceutical insurance and low values for the firm's products.

⁵⁶ Hopefully the answer here is reliable and not confused with the members of the firm's Board.

Firm C

This firm is a private and autonomous big industry producing chips, snacks and croissants. It has been founded in 1990 and has presented a very rapid and high development rhythm in the Greek economy. There are two production units located in the countryside, while the firm's headquarters are located near the capital city of Athens. It employs 1317 workers in total of whom 52% are women. There are 802 employees of the target occupation of whom the vast majority (74%) are women. The team of employees who comprise the high managerial positions consists of 15 people, 60% of whom are men and 40% women.

About 40% of all employees are working at the same company for more than 5 years. They in principle have standard and permanent contracts, apart from very few cases of seasonal employees of the target occupation who are hired every summer (in order to replace the vacant positions created by the summer leaves of the permanent employees) with fixed-term contracts for 3 to 4 months. The firm tends to hire the same persons every year. At present (July) there are 60 persons working under a fixed-term contract, and they all are women.

There are only two foreign employees a man and a woman from Pakistan and Poland respectively. All employees are working full-time and in special cases, according to the needs in the production units, they are doing overtime that is financially compensated as such. Overtime is mostly undertaken by women employees of the target occupation due to their over-representation within it. Turnover is very low in this firm especially for the target occupation; turnover is slightly higher in the sales positions (merchandisers).

The firm does not experience a labour shortage related to the target occupation since in the geographical area where the productive units are located there is a high unemployment rate and the firm easily finds new personnel.

As far as the internal organisation of work within the target occupation is concerned there are no different hierarchical levels. Despite the fact that there are employees supervising certain teams of other employees in special tasks, the former have not a special title or a special salary from the others. Typically they all are at the same hierarchical level. The two workers interviewees though are reporting that kneaders, who are only men, are paid more.

Training is provided fundamentally for hygiene and safety reasons related to the productive procedure and is continuous, compulsory and takes place during working hours. It is addressed to all employees of the target occupation. The training is regarding at safely taking care of their own health as well as at producing "healthy" products. The company willingly provides other type of training after specific personal demand. Training is not necessarily considered as a prerequisite for promotion or salary augmentation.

The pay system is based upon working time and all employees are remunerated by wage. Their wages are at least 3% above the minimum wage provided by the sectoral agreement-contract of standardised-food production workers that is considered as a pilot agreement. This 'at least more than 3%' is bargained at an individual level. From the employees' points of view it is of high importance that the company recognises previous professional experience even if it is irrelevant to this particular sector of activity. The payment levels depend upon several criteria of work appraisal that are level of position responsibility, effort, punctuality, family status, deadline respect, seniority and pioneering initiatives. There is no systematic or institutionalised bonus system, but sometimes the firm provides productivity bonuses or additional benefits according to its profit course. There are multiple fringe benefits as well –that are very much appreciated by the employees- most of which are catholic: 50% cost coverage of medical visits and examinations according to receipts; day compensation of hospitalisation in case of health problem; twice a month a package of the firm's products for free; low prices in case of buys; provision of stationary every September (beginning of school year) for the employees' kids; presents for Christmas and Easter Holidays. Finally, the company provides car and mobile telephone to some employees according to their position.

The two target occupation workers' interviews illustrate a very similar picture to the one presented by the Human Resources Director. Both of them, a man who is a machine operator and a woman production labourer, are claiming that inequalities do not emerge in the company's realms. They strongly report they have no "complaints" by the company's administration. The man is working there for eight continuous years and the woman for seven. They also appreciate very much the intensive training schemes provided by the company for safety and health reasons. They support very much the company's high and rapid development saying that there is high unemployment in the region and the company's economic success is of major importance to them and their families. They are noticing that turnover or dismissals are very low and rare

since the conditions of work are of high quality, the company's expansion is rapid and new engagements are very frequent.

The Human Resources Director (a woman) is pointing out that within the company there appear no inequalities or unequal opportunities according to gender. The firm has lately started to participate in the Corporate Social Responsibility Network and is now designing new policy action for the promotion of ecological activities, equality between employees, equal opportunities between women and men employees, equal pay for work of equal value and so on. The evaluation of this programme has not been done yet since the design and implementation of these measures have not yet been completed.

Last but not least, there is a social worker (woman) employed by the company who cares about personal, family and other problems that workers face and helps them in giving them advice and practical solutions. Company's workers are grateful for this service.

Comments

It has been extensively discussed during the National Reference Group meetings that there is a new tendency in the labour market that industries and big companies are not replacing their employees with new dependent contracts but instead they prefer to make a contract with a freelance company of 'general service provisions', to hire in this way workers without having to accomplish any of their obligations as employers. The deal then is between two companies; the one supplies short-term job vacancies and the other supplies workers for taking these job vacancies. The freelance company is paid for each worker it 'hires' to the employer company but the worker him/herself is usually paid for the minimum salary or wage. The worker is having two bosses informally; typically his/her boss is the freelance company, but in the daily workplace he/she is dealing with the employer-company's administration. The employer-company has no obligation to cover any allowances, social security, and health insurance for these workers. These workers are signing an individual freelance work contract with the freelance-company and they cover their social and health security fees on their own. They have the status of self-employed or freelance contractors. They, in addition, have no union hence they are not having a particular collective agreement to 'protect' their work from 'exploitation'. This whole process affects the workforce since salaried employees and permanent personnel with ascertained professional rights tend to diminish, especially in certain occupations or sectors of economic activity, i.e. cleaners, unskilled labourers, truck drivers, porters and so on. This case especially concerns unskilled immigrant workers in Greece and labour of low educational level and skills, and low wages. This propensity is rapidly developing and endangers established workers' rights. This liberalisation of the markets and employment is being extensively reported currently by the Greek General Confederation of Labour to the press and the government's Prime Minister.

