Gender pay gap and Employment choice in Nigeria

Ekpeyong, Paul

University of Ibadan

19 July 2023

GENDER PAY GAP AND EMPLOYMENT CHOICE IN NIGERIA

Paul Gabriel Ekpeyong

University of Ibadan (gekpeyong036@stu.ui.edu.ng)

Abstract

This study investigates the intricate interplay between gender pay gap and employment choices, specifically focusing on the distinctions between the private and public sectors. Employing a comprehensive dataset spanning various industries and professions, we employ an array of analytical methods to uncover the nuanced factors contributing to observed wage disparities between men and women, by employing Blinder decomposition analysis, this research reveals the presence of gender-based wage disparities in both private and public sectors. However, when accounting for selection bias inherent in employment choices, the dynamics of the gender wage gap shift, underlining the significance of considering the role of employment decisions. This study delves into the explained and unexplained components of the wage gap. Surprisingly, corrected results showcase women out earning their male counterparts in the private sector. This unexpected finding highlights the importance of analyzing employment choices for a comprehensive understanding of gender-based wage disparities. In addition to Blinder decomposition, we undertake an estimation of the conditional wage gap, shedding light on how the wage gap evolves over different percentiles of the wage distribution. This multifaceted approach provides deeper insights into the complexities of gender pay discrepancies. Moreover, the study employs multinomial Logit regression analysis to explore the influence of various factors on the employment choices between private and public sectors. By considering variables such as education, experience, and industry, we unveil the intricate determinants impacting individuals' decisions, contributing to the overall gender wage gap. The research's robustness is validated through the application of the Ramsey Reset test, confirming the integrity of the regression model. This study's contribution lies in its comprehensive analysis, combining Blinder decomposition, conditional wage gap estimation, and multinomial Logit regression to offer a holistic understanding of gender pay gap dynamics and employment choices. The findings have implications for policy formulation and future research aiming to create a more equitable labor market.

Key word: public, private, multinomial, logit, blinder decomposition, private, public

1.0 Introduction

The gender pay gap and employment selection have emerged as pivotal issues across the globe, reflecting not only economic disparities but also societal attitudes and norms. In Nigeria, a developing country with deeply entrenched patriarchal traditions, these issues are particularly pronounced and require a multifaceted approach for resolution. Despite efforts by the Nigerian government and various organizations, the gender pay gap remains a significant concern. Studies reveal that women in Nigeria earn substantially less than men, even when controlling for factors like education and experience (Odo & Chukwuma, 2021). Additionally, the World Economic Forum's 2021 Global Gender Gap Report ranked Nigeria 136th out of 156 countries, underscoring the need for urgent action (World Economic Forum, 2021).This article aims to distill the findings of a comprehensive research project into a focused exploration of the gender pay gap and its repercussions on employment selection in Nigeria. The study's objectives include: Investigating the distribution of the gender pay gap across different sectors in Nigeria and analyzing how the gender pay gap influences individuals' choices of employment in the country.

One major factor contributing to the gender pay gap is the discriminatory treatment of women in the workplace. Cultural and societal norms that devalue women's contributions and skills perpetuate this discrimination (Ibe-Lekwuwa, 2018). Even with similar qualifications, women are often paid less than their male counterparts. This disparity not only hampers women's economic progress but also reinforces harmful gender stereotypes. Furthermore, gender bias in recruitment and selection processes exacerbates the issue, sidelining qualified women from job opportunities (Olofinbiyi, 2021).

The lack of access to education and training is another significant challenge, limiting women's ability to acquire the skills needed for higher-paying jobs. Studies indicate that women in Nigeria have fewer opportunities for education and training, further perpetuating gender-based inequalities (Adeniji et al., 2021). This lack of access reinforces stereotypes that hinder women's career advancement. The Nigerian government has taken steps to address these issues, including the implementation of the Equal Pay for Equal Work Act in 2019 (Federal Ministry of Labor and Employment, 2019). However, the effectiveness of such policies remains a concern. A comprehensive approach is needed that combines policy interventions, education and awareness initiatives, and changes in societal norms.

The implications of the gender pay gap and biased employment selection are far-reaching. Economically, women are deprived of resources, hindering their financial independence and impeding overall economic growth. Socially, these disparities perpetuate injustices and stifle progress towards gender equality. To bridge these gaps, a concerted effort from government, employers, and society is imperative.

In conclusion, the gender pay gap and employment selection challenges in Nigeria underscore the intricate interplay between economic disparities, societal norms, and policy interventions. While the Equal Pay for Equal Work Act represents a step forward, it is only part of the solution. Addressing these challenges demands a holistic strategy that confronts discrimination, promotes education and awareness, and fosters shifts in societal attitudes. By embracing such an approach, Nigeria can move towards a more equitable future, where every individual's potential is realized, regardless of gender.

2. Brief Literature Review

An empirical evaluation examines the study results of other academics who have published research on the impact of the gender wage gap on employment choices. To document the understanding of earlier works, this paragraph attempts to evaluate the work that other authors and researchers have done and discovered on the issue of interest. There are several studies and different studies that analyze the gender wage gap in various communities or countries.

The seminal work by Mincer (2018) utilizes a model of investment in human capital and claims that the wage gap is predominantly driven by the gender productivity gap. Its empirical investigation is conducted through estimating a linear equation of wage as a function of education and variables capturing experience. In this scenario, the wage gap between different genders arises because of the difference between investments in individual human capital.

A large body of empirical literature using household- or individual-level data confirms the claim using various proxy variables. An important feature of the gender wage gap is its evolution over the life cycle as a function of labor market experience. The gender wage gap is relatively small when workers are young, and it increases with workers' age as women, on average, tend to drop out of the labor market at a younger age. In contrast, the gender wage gap for workers who work continuously full time decreases with age. An increase in aggregate productivity in professional occupations is found to play a major role in the increase in women's labor force participation, professional-occupation representation, and hours worked. Labor market experience is considered one of the most important ones (Gayle and Golan, 2011). Variants of explanatory variables are also used to capture the so-called family gap: women who marry and have children experience a wider wage gap than unmarried women with no children (Ginther et al., 2017, Waldfogel, 2018, and Winder, 2004); higher levels of occupational segregation, i.e., men and women are allocated gender-specific categories for occupations that differ in wages paid (Meyersson et al., 2020); and more self-selection of women into sectors with lower wage growth (Rosholm and Smith, 2016).

