

**STRUCTURE OF THE CIVIL SERVICE EMPLOYMENT
IN SEVEN OECD COUNTRIES**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Summary	3
Introduction.....	4
Section 1 - Civil service employment trends: overview.....	5
Section 2 - Women in the civil service.....	7
The representation of women in the civil service and in the economy as a whole.....	7
The breakdown of women by occupational groups	8
Section 3 - Part-time work	15
Part-time work in the civil service	15
Part-time work in the civil service as opposed to in the economy as a whole.....	16
Section 4 - The age structure of civil service employment	17
Age of entry into the civil service.....	23
Section 5 - Civil service inflows and outflows.....	24
ANNEX 1: STATISTICAL SOURCES	27
ANNEX 2: DATA	28
Tableau A1: Changes in civil service employment, public sector, and economy as a whole (% changes over the period).....	28
Table A2: Percentage of women in the civil service and the economy as a whole.....	29
Table A3: Number of managers in the civil service.....	30
Table A4: Civil service inflows and outflows	31

Summary

As in the market sector, there has been a significant change in the public workforce mix since the late 1980s. Some of these developments are due to demographic trends and far-reaching changes in the labour market as a whole. Others are the outcome, intentional or otherwise, of public management reform in OECD countries.

This report presents the structure of civil service employment in 7 OECD countries—Australia, Canada, France, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States. Since the late 1980s, the number of jobs in the civil service has been declining in most of the countries in the study. This trend should of course be viewed in the light of structural reform and organisational change, in particular with regard to the supply of public goods and services. In most cases too, constraints on public spending have also affected the size of the civil service. Apart from the purely quantitative evidence (i.e. trends in the number of civil servants), there are signs of structural change in the workforce.

This report looks in particular at specific changes in the female workforce in the civil service. Women's participation in the labour market rose in the early 1990s, during a period of recession. In the civil service their participation had already been higher than average. Women now account for around half of all civil servants in most of the countries in the sample, whereas for the economy as a whole the figure is slightly lower. Over the past 10 years the proportion of women in the civil service has been rising, and it is increasingly common to find women in positions requiring a high level of qualification.

Another feature of the civil service is part-time work, which primarily concerns women. In the civil service, this type of work is still a matter of choice in terms of flexible time management, whereas in the rest of the economy it may be considered as imposed by employers.

Trends in the age structure of civil service employment foreshadow the problems that governments will be facing in the longer run. Most public administrations are experiencing a general ageing of the workforce and the age of entry is rising. Finally, staff inflows and outflows clearly reflect the downsizing occurring almost everywhere, with more departures and restricted entries.

This rapid (and incomplete) overview of trends in civil service employment should help to draw the attention of decision-makers in human resource management to the new expectations of staff on issues such as training, pay, working-time arrangements and mobility etc., and to the need for staff management systems that are flexible enough to provide real-time solutions to human capital requirements.

Introduction

In connection with PUMA's work in the area of public employment management, a number of hypotheses have been advanced regarding structural changes in civil service employment and their repercussions for management. This document will analyse selected characteristics of civil service employment: the position of women, part-time work, the age structure and civil service inflows and outflows. In respect of some criteria, the analysis provides elements of comparison with the employment structure of the economy as a whole. A sample of seven countries was chosen—due primarily to the availability of relatively comparable statistics: Australia, Canada, France, Spain, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States.

After an overview of civil service employment in Section 1, Section 2 looks at the position of women in the civil service. Section 3 examines part-time work and endeavours to compare its use in the civil service and in the economy as a whole. The age criterion is probed in Section 4, which looks at how both the age pyramid and the age of entry have evolved in the civil service. Lastly, Section 5 analyses civil service inflows and outflows.

The analysis focuses on the civil service, which is just one part of the broader public sector. From one country to another, the size of civil service, relative to the aggregate public sector workforce, is not the same. The scope used for each country is described briefly in the box below, and sources are listed in Annex 1. It is essentially in the civil service that people with civil servant status (where such a status exists) are to be found.

Box 1. Scope chosen for each country

AUSTRALIA: Australian public service employees covered by the Australian Public Service Act of 1922. The workforce includes persons working full time and part time, with no consolidation (i.e. figures are not in full time equivalent).

CANADA: The scope comprises federal civil service employees who are paid by the Treasury Board of Canada, full time plus part time.

FRANCE: Only employees of civil ministries of the Central Government are included (i.e., employees of national public establishments, La Poste and France Télécom, and private schools are excluded). The workforce is counted in terms of actual employees (full time plus part time) on 31 December of the year in question.

SPAIN: The scope covers persons working for the ministries (full time plus part time), i.e. the central government. It does not include teachers, university staff, government security forces, the armed forces, and employees of the judicial system or statutory Social Security employees.

SWEDEN: The scope corresponds to the central government, which includes central government agencies, whether they are financed by appropriations or by income-producing activities, and public utilities. It does not include municipalities or county councils.

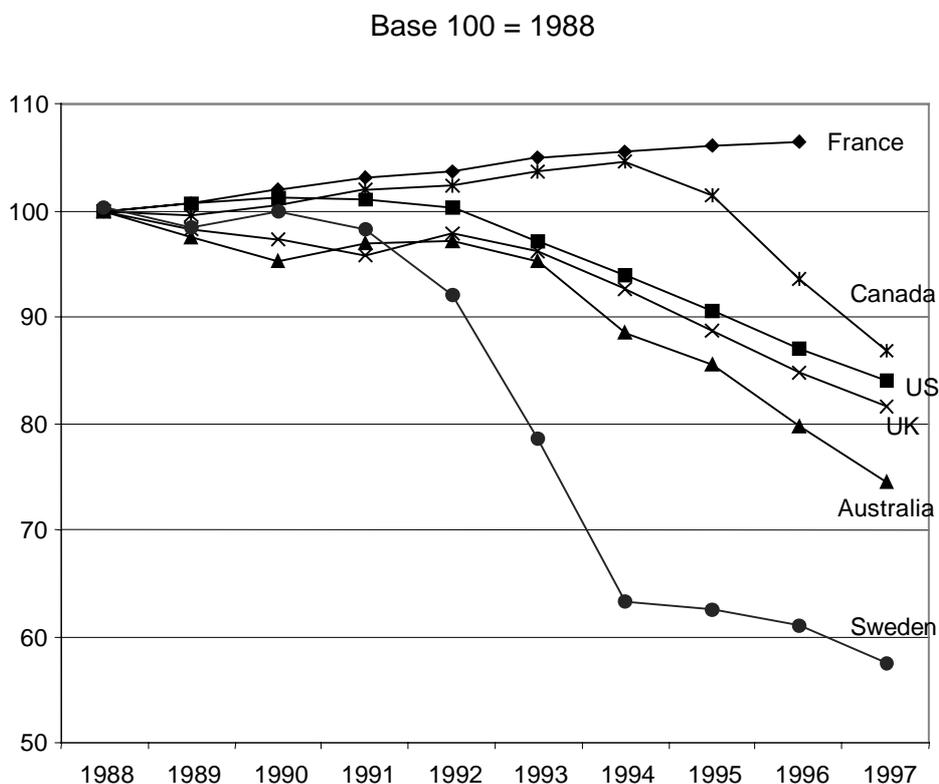
UNITED KINGDOM: The scope consists of the Civil Service, i.e. government departments, executive agencies in Great Britain and the diplomatic service. The data correspond to serving staff expressed in full time equivalent.

UNITED STATES: Federal government employees, excluding Postal Service, expressed in full time equivalent.

Section 1 - Civil service employment trends: overview

This section shows the evolution of the workforce and the downsizing measures undertaken by the countries studied. Both points are important to understand some changes in the structure of the civil service employment. Figure 1 (below) shows how the volume of the civil service has evolved, and Box 2 reviews the reforms carried out or under way in the countries in question.

Figure 1. Changes in civil service employment, 1988-1997



Box 2. Measures taken to downsize the civil service in the 1990s

AUSTRALIA: There is no overall downsizing programme, but each department must achieve specific budget-cutting objectives. These cutbacks lead to measures (different in each department) to reduce staff. Most of the cutbacks are due to a rationalisation of departments; only some units have frozen they're recruiting.

CANADA: In 1990, the White Paper on Civil service provided the framework for an initial reform. In 1995, a budget-cutting programme was implemented, leading to an audit of all programmes and services

and a downsizing plan. Early retirement incentive programmes exist only in those departments deemed to be overstaffed.

FRANCE: This country had no large-scale workforce reduction plan. Cutbacks are achieved by hiring freezes decided through ministerial channels. Because post eliminations in some sectors are offset by post creations in priority sectors, there are no staff redundancies, but rather transfers of abilities.

SPAIN: In 1994-95, five employment restructuring plans were introduced (for the postal and telecommunications service, the employment agency, the tax agency, civilian employees of the Ministry of Defence and CIEMAT). Early retirement is possible from age 60.