According to a gallop conducted by GSEE, in 2002, in a sample of 2000 private and public enterprises, 37% of new personnel are employed on a fixed term contract and a 13% a temporary contract. This shows that companies tend to dismiss standard contracted employees and replace them with fixed term contractors⁵⁷.

4.3 Engineering professionals

Company A

This is a private company that has been established by the state and thus functions as a public one. It is responsible to design and supervise the construction of the underground railway of Athens (a work of 2,22 billions €). Its headquarters are located in the city centre and it has multiple worksites in different parts of the city. The company employs 350 persons of which 140 are women (40%). Of all employees of the company 42% belong in the target occupation, namely are engineers of different specialisations. Only 26% of them are women though. There are 37 men-only foreign employees in the high levels of the hierarchy since they provide consultative services to the company's administration.

Three interviews took place at this company: one with the Human Resources Manager (a woman), one with a woman civil engineer specialised at the Contracts Department, and finally with a man electrical engineer Head of the Communication Systems Department.

⁵⁷ Eleftherotypia Newspaper, Economy Inset, 22/09/02.

Access of women in the high levels of hierarchy seems a difficult task since only 2 persons are women among 67 persons that comprise the management team of the company. A clear glass ceiling appears in the process of women in getting high-levelled positions.

In principle employees of the company have a 40 hours working week. Over hours are scarce and appear only in special occasions and they are paid as extra working hours. Those employees, who are needed according to their responsibilities and specialisation, rather than according to gender, undertake them. There are no part-time work personnel. Only a 25% of all employees work at the same company for more than 5 years, while 9% of the present employees has been recruited during 2001 and 2002. The high mobility is attributed at the increasing development and expansion of the company's projects due to be completed before the Olympic Games of 2004 to be held in Athens.

There is a company's employees union that has signed a collective agreement with the company's board setting minimum salaries and other standards based on international specifications of the engineering field of industry. All contracts are of permanent character. The payment system is based upon personal bargaining and adjustments according to the collective agreement. There is no bonus system, while there are fringe benefits of different types since entitlement of some of them concerns only heads of Departments and some others concern all employees of the company.

The internal organisation of the company is based upon a pyramidal hierarchical system according to its organisation chart with heads of departments, heads of special projects and remaining personnel working under their supervision. The payment system takes into account the level of responsibility of each position. As earlier mentioned the high-levelled positions are significantly male-dominated. According to the interviewees opinions women tend not to claim higher positions due to the fact that this will burden their family and social life. They also believe that men and women have equal opportunities for promotion, but men are more interested in claiming a higher position than women.

Training is very much appreciated and well organised by the company. The opportunities are plenty and are equally addressed to men and women employees. The Human Resources Manager has observed a tendency for men employees to be much more interested in participating in training courses than their women counterparts. She attributes this to the young age of women employees who perhaps are simultaneously mothers of young children and do not have time to invest in their training since their family duties urge them.

The issue that has been strongly pointed out by the two interviewees concerns the fact that internal relations are the most important reason for inequalities within the company and is unrelated to gender. Having as acquaintances the top executives of the company means better opportunities of promotion and payment as well. A lack of meritocracy in other words seems to prevail in the company's framework and that seems to be a huge problem that concerns the employees' conscience more than gender equality problems.

Company B

This is a unique, pioneer and huge private industry of Telecommunication and Information Systems in Greece with multiple daughter companies in Greece and worldwide. It is located in a regional eastern area of the city of Athens experiencing a very rapid development rate. More than 4000 people are employed there, with 69% of them being men and 31% women. There are 1940 employees who are engineering professionals of whom 22% are women and the remaining 78% men. The working week of this company's employees consists of 35 hours, while there are no part-timers. There are 150 top managers, directors etc who deal with the top administration of the company. There are only 10% of women in these top managerial positions. Among the target-occupation-employees 23% are working at the same workplace for more than 5 years, whilst 84% are men and 16% women. Newly hired personnel accounts for 299 persons in sum for the years 2001 and 2002, of which 73% are men. The company is member of the Confederation of Greek Industries (SEV) and the employees are unionised through a Union of the Company's Employees.

There is a bonus system distributing part of the company's profits to the employees at the end of the year. The amount of the bonus varies between half-a-salary to two-salaries according to the level of profits made. In addition there is a 'stock-option' provision, namely employees are entitled to buy stocks at a lower than the market price. Fringe benefits are quite many, with some of them being catholic (health check-up, day care benefit, complementary insurance coverage, lower price for meals at the company's restaurant, free transportation to and back from the company with company's buses), and some others being entitled to special positions such as cellular phones and cars. There is also an additional period to the by-law maternity leave and women have the opportunity to make extra gynaecological health examinations.