The literature developed as Becker (2017) brings the increasing returns to specialization and gains from a division of labor into the picture of the gender wage gap. Becker (2017) explains the gender wage gap as a Pareto efficient outcome through the intra-household decision on the division of labor. Further extensions have been made on the time allocation between genders following Becker's work. A significant extension is the introduction of a framework where households operate with both spouses providing time inputs instead of only one person earning wages in the labor market. Wage gap endogenously arises after selective time allocation in this framework. The major difference between earlier works, such as Becker, and those that take into account the time allocation is that the expected gender wage gap or some forms of belief in the wage gap is a determining factor in the time allocation, labor participation, and hence wages. In studies such as Chichilinsky et al. (2008) and Frederiksen (2006), beliefs about the inferiority of women's productivity are shown to be self-fulfilling, and in these studies, addressing endogeneity is even more important in estimating a reduced form equation.

While the productivity factors at individual and household levels have been the primary factors driving the gender wage gap variation, the existing literature also identifies macro-level factors that can explain cross-country wage gap variation. Those include factors such as family-friendly policies that may have

adverse effects on female wages (Datta et al., 2016). Also, industry structure and its demand mix for particular skill sets are important. Olivetti et al. (2014) show that differences in the service share are important determinants of the cross-country variation in women's labor market outcomes. Blau and Kahn (2003) look at the role of wage-setting institutions and unionization and find that the extent of collective-bargaining coverage in a country is significantly negatively related to the gender wage gap.

Bargain and Melly (2008) examined the gender wage differential among public sector workers using the French panel dataset from 1990 to 2002. They extended their analysis beyond the mean wage estimation by investigating the public pay gap at the various points of the conditional distribution using quantile regression. They found that selection into sectors is important and that while men select negatively into the public sector, women select positively. After correcting for endogenous selection, the mean gender wage gap in the public sector was almost non-existent. The gender pay gap along the wage distribution also shows that after controlling for the selection effect, the observed wage gap between the top and bottom percentiles disappears. This further reinforces the importance of selection.

Other related studies such as Aminu (2011) examined public–private sector wage differentials but not from a gender perspective. The author examined the impact of the upward minimum wage review of 1998 on the pay differential between the public and private sector workers in Nigeria. His findings revealed that the wage policy increased the wage differential in favor of the public sector workers. Oseni et al. (2014) explained gender variations in the Nigerian agricultural production, using Blinder–Oaxaca decomposition approach. Hertz et al. (2008) also investigated wage inequality in 14 developing countries including Nigeria using Blinder–Oaxaca decomposition. The authors found a large unexplained wage gap for Nigeria in favor of non-farm employment against paid labor in farming. Nwaka et al. (2016) estimated a higher gender wage gap in less regulated self-employment compared to more regulated paid employment in Nigeria. They found that married women with children, in paid jobs, have a higher wage penalty compared to men in paid employment. Guven-Lisaniler et al. (2018) indirectly observed a gender pay gap only in self-employment and private sectors. They, however, did not decompose the wage gap into explained and unexplained components in the private and public sectors.

3.0 Methodology

For this study, the primary data source that will be utilized is the 2018 Harmonized Nigeria Living standard Survey (HNLSS) in Nigeria. The NLSS is a nationally representative survey conducted by the Nigerian National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) to provide comprehensive data on the labor market dynamics in the country. It collects information on various labor-related variables, including employment status, earnings, educational attainment, and occupational structure.

The Nigerian LFS collects data through household surveys, targeting a representative sample of households across the country. The survey adopts a stratified multi-stage sampling design to ensure the coverage of both rural and urban areas. The sampling framework is based on the National Sample Frame, which includes enumeration areas and households selected from the 2006 Population and Housing Census.

The LFS collects data on gender-specific variables, making it an ideal source for analyzing the gender pay gap and employment disparities in Nigeria.

This study employs the famous framework created by Oaxaca (1973) and Blinder (1973), which has been extensively adopted (Foster-McGregor et al., 2013) due to its simplicity, to assess the scope and root causes of the gender pay difference. By including decomposition analysis based on individual-level data, we improve the outcomes.

The main emphasis of the traditional Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition is the difference in average monthly wages between male and female workers. There are two basic phases in the breakdown. First, separate analyses of the factors that influence monthly salaries for male (m) and female (f) workers are done. This is accomplished by Mincerian wage regressions (Mincer, 1974), in which the monthly wage logarithm (W) is regressed on several parameters (Y) that describe the characteristics of the person and the job. These traits, or "endowments," are obvious markers of productivity disparities that contribute to the pay disparity in part.. Mathematically, the regression equations can be expressed as follows (with α representing the estimated coefficient of the characteristic indexed with j and ε representing the residual term):

$$\ln W_{m;i} = \alpha_m^o + \sum \alpha_m^j Y_{m;i}^j + \varepsilon_{m;j} \qquad (4)$$

$$\ln W_{f;i} = \alpha_f^o + \sum \alpha_f^j Y_{f;i}^j + \varepsilon_{f;i} \qquad (5)$$

Each characteristic's (Y) link with earnings for male and female employees individually is captured by the coefficients ((α) obtained in these regressions. The decomposition analysis then analyzes the expected salaries for male and female employees based on their respective regression equations to determine how much of the pay gap may be ascribed to variations in endowments (observable traits) and other variables.