SWEDEN: The restructuring of the ministries has been accompanied by staff cutbacks and measures to enhance flexibility and enable agencies to adjust their workforce. The 1993 Civil service Act increased personnel management flexibility and lessened the differences between the public and private sectors. The substantial staff cutbacks (see Figure 1) resulted in redundancies (in about a quarter of the cases), functions being transferred to other sectors (municipalities, counties), and conversion of certain services into public or private enterprises

UNITED KINGDOM: There has been no real workforce reduction programme, but rationalisation programmes that have meant increased productivity, transfers of skills to other levels of government, privatisation and elimination of duplicate effort. Agencies have had to absorb budget cuts, which have led to reductions in employment. Early retirement is possible from age 50.

UNITED STATES: In 1994, Congress passed legislation calling for a 12 per cent cut in the total number of Federal civil service employees by 1999. The reductions have led to voluntary departure incentives (and particularly early retirement incentives) and the use of non-voluntary departures only as a last resort. The federal government's National Performance Review (NPR) has played a very important role in the implementation of measures to downsize the federal civil service.

The choice of scope was dictated by data availability. The main source of information on the structure of employment is personnel registers (but they cover only the civil service). Table 1 shows the size of the chosen scope in relation to the public sector as a whole.

Table 1. Civil service employment¹ as a % of the public sector as a whole²

	1985*	1990	1996**	1997
Australia	..	12.6	10.9	10.1
Canada	9.3	9.0	8.0	7.7
France	38.1	38.4	41.9	..
Spain	..	16.9	..	14.2
Sweden	45.8	30.9	23.6	..
United Kingdom	13.5	13.0	12.9	12.5
United States	13.9	12.7	10.3	..

*) 1986 for Canada

**) 1995 for Sweden

1. Scope observed in each country.
2. Excluding public enterprises.

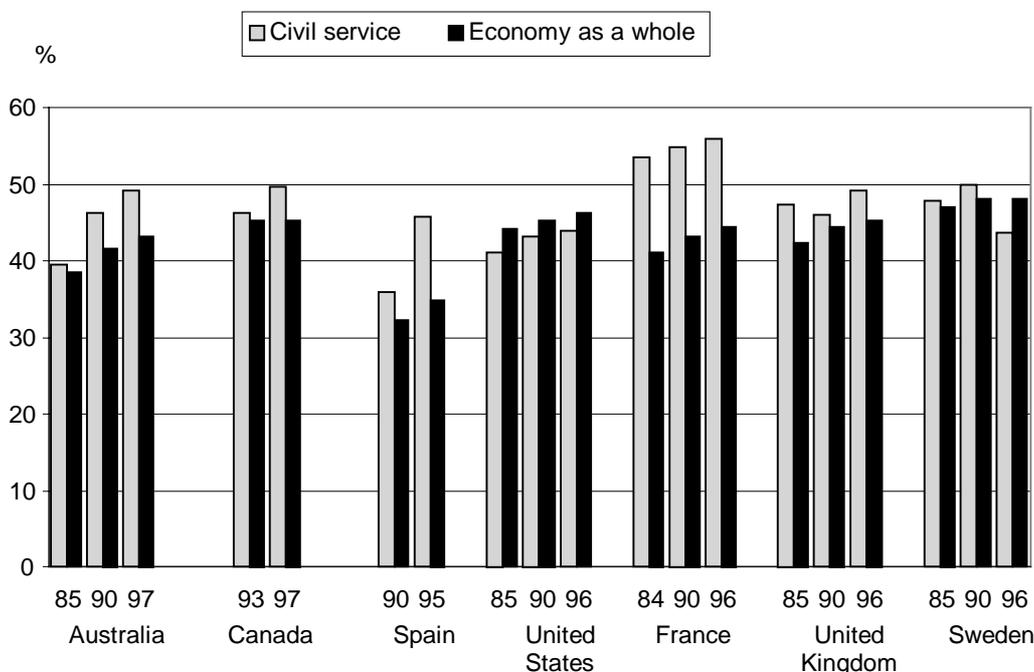
Section 2 - Women in the civil service

The employment situation for women has changed significantly over the past ten years, in the civil service and in the economy as a whole. The general trend in the OECD countries has been for an increase in activity rates for women. While it is a known fact that women tend to hold low-skilled and insecure jobs more than men do, it must be noted that more women are attaining responsible positions than ever before. In order to highlight these changes, we looked first at women's share in civil service employment as compared to the economy as a whole, and then we examined the jobs that women hold in the civil service.

The representation of women in the civil service and in the economy as a whole

As Figure 2 shows, women are proportionally more heavily represented in the civil service than in the economy as a whole, except in the United States. In Australia, Canada, Sweden, the United Kingdom and the United States, the differential between the two sectors is relatively low, whereas it is greater in France and Spain. According to the most recent figures, the rate of female participation in the civil service is approximately 50 per cent in Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom, whereas in France there are more women than men (56.3 per cent in 1996). In Spain, the proportion of women (46.5 per cent) is still lower than that of men, despite a more than 10-point gain between 1990 and 1998. In the United States, the proportion of women is also lower than that of men (44.1 per cent in 1996). This can be explained in part by the fact that manual workers account for a substantial share (14 per cent) of the federal civil service, whereas the proportion of women in that category is fairly low (9 per cent)³. In contrast, the percentage of women in the economy as a whole is less than 50 per cent in all countries in the sample.

Figure 2. % of women in the civil service and in the economy as a whole



3. Taking the federal public service excluding manual workers, the figures are as follows: 47.6 per cent in 1985, 49.7 per cent in 1990, and 49.1 per cent in 1996.

Over a period of approximately ten years, the share of women in the civil service and in the economy as a whole remained fairly stable in France, the United Kingdom and the United States. Even so, different tendencies can be spotted in the make-up of the workforce in these three countries. In France and the United States, there was a very slight increase in the proportion of women in the civil service. In the United Kingdom, a drop was recorded between 1985 and 1990, followed by an increase in 1996 (46.0 per cent women in 1990 and 49.1 per cent in 1996). The situation in Australia is different. There was a substantial increase in the percentage of women in the civil service, which rose from 39.5 per cent in 1985 to 47.8 per cent in 1990, followed by a stabilising trend in the 1990s. Also in Australia, it can be noted that the rise in the presence of women has been fairly slight in the economy as a whole. In Canada and Spain, there has been a clear increase in the proportion of women in the civil service (a 3.4-point rise in Canada between 1993 and 1997, a 9.9-point rise in Spain between 1990 and 1995). For these two countries, there were no substantial changes regarding the economy as a whole. Sweden stands out from the countries studied previously insofar as the proportion of women in the civil service declined between 1990 and 1996 (from 49.8 to 43.7 per cent). This reduction is the consequence of the privatisation of some public utilities, and in particular the postal sector, in which women were very well represented. The proportion of women varies sharply from one sector of the civil service to another. If enterprises that were subsequently privatised are excluded from the scope of observation, the proportion of women was 42 per cent in 1990 (versus 49.8 per cent if privatised enterprises are included). This data verify the assumption that the activities which require the least skilled jobs, mainly held by women, have been privatised

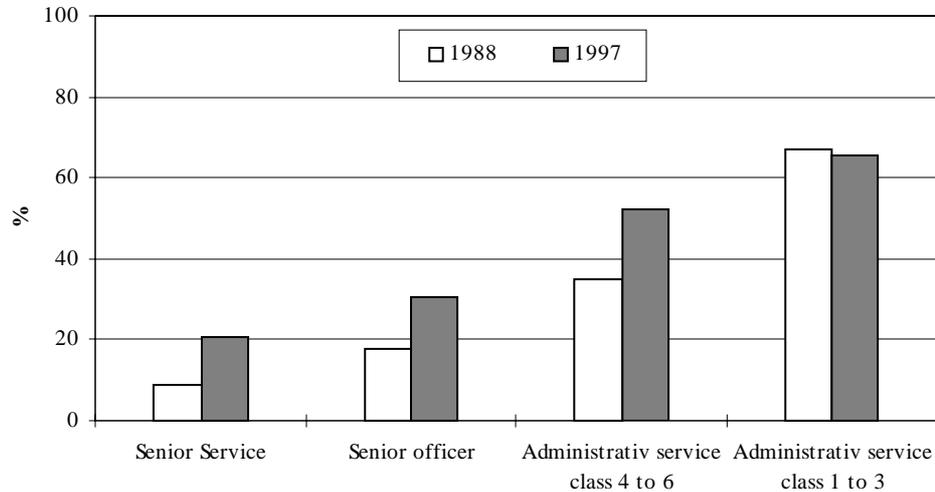
Among the reasons why women are proportionally more heavily represented in the civil service than in the economy as a whole, one that is cited frequently is the greater options for reconciling career and family considerations, through part-time work for example. The civil service hiring process may be another factor conducive to the recruitment of women. In some cases, recruiting is done differently than in the rest of the economy, through competitive examinations or integration after attending special schools for example. It could be considered that the risk of gender discrimination in hiring does not exist in such cases. Another notable case is that of Australia, where the fact that until recently it was only in the civil service that female employees were entitled to paid maternity leave could also have constituted an incentive for women to become public servants.