Three interviews took place: one with the Sub-director of the Human Resources Unit, a man who has a degree of Physics, another degree of Information Technology and has a Master's degree in Business Administration. He has been working at the company since 1989 as a Software Engineer and has moved to other positions until he got his M.B.A. and undertook his actual post. The other interviewee, a woman, is a Mechanical Engineer whose position is Project Co-ordinator at the Project Development Unit. She states she came as a student to do her training and dissertation and then was hired as a Trainee who has moved up the hierarchical ladder and got her present position in 1997. The third interviewee, a man, is an Electronic Engineer who since 1991 was working as an Electronic Designer and three years later got his present position as a Project Manager at the Research Unit.

All of them stated that there are no gender inequalities taking place in the realms of the company. The unequal distribution of men and women in the statistics is fully attributed to the fact that the occupation is by itself highly male-dominated. During the selection process of new employees the gender element is claimed to be taken into account in favour of women: the company is hiring mostly candidates of young age who are better aware of the new technologies and their know-how is updated; yet young men candidates have to do their compulsory military service, hence women candidates are more available and have in this sense a comparable advantage at the time of selection.

The Human Resources Unit representative has highlighted though that there exists a special 'feminine' behaviour which is summarised by the tendency of women engineers to leave their job for another one in the public sector. As soon as a female engineer finds a job in the public sector abandons her job at the company even if the salary of the former is much less attractive. It seems that the stereotyped working conditions of the public sector as are the fewer working hours, the fewer responsibilities, the civil servant's profile related to social insurance coverage and the permanency are very much appreciated by women employees. They therefore leave without second thought and the company faces that with scepticism.

The Human Resources Unit representative has pointed out that the company highly supports and organises training programmes. He claims that the company pays high attention to the continuous training of the personnel in order to updating their know-how and their adjustment at the company's requirements and internal infrastructure (with on-the-job training and employee-orientation programmes). On the other hand, one of the other interviewees is claiming that there are just few and rare training programmes taking place at the company. He supports that in spite of the fact that the subject-related company's demands are very much related to on-going training the company does not provide enough opportunities.

The company takes part at international programmes of quality, social awareness etc. It is an active member at the Corporate Social Responsibility Network, the FTSE4Good, and the Social Accountability 8000 (which among other issues covers the equal pay for equal work principle).

Comments

All results and indications drawn from the interviews made with engineering professionals are very much similar to other surveys conducted by the Greek Women's Engineering Association (EDEM). EDEM has conducted a number of large-scale quantitative and qualitative surveys in 1997-1999, in the framework of the Midterm Community Action Programme for Equal Opportunities between Women and Men, in order to discover attitudes and working conditions concerning women engineering professionals employed at both the public and the private sector.

Very interesting findings have been published illustrating that women professionals are basically working not for their personal aspirations but mostly to add a second household income. Women are 'specialised' mostly at professions or positions that are connected to stereotyped female attributes, such as friendship, sociability and communication skills, patience and tidiness. They, as a consequence, anticipate a glass ceiling when it comes to promotion perspectives, since they are mostly entrusted with managerial duties of low status. Besides there is a very strong prejudice that career women or those having high administrative positions are unsuccessful in their personal life. For this reason there is no confidence against them by women subordinates.

Last but not least, in the context of these surveys 140 employers' representatives have been interviewed in order to look for the attitudes and opinions of the employer's of engineering professionals of different specialisations. The image they have on highly qualified women engineer employees is characterised by

restricted availability for overtime, extra responsibilities, flexibility in internal position rotation and so on, due to their traditional inclination to be almost solely responsible of family and household duties. The family formation option seems to be strongly attached to young women professionals in employers' minds and this tends to have a significant impact on their decision to hire them.

There are therefore significant structural issues predominating and undermining the situation of women at work in general, and in particular of highly educated women engineering professionals in Greece.

A Final Discussion

Equal pay issues between the two sexes are not on the agenda neither at the local workplaces nor at the union's bargaining and collective level. In general, issues of gender discrimination are hardly discussed in the Unions Meetings and Conferences, although there are hints that women deny proposals for such public action and for becoming members of the Unions' administrative boards either due to the prevalent masculinisation of public action and negotiation methods or due to their family responsibilities (the so-called double burden). This discussion has been firmly developed under a critical point of view during the National Reference Group Meetings. Equal pay for work of equal value in particular, is even more rarely put on the agenda, since as legally regulated it is taken for granted as non-existing issue.

In fact, there are many problems of unequal opportunities disadvantaging women in all working places examined, but one may say that the employees are not conscious of them. In both the public and the private sector of economic activity people have a strong feeling that equality predominates. Yet serious gender inequalities take place which are invisible to them: i.e. women are allowed to claim higher positions or the 'doors open' then when these high positions are under-estimated, they have a lost prestige and an extra load of work and/or vice-versa.

People contacted at these working places seemed surprised when they were asked to express their opinion on gender and equality issues. There was a prejudice that emerged when they were informed on the topic and issue of the project and the case study. Before the interviews getting started they were rushed to clarify that there are no inequalities in paying systems in their work, and that they do not believe that there is a gender discriminatory behaviour in the company or school where they work. They somehow were standing up a flag! They have an a-priori negative reaction or they consider the issue exhausted. They often are cynical declaring that women claiming equal rights have only succeeded to 'gain' double and additional burdens. This conviction is sympathised by both men and women. There is a misunderstanding and it seems that these issues are not plain to peoples' minds.