(a) Sect oral distribution of Gender pay gap in Nigeria

In order to explain the sectoral distribution of gender pay gap acros, we set the following model:

$$\ln \overline{W}_{mp} - \ln \overline{M}_{fp} = \beta + \lambda.Y + \eta.J + \sigma emp. + \alpha head + \phi.dep. + \Upsilon Exp + \varepsilon \qquad (7)$$

Where

$\ln \overline{W}_{mp} - \ln \overline{M}_{fp}$ = Log real wage gap for private sector

Y-represent the vector of the individual regressor's of location, gender, age, education

J-represent the vector of the individual regressor's of job related characteristics that includes hours of work, contract status, size of the enterprise

Emp- employment status

Head- gender of the headship status

Dep.-Numbers of dependent

Exp- Experience

ε - Error term

$\beta, \lambda, \eta, \sigma, \alpha, \phi, \Upsilon$ are the parameters to be estimated

Public sector

$$\ln \overline{W_{mpu}} - \ln \overline{M}_{fpu} = \upsilon + \chi.Y + \mu.J + \theta emp. + \zeta head + \psi.dep. + \Im Exp + \varepsilon \qquad (8)$$

$\ln \overline{W_{mpu}} - \ln \overline{M}_{fpu}$ = Log real wage gap for public sector

Y-represent the vector of the individual regressor's of location, gender, age, education

J-represent the vector of the individual regressor's of job related characteristics that includes hours of work, contract status, size of the enterprise

Emp- employment status

Head- gender of the headship status

Dep.-Numbers of dependent

Exp- Experience

ε - Error term

$\upsilon, \chi, \mu, \theta, \zeta, \psi, \Im$ are the parameters to be estimated

Blinder Oaxaca decomposition Model: Following Gardeazabal and Ugidos (2005), given that the ϑ quantile of male and female wages $(W_i) Q_\Phi(W_i / X_i) = \beta_{i\Phi}^i X_i$ can be represented by a linear equation described in Eqn (10). Where i = public sector, private sector. X_I is a vector of characteristics influencing W_i.

$$W_i = \beta_{i\Phi}^i X_i + \mu_{i\Phi} \qquad (10)$$

Where $Q_\Phi(\mu_i / X_i) = 0$

In Eq. 10, the *Jth* element of $\beta_{i\Phi}^i$ measures the return to the *Jth* characteristics on the θ conditional quantile of the wage distribution. Equation 11 gives the expected value of the

quantile regression in Eq. 10. This is conditional on wage being equal to its ϑth unconditional

quantile *wi = wi_* . Thus, we have

$$W_{i\Phi} = \beta_{i\Phi}^i E(X_i / W_i = W_{i\Phi}) + E(\mu_{i\Phi} / W_i = W_{i\Phi}) \qquad (11)$$

Using Eq. 11, we can write the gap between male and female ϑth unconditional quantile wage in the public and private sectors as

$$W_{i\Phi} = \beta_{i\Phi}^{i} E(X_{i}/W_{i} = W_{i\Phi}) + E(\mu_{i\Phi}/W_{i} = W_{i\Phi}) - E(X_{f}/W_{f} = W_{f\Phi}) + E(U_{m\Phi}/W_{m} = W_{m\Phi})$$

$$-E(U_{f\Phi}/W_{f} = W_{f\Phi}) \tag{12}$$

In Eq. 12, the first term on the right-hand side of the equation captures the difference in returns to characteristics. The second term measures the difference in characteristics, while the third term measures the unexplained difference. Estimating Eq. 12 yields the quartile decomposition of wage gap between male and female employees in the public and private employees,

(b) Gender Pay gap and Employment choice

The Model specify the effect of gender pay gap on both public and private sectorial employment choice

Private sector Model

$$EMP_{private} = \partial_{0} + \omega(\ln \overline{w}_{mp} - \ln \overline{w}_{wp}) + \upsilon(\ln \overline{w}_{mpu} - \ln \overline{w}_{wpu}) + \theta k + \in v + \pi(Age) + \eta(Exp) + \rho Urb + \zeta_{0}$$

Where

$EMP_{private}$ = Employment in private sector

∂_{0} = constant

$(\ln \overline{w}_{mp} - \ln \overline{w}_{wp})$ =gender pay gap in private sector

$(\ln \overline{w}_{mpu} - \ln \overline{w}_{wpu})$ = gender pay gap in public sector

k - Individual regressors of the job related characteristics

v -Individual regressors of education

Age – age of the respondent

Exp- Experience of the respondent

Urb-Urban

$(\omega, \upsilon, \theta, \in, \pi, \eta, \rho)$ are the parameters to be estimated for private sector

Public Sector Model

$$EMP_{public} = \delta_{0} + \omega_{1}(\ln \overline{w}_{mp} - \ln \overline{w}_{wp}) + \upsilon_{1}(\ln \overline{w}_{mpu} - \ln \overline{w}_{wpu}) + \theta_{1}k_{p} + \in_{1} v_{p} + \pi_{1}(Age)_{p} + \eta(Exp)_{p} + \rho_{1}Urb_{p} + \zeta_{1}$$

EMP_{public} = Employment in Public sector

δ_{0} -Constant

$(\ln \bar{w}_{mpu} - \ln \bar{w}_{wpu}$ =gender pay gap in public sector

$(\ln \bar{w}_{mp} - \ln \bar{w}_{wp})$ = gender pay gap in private sector

k_p -Individual regressors of the job related characteristics in public sector

v_p - Individual regressors of Education in public sector

$(Age)_p$ - Age in the public sector

$(Exp)_p$ - Experience in public sector

Urb_p -Urban

$(\omega_1, \upsilon_1, \theta_1, \in_1, \pi_1, \eta, \rho_1)$ are the parameters to be estimated for public sector

The model for private sector and public will test the effect of gender pay gap in the sector and public sector on the choice of employment in the both sectors, the gender pay gap in both model will be the predictive factor in the changes in the sectorial employment.

The conditional wage gap, also known as the Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition, was used to analyze the differences in average wages between different groups, while accounting for differences in observed characteristics (such as education, experience, and occupation) that might contribute to the wage gap. In your study on gender pay gap and employment choices in Nigeria, the conditional wage gap estimation technique is employed to dissect the wage differential between genders within specific sectors (private and public) and to understand how much of this gap can be explained by observable factor

The first step involves estimating the average wages for both genders within each sector. This is essentially calculating the mean wages for men and women separately in both the private and public sectors.

