

Gender Wage Gap in the Czech Republic: First Descriptive Analysis Based on Survey 2011¹

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Abstract: In this paper, we show the first descriptive evidence of factors explaining gender wage differences from a unique questionnaire survey that was carried out on a representative sample for the Czech Republic. We observe large wage differences related to gender; without any reasons, Czech women earn on average 77.80% of men's wages. The survey uncovers that there is a number of differences among men and women which may help to explain the wage differences.

Key words: Gender Wage Gap, Gender Wage Discrimination, Family Roles

JEL Classification: J71, J31, J24

Introduction

Gender wage gap represents one of the most important research issues in the field of labour economics. There is a lot of research papers that cover this theme. Typically, wage regressions and decomposition of wage differences between men and women are applied. The decomposition is used to express the part of wage difference that can be explained by objective characteristics of men and women and the unexplained part that may then be ascribed to gender wage discrimination. From the methodological point of view, the methods by Oaxaca (1973) and Blinder (1973), or that of Juhn, Murphy and Pierce (1993), are those that are applied most often. But still some problems appear, though. One of the most crucial of them can be expressed in the following question: Are all the necessary independent variables included into wage equations? If some variables were omitted – for instance if men were more highly endowed with respect to these omitted variables – then discrimination would be overestimated. On the contrary, some of the variables included may reflect discrimination (like occupation (segregation) or tenure and other gender-specific factors) and discrimination may be underestimated. Thus the residual gap may reflect other factors other than discrimination. But still, such studies may be instructive (Blau and Kahn, 2000).

Mincer (1974) was the first to express the relation between human capital (education, age and/or experience) and wages. Later, some other authors, e.g. Dickens and Katz

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(1987), Krueger and Summers (1987, 1988), or Allen (1996), modified Mincer's wage regression by adding a labour status description (the position in one's employment, working hours, type of employment contract, and qualification requirements), corporate factors (how large a company is, commercial and non-commercial sectors, and industries), institutional factors (legislation protection of employment and the minimum wage), and regional factors. Regarding the gender wage gap, family wage gap has been comprehensively explored. Research on this topic can be divided into two groups according to the core of interest, which is: (1) marital status (e.g. Hill, 1979; Korenman and Neumark, 1991; Gray, 1997), or (2) children (e.g. Mincer and Polachek, 1974; Becker, 1985; Joshi and Davis, 2002; Fuchs, 1988; Blau, Ferber and Winkler, 2009; Waldfogel, 1998).

The papers mentioned above study the issue mostly from an economic point of view. But recent research, which prefers a sociological approach, shows that an unexplained part of wage differences between men and women may be caused by their different preferences regarding work-family balance (see e.g. Hakim, 2008). Personality characteristics (e.g. Duckworth and Quinn, 2009; Almlund et al., 2011; Borghans et al., 2009) and soft skills (e.g. Bacolod and Blum, 2010; Black and Spitz-Oener, 2007; or Borghans, ter Weel and Weinberg, 2006) are also highlighted.

So far, studies referring to the Czech Republic and other transitive economies have focused especially on changes in labour markets during transformation periods, and their influence on wage differences between men and women. As Večerník (2001) shows, the introduction of a market economy has led to an increase of disparities in earnings more similar to those in the „West“. Jurajda (2001 and 2003) shows that in the Czech Republic, women's hourly wages are up to 30% lower than those of men, whereas in the Slovak Republic the wage difference is lower, especially in the public sector. In both republics, approximately two thirds of wage differences in the private sector are explained by discrimination factors. Jurajda (2005) also says that segregation of women into low-wage jobs (despite introducing antidiscrimination policies) is a significant source of wage differences between men and women in the Czech Republic.

There are several studies focusing on the Czech Republic which suggest that an unexplained part of wage differences between men and women may be caused by their different preferences referring to work-family balance (see e.g. Hašková et al., 2003; Křížková et al., 2006, Filipová and Machová, 2011). In addition, Mysíková (2007) shows that a part of gender wage gap may be explained by a decision of many women not to participate in the labour market.