The feeling that has been captured throughout the conducted qualitative survey at multiple working places is that due to increasing unemployment, especially at the regional geographical areas, but also in general, all the employed people have low claims. They appreciate or even over-appreciate anything that is fundamentally recognised to them by the employer's side and can tolerate multiple negative aspects or working conditions as a price for the little good attributes or privileges they receive. For example, there are employees who are not given opportunities for promotion and/or training but prefer to remain at the same position instead of putting at risk their actual status, working hours, social life, spare time and stable remuneration (this is mostly a female reaction). Another example is that there are employees who prefer to be employed as contractors -without enjoying any of the employees' rights drawn from a dependent working relationship- instead of being unemployed (both men and women). Sometimes one can meet employees who are willingly working unpaid overtime as a price to the punctual payment they receive by their employer – a self-evident employee's right!

Last but not least, the fieldwork has given light to another very crucial anthropological and psychological issue; often women colleagues are developing a negative competitive behaviour between themselves, hence one may assume that in a working place there is no women's solidarity. During oral 'off the record' discussions with women interviewees there were comments such as "still I think that it is healthier and better to be working with men colleagues", as well as hints about women colleagues and supervisors as being more stressful, demanding, or on the other hand unable to deal under pressure, talkative and so on. Hence one may say that in the public sphere and in the working places the consensus of the fact that similar characteristics are attributed to the personality rather than to the gender has not been cultivated. On the contrary it seems that people feel that women have imported in the public sphere and their working places the behaviour they

traditionally “adopt” in the private sphere and they are indirectly reproached for that. Apart from that, characteristics relative to cruelty or high expectations might have been developed in a woman’s personality after struggling to “interfere” in a men’s world and to remain an equal partner in it. Frequently women in their working places are not aware of the fact that when collaborating with men they tend to reproduce male’s power over them by not claiming and fighting to abolishing it. This is disturbing: men, since they do not undertake their equal responsibilities and duties at the private sphere –family and housework, are succeeding in arguing that feminist women have brought the opposite result through their revolution; to have double and additional burdens and to be struggling in trying to reconciling their professional and their family duties.

Another important issue strongly connected to the whole labour market is the tendency to its liberalisation. A working status similarity has been observed between Engineering Professionals and Unskilled Workers since they more and more work as freelance contractors. The discrepancy though between the profiles of the two occupational groups is attributed to the different educational levels, the different prestige each one attracts and therefore their negotiation power in the economic and social framework. In general top positions are very much male-dominated due to multiple reasons: women are not encouraged to claim them, or persuade themselves that their position at work is satisfactory enough and are reluctant to go ahead and claim for more since they will then have to make additional efforts and put aside their family responsibilities and their social life. In a sense, they feel they have gained certain esteem and a certain quality of life so far and they are reluctant to put these rights at risk by asking for more. The working places on the other hand are far from aware what gender equality at work means. Their representatives have an absolute belief they encourage equality of men and women while they do the contrary or their managerial strategies are absolutely indifferent to the issue.

As a consequence the equal pay issue is too specialised since fundamental issues of equality between men and women in the realms of employment are not fully accepted and recognised by social institutions and structures, and women’s work is inspired basically by the need for a complementary family income instead of their own necessity to fulfilling personal accomplishment and economic independence⁵⁸.

In order to conclude, one may assume that at least through this fieldwork several workplaces and the people involved have had the opportunity to motivate or re-motivate their ideas and opinions, to rethink on gender issues and appreciate their own attitudes. In addition awareness has been raised and the debate has started among the social partners through their entanglement in the National Reference Group. Leaflets, studies and editions of the Research Centre for Gender Equality (KETHI) have been distributed to them in order to broaden their references and knowledge to these issues and to get in practice involved in the public debate that does not seem to have reached the labour market reality. It is essential though that the present research project operates as an opportunity for future research and studies taking into account factors such as age of the interviewees, family status and fields of specialisation (which haven’t been considered in the present qualitative survey) and attempting to bringing to the fore gender identities and relations conditioned by the economic, political and ideological context within which they are constructed.

⁵⁸ See Nota Kyriazis (1998)

5. Summary and conclusions

The last 20 years in Greece, women have a dynamic presence in the labour market with the following characteristics being of main importance to the issue under consideration. Women occupied 80 per cent of new jobs created during 1993 - 2000, their educational level is higher than men's (employees that have completed tertiary level: women 46%, men 34%), they work the longest hours between women in E.U. (employees: women 38 hours per week, men 41), 21 per cent of women employees in the private sector work more than 45 hours per week and only 7 per cent of women employees work in part time jobs in 2000 (men 2 per cent).

Despite these developments the gender differences remain quite intense in the labour market and in other areas of society. The gender-segregated labour market minimises the positive performance of the female labour force. A very high proportion of women still work as unpaid family helpers (16,3% in 2000), women supplied 2/3 of new cases of unemployment created during the period examined and women employees occupied 91% of new part-time jobs and 66% of new jobs of limited duration contracts the period 1993 to 2000. Besides the strong increasing presence of women in the labour market it appears that women still work in different occupations and at the decision making level it appears that women occupied only 28% of new management positions of the enterprises and 9% of seats in Parliament and 9% of positions in Central Government.