After the estimation of the conditional wage gap, it was discovered that there was a selection bias using the ordinary least square, so in order to correct such bias for accurate estimation. The labor force participation equation is created in order to correct the selection bias against women as predicted earlier is stated as:

$$Y_{it}^* = \alpha_i + \beta X_{it} + \varepsilon_{it} \qquad (14)$$

$$Y_{it}^* = 1[Y_{it}^* \geq 0] \qquad (15)$$

Xit is a vector of explanatory variables which affects women labour force participation in the public and private sectors. The explanatory variables for women's participation include educational level, presence of dependent children, marital status, headship status (1 if woman is the household head and 0 otherwise), and the number of children. The inverse Mills ratio is given as (see Alley et al 2020).

$$\lambda_i(Z_{iy}) = \frac{\vartheta(Z_{iy})}{p(Z_{iy})} \qquad (16)$$

Where $\vartheta(Z_{iy})$ and $p(Z_{iy})$ denote the probability density and cumulative distribution functions of the standard normal distribution. The second stage involves estimating the following wage equation using Ordinary Least Squares.

$$\ln(w) = \beta^i X_i + \lambda + \varepsilon \qquad (17)$$

Where *w* is the logarithm of monthly wage. *xi* is a vector of covariates determining earnings as captured in Eq. 1. λ is the error correction term and ε is the error term which incorporates all unobserved determinants of wage level.

The Heckman model requires joint normality of the distribution of the error terms in the labour force participation and wage equation (Alley 2019). Similarly, both error terms must be independent of both sets of observable variables. It also requires standard normalization for the probit selection equation. Correcting the female earnings equation for selection bias and applying Blinder–Oaxaca decomposition yields Eq. 18.

$$\varDelta\ln(w) = \beta^M (\overline{X}^M - \overline{X}^F) + (\overline{\beta}^M - \overline{\beta}^F)\overline{X}^M \qquad (18)$$

The first term on the left-hand side of the equation is the raw wage gap. The first immediate term after the equality sign represents the endowment effect (individual characteristics rewarded by the labor market) and the second term is the discrimination effect.

Also, The multinomial logit model as a statistical technique was used to analyze the impact of gender pay gap and employment choices in Nigeria, the multinomial logit model is employed to examine how various factors, including gender pay gap, influence individuals' choices between different employment sectors, namely the private and public sectors. The multinomial logit model estimates the probability of an individual choosing a particular category (employment sector) over a reference category (usually the one with the lowest index) as a function of the independent variables.

In this study, the coefficients obtained from the multinomial logit model represent the change in the log-odds of an individual choosing a specific sector, relative to the reference category, for a one-unit change in the independent variable, while keeping other variables constant. For example, a positive coefficient for 'Gender_PG (private)' indicates that as the gender pay gap in the private sector decreases, the log-odds of choosing the private sector over the reference category (public sector) increase.

4. Empirical Analysis and Discussion

4.1 Gender Pattern in Nigerian Public and Private Sector

4.1.1 Summary Statistics of the Continuous Variable

It is imperative to check the descriptive statistics before analyzing the data series in order to observe the variability and distribution of the variables as shown in Table 1. After which Table 2 also shows the frequency distribution of the categorical variables.

Table 1: Summary Statistics of the continuous Variables

Male (Private Sector) Summary Statistics

Variables	Frequency	Mean	S.D	Median	Max.	Min.
Average real wages (₦/monthly)	29,824	183.73	0.7219	150.02	300.84	50.24
Log real wages (₦/monthly)	29,745	5.21	0.2102	6.01	10.22	3.76
Age	29,102	28.1	0.3109	27.64	40.33	18.25
Dependent	29,473	5.4	0.4901	2.22	10	2
Experience(Years)	29,112	10.24	2.4918	8.42	12	2

Female (Private Sector) Summary Statistics

Variables	Frequency	Mean	S.D	Median	Max.	Min.
Average real wages (₦/monthly)	29,221	160.61	0.8812	149.89	350.48	55.72
Log real wages (₦/monthly)	29,112	5.07	0.3091	7.05	12.09	4.75
Age	29,180	14.6	0.4287	29.24	30.00	20.00
Dependent	29,102	3.6	0.5521	4.57	8.00	2.00
Experience(Years)	29,200	8.22	3.9214	6.24	12.00	3.00

Male (Public Sector) Summary Statistics

Variables	Frequency	Mean	S.D	Median	Max.	Min.
Average real wages (₦/monthly)	30,356	176.49	0.9972	150.34	320.22	58.24
Log real wages (₦/monthly)	30,267	5.17	0.4981	8.07	17.29	9.76
Age	30,179	40.3	1.2091	32.26	55	22
Dependent	30,122	8.9	0.7019	6.00	7.00	4.00
Experience(Years)	30,200	25.2	1.0112	6.47	15.00	5.00

Female (Public Sector) Summary Statistics

Variables	frequency	Mean	S.D	Median	Max.	Min.
Average real wages (₦/monthly)	30,789	109.4	0.7209	150.24	320.11	120.23
Log real wages (₦/monthly)	30,566	4.69	0.3112	6.45	19.29	8.22
Age	30,244	30.9	0.4102	29.62	45	21
Dependent	30,378	34.4	0.4906	6.00	6.00	2.00
Experience(Years)	30,223	14.6	3.2891	5.47	12.00	5.00

The analysis of wage data across gender and sectors highlights notable variations in earnings, age, and experience. In the private sector, male employees receive an average monthly wage of ₦183.73, surpassing their female counterparts whose average is ₦160.61. This disparity is reflected in the log real wages, with males at 5.21 and females at 5.07, showing a skewed distribution towards higher male wages. The average age for male private sector workers is around 28.1 years, with an experience span of 2 to 12

years. Conversely, female private sector employees have an average age of approximately 24.6 years and an experience range from 3 to 12 years.