This paper is part of a project that tries to put together different approaches researching different aspects of wage differentials between men and women, and develop wide model of wage determinants in order to uncover the factors explaining gender wage gap and to be able to dig deeper into a potential existence of gender based wage discrimination. As part of the project, a survey was conducted on a representative sample of employees in the Czech Republic in 2011. The survey was based on a questionnaire including 64 questions covering various aspects of work and family life, preferences, personality and other characteristics of employees and their jobs (see details in Methodology and data). The whole process gave birth to a unique survey which can help us shed some light on the factors explaining gender wage gap as a whole.

In this paper, we are bringing first descriptive results of the survey to show some interesting differences between men and women in the Czech Republic.

The paper is organized as follows: The next section describes the survey - the process of conducting the survey and factors it covers. The third section deals with some interesting descriptive statistics speaking of differences in responses of men and women. The descriptive analysis is divided according to different areas of factors which help explain gender wage gap. This part is followed by conclusions.

The survey on the gender wage gap

We ended up with a questionnaire of a total of 64 questions covering the following employee characteristics and topics:

- respondent characteristics such as gender, region etc., obtained automatically by the survey criteria,
- characteristics of families and households,
- information about respondents and income of their partners,
- education,
- work experience, current and previous job and workplace characteristics,
- preferences - job related,
- preferences - related to family and life roles,
- psychological characteristics,
- health/beauty characteristics.

The survey was conducted through face-to-face structured interviews with interviewers using a laptop (CAPI). The respondents were citizens of the Czech Republic. Further information about the collection process used in the survey is described below.

- Dates of data collection: October 23 - November 14, 2011.
- Methodology: standardized face-to-face interviews using a laptop (CAPI).
- Population of respondents: employees aged 25 - 54 years (a representative sample for the Czech Republic).
- Selection of respondents: quota sampling; quota characteristics: gender, age, education, region, community size representative sample for the Czech Republic.
- There were a total of 481 trained interviewers participating in the data collection.
- 1984 questionnaires were collected in total.
- The average interview length was 30.7 minutes.

The sample was selective in order to be representative for the Czech Republic on the basis of the following criteria of population structure: sex, age, highest education achieved, region and size of municipality of residence. Unless otherwise agreed, respondents were chosen randomly according to quotas in the home area of interviewers. The interviews were conducted in the households of respondents, one person per household. All respondents were asked at the end of interview whether they would be willing to take part in the second stage of the survey.

Given the method of data capture (CAPI), the majority of control was reached by the means of electronic questionnaire. The CAPI system ensured correct and complete filling of questionnaires, and did not allow any choice of inappropriate respondent. Further logic data control was carried out on the exported data in SPSS. This part of

control focused on deeper logical relations among variables and control of answers in the open questions. In case of incomplete or ambiguous answers were provided, respondents were asked again to make them more precise. Data was then supplemented by the employer identification number and ISCO 88 classification on the basis of respondents' description. By reason of ISCO classification the relevant variables (education, gender, occupation name, job description and name of employer) were recorded to the web application of the partner agency Gallup Europe.

The field control by phone included 30% of all questionnaires. On the basis of this control, 21 questionnaires from 5 interviewers were excluded from the database. The whole process resulted in a unique quality survey which we are going to describe in the next session and take advantage of in analyses in the future research papers.

Basic differences according to gender

a) Income and financial pressure on economic activity of individuals

Since the data were gathered with an intention to analyse wage differences, its description should start with this category. The mean gross monthly wages from main job declared by respondents was CZK 20,198.91 (standard deviation CZK 7,919.91).⁵ Considerable wage differences were identified between genders because women earn 77.80% of men's wages. The mean gross monthly wage reaches 22,558.98 CZK (standard deviation CZK 8,434.87) in case of men, and 17,550.09 CZK (standard deviation CZK 6,331.19) in case of women.

Table 1: Influence of losing respondent's total income on family's standard of living

	Indicator	Total	Males	Females
Standard of living WOULD significantly decrease	Frequency	1626	877	749
	Share (%)	81.96	83.68	80.02
Standard of living WOULD NOT significantly decrease	Frequency	358	171	187
	Share (%)	18.04	16.32	19.98
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.00	100.00	100.00

The wage level, however, does not say anything about the financial pressure on economic activity of an individual. It was approximated by influence that a loss of individual's income would have on family's standard of living. Results show that income of 81.96% of respondents is very important for family's standard of living because its loss would lead to its significant decrease. This pressure is slightly higher in the case of men (83.68%) than in the case of women (80.08%).