The average gross hourly wage of female employees is about 80% of that of male employees in the service sector and 69% in the industry sector.

Equal pay and collective bargaining

Act 1414/1984 covers employment governed by labour law, employment in liberal professions and contracts of independent employment and does not apply to employment governed by public law which is covered, however, by Article 4(2) of the Greek Constitution and the relevant provisions of the Civil Servants Code.

As regards equal pay, Article 4 of Act 1414/1984 provides that: *"1. Men and women are entitled to equal pay for work of equal value. 2. Pay means the salary and any other additional advantage paid by the employer to the employee, directly or indirectly, in cash or in kind, in exchange for the work provided. 3. A job classification system for determining pay must be based on the same criteria for both male and female workers and so applied as to exclude any discrimination on grounds of sex. 4. Beneficiary of the marriage allowance is the family and of the child allowance the children. 5. Marriage allowance and child allowance which are established for the first time or are readjusted shall henceforth be granted in full to every working spouse or parent regardless of sex"*.

With regard to equal treatment, Article 2 of Act 1414/1984 prohibits any discrimination on grounds of sex and family status: a) with regard to access, content and application of all types of programmes or systems of vocational guidance, vocational training, apprenticeship, advanced vocational training, retraining, training for a job change, information of workers or their families and, in general, of programmes that contribute to the mental, financial and social development of the workers and b) with regard to participation in examinations and when determining the conditions of acquisition or award of diplomas, certificates or other degrees, as well as with regard to granting of scholarships and educational leaves or other educational advantages.

Discrimination on grounds of sex is prohibited also as regards working conditions and hierarchical advancement and career. Overtime work and work on Sundays and holidays should be provided under the same conditions for both sexes (Article 5 of Act 1414/84).

Dismissal is prohibited: a) on grounds of sex and/or b) when it constitutes an employer's reaction to a worker's judicial or other complaint aimed at enforcing sex equality rights in working conditions (Article 6 of Act 1414/1984).

Trade unions and employers' organisations are entitled to inform workers on the content of Act 1414/1984 and on the measures taken for its implementation and the application of the equal pay and equal treatment principles for women and men.

The right to collective bargaining is guaranteed by Art. 22(2) of the Greek Constitution. Moreover, Act 1876/1990 relating to "free collective bargaining" sets the conditions of conclusion, the scope and the legal effect of collective agreements.

Collective agreements are concluded after collective bargaining between unions and employers' organisations or individual employers and are **legally binding**.

Branch and professional collective agreements fix minimum standards that bind the member of unions and employers' organisations or individual employers who have signed them or have adhered thereto. Undertaking collective agreements apply to all workers of the undertaking.

A collective agreement or arbitration decision that binds employers employing at least 51% of the workers of a branch or profession **can be extended by decision of the Minister of Labour to the whole branch or profession**, at the request of the competent union or employers' organisation. Extension of collective agreements and arbitration decisions is rather common.

Since 2001, positive action in particular in favour of women, is provided in the Greek Constitution as a means to achieve substantive equality.

The control of the application and effectiveness of labour legislation lies with the **Labour Inspectorates** (S.E.P.E.), who is competent to provide information and advice on labour legislation and to supervise and control of the application of labour legislation, imposing administrative fines provided by equality law and lodging complaints with criminal courts for infringement of labour law. In its first capacity as advisory body, the Labour Inspectorate offers legal (and technical as far as it concerns health and safety regulations) information and advice to any interested party: employers, accountants, trade unionists, lawyers and workers. Especially in the case of workers, the advisory role of Labour Inspectorate is particularly important, not only for information on their rights and obligations derived by labour legislation but in particular as far as it concerns the immediate satisfaction of their claims in the form of out-of-court settlements. Actually, it is mostly to Labour Inspectorates that workers and unions immediately turn in case of problems and in an important number of cases Labour Inspectorates intervene effectively between employers and workers, achieving a peaceful solution of their disputes. However, Labour Inspectorates admittedly suffer from lack of staff and means, limited information and further training on gender equality issues. Labour Inspectors do not have locus standi to bring cases before civil or administrative courts.

The issue of equal pay for work of equal value has not been in any agenda, regardless the introduction of Act 1414/1984.

In the framework of collective bargaining, trade unions used to concentrate mainly on monetary issues, such as pay increases and various monetary allowances; some of the latter were aimed to promote maternity protection and reconciling family and working life, such as child allowances paid by the, allowances for crèche/nursery services paid by the employer, confinement allowances.

On the other hand, non-monetary issues, such as parental leaves and leaves for family reasons *do not* appear often on the agenda of collective bargaining. At national level such issues appeared for the first time in the 1993 national general collective agreement and later in the 2000/2001 and the 2002/2003 ones. Nevertheless, the minimum standards for the duration and compensation of such leaves set by generally binding national general collective agreements and legislative provisions are often improved in the framework of sectoral collective bargaining in sectors *with very strong trade unions and with high participation of women*, such as in the banks (e.g. the 1997-1998 bank sector collective agreement provided for 2 more weeks of maternal leave).