The breakdown of women by occupational groups

While there is now near parity between men and women in the civil service as a whole, this does not hold true for particular occupational groups. As a rule, there are proportionally more women in job categories requiring relatively lower levels of skills (except in blue collars jobs and, to a lesser extent, technical jobs, a majority of which are held by men). Nevertheless, the number of women in managerial and senior managerial positions is tending to rise. There is a redistribution (slight) of female employees among the various job categories, with a shift towards more highly qualified positions. The extent of this trend varies from one country to another. The figures below show the particularities of each country in this area.

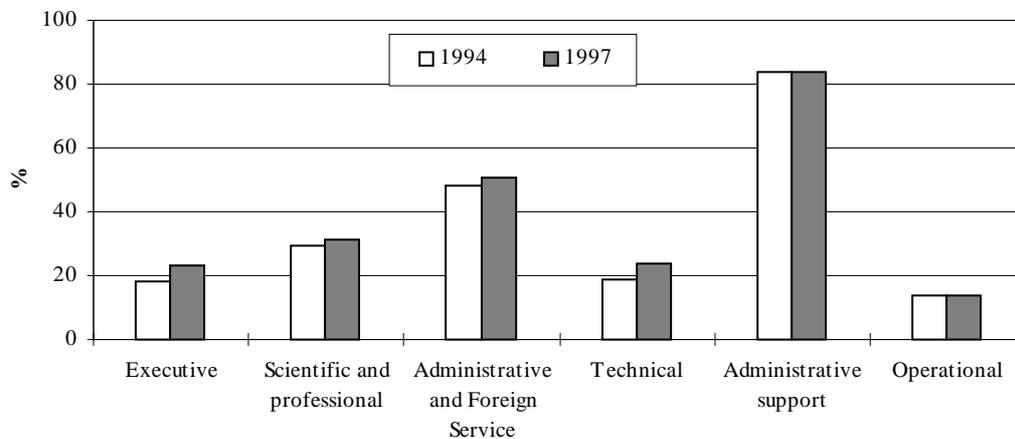
Figure 3. Percentage of women by occupational group

3.1 Australia - % of women by occupational group



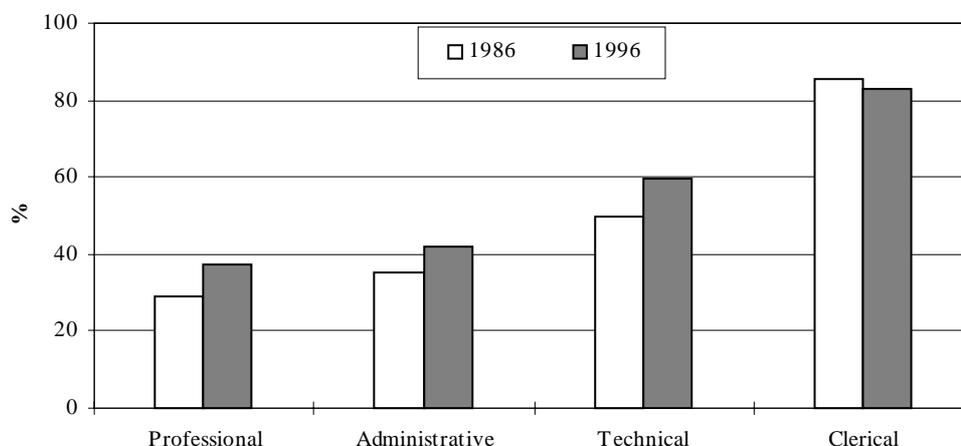
In Australia, the proportion of women in the senior service (20.7 per cent) remains lower than that of men, even though it has more than doubled since 1988. Despite a slight decline, the proportion remains relatively high (67 per cent) in the category of class 1-3 administrative service, which is the lowest.

3.2 Canada - % of women by occupational group



Between 1997 and 1994 in Canada, the proportion of women increased in the four groups in which the percentage of women was lower than that of men. But it remained flat in the administrative support category. Women are not very well represented in the “technical” and “operational” groups, they account for one-third of the scientific and professional category and just over one-fifth of executive personnel, versus four-fifths of administrative support staff.

3.3 United States - % of women by occupational group

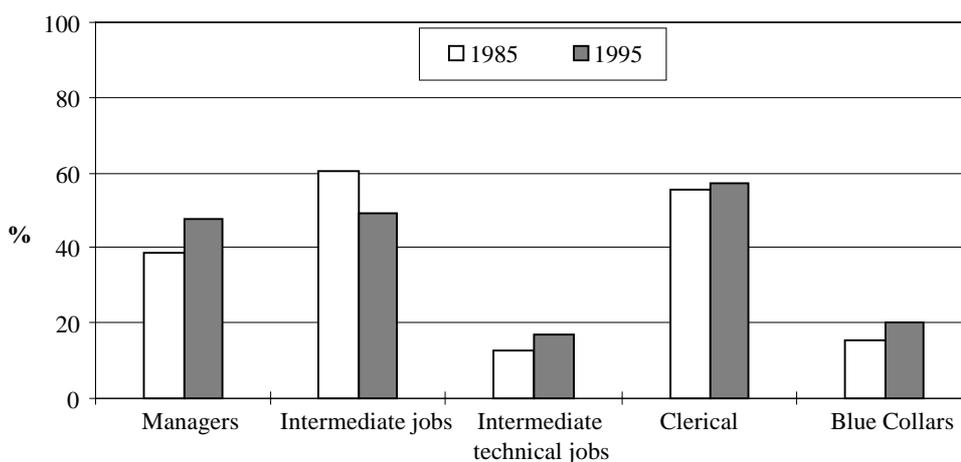


Definitions:

- Professional: Jobs requiring a bachelor's degree and specialisation in a relevant field. These are essentially managerial and research jobs.
- Administrative: Jobs requiring no particular specialisation, but good judgement, a sense of responsibility and good general knowledge.
- Technical: Support staff for managers and administrators, requiring specialised experience or training but not extensive knowledge of a particular field.
- Clerical: Office assistance work.

In the United States, it can be seen that the proportion of women is rising in the “professional”, “administrative” and “technical” groups. The “clerical” category has seen a slight drop in female participation, although women continue to dominate with 83 per cent in 1996.

3.4 France - % of women by occupational group



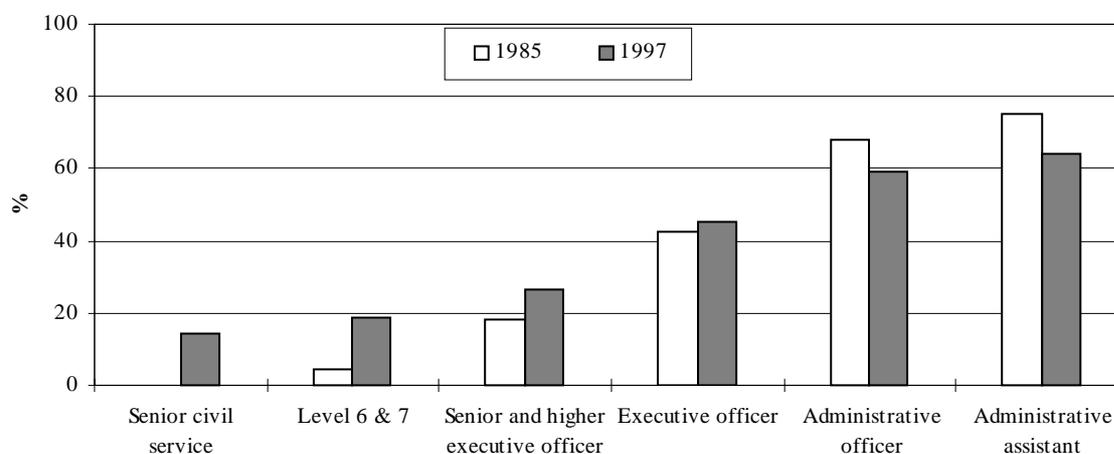
Definitions:

- Senior managers and professionals: executives, magistrates, administrative officers, engineers, professors, secondary-school teachers and *professeurs des écoles* (a certain category of primary school teachers, for 1995 only).