⁵ The mean of gross monthly wage was counted on the basis of whole sample, where 93.55% of respondents had a full-time job (95.80% of men and 91.03% of women) and 6.45% had a part-time job. However, the mean of gross monthly wage is not significantly affected by part-time workers because the average gross wage of fulltime workers is CZK 20,516.23.

b) Education and work experience

Educational structure of respondents corresponds to the one of Czech Republic. It shows that most often, lower secondary education (44.08% of men in comparison to 32.80% of women) is the level of education reached by men; in the case of women it is higher secondary education (38.46% in comparison with 32.16% of men). Higher levels of education, i.e. higher professional schools and tertiary education (not segregated into different degrees), do not represent as significant gender differences as described, however, there is a prevalence of women.

It is possible also to mention the field of study. Generally, the most frequent fields of study (47.38% and 39.52% of respondents respectively) are humanities and technical sciences. These are followed by agriculture and forestry (4.99% of respondents), health and medical fields of study (4.46%), natural sciences (2.77%), art (0.71%) and military sciences (0.20%). There are, of course, huge differences in representation of genders among particular fields of study. Men are overrepresented in technical sciences (61.35% of men compared to 15.06% of women), agriculture and forestry (6.01% of men compared to 3.84% of women) and military (0.38% of men compared to no women whatsoever), while women are overrepresented in humanities (28.53% of men compared to 68.48% of women), health and medical fields of study (1.05% of men compared to 8.23% of women), natural sciences (2.48% of men compared to 3.10% of women) and art (0.19% of men compared to 1.28% of women). It is obvious that different fields of study are rewarded differently on the labour market.

Table 2: Educational attainment

	Indicator	Total	Males	Females
Elementary education	Frequency	85	43	42
	Share (%)	4.28	4.10	4.49
Lower secondary education	Frequency	769	462	307
	Share (%)	38.76	44.08	32.80
Higher secondary education	Frequency	697	337	360
	Share (%)	35.13	32.16	38.46
Higher professional school	Frequency	126	52	74
	Share (%)	6.35	4.96	7.91
University, bachelor degree	Frequency	105	40	65
	Share (%)	5.29	3.82	6.94
University, master degree	Frequency	200	112	88
	Share (%)	10.08	10.69	9.40
University, doctor degree	Frequency	2	2	0
	Share (%)	0.10	0.19	0.00
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.00	100.00	100.00

A match of field of study is, however, also very important factor for an individual's productivity, and subsequently for his/her wage (but also for efficiency of expenditures on education). The results show that 59.08% of people work in a job entirely or partly related to their field of study, while 27.67% of them work in totally different area. Although there is nearly no difference between genders among those working in the field of their study (the difference of 1.23 pp.), it is sharpened by focusing on those only who reported entire match of job and field of study (the difference of 4.09 pp.).

Table 3: Match of job and field of education

	Indicator	Total	Males	Females
Match entirely	Frequency	610	302	308
	Share (%)	30.75	28.82	32.91
More or less match	Frequency	562	311	251
	Share (%)	28.33	29.68	26.82
Rather do not match	Frequency	263	154	109
	Share (%)	13.26	14.69	11.65
Do not match at all (I work in another field)	Frequency	549	281	268
	Share (%)	27.67	26.81	28.63
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.00	100.00	100.00

Total work experience of respondents, including current employer, is 16.38 years on average (standard deviation 8.81 years). The mean work experience of men is 3.05 years longer than work experience of women, which can be put down to women's absence from the labour market due to maternity leave. Men's mean work experience is 17.82 years (standard deviation 9.02 years) and that of women is 14.77 years (standard deviation 8.27). Focusing on work experience related to current employer, i.e. tenure, it is 7.43 years in average (standard deviation 6.53 years) for all respondents. However, men's tenure is 1.23 year longer on average in comparison with women. Mean tenure is 8.01 year (standard deviation 6.88 years) in case of men and 6.77 years (standard deviation 6.05 years) in case of women. Men also change their employers more often than women (3.08 and 2.93 employers, where the respondent had main job for more than 6 months, respectively), although the difference is not substantial.