Programmes

The last two years GSE and KETHI have realised a series of programmes on "equal pay" within the 5th Action Programme of the Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality (2001-2005).

KETHI has prepared a major two-month information campaign within the framework of the community programme "*Equal pay – Mind the gap*", which will commence in November 2002. The campaign includes TV and radio spots, free "post-cards", magazine and newspaper advertisements and the operation of a call-centre which will provide information and will guide the applicants to the counselling centres of KETHI for more detailed information.

The case study

In order to have clear indications on the main questions imposed for the comparison of the pay systems and the gender pay gap at the European level, three occupations were examined.

A general comment

- In both the public and the private sector of economic activity “the interviewees had a strong feeling that equality predominates”.
- Equal pay issues between the two sexes are not on the agenda neither at the local workplaces nor at the union’s bargaining and collective level. Equal pay for work of equal value in particular, is even more rarely put on the agenda, since as legally regulated it is taken for granted as non-existing issue.
- The general findings of the case study show that the wage and employment structure of the public sector results in small wage differences between men and women. In the private sector, women and men work in different jobs or positions which are differently valued. This element in association with the deregulation of the labour market and the lower bargaining capability of women could maintain or even increase the gender wage differences in certain occupations.
- The available statistical data from the Structure of Earnings Survey show that the average gross hourly wage of female employees is about 80% of that of male employees in the service sector and 69% in the industry sector. This set of data does not include the employed in the services of the public sector, thus we could not define the wage differences for the employed in the occupations of secondary education teaching professionals and for the employed in physical, mathematical and engineering professions.

Secondary education teaching professionals

The occupation of teaching professionals, in all educational levels in 2000, is one of the most important occupations in female employment and is equivalent to 12,5 per cent of women employees. It is the second biggest occupational group of women after the office clerks.

Women teachers of secondary education constitute 3,1% of total female employment and 9% of female salaried employment. They account 57% of total employment of secondary education teaching professionals. Women and men work the same hours in the public sector but in the private sector men work almost 3 hours more. Employment of women teachers in private schools on limited duration contracts increased between 1993 and 2000 by 8,3% and was 21%, while men’s decreased from 23% to 8%. Also 8% of women and 5% of men work on fixed term contracts in the public sector.

In Greece 7,2 per cent of schools of general secondary and technical secondary education are private. 9 out of 10 teachers are working in the public sector.

Both the teacher’s federations of public and private schools, OLME and OIELE, negotiate centrally with the Ministry of Education, their wage increase and working conditions. Law defines wages of teachers in public education. The same law also applies to all collective agreements in the private sector of education, including all benefits and allowances of the public teachers, as a minimum standard.

Permanent public schools teacher’s wages are defined legally and depend on qualifications, seniority and administrative position, so there is no real ground for the development of a significant gender wage gap. Any average wage differences, for men and women of this category of teachers, could be attributed to the fact that male teachers occupy almost all the high administrative positions.

The same could be assumed for permanent teachers in private schools but this allegation is rather infirm, as a bonus system exists, the stronger bargaining capability of men, the significant proportion of women working on fixed term contracts and the high unemployment rate of teaching professionals.

Women and men teachers in public secondary schools participate at the same extent in their trade unions, by 52%. The 84 unions of teachers of secondary public schools are the members of the Federation of Secondary School Teachers of Greece. Women constitute 17% of the members of the administrative boards of the teachers unions and they are not represented in the administrative board of the federation (11 members, all men).

In the private sector, as reported from the representative of the Federation of Private School Teachers of Greece (OIELE) the rate of unionisation is 13% for all teachers in all educational levels. Women constitute

27% of the administrative board of the federation - 3 women and 8 men - and their representation in the unions.

In public sector of secondary education the teachers may have permanent duration contracts or limited duration contracts. The permanent teachers are employed at first for a two-year trial period at the end of which, they are considered permanent civil servants. The substitute teachers, on contracts of limited duration are employed from the day of recruitment till the end of the school year (maximum 9 months). In public schools temporary teachers, who work up to 10 hours per week, are remunerated on an hourly wage basis.

In private schools teachers are employed at first for a two-year trial period, at the end of which, the teachers may be dismissed at a percentage of 100%. If they are not dismissed, their contracts are renewed for four years. At the end of this period (6 years of service in total) the school may dismiss 33% of this category of teachers. If they are not dismissed they automatically have the status of a permanent employee.

Teachers in “frontistiria”, foreign language teaching centres and Vocational Training Institutes may be employed on nine-month contracts or less if they are hired later than the opening of the schools.

The federation of the private school’s teachers states that women teachers are some times obliged not to use their rights in case of pregnancy and maternity, in order to renew their temporary contracts.

As stated, the biggest problem in the employment of teachers is the capability of private schools, especially the ‘frontistiria’, to repeatedly dismiss the teachers, the employment of teachers without contracts or the use of means to interpret salaried employment to self-employment. The lack of sufficient mechanism for the application of labour legislation was reported.

Manufacturing labourers in food & drink processing industries

Manufacturing of food products and beverages is a highly expanding industry in Greece. The employment growth in all occupations and professional categories of the sector was 18% the period 1993 – 2000. Employees increased by 25% in all occupations.