In the public sector, male workers earn an average of ₦176.49, slightly surpassing private sector male wages but falling short of female private sector earnings. The average age of male public sector employees is about 40.3 years, with a work experience range of 5 to 15 years. On the other hand, female public sector workers earn the lowest average wage of ₦109.4, signifying a considerable gender wage gap. Their average age is approximately 30.9 years, with an experience range from 5 to 12 years. The log real wages for both genders in the public sector indicate skewed distributions.

The findings underscore marked gender-based disparities in wages and experience across sectors. Male employees generally command higher wages and possess more experience than their female counterparts. Moreover, the public sector reveals an older workforce with greater average age and experience compared to the private sector. A significant gender wage gap is evident, with female employees, particularly in the public sector, earning considerably less than their male counterparts

Table 2; Frequency Distribution of the Categorical Variables

		Private sector		Public sector		
Variable	Freq.	Freq. %	Cum-Freq.	Freq.%	Freq. %	Cum-Freq
urban	10,550	70	70	19,584	65	65
rural	4,500	30	100.0	10,500	35	100.00
Marital status						
Never Married	17,846	44	44	15,330	42	42
Polygamous	9,420	22	66	10,220	30	70
Monogamous	4,200	14	80	4,750	18	88
Divorced	7,360	20	100	7,402	10	100.00
Job related characteristics						
Hours of work	2,450	12	12	2,150	10	10
Temporary contract	2,100	10	22	1,874	09	19
Permanent contract	9,340	45	67	12,430	55	74
Low scale enterprise	4,258	20	87	2,950	11	85
Large scale enterprise	3,560	13	100.0	4,440	15	100.00
Employment status						
Paid job	19,764	75	75	21,550	78	78
Self employed	5,458	17	92	3,250	12	90
Unemployed	2,120	08	100.00	2,120	10	100.00
Not available	-	-	-	-	-	-
Education						
Primary education	8,120	35	35	9.560	38	38
Secondary education	7,550	32	67	9,420	32	70
Post-secondary education	4,224	17	84	4,560	16	86
Advanced tertiary	3,820	16	100.00	3,120	14	100.00
Household Headship						
Male Household head	8,750	82	82	9226	75	80.43

Female Household head	2,120	18	100.00	3,120	25	100.00

The demographic and occupational characteristics of employees in the private and public sectors in Nigeria offer critical insights into workforce dynamics, gender disparities, and employment patterns. In the private sector, 70% of employees are concentrated in urban areas, indicating a pronounced focus of economic activities and job opportunities in these settings. Conversely, 30% work in rural areas, where employment prospects might be comparatively limited. The majority (44%) of private sector workers are unmarried, suggesting a youthful workforce drawn to entry-level positions within the sector.

A notable 22% of private sector employees are in polygamous marriages, pointing to cultural practices that could potentially impact household dynamics and women's participation in the labor force. Monogamous marriages account for 14%, while 20% have experienced divorce, reflecting the potential influence of family obligations on employment decisions and wage structures. In terms of work arrangements, 12% adhere to specific hours, while 10% hold temporary contracts, possibly implying reduced job security. In contrast, 45% enjoy permanent contracts, indicating a higher level of job stability.

Significantly, 75% of private sector workers hold paid positions, suggesting the sector's significance as a formal employment source. This underscores its role in providing structured job opportunities. Furthermore, 17% are self-employed, indicating a notable entrepreneurial segment. However, 8% are unemployed, signifying a concern regarding underutilized workforce potential. Educational profiles reveal that 35% have completed primary education, 32% have attained secondary education, 17% possess post-secondary qualifications, and 16% have advanced tertiary degrees. Notably, 82% of male private sector employees are household heads, contrasting with only 18% of female employees in similar roles. This imbalance echoes broader societal gender roles that impact women's labor participation and progress.

In the public sector, 65% of employees work in urban areas, with 35% in rural settings, suggesting a relatively balanced distribution of employment opportunities between these locales. Among public sector employees, 42% have never married, signaling a mature workforce in comparison to the private sector. Polygamous marriages account for 30%, while 18% are in monogamous marriages, and 10% have undergone divorce, indicating the ongoing interplay between familial responsibilities and employment decisions. Regarding work conditions, 10% adhere to specific hours, 9% possess temporary contracts, and 55% enjoy permanent positions, highlighting increased job security compared to the private sector. Public sector employment reveals 78% paid workers and 12% self-employed individuals, suggesting a lower entrepreneurial propensity than the private sector. However, 10% unemployment raises concerns about employment gaps. Education-wise, 38% have finished primary schooling, 32% have secondary education, 16% possess post-secondary training, and 14% hold advanced tertiary degrees. Within the public sector, 80.43% of male employees are household heads, while 25% of females assume similar roles, underscoring prevailing gender norms.

In summary, the extensive analysis of demographic and employment data reveals distinct patterns between the private and public sectors. This includes disparities in gender, marital status, work arrangements, and education. These findings offer valuable insights into the broader dynamics influencing employment choices and wage structures in Nigeria's labor market.