- Intermediate jobs: primary school teachers (in 1995, some primary school teachers were granted the status of *professeurs des écoles*), intermediate health care occupations, social workers, police, foremen and non-commissioned officers

In France, we see relatively less disparity between men and women than in the other countries, except for technical occupations and manual jobs, which are traditionally filled by men. There are slightly more women than men among clerical workers. With respect to intermediate occupations, the division between men and women became more even between 1985 and 1995. There was a significant increase in the proportion of women managers, from 37.2 per cent in 1990 to 47.8 per cent in 1996—a 10-point rise. This increase is due in part to a change in the status of some primary school teachers (a high proportion of whom are women), who were moved from the “intermediate jobs” group to that of managers and professionals.

3.5 United Kingdom - % of women by occupational group



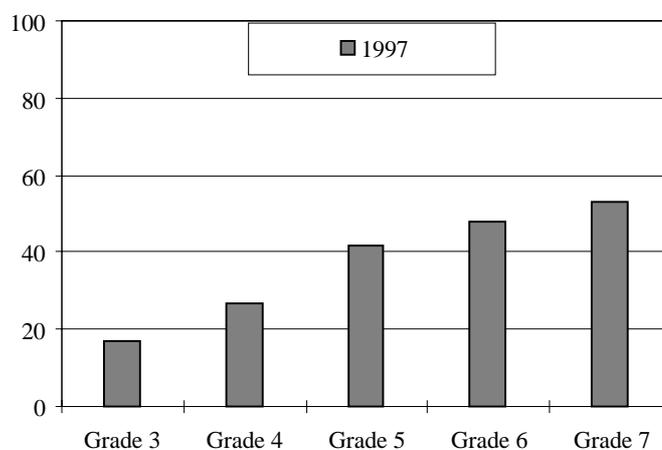
The “Senior Civil Service” group did not exist in 1985.

Definitions:

- Grades 6 & 7 and some Senior Executive posts: desk officers, e.g. policy development; heads of executive support sections, operational units and specialist areas.
- Senior Executive Officer, Higher Executive Officer: executive and policy support; research analysis and casework. Managers of junior executive and clerical/support operations. Personal assistants to senior staff.
- Administrative Officer, Administrative Assistant: typing, secretarial, clerical and support roles.

In line with what has been seen in respect of the countries above, Figure 3.5, which ranks jobs in decreasing order of the level of skills required, shows that, in the United Kingdom, the presence of women is inverse proportion to the level of these requirements. For the two levels calling for the highest qualifications (apart from Senior Civil Service posts, for which data are unavailable), the percentage of women rose quite significantly between 1985 and 1997 (by 14.2 points for “Grades 6 and 7” and by 8.4 points for Senior Executive Officers). The proportion of women remained stable at the intermediate levels and diminished at levels with lesser skills requirements.

3.6 Sweden - % of women by occupational group



Data for prior years are unavailable because the TNS classification system used in the above figure was revised in 1995.

Definitions:

Grade 3: Jobs requiring advanced ability to solve complex, crucial problems. These posts involve the shaping of long-term strategies and working methods and determining what resources are needed.

Grade 4: Jobs requiring advanced ability in a particular field, and which are performed with minimal supervision.

Grade 5: Jobs involving the application of experience and know-how to solve specific complex problems.

Grade 6: Jobs in which general instructions are carried out.

Grade 7: Jobs involving routine work.

In contrast to the situation in the other countries cited above, in Sweden there are no categories in which women outnumber men, even in respect of the lowest-skilled jobs. However, the same tendency as elsewhere regarding the representation of women is observed in Sweden—i.e., that the higher the required level of skills, the lower the representation of women in that category.

In order to get a comparative perspective on how the distribution of women across occupational groups has evolved, the ratio of the percentage of women in the group requiring the highest qualifications to the percentage of women in the group requiring the lowest qualifications was calculated for two different years (Table 2). It gives an indication of how women's jobs have been redistributed by occupational group.

Table 2. Index of the representation of women by occupational group

Ratio of the % of women in the highest group to their % in the lowest group

	1985	1997 (or the most recent year available)
Australia	0.13	0.32
Canada	-	0.27
France	0.70	0.83
<i>_excluding primary and secondary school teachers</i>	<i>0.49</i>	<i>0.54</i>
Sweden	-	0.32
United Kingdom	0.06	0.30
United States	0.34	0.45

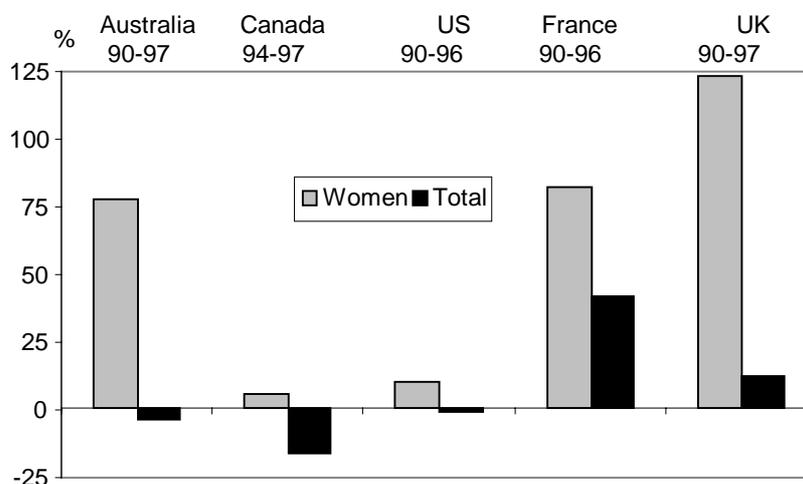
The highest group comprises: senior services for Australia, executives for Canada, senior managers and professionals for France, Grade 3 for Sweden, Grades 6 & 7 for the United Kingdom and professionals for the United States.

The lowest group comprises: Class 1-3 administrative staff for Australia, administrative support staff for Canada, clerical workers for France and the United States, Grade 7 for Sweden and administrative assistants for the United Kingdom.

The results confirm the previous observations. Between 1985 and 1997, the ratio increased in all countries: the disparities in the representation of women by socio-professional categories diminished. However, the fact that the value of the index is less than 1 in all cases signifies that the proportion of women is still largest in the least-skilled socio-professional categories. In France, as seen above, women are relatively more evenly distributed. The value of the index for 1997 (0.83) means that France is well placed compared to the other countries. Although this is due in part to the fact that the education sector is included in the Civil Service in France, which is not the case in the other countries in the sample. A large number of teachers (categories in which the proportion of women is fairly high) are classified as managers.

In some countries, steps have been taken to promote equal employment opportunity between men and women. Programmes have been set up to increase the number of women in executive positions. Figure 4 shows the respective variations in the number of posts in executive categories, for men and women combined and then for women.

Figure 4. Change in the number of civil service managers: women and total



The number of women managers increased in all countries, whereas the total number of posts in that category either diminished (Australia, Canada, United States) or increased only slightly (United Kingdom). France is a somewhat special case, since the “managers” group expanded because of the classification changes cited above. This chart reflects the results of programmes to improve the equality of opportunity between women and men. Selected examples of policies introduced in this area are presented in Box 3.

Box 3. Plans to improve equal employment opportunities

CANADA: Introduction of the new “Employment Equity Act” of 1995. The purpose of this legislation is “to achieve equality in the workplace so that no person shall be denied employment opportunities or benefits for reasons unrelated to ability and, in the fulfilment of that goal, to correct the conditions of disadvantage in employment experienced by women, aboriginal peoples, persons with disabilities and members of visible minorities”⁴.

UNITED KINGDOM: For ten years, the Cabinet Office has been implementing ways to foster equal opportunities for men and women. This policy was rewarded when “in November the Cabinet Office received on the Service’s behalf the British Diversity Gold Award for best practice in the delivery of equal opportunity. The British Diversity Awards recognise and reward organisations which are genuinely promoting equal opportunities and diversity within the working environment”⁵.

UNITED STATES: Federal Equal Opportunity Recruitment Program (FEORP).

4. Section 2, Employment Equity Act, 1995

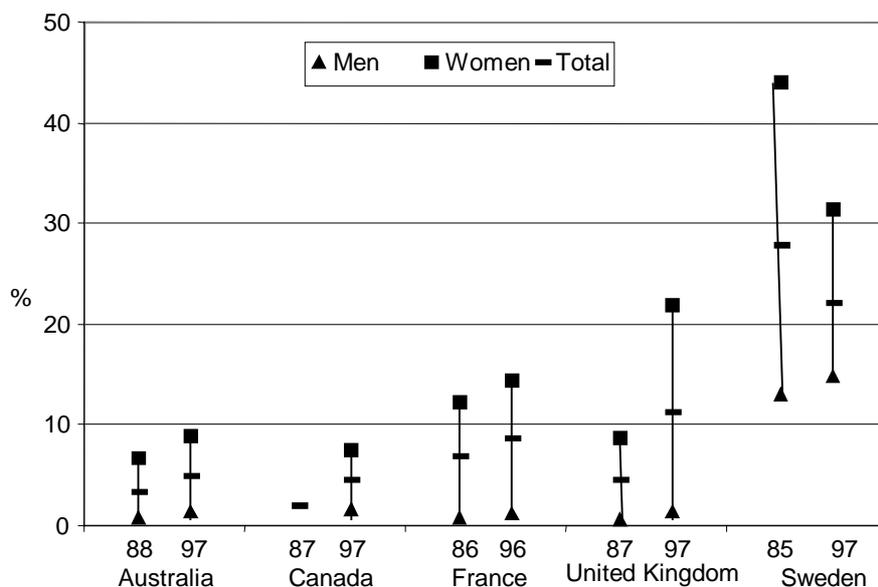
5. A wealth of information is available from the Internet site of the Development and Equal Opportunities Division, Office of Public Sector, Cabinet Office (<http://www.open.gov.uk/co/cseg/deod/deod.htm>).