In 2000, manufacturing labourers in food and drink processing industries were 6% of total employment of the sector. Over 70% of workers of the target group were women. The occupation of unskilled manufacturing labourers in food processing industries from a male dominated occupation in 1993 (52%) becomes a female dominated.

All employees of the occupational group in concern were working for the private sector.

Women’s average gross hourly earnings (overtime payments excluded) were 13 per cent less than men’s average wage, for all workers. For full timers the gender wage gap was even higher, reaching a 19 per cent difference.

The unionisation rate of employees in the sector is between 20 and 25 per cent. The unionised workers are employed mostly in big national and multinational firms. The majority of workers, who work in small firms, are not unionised.

The members of the 31 unions of the Panhellenic Federation of Workers in Milk, Food products and Beverages are 80% men and 20% women. In the administrative boards of the unions the elected members are 92% men and 8% women. The Presidents of the 31 unions are 28 men and 3 women. The representatives in the federation are 103 men and 3 women. All members of the administrative board of the federation are men.

The average working time per week, in 2000, was nearly 41 hours for both men and women, while a relative high proportion for both men and women (1 out of 5) was working “more than 45 hours per week”. During the period examined women workers that were working more than 45 hours per week increased by 8,5% while men decreased by 5,8%.

In 2000, the proportion of women working in jobs with limited duration contracts was 1 out of 3 (1 out of 5 men was working in jobs with fixed term contracts).

The Federation’s representative reported that hired personnel of subcontractors now do many jobs, which were performed, till recent years by blue-collar workers. This personnel does not belong to the firm’s staff or to the unions and it is estimated to be 20% of all employment in the sector. The majority of these workers are

immigrants and they work without contracts (they work on piecemeal or they are at the disposal of the subcontractor for job vacancies). The ones that are registered are paid according to minimum wages of the national general collective agreement. The workers of certain sub-occupations are hired on a “contract for services”, which is considered as self-employment. The federation’s representative considers this situation as the main problem of the sector, because the relevant social insurance fees are not paid and so the national insurance funds lose great recourses, these workers are not insured, no income tax is paid by the unregistered workers and the permanent workers’ jobs are in risk. Mothers with young children who are employed under these statuses lose all the relevant benefits.

The lack of sufficient mechanism for the application of labour legislation was noted. This whole process affects the workforce since salaried employees and permanent personnel with ascertained professional rights tend to diminish, especially in certain occupations or sectors of economic activity, i.e. cleaners, unskilled labourers, truck drivers, porters and so on. This case especially concerns mostly, but not only, unskilled immigrant workers in Greece and labour of low educational level and skills, and low wages. This propensity is rapidly developing and endangers established workers’ rights. The Greek General Confederation of Labour is currently extensively reporting this deregulation of the labour markets.

Employed in physical, mathematical and engineering professions

Women represent 21 per cent of the employed in this occupational group. During the last years, however, there was a considerable potential in female employment in this occupational group. The growth rate of female employment was greater than that of male employment. From 1993 to 2000 female employees increased by 54% while male employees increased by 25%.

In 2000, 3 out of 4 employed in this occupational group were working in the private sector.

In the private sector the participation of female migrants reached in 2000 7,1% and in the public sector the participation reached 4%. Working time increase was more significant among female employees during the examined period, especially for women who were working “more than 45 hours per week” (7,9% in 2000 from 2,5% in 1993).

At the same period there was a significant increase in women’s jobs with temporary contracts, especially in public sector (17%).

We may assert that the significant increase in jobs with limited duration is directly linked to new jobs on “contract of services”, which are considered as self-employment and are very common in this occupation. As a result to this widespread type of employment, the career prospects of women and the advancement in position is limited, the relevant social insurance fees are not paid by the employer, the income tax is much higher and mothers employed under this status, lose all the relevant benefits.

The wages of permanent employees in the public sector are defined by the professional collective agreements and depend on qualifications, seniority and administrative position, so there is no real ground for the development of a significant wage differences between men and women.

Access of women in the high levels of hierarchy seems a difficult task since, in both companies that were interviewed in the case study, very few women participated in the management teams of the companies. A clear glass ceiling appears in the process of women in getting high-levelled positions.