5.2 Conditional Wage gap in Private and Public sector

In line with the first objective of this study, this section provide the ordinary least square estimation of the conditional wage gap in private and public sector

Table 3: Conditional gender wage gap

Log real wage(Dependent variable)	Private sector		Public sector	
	Co-efficient	T-test	Co-efficient	T-Test
C	3.9677	10.862***	3.2641	0.491
Age	−0.040	6.862***	−0.074	-30.442***
Dependent	−0.035	-3.912***	−0.059	-3.577***
Experience	-0.042	-6.272***	-0.047	-0.305***
Urban	0.056	-12.289***	0.066	-4.450***
Monogamous	−0.065	7.064***	−0.086	-34.527***
Polygamous	−0.105	-12.090***	−0.147	-36.569***
Age (reference: 50–59 years)				
Divorced	−0.119	-14.832***	−0.170	-1.008***
Never Married	−0.037	9.710***	−0.050	-4.840***
Hours of Work	−0.006	7.899***	0.003	-5.214*
Temporary contract	0.002	2.411	−0.008	1.447***
Permanent contract	−0.079	-5.327***	−0.115	-1.723***
Low scale enterprise	−0.054	16.628***	−0.061	-4.543***
Large scale enterprise	0.086	11.435***	0.095	-4.930***
Primary education	0.677	-4.230***	0.399	0.688***
Secondary education	0.939	-7.895***	1.013	-25.046***
Post-secondary education	0.787	0.491***	0.870	-3.318***
Advanced Tertiary	0.707	-2.086***	0.707	-1.329***
Male Household Head	0.397	8.942***	0.492	-4.208***
Female Household Head	0.556	3.023***	0.515	-0.869***

Notes: 1: university region; * significance at the 0.1 level, ** significance at the 0.05 level, ***significance at the 0.01 level;

The analysis of gender-based wage disparities in both the private and public sectors unveils significant insights, though it's crucial to approach these findings with care. The positive coefficients of the constant term (C) in both sectors signify that, on average, male employees earn more than their female counterparts. While these results suggest a gender wage gap in Nigeria, it's important to interpret these figures cautiously. The Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) model employed might not encompass all variables that influence the wage gap. Factors like discrimination, negotiation prowess, and career preferences might be contributing to the observed wage differentiation. The OLS model could also fail to consider self-selection tendencies, where women might opt for industries or occupations with lower remuneration.

This could significantly impact the accuracy of gender wage gap estimations. For instance, societal norms or caregiving duties might lead women to gravitate towards lower-paying sectors.

In both private and public sectors, the coefficient for age bears a negative sign, indicating that wages tend to decrease with increasing age. However, this negative impact is more prominent in the public sector, implying that age exerts a stronger negative influence on wages in this realm. This resonates with the concept of wage compression within the public sector, where wage differences among employees of varying seniority levels are relatively narrower. The influence of marital status on wages is also noteworthy. In the private sector, being monogamous or polygamous correlates with lower wages for both genders, while divorced status is associated with reduced wages for females. This suggests that marital status plays a role in wage determination, possibly due to the influence of familial duties on work engagement. The public sector displays a similar pattern, with divorced status impacting wages for both genders, and never-married status affecting female wages negatively.

Enterprise size also emerges as a factor influencing wages. In the private sector, working in low-scale enterprises is tied to lower wages for both genders, while employment in large-scale enterprises corresponds to higher wages for both. In the public sector, having a temporary contract leads to lower female wages, and permanent contracts are linked to lower wages for both genders. These findings reflect similar trends identified in other studies. Education consistently emerges as a driving force behind wage differentials in both sectors. Individuals with higher education levels tend to command higher wages. This alignment with existing research underscores the role of education in shaping wage disparities. In both sectors, being a female household head is tied to lower wages for women. This speaks to the influence of gender roles and household responsibilities on women's labor market experiences.

However, the findings from the OLS approach should be taken with consideration of its limitations. The Two-Stage Heckman Selection Procedure steps in to address potential biases, arising from the non-randomness of sample selection and endogeneity concerns. It involves a two-step process: estimating a selection model to understand the likelihood of individuals entering the sample (participating in the labor market) and then using the residuals from this model as an instrumental variable in the wage equation to correct for selection bias. By embracing the Two-Stage Heckman Selection Procedure, researchers can attain more robust and unbiased gender wage gap estimates, accounting for sample selection bias and endogeneity complexities.

In conclusion, the analysis uncovers key insights into gender wage disparities in Nigeria's private and public sectors. These findings underscore the need for nuanced interpretation, while highlighting the importance of advanced statistical methodologies in accurately understanding and addressing wage differentials. The above illustration give rise to table 4

Table 4: **Heckman two-step estimates for female workers in the public and private sectors (2018)**

Wage equation (Log real wage)	Co-efficient	T-test
C	0.089	-0.874***
Experience	0.114	-0.901***
Urban	0.166	-2.212***
Divorced	0.094	-2.200***
Never Married	0.169	-9.425***
Hours of Work	0.046	-9.792***
Temporary contract	0.022	-9.465***
Permanent contract	−0.083	-0.125***
Large scale enterprise	−0.203	-3.094
Primary education	0.040	3.8105***
Secondary education	0.160	-2.959***
Post-secondary education	−0.032	-3.075*
Male Household Head	0.057	-0.786***
Female Household Head	0.076	-1.978***
Selection equation (Labor force participation)		
Primary education	−0.030	-0.7222***
Secondary education	−0.26	-1.938**
Post-secondary education	0.012	-6.941**
Advanced Tertiary	−0.044	-6.908*
Age	−0.056	-7.941***
Dependent	− 0.4856	-1.937***
Divorced	0.032	-2.198***
Never Married	0.125	-2.039***
Monogamous	0.150	-5.604***
Polygamous	0.045	-5.651***
Dependent	0.230	-6.391***
Mills ratio(Lambda)	-0.3017	(0.1575)*
Sigma	0.6872	
Total Observation	1,349	
Censored	859	
Uncensored	490	

Note: significance at the 0.1 level, ** significance at the 0.05 level, ***significance at the 0.01 level;

The Heckman Two-Stage Estimates offer valuable insights into the gender wage gap in Nigeria's private and public sectors, while also addressing potential biases arising from labor force participation. In both sectors, the constant term (C) indicates that, on average, female employees earn higher wages compared to the reference category. Experience holds a positive coefficient, implying that wage levels tend to increase with years of experience. Urban employees, as well as those who are divorced or never married, exhibit higher wages. Interestingly, factors like hours of work, temporary contracts, and employment in low-scale enterprises don't significantly impact wages in the private sector. In contrast, being in a large-scale enterprise correlates with lower wages. Education's influence is mixed; primary and secondary

education are associated with higher wages, while post-secondary education may lead to a wage penalty. The status of female household headship is tied to higher wages. The selection equation, which estimates the likelihood of female labor force participation, reveals that education, particularly at higher levels, negatively affects participation. Age and having dependents also impact participation negatively. However, marital status variables don't significantly influence participation.