Section 3 - Part-time work

Over the past ten years, part-time work has developed both in the private sector and in the economy as a whole, and for both men and women (except in Sweden). As a rule, the proportion of women working part-time is preponderant both in the civil service and in the economy as a whole. In contrast, while in the civil service the percentage of men working part-time is low and rising only slowly, this is not the case in the private sector. It is estimated that 8 per cent⁶ of men work part-time in the OECD area as a whole, and this proportion rises essentially during periods of recession. This tendency has not been observed in the civil service, where part-time work is generally a matter of employee demand, whereas in the private sector it is mainly decided by employers^{7 8}.

Part-time work in the civil service

Figure 5. Proportion of part-time workers in the civil service and breakdown by gender (in %)



Part-time work in the civil service is observed in five countries (Australia, Canada, France, Sweden and the United Kingdom). Figure 5 shows that part-time work is more widespread among women than among men. The proportion of men working part-time is around 1 per cent, and has changed little if at all, in recent years. The only notable exception is Sweden, where 14 per cent of men worked part-time in 1997. With regard to women, the situation varies more widely from country to country. The proportion of

6. Unweighted average (OECD *Employment Outlook*, June 1998).

7. "In establishment surveys in a number of European countries, the majority of managers said that the primary reason for the introduction of part-time working was to meet the needs of the firm." (OECD *Employment Outlook*, June 1998)

8. For example, in France 42 per cent of employees working part-time would like to work more

women working part-time rose slightly in France (from 12.3 per cent in 1986 to 14.5 per cent in 1996) and Australia (from 6.7 per cent in 1988 to 8.8 per cent in 1997). In the United Kingdom, the proportion more than doubled. In this regard, the report *Civil Service Statistics*⁹ points out that, while the proportion of women working part-time is highest in the least-skilled jobs, it is nonetheless 12 per cent in the “senior civil servant” category. In Sweden, the percentage of women working part-time was still very high, at 31.4 per cent in 1997, despite a sharp drop since 1985 (down 12.7 points).

Part-time work in the civil service as opposed to in the economy as a whole

Table 3. Comparison of the proportion of part-time workers in the civil service and in the economy as a whole between 1986 and 1996 (in %)

	Men		Women		Total	
	1986	1996	1986	1996	1986	1996
Australia						
<i>civil service</i> ^a	0.8	1.3	6.7	8.8	3.3	5.0
<i>whole economy</i>	6.7	11.7	37.9	42.6	18.9	25.0
Canada						
<i>civil service</i> ^b	-	1.5	-	7.6	2.0	4.6
<i>whole economy</i>	-	10.7	-	28.9	16.9	18.9
France						
<i>civil service</i>	0.7	1.1	12.3	14.5	7.0	8.7
<i>whole economy</i>	3.4	5.3	23.3	29.5	11.7	16.0
Sweden						
<i>civil service</i> ^c	13.0	14.8	44.1	31.4	27.9	22.0
<i>whole economy</i>	6.0	9.3	42.8	39.0	23.5	23.6
United Kingdom						
<i>civil service</i> ^b	0.5	1.3	8.7	22.0	4.6	11.3
<i>whole economy</i>	4.6	8.1	45.0	44.8	21.6	24.6

a) 1988 and 1997.

b) 1987 and 1997.

c) 1985 and 1997.

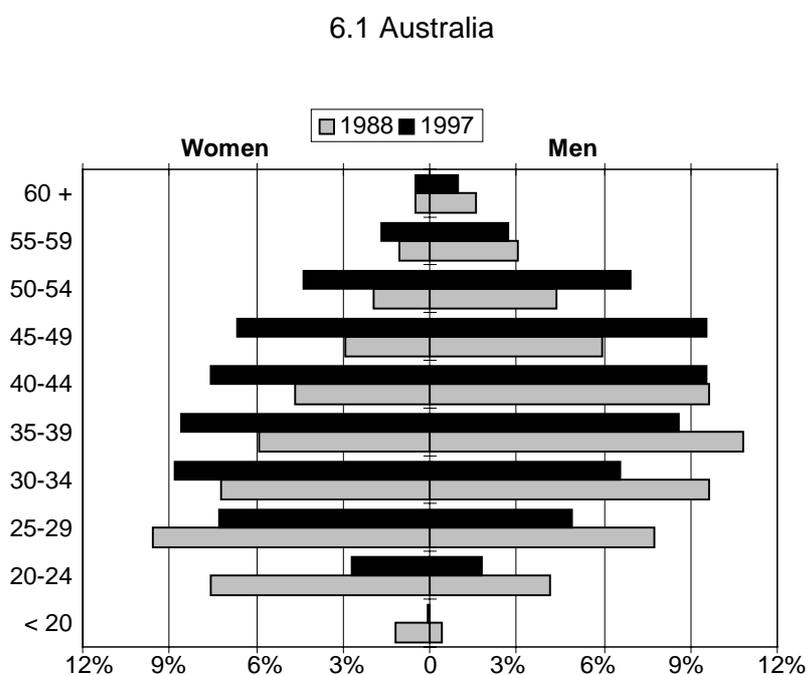
In Australia, Canada, France and the United Kingdom, in 1986 and 1996, part-time work was more widespread in the economy as a whole than in the civil service. The gap remained fairly stable over the period in Australia and France. In the United Kingdom, the disparities between the public and private sectors tended to lessen, because the proportion of staff working part-time increased substantially in the civil service (up by 6.2 points between 1986 and 1996). In Sweden, the situation was the opposite of that of the four other countries, with a larger proportion of men working part-time in the civil service than in the economy as a whole, and an equivalent situation for women in both sectors. It would appear that the percentage of part-time workers in Sweden had reached a very high level in both sectors and that the trend is now downward.

9. *Civil Service Statistics* 1997, Cabinet Office, p. 16.

Section 4 - The age structure of civil service employment

In general, an ageing of the workforce is observed in OECD countries. The purpose here is to look at whether the civil service profile reflects this same tendency. The charts below show the age pyramids for civil service employees for two different years separated by roughly a decade. The trends are fairly dissimilar from one country to another. One common tendency that does emerge, however, is that the age at which people join the civil service is increasing. Virtually no one enters civil service before the age of 20—not only because people are staying in school longer, but because the requisite qualifications have also become stricter. The labour market situation is another factor. This is the case in France, where in a context of underemployment young job seekers choose the civil service as a safe choice in terms of job security. In fact, this results in a trend towards over-qualification of new recruits, and creates a gap between the level of recruiting and the jobs on offer, which could ultimately pose personnel management problems¹⁰.

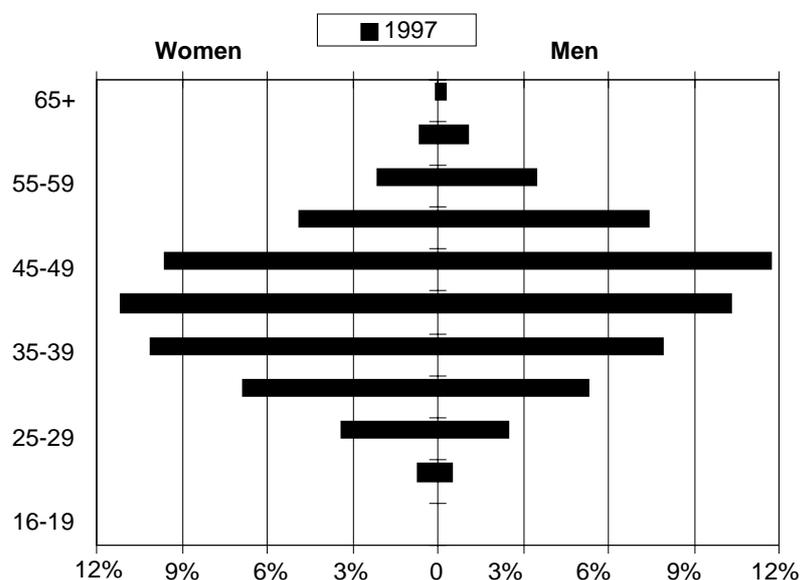
Figure 6. Changes in the breakdown by age and by gender



In Australia, among older groups, there were more men than women in 1988, but the difference was getting blurred in 1997. Among the younger age groups, there were more women than men, in both 1988 and 1997. Figure 6.1 shows an evening out of the split between men and women in the civil service, with a tendency towards feminization. It can also be seen that the age pyramid is shifting towards an ageing of the civil service, for women and men alike, since in 1988 the median age groups were 35-39 for men and 30-34 for women, but in 1997 they were 40-44 and 35-39 respectively.