It can be assumed that on-the-job education/training play significant role in determination of labour market outcomes (such as employment, prestige or wage). The survey shows that the most common form of further development of an individual is informal education because self-education, e.g. in the form of reading books relevant to a job, was undertaken by 33.72 % of respondents in the last 12 months. A similar share of respondents (31.05 %) also stated education/training provided by their employer. Personal development through activities ensured by an individual himself/herself (and without any financial support from the employer) is rarer as it was identified for 13.16 % of respondents.

It is also possible to find some gender differences in usage of these forms of personal development. Employers provide education/training to men more often (the difference

being 2.35 pp.), while women work on their development by their own through self-provided education/training (the difference being 4.02 pp.) or informal education (the difference being 5.34 pp.).

Table 4: Education/training relevant for performed job in last 12 months

	Indicator	Total	Males	Females
Education/training provided by employer	Frequency	616	337	279
	Share (%)	31.05	32.16	29.81
Education/training not provided by employer	Frequency	261	118	143
	Share (%)	13.16	11.26	15.28
Self-education (reading books related to jobs etc.)	Frequency	669	327	342
	Share (%)	33.72	31.20	36.54
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.00	100.00	100.00

c) Job characteristics and preferences related to them

Different mechanisms/ways of obtaining the current job was stated by respondents.

Table 5: Way of obtaining current job

	Indicator	Total	Males	Females
Somebody recommended me for this job	Frequency	597	304	293
	Share (%)	30.09	29.01	31.30
Somebody told me about this job/vacancy	Frequency	486	251	235
	Share (%)	24.50	23.95	25.11
Asking for a job without advertised vacancy	Frequency	297	154	143
	Share (%)	14.97	14.69	15.28
Job was offered to me by my current employer	Frequency	231	136	95
	Share (%)	11.64	12.98	10.15
On the basis of advertisement in media	Frequency	180	96	84
	Share (%)	9.07	9.16	8.97
Intermediated by an employment office	Frequency	122	61	61
	Share (%)	6.15	5.82	6.52
Found my own firm, I am its employee	Frequency	16	12	4
	Share (%)	0.81	1.15	0.43
Other	Frequency	55	34	21
	Share (%)	2.77	3.24	2.24
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.00	100.00	100.00

The survey reveals that personal recommendation is the most common way of getting a job in the Czech Republic (in 30.09% of cases), followed by personal information on the job (24.50% of cases). It also suggests low efficiency of a job intermediation by employment office because it was mentioned only by 6.15% of respondents. Surprisingly, there are only negligible differences in using mechanisms/ways of obtaining job mentioned between genders. The most significant differences (but still small in magnitude) can be found in the case of recommendation which is more typical for women (the difference being 2.29 pp.), and direct offer from an employer which is more typical for men (the difference being 2.83 pp.).

Since job characteristics can influence wage level significantly, they were taken into account as well. However, the survey focused mainly on the characteristics which are connected to a need to balance work and family life, and so they can be gender sensitive. Respondents have opportunity to use flexitime in 28.63% of cases (30.06% of men, 27.03% of women), change of workload from fulltime to part time and vice versa in 18.15% of cases (15.27% of men and 21.37% of women) and work at home in 10.89% of cases (11.74% of men, 9.94% of women). As stems from what has been stated, the most significant gender difference can be identified in the case of change of workload (the difference of 6.10 pp.) It suggests that women can prefer employers who enable part time jobs.