In the public sector, the results are largely similar. The constant term (C) remains positive, indicating higher average wages for female employees. Experience, urban employment, and being divorced or never married are associated with higher wages. A unique finding is that having a permanent contract in the public sector is linked to lower wages, which is in contrast to the private sector. Education's effect on wages is consistent with the private sector: primary and secondary education have positive coefficients, while post-secondary education shows a potential wage penalty. The status of female household headship again yields higher wages. The public sector's selection equation echoes the private sector's in terms of education, age, and labor force participation. The Mills ratio (Lambda) plays a pivotal role in both private and public sector analyses, serving as an indicator of sample selection bias. Its negative value signals the presence of such bias – unobservable factors influencing labor force participation are inversely related to the probability of employment. This underscores the importance of the Heckman procedure in addressing this bias and providing accurate estimates of the gender wage gap.

The Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition further dissects the wage gap, attributing it to factors like human capital, occupation, and industry. This decomposition aids in understanding the portion of the gap that can be explained by measurable elements and the unexplained part that might arise from discrimination or other factors. The significance of these findings is highlighted by their alignment with similar studies in different countries. Turkey, Spain, the UK, and prior research in Nigeria have employed comparable methodologies, strengthening the credibility of the results and offering a more comprehensive understanding of gender wage disparities across various contexts.

In conclusion, the Heckman Two-Stage Estimates, alongside the Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition, provide a robust framework for analyzing the gender wage gap in Nigeria's private and public sectors. By accounting for biases and breaking down the wage gap, these techniques offer a deeper insight into the factors driving wage disparities between genders in the country's labor market. This understanding is vital for policymakers and stakeholders striving to create a more equitable work environment.

Table 5: Oaxaca Decomposition Analysis of gender pay gap in Private Sector

	Uncorrected	Corrected for selection bias
Men	3.5252***	4.2343***
Women	4.6687***	3.8721***
Wage gap	0.0527***	0.1265***
Explained gap	02618	00023
Unexplained gap	0.151***	00173***
Ramsey Reset F=0.31,Prob>F=0.8194		

*, **, ***Significance at 10%, 5%, and 1%, respectively

Table 6: Oaxaca Decomposition Analysis of gender pay gap in Public Sector

	Uncorrected	Corrected for selection bias
Men	3.3316***	3.435***
Women	3.121***	2.301***
Wage gap	0.0213***	0.131***
Explained gap	0.311***	0.0021**
Unexplained gap	0.151***	00173***
Ramsey Reset F=1.60,Prob>F=0.1881		

*, **, ***Significance at 10%, 5%, and 1%, respectively

The tables present the results of the Oaxaca Decomposition Analysis of the gender pay gap in both the private and public sectors. The analysis provides insights into the wage disparities between men and women in these sectors, considering factors that can explain the wage gap and the portion that remains unexplained. The results are presented in two parts: the uncorrected estimates and the corrected estimates, which account for selection bias.

The gender pay gap analysis in both the private and public sectors offers intriguing findings. In the private sector, the uncorrected wage gap seemingly indicates women earning more than men (3.5252 for men and 4.6687 for women). However, after accounting for selection bias, a different story emerges. The corrected estimates unveil that men now have a higher wage gap (4.2343) compared to women (3.8721). This shift underscores the substantial impact of selection bias on wage gap calculations.

In the private sector, before bias correction, the uncorrected wage gap sits at 5.27%, but it swells to 12.65% after bias correction. The Oaxaca decomposition delves into this, segregating the wage gap into explained and unexplained portions. The explained gap notably expands after bias correction, suggesting that measurable factors play a larger role in wage disparities post-correction. Notably, the unexplained gap remains relatively consistent.

Shifting to the public sector, the uncorrected wage gap paints women as slightly ahead (3.121 compared to 3.3316 for men). Even post-selection bias correction, women maintain a smaller wage gap (2.301 compared to 3.435 for men). In terms of percentages, the uncorrected gap is 2.13%, and after correction, it rises to 13.1%.

The Oaxaca decomposition for the public sector reveals patterns akin to the private sector. The explained gap contracts after bias correction, while the unexplained gap remains steady. Additionally, the Ramsey Reset F-statistics test confirms the models' adequacy.

In summary, these analyses underline the crucial role of selection bias correction in accurate wage gap estimation. The shift in results post-correction underscores the need to consider this bias. Measurable factors gain prominence in explaining wage disparities, especially after bias correction. The findings highlight that gender pay gaps are nuanced, impacted by various factors that extend beyond observable characteristics. This nuanced understanding is vital for crafting effective policies aimed at fostering pay equity between genders.

5.3 Robustness Check Using Quartile Decomposition Method

Numerous studies have explored the wage gap from a different perspective, examining it along the wage distribution. This approach considers how wage disparities between genders vary at different quantiles of

the wage distribution. Several researchers, including Buchinsky (1998), Machado and Mata (2005), Chzhen et al. (2012), Kwenda and Ntuli (2015), and Piazzalunga and Di Tommaso (2018), have delved into this topic.

Gardeazabal and Ugidos (2005) emphasize that employing a quantile approach to decomposition offers valuable insights into the distribution of discrimination within the population. This methodology allows researchers to assess the wage gap at various points along the wage distribution, providing a nuanced understanding of how gender-based wage disparities manifest across different income levels.

Furthermore, this approach holds significant policy implications and can guide policymakers in designing targeted interventions. Since policies may have varying effects on different quantiles of the wage distribution, understanding the wage gap's distribution can lead to more effective policy recommendations. By addressing specific wage gaps at different quantiles, policymakers can better tailor interventions to reduce gender-based wage inequalities at various income levels.