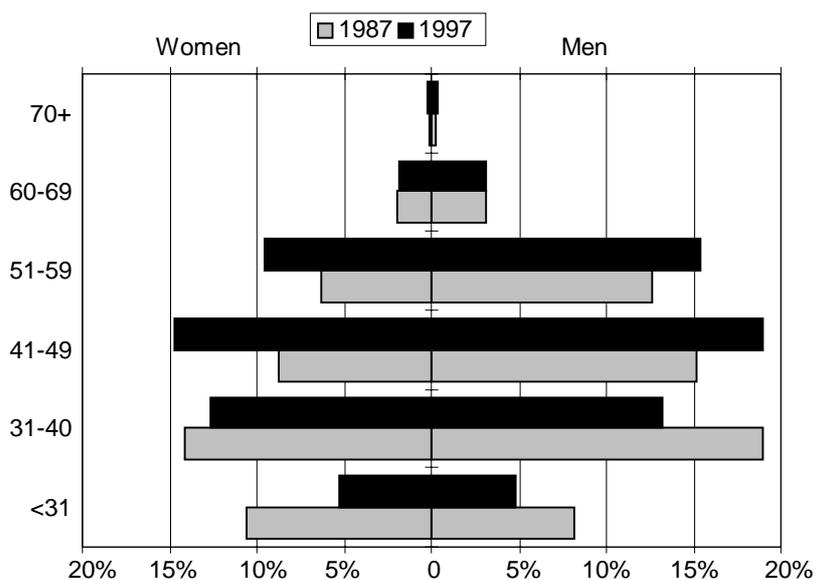
10. *Service Public* No. 56, March 1998

6.2 Canada



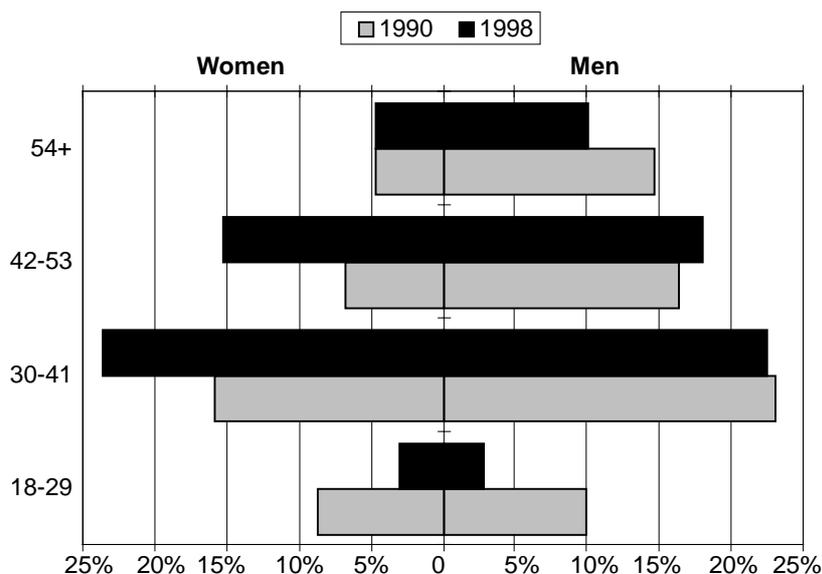
With regard to the gender mix in Canada in 1997, the age groups of 40-44 and younger showed more women than men, whereas in older groups, there were fewer women. The proportion of women diminishes with age: women make up 59.5 per cent of the 20-24 bracket, 52 per cent of those aged 40-44, and 27.8 per cent of those over 65. The increase in the percentage of women in the Canadian federal civil service seen in Figure 2 is attributable to the younger age groups. The *Annual Report on Employment Equity* in the Canadian federal civil service pointed out that the population of public servants is still ageing (41.3 per cent of officials are aged 45 or older), and that this is essentially due to the limited number of employment opportunities for young people.

6.3 United States



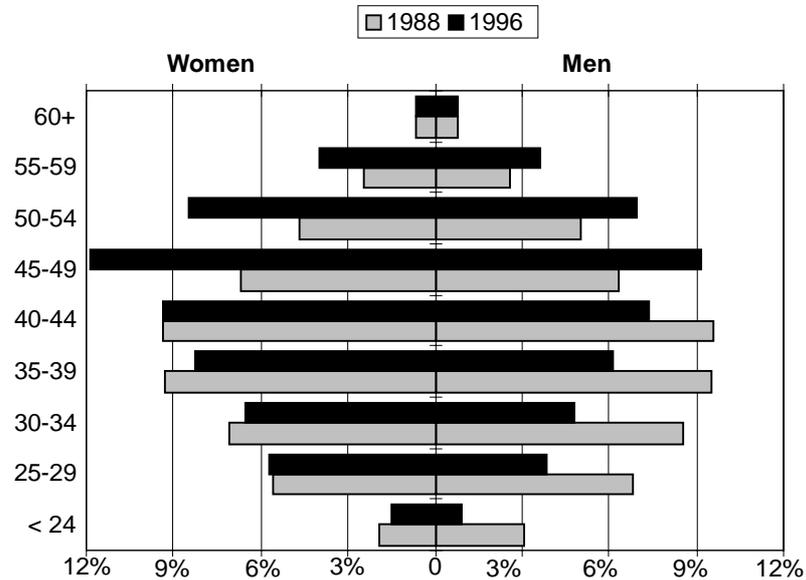
The US federal civil service has aged substantially. In 1987, 31-40 year-olds accounted for a third of all public servants, in 1997 they accounted for only a quarter. Those under 31 made up 18 per cent of the civil service in 1987, versus 10 per cent in 1997. The younger the age group, the higher the proportion of women. In 1997, women accounted for 52 per cent of those under 31 and only 37 per cent of those over 60.

6.4 Spain



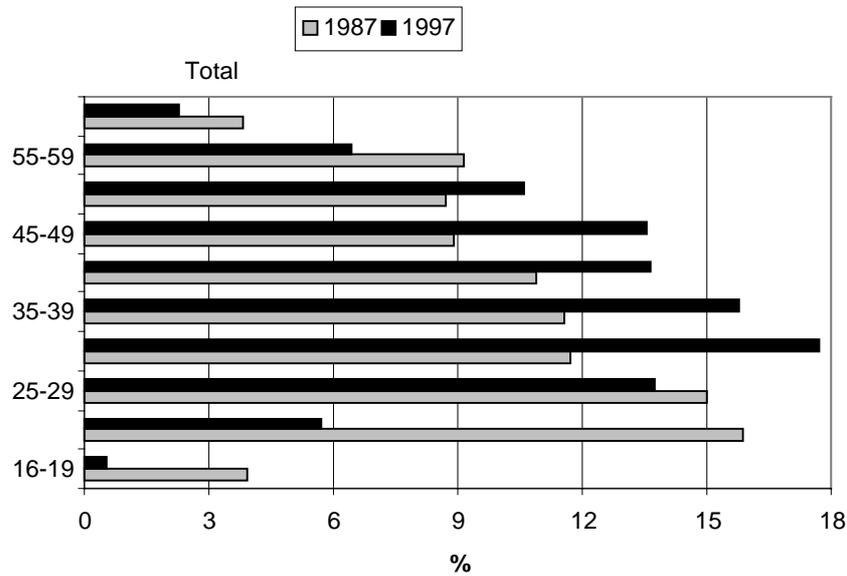
In Spain, the 18-29 age group has shrunk significantly for both men and women. The number of women has increased in the 30-41 and 42-53 brackets, corresponding to the heavy rise in the percentage of women seen in Figure 2. From Figure 6.4, it would seem that the age at which these women entered the civil service was fairly high. In contrast, the proportion of men in these two age groups remained stable. The over-54 category was stable for women and in decline for men. Unlike the other countries, Spain showed no ageing of employees in the civil service.

6.5 France



As in Australia and the United States, a tendency towards the ageing of employees in the civil service can be observed in France, characterised by an increase in the proportion of over-45 age groups and at the same time a decrease in those under 35. The civil service is ageing differently, depending on whether one looks at the male or female population. For women, the decline in the proportion of under-35 age groups is less pronounced, and in fact there was a slight increase in the percentage of women aged 25-29. It would appear that more women than men joined the civil service in 1996, whereas it was the reverse in 1988 (based on the assumption that under-29 brackets consist mainly of new entrants). The median age bracket was identical for men and women, rising from 35-39 in 1988 to 40-44 in 1996.