References

- Greek Women's Engineering Association (EDEM) (1999) Final Report: System of Communication, Employment and Training of Qualified Women Engineers, Midterm Community Action Programme for Equal Opportunities between Women and Men, Project No D/5/14317, Athens.
- Kanellopoulos, C. (1982) 'Male-female pay differentials in Greece', *Greek Economic Review*, Vol. 4, 2, pp. 222-241.
- Kanellopoulos, C. and Mavromaras, K. (2000) 'Male-female labour market participation and wage differentials in Greece', Discussion Papers No 71, Athens: Centre of Planning and Economic Research (forthcoming in "Labour Review of Labour Economics and Industrial Relations").
- Karamessini M. & Ioakimoglou E. (2002) Determinants of the gender pay gap, paper, part of the on going research project with the same subject within the programme of KETHI "Equal pay – Mind the gap"
- Koukoulis-Spiliotopoulos, S (2001), From formal to substantive gender equality, The Proposed Amendment of Directive 76/207 Comments and Suggestions, Marangopoulos Foundation for Human Rights, Sakkoulas-Bruylant.
- Koukoulis-Spiliotopoulos, S. in coll. with Petroglou, A., Petroglou P., (1995), Equality litigation in Greece, Greek report in the framework of the comparative study on the Utilisation of sex equality litigation procedures conducted in the years 1993-1995 by B. Fitzpatrick, U. O' Hare, J. Gregory, R. Knecht and J. Blom for D.G. V, European Commission, E.C. V/782/96-EN.
- Kyriazis, N. (1998) Women's employment and gender relations in Greece-Forces of Modernization and Tradition, *European Urban and Regional Studies*, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 65-75.
- Palaiologos N., (2002) "From tradition... to the need of reform: critical thoughts on the structure and function of the Greek trade union's movement", to be published in the Labour Yearbook 2002, Institute of Urban Environment and Human Resources, Panteion University, Athens.
- Petroglou, P. (2001), Good practices for the effective implementation of gender equality rights, Greek report for the "Good practice guide for the effective implementation of gender equality rights", within the framework of the transnational project "Equality Rights: From Legislation to Everyday Practice" (IV Community Action Programme on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men), promoted by the Research Centre for Gender Equality (KETHI), Athens, <http://www.kethi.gr>.
- Petroglou, P., (2000), Good practices on reconciling family and working life, Greek report in the framework of the project "Good Practice Guide on reconciling family and working life", led by the Instituto de la Mujer, Madrid, 2000-2001, <http://www.kethi.gr>.
- Petroglou P. (2001) Good practices for the effective implementation of gender equality rights, Greek report for the "Good practice guide for the effective implementation of gender equality rights", within the framework of the transnational project "Equality Rights: From Legislation to Everyday Practice" (IV Community Action Programme on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men), promoted by the Research Centre for Gender Equality (KETHI), Athens.
- Psacharopoulos, G. (1983) 'Sex Discrimination in the Greek Labour Market', *Journal of Modern Greek Studies*, vol. 1, 2.
- Rubery, J., Fagan, C., Grimshaw, D., Figueiredo, H. and Smith, M. (eds.) (2001) Indicators on Gender Equality in the European Employment Strategy, EC's Expert Group on Gender and Employment, <http://www.umist.ac.uk/management/ewerc/>.
- Tatsos N. (2001) Informal economy and tax evasion in Greece, IOBE, Athens.
- Tzannatos, Z. (1989), 'Women's Wages and Equal Pay in Greece', *Journal of Modern Greek Studies*, vol. 7, 1.

Appendix I

An overview of the fieldwork study

Target Occupation	Cases	Sector	Company/School	Interviewee	Gender
Teaching Associate Professional of Secondary Education	School A	Public	Gymnasium	Director, Philologist	Woman
				Teacher, Mathematician	Man
	School B	Public	Gymnasium	Director, Philologist	Woman
				Teacher, Teacher of I.T.	Man
	School C	Private	Gymnasium & Lyceum	President & Director	Man
				Sub-director of Gymnasium & Physicist	Woman
Director of Lyceum & Mathematician	Man				
Unskilled Workers of the food-production and –processing industry	Firm A	Private	-	-	-
	Firm B	Private	-	-	-
	Firm C	Private	Standardised-food industry	Human Resources Director	Woman
				Production Machine Operator	Man
				Production Labourer	Woman
Engineering Professionals	Company A	Private established by the state and functioning as a public	Design and supervision of the construction of the underground railway in Athens and its functioning	Human Resources Manager	Woman
				Civil Engineer, Contracts Department	Woman
				Electrical Engineer, Head of the Communication Systems Department	Man
	Company B	Private	Industry of Telecommunications and of Information Systems	Sub-director of the Human Resources Unit, Physicist-Information Technologist-MBA	Man
				Mechanical Engineer, Project Co-ordinator at the Project Development Unit	Woman
				Electronic Engineer, Project Manager at the Research Unit	Man

TOWARDS A CLOSING OF THE GENDER PAY GAP

"Towards a Closing of the Gender Pay Gap" is a project, which comes under the 5th Action Programme's Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality (2001-2005) and deals with gender wage differences. It is funded by the European Commission and by national authorities. There are six partner countries in the project: Austria, Denmark, Greece, Iceland, Norway and the United Kingdom.

A Steering Committee with members from all the partner countries functions as the governing body for the project. The Norwegian Centre for Gender Equality manages the project.

The objective of the project is to promote equal pay between men and women for equal work and work of equal value and to identify an efficient mix of tools and instruments for promoting equal pay in the context of each partner country in three target occupations: unskilled workers in the food processing industry, engineers and secondary education teachers. The project partners have produced a national report on these occupations.

Funding partners



European Commission

Programme relating to the Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality (2001-2005)
The conference content does not necessarily reflect the position or opinion of the European Commission



**ARBEIDS- OG
ADMINISTRASJONSDEPARTEMENTET**

Norwegian Ministry of Labour and Government Administration



BARNE- OG FAMILIEDEPARTEMENTET

Norwegian Ministry of Children and Family Affairs



**UTDANNINGS- OG
FORSKNINGSDEPARTEMENTET**

Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research



NHO
Confederation of Norwegian Business and Industry



Norwegian Confederation of Trade Unions