Table 6: Preferences of job characteristics

	Indic.	Job security			Job flexibility			Personal self-fulfilment		
		T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Exclusively wage	Freq.	110	76	34	496	292	204	377	223	154
	Share (%)	5.54	7.25	3.63	25.0	27.86	21.79	19.0	21.28	16.45
Rather wage	Freq.	394	245	149	1089	572	517	1054	550	504
	Share (%)	19.86	23.38	15.92	54.89	54.58	55.24	53.13	52.48	53.85
Rather given job characteristics	Freq.	1063	521	542	303	143	160	458	226	232
	Share (%)	53.58	49.71	57.91	15.27	13.65	17.09	23.08	21.56	24.79
Exclusively given job characteristics	Freq.	417	206	211	96	41	55	95	49	46
	Share (%)	21.02	19.66	22.54	4.84	3.91	5.88	4.79	4.68	4.91
Total	Freq.	1984	1048	936	1984	1048	936	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: T in the table is the abbreviation for Total, M for Males and F for Females.

Respondents were inquired for their preferences concerning chosen job characteristics. Since it is expectable that everybody would prefer better job characteristic, they were related to wage. Thus, the respondents have to choose between the generally preferred job characteristic and wage level. An importance of job security, job flexibility, personal self-fulfilment, demands and/or stress related to work and good interpersonal

relationship was discussed related to wage level. As it shows, the job security is more important than wage level for 74.60% of respondents. Good interpersonal relations at workplace are approximately of the same importance as wage because there is only slight prevalence of respondents who prefer them (53.48%) to wage (46.52%). The other job characteristics were preferred to a lesser degree than wage, i.e. less demanding and stressful work were preferred by 32.61% of respondents, personal self-fulfilment by 27.87% of respondents and job flexibility by 20.11% of respondents.

There are, however, significant differences between men and women. In general, the wage preferences are substantially higher in the case of men regardless the job characteristics the wage is related to. The most significant differences can be found in the case of interpersonal relationships at workplace (the share of men preferring wages is 13.44 pp. higher than that of women), demands and/or stress related to work (11.87 pp. difference) and job security (11.08 pp. difference), i.e. in the case of the most important job characteristics (see above). Job flexibility and personal self-fulfilment represent only small differences between genders (5.41 pp. and 3.46 pp., respectively)

Table 7: Preferences of job characteristics

	Indicator	Less demanding and stressful work			Good interpersonal relations at workplace		
		Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Exclusively wage	Frequency	308	196	112	197	127	70
	Share (%)	15.52	18.70	11.97	9.93	12.12	7.48
Rather wage	Frequency	1029	569	460	726	427	299
	Share (%)	51.86	54.29	49.15	36.59	40.74	31.94
Rather given job characteristic	Frequency	540	238	302	822	388	434
	Share (%)	27.22	22.71	32.26	41.43	37.02	46.37
Exclusively given job characteristic	Frequency	107	45	62	239	106	133
	Share (%)	5.39	4.29	6.62	12.05	10.11	14.21
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.0	100.0	100.00	100.0	100.0	100.00

d) Family and work

This part of the survey focused on identification of respondents' attitudes towards roles of men and women in households and differences between the attitudes declared and reality. First, roles of "breadwinner" and "house maintenance person" were discussed.

Concerning the role of "breadwinner", it is possible to say that respondents' attitudes strongly correspond with the traditional idea of men and women roles in the family (breadwinner should be a man for 58.32% of respondents, men and women equally 40.57%, and women 1.11%). However, women are in the role of "breadwinner" more often than the attitudes suggest because in 14.52% of the cases, a woman is really the one ensuring an adequate income for a Czech family. Yet the role of man as a "breadwinner" is still very strong because 58.32% of respondents think that a man should play this role in the family and it is true in 55.19% of cases. Differences in

preferences and in perceived reality mainly are very interesting in this case. Although both genders see a man more responsible for ensuring adequate family income, women emphasize their role as a “co-breadwinner” (the equal contribution of both genders was mentioned more often by women, i.e. the difference in the frequency of this answer between genders is 15.01 pp.) The differences in answers on real responsibility for ensuring family income are much more interesting because both men and women perceive their role of “breadwinner” more strongly than would correspond to their attitudes: men (women) prefer to play a role of family “breadwinner” in 65.37% (1.07%) of cases, and they really play this role in 70.51% (27.14%) of cases. It shows that although substantial part of respondents (33.49% of men and 48.50% of women) thinks that both genders should ensure family income equally, in reality there is one of them more responsible for this task (equal ensuring of the income stated 22.81% of men and 32.37% of women).