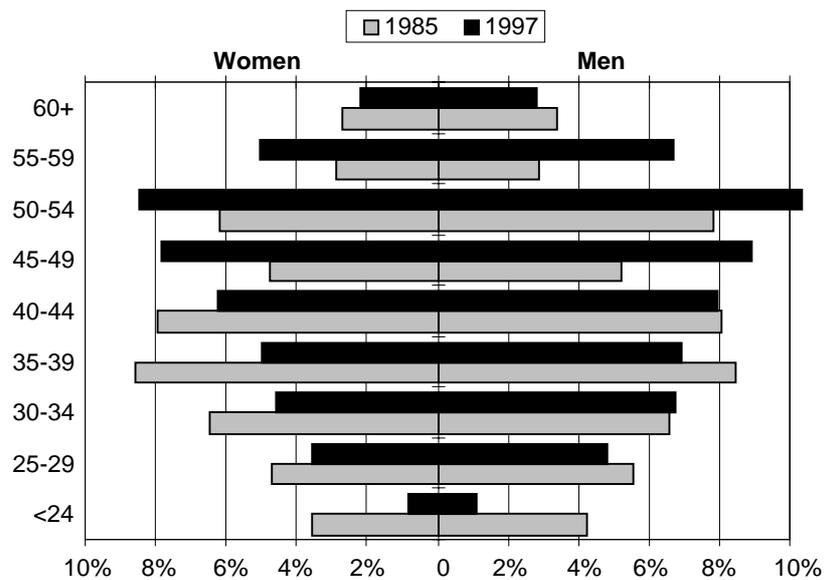
6.6 United Kingdom - Age structure in the civil service*



* The breakdown by gender is not available.

In the United Kingdom, the age structure in the civil service has changed over the past ten years. There has been an increase in the number of civil servants in the 30-34-age bracket, along with a reduction in the under-25 bracket. This stems in part from the fact that the proportion of people recruited at age 25 or older has increased in recent years. Early retirement incentive programmes and the small number of those who work beyond the legal retirement age have diminished the over-55 age bracket. In 1997, the average age of public servants was 38.1 for women and 40.5 for men.

6.7 Sweden



The age pyramid in Sweden reflects a significant ageing of the workforce. All age brackets below 44 declined, whereas age brackets above 44 were on the rise (except for the over-60 group). The reduction in the over-60 bracket may be interpreted as a result of retirement incentive programmes. The decline in the youngest age brackets is more pronounced for women than for men, which would suggest that the reduction in the proportion of women in the Swedish civil service that was seen in Figure 2 stems mainly from new entrants. It should be noted that in the early 1990s a number of public organisations changed status and were privatised. The bias introduced by the impossibility of comparing like with like is very substantial in this instance.

Table 4. Cumulative incidence of age brackets in %

	Australia		France		United Kingdom	
	1988	1997	1988	1996	1987	1997
16-24	13.3	4.6	5.0	2.4	19.9	6.3
25-34	47.6	32.2	33.0	23.3	46.7	37.7
35-44	78.6	66.6	70.9	54.5	69.3	67.1
45-54	93.8	94.2	93.5	90.9	87	91.3
55+	100	100	100	100	100	100

	Spain	
	1990	1998
18-29	18.7	5.9
30-41	57.6	51.9
42-53	80.6	85.2
54+	100	100

	United States	
	1987	1997
<31	18.7	10.1
31-40	51.8	35.9
41-49	75.6	69.6
50-59	94.6	94.5
60+	100	100

Table 4 shows how the civil service age structure has shifted in each country. For the first three age brackets (the first two in the case of Spain), the cumulative percentages in 1997 (or 1996 or 1998) were smaller than they were at the end of the 1980s. Ageing is less pronounced in the United Kingdom, however. In all of the countries, the frequency of the 16-24 age bracket (the youngest of all) has dropped most sharply, people are entering the civil service later and later (as holds true in the private sector as well). The ageing is also linked to all downsizing programmes including hiring freezes and limited replacement of vacant posts.

Age of entry into the civil service

Most often, the civil service offered new recruits long-term career prospects. In the private sector, job insecurity is currently on the rise (with fixed-term contracts, temping, internships, etc.), and worker mobility is increasing. These trends are not as great in the civil service, even if in some countries the authorities are introducing incentive programmes for mobility, between the public and private sectors in particular.

Table 5. Incidence of entries into the civil service, by age bracket

	Australia		United Kingdom	
	1988	1997	1987	1997
(16-24)	30.0	22.1	57.0	32.1
(25-34)	32.7	34.4	19.0	30.6
(35-44)	23.4	26.9	14.0	19.4
45+	14.0	16.6	10.0	17.9

In Australia and The United Kingdom, more than half of the employees enter the civil service prior to age 34 (respectively, 56 per cent and 63 per cent in 1997). Between 1988 and 1997, the incidence of entry declined significantly for people under 24 years of age. There was a notable rise in the proportion of people over 45 (who in 1997 accounted for 17.9 per cent in the United Kingdom and 16.6 per cent in Australia). The table below shows the ratio of the percentage of entrants to the percentage of serving staff, by age bracket.

Table 6. Relative hiring intensity, by age bracket*

	Australia		United Kingdom	
	1988	1997	1987	1997
(16-24)	2.44	4.80	2.87	5.13
(25-34)	0.95	1.25	0.71	0.97
(35-44)	0.75	0.78	0.62	0.66
45-54	0.62	0.50
45 +	0.33	0.54
55 +	0.72	0.47

* Ratio of the percentage of new hires to the percentage of jobs in the age bracket.

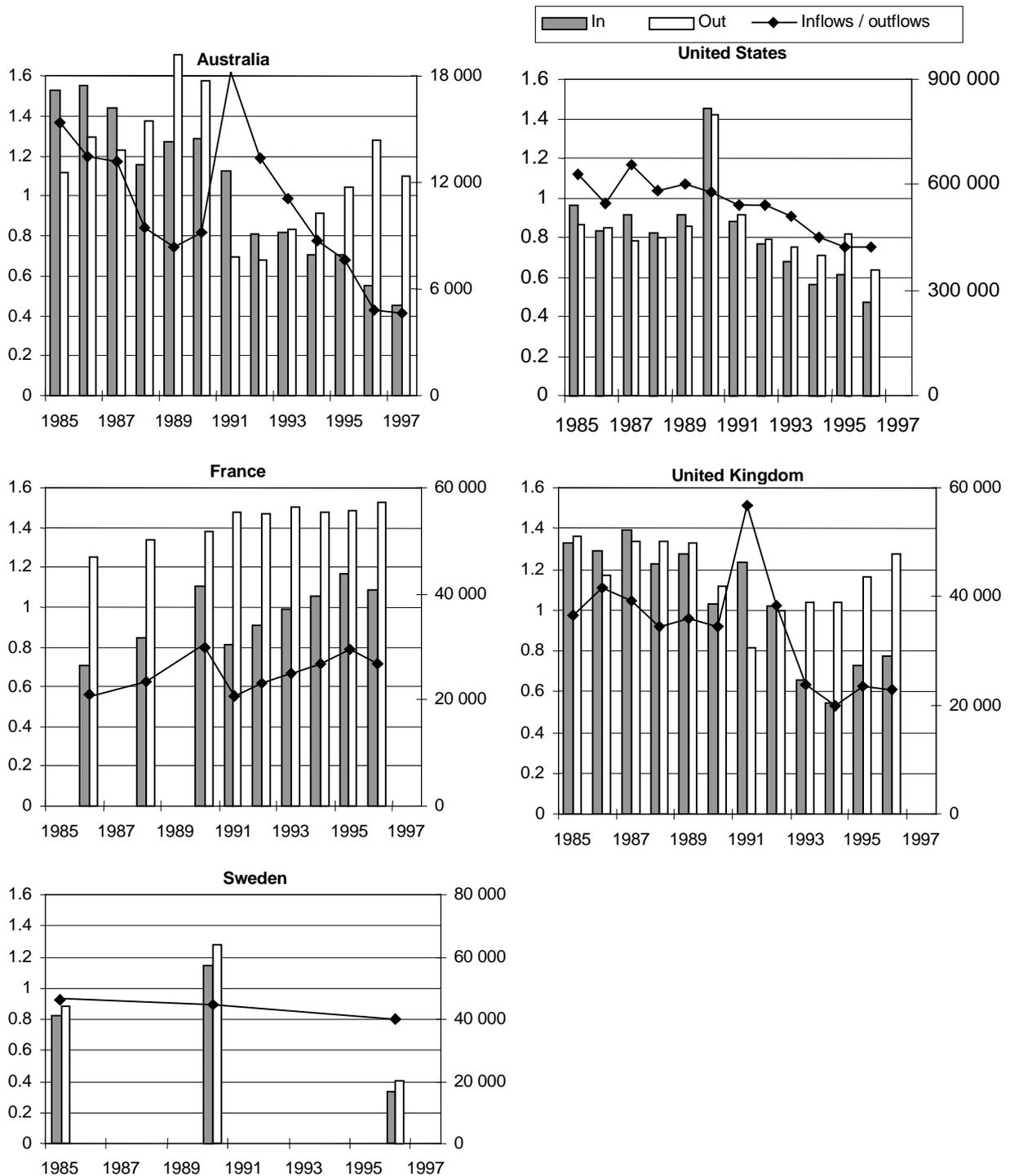
In this two countries, the proportion of young people (aged 16-24) in new hires was about 2.5 times their share in the workforce in 1988, and about 5 times as great in 1997. This means that young people account for a much higher percentage of new hires than of the workforce as a whole. For the other age brackets, this ratio is always less than 1. In the 25-34 age bracket, the ratio rose in both countries, reflecting the increasing age of entry into the civil service. The older the age bracket, the lower the hiring intensity. Older civil servants make up a lesser proportion of new hires than of total employment.