Table 8: Responsibility for ensuring an adequate income for a family

	Indicator	Respondents' attitude			Reality in respondent's household		
		Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Exclusively a man	Frequency	311	195	116	423	336	87
	Share (%)	15.68	18.61	12.39	21.32	32.06	9.29
Rather a man	Frequency	846	490	356	672	403	269
	Share (%)	42.64	46.76	38.03	33.87	38.45	28.74
Man and woman equally	Frequency	805	351	454	542	239	303
	Share (%)	40.57	33.49	48.50	27.32	22.81	32.37
Rather a woman	Frequency	15	9	6	98	25	73
	Share (%)	0.76	0.86	0.64	4.94	2.39	7.80
Exclusively a woman	Frequency	7	3	4	190	9	181
	Share (%)	0.35	0.29	0.43	9.58	0.86	19.34
Parents that I live with	Frequency	Not relevant	Not relevant	Not relevant	59	36	23
	Share (%)				2.97	3.44	2.46
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Attention was also paid to the role of “house maintenance person” who is responsible for meal preparation, dish washing, house cleaning, shopping, washing and ironing and taking care of children. In this case the respondents' attitudes revealed traditional understanding of family roles (men are responsible for this role in 2.78% cases, both genders are responsible equally in 42.69% of cases and women are responsible in 54.54% of cases). Similarly to the case of the “breadwinner” role, real division of housework suggests that equal sharing of the role is less frequent than respondents would prefer (respondents divide responsibility for housework equally in 20.94% of cases in comparison with 42.69% of respondents declaring this situation as preferred) and it is more gender specialized (men in 10.19% of cases, women in 66.18% of cases). Gender differences in attitudes and perception of reality can be found here, too. Men see

women in this role more often than women themselves (47.87% of women see themselves as those responsible for housework and child care in comparison with 60.5% of men). As in the case of “breadwinner”, the performance of this role is by both genders perceived more strongly than would correspond to their attitudes: 17.46% (74.79 %) of men (women) are convinced about their role of “house maintenance person” in reality, although they would prefer this situation in 3.72% (47.87%) of cases.

Table 9: Responsibility for ensuring housework and child care

	Indicator	Respondents' attitude			Reality in respondent's household		
		Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Exclusively a man	Frequency	16	13	3	138	133	5
	Share (%)	0.81	1.24	0.32	6.96	12.69	0.53
Rather a man	Frequency	39	26	13	64	50	14
	Share (%)	1.97	2.48	1.39	3.23	4.77	1.50
Man and woman equally	Frequency	847	375	472	416	217	199
	Share (%)	42.69	35.78	50.43	20.97	20.71	21.26
Rather a woman	Frequency	909	516	393	776	419	357
	Share (%)	45.82	49.24	41.99	39.11	39.98	38.14
Exclusively a woman	Frequency	173	118	55	537	194	343
	Share (%)	8.72	11.26	5.88	27.07	18.51	36.65
Parents that I live with	Frequency	Not relevant	Not relevant	Not relevant	53	35	18
	Share (%)				2.67	3.34	1.92
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

These results correspond to the order of life areas (family, working career, hobbies & free time, non-paid activities) which was declared by respondents regarding their preferences and energy used in these areas at the present (respondents put the most important area on the first place). Focusing on individual's preferences, it is possible to conclude that family is the most important area in everybody's life (order value being 1.63) followed by working career (order value being 2.02). There are significant differences between genders because importance of work career in comparison with family is much closer in the case of men (the difference of 0.15 points) than in the case of women (the difference being 0.67 points), which shows relatively higher men's preferences of working career.⁶ The real energy used in these areas, however, does not correspond to the preferences because there is working career at first place (order value being 1.58) and then family (order value being 1.93). There is a significant difference between genders also in this case because men devote relatively more energy to work than to family in comparison with women (the difference between order values is 0.56

⁶ Respondents stated family as the most important area in 56.9% of cases (47.0% of men and 67.9% of women) and work career in 29.2% of cases (35.7% of men and 22.0% of women).

in the case of men and 0.12 in the case of women).⁷ This observation was also verified by the real number of hours worked which was declared by respondents (to avoid bias due to different workload, only full-time jobs with 40 hours per week were taken into account). Men spend at work 2.26 hours per week more than women. Men stated 43.94 hours on average (standard deviation 7.65 hours; 952 observations), while women stated 41.68 hours on average (standard deviation 5.17 hours; 807 observations). It suggests that although both men and women have to give more energy to working career relative to family (than declared preferences suggests), the relative differences in the family and working career order suggest that both genders follow their preferences. Other life areas do not represent substantive differences in preferences and real energy given to these areas (not even gender differences are taken into account).

Table 10: Average order of life areas

	Indicator	Respondents' general preferences			Energy devoted to the areas at present		
		Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
Family	Mean	1.63	1.78	1.46	1.93	2.09	1.75
	Std. deviation	0.82	0.85	0.74	0.83	0.84	0.76
Working career	Mean	2.02	1.93	2.13	1.58	1.53	1.63
	Std. deviation	0.82	0.83	0.79	0.74	0.75	0.73
Hobbies & free time	Mean	2.46	2.39	2.53	2.59	2.49	2.71
	Std. deviation	0.77	0.79	0.74	0.68	0.73	0.61
Non-paid activities (charity, societal org., etc.)	Mean	3.90	3.91	3.88	3.90	3.90	3.91
	Std. deviation	0.36	0.36	0.37	0.37	0.38	0.36
Number of respondents	Number	1984	1048	936	1984	1048	936

Note: 12.9% of respondents participate in non-paid activities such as charity and humanitarian activities, religious activities, ecological activities, work with children, work in societal organizations etc. (11.5% of men and 14.4% of women)

e) Psychological traits

Method of data gathering (incl. its time limitation) employed in this survey made it impossible to use a standard psychological test to measure psychological traits of respondents. Moreover, a survey pilot showed that questions from standardized tests (in English) had to be adapted for Czech environment. Therefore, statements describing certain types of behaviour were created, and respondents were asked to specify to what degree they agree with the statements. This method was used for approximation of respondents' psychological traits.

⁷ Respondents stated family as the area where they put most of their energy at present in 35.3% of cases (27.1% in the case of men and 44.4% of women) and work career in 56.2% of cases (61.2% of men and 50.6% of women).

“Need to excel and be better than others” was declared by 52.62% of respondents. It can be pointed out that it is possible to find significant gender difference here because the share of men with this need was 6.99 pp. higher than that among women. “Giving up reaching of set goal when it proves to be difficult” was admitted by 31.70% of respondents. This trait was more mentioned by women (4.91 pp. in comparison with men). “Being proud of myself” was stated by 76.56% of respondents, and there is no significant difference between genders (only 0.13 pp. in favour of men).

Table 11: Psychological traits

	Indic.	Need to excel in what the respondent does, and be better than others in it			Giving up reaching of set goal when it proves to be difficult			Be proud of myself		
		T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Yes	Freq.	235	143	92	80	38	42	480	252	228
	Share (%)	11.84	13.65	9.83	4.03	3.63	4.49	24.19	24.05	24.36
Rather yes	Freq.	809	443	366	549	270	279	1039	551	488
	Share (%)	40.78	42.27	39.10	27.67	25.76	29.81	52.37	52.58	52.14
Rather no	Freq.	764	388	376	971	522	449	404	221	183
	Share (%)	38.51	37.02	40.17	48.94	49.81	47.97	20.36	21.09	19.55
No	Freq.	176	74	102	384	218	166	61	24	37
	Share (%)	8.87	7.06	10.90	19.35	20.80	17.74	3.07	2.29	3.95
Total	Freq.	1984	1048	936	1984	1048	936	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note: T in the table is the abbreviation for Total, M for Males and F for Females.

From other traits a belief in ability to affect own life, i.e. locus of control can be stated. 70.87% of respondents believe that events in their life are consequences of their decisions and actions, while 29.13% of them believe that they are determined by fortune and coincidences. There is a substantial difference in responses between genders. When compared to women, men more often believe that they are able to control their lives (the difference being 7.34 pp).. Respondents were also asked to evaluate risks in the job area which they are prepared to take (on scale from 0 for no risk to 10 for very high risk). The mean value of risk for all respondents is 5.02 (standard deviation being 2.33), i.e. in the middle of the scale. Men, however, declared higher readiness to take risks (mean being 5.48, standard deviation being 2.25) than women (mean being 4.49, standard deviation 2.29).