In the case of France, there are no data on the age of entry into the civil service. Nevertheless, the DGAFP explains that the average age of entry into the civil service has been stable since 1990. The average age of entry is estimated to be 26.1 for men and 25.6 for women.

Section 5 - Civil service inflows and outflows

The renewal rate of civil service employees is an important indicator of growth, and of the determination to renew the workforce. Figure 7 shows how civil service inflows and outflows have evolved. For Sweden, we do not have data for all years.

Figure 7. Flows: the ratio of inflows to outflows



For France: Inflows = number of people passing the competitive examination for entry into the civil service, Outflows = number of people retiring (with entitlement). The competitive examination is the primary (but not the only) way to enter the civil service. When all recruiting processes are taken into account, the volume of the civil service increases. In the United States, the peaks of inflows and outflows in 1990 correspond to a temporary increase in staffing levels to conduct the 1990 population census.

For the period 1985-1997, it is difficult to detect a trend regarding the renewal rate. Only the United States shows a continuous trend towards workforce reduction over the entire period. In Australia, there was a decline from 1985 until 1990, and then in 1991 and 1992 the renewal rate was once again greater than 1. This change in trend was due mainly to a sharp fall-off in departures. Nevertheless, since 1991 there was a steady drop in the renewal rate. In the United Kingdom, the trend was the same as in Australia, but the reasons were different. The 1991 increase stemmed both from a decline in departures and a rise in entries. In France, the renewal rate was less than 1 over the period as a whole and the number of departures was fairly stable, but the number of entries fluctuated from one year to another. In Sweden, the rate was less than 1 for the period as a whole and recorded a slight decline.

Beginning in 1993, the renewal rates were less than 1 in all of the countries represented in the charts. This means that not all people who left the civil service were replaced. In 1996, in France and the United States, there were approximately three entries for every four departures, and in the United Kingdom the renewal rate was less than three departures for every two entries. It is Australia that shows the lowest rate, with five departures for every two entries in 1997.

ANNEX 1: STATISTICAL SOURCES

Australia:

- Australian Public Service, Statistical Bulletin, Department of Finance (1987 to 1997)

Canada:

- Employment Statistics for the Federal Public Service
- Employment Equity in the Federal Public Service – Annual Report

France:

- La Fonction Publique de l'Etat, INSEE Résultats
- Séries longues sur l'emploi dans la fonction publique (1980-1996), DGAFP
- La fonction publique de l'Etat, Ministère de la Fonction Publique

Spain:

- Boletín Estadístico del Registro Central de Personal (1990, 1995 and 1998)

Sweden:

- Statistics Sweden
- Swedish Agency for Government Employers

United Kingdom:

- Civil Service Statistics, Government Statistical Service (1987, 1989-90, 1996 and 1997)

United States:

- The Fact Book 1997, Federal Civilian Workforce Statistics, United States Office of Personnel Management.
- Office of Personnel Management

Data concerning the economy as a whole are taken from:

- OECD *Labour Force Statistics* and OECD *Employment Outlook*, June 1998

ANNEX 2: DATA

Tableau A1: Changes in civil service employment, public sector, and economy as a whole (% changes over the period)

Australia	85-90	90-97
Civil service	-7.1	-22.0
Public sector	--	-2.7
Economy as a whole	16.2	

Canada	85-90	90-97
Civil service	6.2	-19.0
Public sector	9.9	-4.7
Economy as a whole	8.8	15.2

Spain	85-90	90-95
Civil service	--	-2.0
Public sector	18.1	9.4
Economy as a whole	13.2	5.0

United States	85-90	90-97
Civil service	1.7	-17.0
Public sector	11.7	5.3
Economy as a whole	13.2	12.1

France	85-90	90-97
Civil service	1.9	6.3
Public sector	2.3	-4.4
Economy as a whole	3.8	2.9

United Kingdom	85-90	90-97
Civil service	-5.8	16.1
Public sector	-2.6	-12.9
Economy as a whole	9.9	9.2

Suède	85-90	90-97
Civil service	-28.9	-38.0
Public sector	5.4	-18.1
Economy as a whole	4.9	-11.0

Table A2: Percentage of women in the civil service and the economy as a whole

		Civil service	Economy as a whole (total labour force)
Australia	1985	39.5	38.4
	1990	46.3	41.6
	1997	49.2	43.1
Canada	1993	46.1	45.2
	1997	49.5	45.3
France	1984	53.6	41.1
	1990	54.7	43.0
	1996	55.9	44.5
Spain	1990	35.9	32.3
	1995	45.8	34.8
Sweden	1985	47.9	47.0
	1990	49.8	47.9
	1996	43.7	48.1
United Kingdom	1985	47.2	42.3
	1990	46.0	44.4
	1996	49.1	45.1
United States	1985	41.0	44.1
	1990	43.0	45.3
	1996	44.0	46.2

Table A3: Number of managers in the civil service

Australia	Managers	1990	1997	Changes in % 90-97
	Women	175	312	78.3
	Men and women	1 563	1 502	-3.9
Canada	Executives	1994	1997	Changes in % 94-97
	Women	708	748	5.6
	Men and women	3 878	3 258	-16.0
France	Managers	1990	1996	Changes in % 90-96
	Women	182 794	333 912	82.7
	<i>Of which primary and secondary school teacher</i>	<i>104 408</i>	<i>248 071</i>	<i>137.5</i>
	Men and women	491 330	698 948	42.3
	<i>Of which primary and secondary school teacher</i>	<i>195 331</i>	<i>422 570</i>	<i>116.3</i>
United Kingdom	Grades 6&7	1990	1997	Changes in % 90-97
	Women	1 646	3 680	123.6
	Men and women	17 522	19 740	12.7
United States	Professionals	1990	1996	Changes in % 90-96
	Women	156 294	172 315	10.2
	Men and women	463 576	459 121	-1.0

Table A4: Civil service inflows and outflows

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Australia													
Inflows/outflows	1.37	1.20	1.17	0.84	0.74	0.81	1.61	1.19	0.98	0.77	0.68	0.43	0.41
In	17 153	17 467	16 194	12 983	14 231	14 439	12 591	9 133	9 224	7 945	7 953	6 191	5 083
Out	12 562	14 575	13 830	15 477	19 201	17 729	7 809	7 673	9 370	10 291	11 761	14 359	12 372
France													
Inflows/outflows	..	0.56	..	0.63	..	0.80	0.55	0.62	0.66	0.71	0.79	0.71	..
In	..	26 363	..	31 676	..	41 368	30 432	34 175	37 266	39 575	43 942	40 739	..
Out	..	46 839	..	50 374	..	51 780	55 304	55 022	56 200	55 411	55 679	57 262	..
Sweden													
Inflows/outflows	0.93	0.89	0.80	..
In	41 000	57 000	16 500	..
Out	44 300	64 000	20 500	..
United Kingdom													
Inflows/outflows	0.98	1.11	1.04	0.92	0.96	0.92	1.52	1.02	0.63	0.53	0.63	0.61	..
In	49 964	48 561	52 403	46 035	47 820	38 670	46 190	38 360	24 560	20 610	27 330	29 100	..
Out	51 107	43 845	50 234	50 234	50 020	41 920	30 460	37 510	38 800	38 820	43 680	47 900	..
United States													
Inflows/outflows	1.12	0.97	1.17	1.03	1.07	1.03	0.96	0.96	0.90	0.80	0.75	0.75	..
In	541 787	466 191	515 958	463 413	515 759	819 554	495 123	430 021	382 399	317 509	345 166	266 473	..
Out	484 742	478 595	440 797	448 025	483 850	799 237	515 673	446 126	423 830	398 134	457 246	356 566	..