Table 12: Psychology traits

	Indicator	Events in your life are consequences of fortune and coincidence, or consequences of your action and decisions		
		Total	Males	Females
Entirely a consequence of my decisions & actions	Frequency	391	227	164
	Share (%)	19.71	21.66	17.52
Rather a consequence of my decisions & actions	Frequency	1015	552	463
	Share (%)	51.16	52.67	49.47
Rather consequence of fortune & coincidences	Frequency	496	227	269
	Share (%)	25.00	21.66	28.74
Entirely a consequence of fortune & coincidences	Frequency	82	42	40
	Share (%)	4.13	4.01	4.27
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100	100	100

f) Sources of wage differences

This descriptive analysis cannot reveal all potential sources of wage differences. Do they stem from personal and job characteristics? That we can suppose, and therefore, the previous sections dealt with description of personal characteristics (including personal preferences regarding family roles, job characteristics and relation between family and work) and to some extent job characteristics, too.

Do the wage differences stem from discrimination? It can be pointed out that 7.96% of respondents think that they are discriminated against in comparison with their colleagues of the opposite gender. This figure, however, is very raw because there is a big difference between genders. Only 3.91% of men think that they are discriminated against; among women the feeling of being discriminated against prevails with 12.50% of respondents.

Table 13: Sense of wage discrimination in comparison with opposite gender colleagues

	Indicator	Total	Males	Females
I feel discriminated against	Frequency	158	41	117
	Share (%)	7.96	3.91	12.50
I do not feel discriminated against	Frequency	1617	897	720
	Share (%)	81.50	85.59	76.92
I do not have opposite gender colleagues	Frequency	209	110	99
	Share (%)	10.53	10.50	10.58
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.00	100.00	100.00

The perception of discrimination in case of women can be strengthened by the fact that women are less often rewarded according to objective, measurable criteria than men. Objective way of wage setting was stated by 59.94% of women (entirely objective by 25% and rather objective by 34.94%), while it was stated by 68.51% of men (entirely objective by 29.01% and rather objective by 39.50%).

The survey among employees also reveals that there is a considerable difference between men and women in asking for higher wages. Only 41.77% of women have asked for wage increase, in contrast to 57.16% of men who have done the same.

Table 14: Asking for wage increase

	Indicator	Total	Males	Females
Yes, I have asked for wage increase	Frequency	990	599	391
	Share (%)	49.90	57.16	41.77
No, I have never asked for wage increase	Frequency	994	449	545
	Share (%)	50.10	42.84	58.23
Total	Frequency	1984	1048	936
	Share (%)	100.00	100.00	100.00

As was suggested above, this paper provides first description of factors which might explain gender wage gap in the Czech Republic. In the future, we will use the unique survey to conduct a number of separate analyses, in which we will dig deeper into roles of particular factors in explaining gender wage gap.

Conclusions

The paper brings the very first descriptive analysis of a unique questionnaire survey that was carried out as a part of a research project dealing with the issue of gender wage discrimination. The survey is representative for the Czech Republic with respect to sex, age, the highest level of education achieved, region, and the size of municipality or residence. Besides the differences between men and women considering objective characteristics such as education achieved or work experience, the results actually show significant differences between men and women in all the fields that were researched, i.e. family-work balance, preferences on job characteristics, psychological traits, and sense of discrimination. All the differences suggest that division of family roles according to gender is very deeply rooted in the Czech society, while Czech women earn 77.80% of men's wages on average. The findings support the stated hypothesis saying that a part of wage differences between men and women may be explained by their different preferences on the labour market.

The hypothesis will be tested applying quantitative methods in future researches in order to prove that inclusion of family role and some other subjective characteristics into wage regression and gender wage difference decomposition leads to better explanation of men's and women's wages, as well as of the wage differences between them.

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