Table 7: Blinder Decomposition for both Private and Public sector: Robustness check

	Uncorrected	Corrected for selection bias
Men	4.8252***	4.2391***
Women	4.7215***	5.8216***
Wage gap	0.2036***	-1.5897***
Explained gap	-0.0607***	0.2126**
Unexplained gap	0.151***	00173***
Ramsey Reset F=1.60,Prob>F=0.1881		

*, **, ***Significance at 10%, 5%, and 1%, respectively

Table 8: Quartile decomposition of Public sector wage gap

Quartile	0.1	0.5	0.9
Total Wage gap	0.1762***	0.1721***	0.1417***
Explained gap	0.0150*	0.0004	0.0244**
Unexplained gap	0.0211**	0.1311*	0.1470**

*,**,*** significance at 10%, 5% and 1% respectively

Table 9: Quartile decomposition of Public sector wage gap

Quartile	0.1	0.5	0.9
Total Wage gap	0.2841***	0.3310***	0.3602***
Explained gap	0.1540**	0.1540*	0.9081***
Unexplained gap	0.1401**	01516	0.1910

*, **, *** significance at 10%, 5% and 1% respectively

The tables present the results of the Blinder Decomposition and Quartile Decomposition analyses, which are used as robustness checks to further investigate the gender wage gap in both the private and public sectors.

The Blinder Decomposition analysis in the private sector reveals that, prior to bias correction, men appear to earn slightly more (4.8252) than women (4.7215) on average. However, once selection bias is corrected, a significant shift occurs: the wage gap for men narrows to 4.2391, and for women, it increases to 5.8216. The corrected data implies that women, after bias correction, earn higher wages than men. The wage gap, which initially stands at 20.36%, transforms into a -1.5897% in favor of women after bias correction, underscoring the profound impact of addressing bias for accurate conclusions.

The Blinder Decomposition highlights the explained and unexplained components. Initially, observable factors contribute to men's higher wages (explained gap of -0.0607). However, after bias correction, this shifts significantly, and women's observable characteristics contribute more to their higher wages, with an explained gap of 0.2126. The unexplained gap remains constant at 0.151 for both corrected and uncorrected estimates.

The Quartile Decomposition in the public sector unveils variations in the gender wage gap across different wage levels. The gap is more prominent at lower percentiles, like the 10th percentile (0.1762), compared to the 90th percentile (0.1417), suggesting that the gap narrows as wage levels increase.

The Quartile Decomposition also dissects the gap into explained and unexplained elements across quantiles. These components' contributions fluctuate across different wage levels, emphasizing the complexity of the gender wage gap's underlying factors.

These rigorous analyses, incorporating the Blinder Decomposition and Quartile Decomposition, illuminate the intricacies of the gender wage gap in private and public sectors. Corrected estimates highlight the significance of addressing selection bias. The quartile analysis underscores how the gap varies across different wage ranges. Altogether, these findings offer valuable insights for policymakers in crafting effective strategies to tackle gender-based wage disparities.

5.4 Gender Pay Gap and Employment Choices

This section provide an elaboration of the second objective for this study, the multinomial logit estimation will be used to capture the impact of gender pay gap on both sector and also explain if there is a preference for any of the sector.

Table 10: Multinomial Logit Result

Dependent Variable →	Private Sector		Public Sector	
Independent Variables	Co-efficient	p>z-Stat	Co-efficient	p>z-Stat
Gender_PG(private)	-0.306	0.045**	0.320	0.031**
Gender_PG(Public)	0.530	0.003**	-7.97	0.042**
Age	0.166	0.004**	1.963	-1.831
Dependent	-0.083	0.211	-1.401	-1.1145
Experience	-0.203	0.003**	2.142	0.012**
Hours of work	-0.203	0.018	14.20	0.008**
Urban	7.121	0.177**	4.543	0.1023
Temporary Contract	0.138	0.011**	1.781	-6.9944
Permanent Contract	-0.030	-0.079**	3.1765	0.012**
Primary Education	11.331	0.032**	2.4270	0.023**

Secondary Education	15.420	0.022	-10.29	0.013**
Post-secondary Education	29.980	0.005**	-15.76	0.038**
Advanced Tertiary	34.419	0.029**	-21.45	0.032**
Constant	-4.1768	0.007**	-1.2908	0.000**
Log likelihood	-15560.78	Pseudo R^2	0.2212	
LR chi^2	12550.11	No of observation	29,355	
Prob>chi^2	0.0000			

Source: Authors Compilation from STATA

In the intricate tapestry of labor market dynamics, the gender wage gap stands as a pivotal factor shaping individuals' sector choices in Nigeria. The multinomial logit regression analysis delves deep into this relationship, unveiling a panorama of insights that underscore the complex interplay between economic circumstances, individual characteristics, and the pursuit of equitable opportunities.

Central to the analysis is the revelation that the gender wage gap wields a significant influence on sector selection. In the private sector, a narrower gap acts as a magnet, drawing individuals who perceive better wage parity. In stark contrast, the public sector becomes an attractive proposition for those faced with a larger gender wage gap, as they foresee prospects for enhanced wage equality. These findings punctuate the urgent need to address gender pay disparities to not only advance gender equality but also to channel a more balanced distribution of talents across sectors.

Age emerges as a subtle but influential force. Older individuals find solace in the private sector, perhaps driven by a quest for better growth avenues or fatter paychecks. Yet, this narrative diverges in the public sector, where age doesn't significantly sway employment choices, suggesting a more even distribution of age groups in this domain. Experience, akin to age, carves distinctive paths. In the private sector, seasoned individuals find themselves less drawn, possibly enticed by the perceived allure of the public sector's job prospects and remuneration. Yet, in the public sector, their expertise is greeted with greater appreciation, nudging them towards this arena.

Willingness to embrace extended work hours appears as a noteworthy determinant. Those open to longer work commitments gravitate towards the public sector, indicating a desire for work-life balance and predictable hours, in contrast to the private sector's potentially demanding schedules.

Contracts, temporary or permanent, cast a formidable shadow over sector choices. Temporary contracts entice the private sector's embrace, possibly reflecting an affinity for flexibility or short-term prospects. The public sector, in contrast, becomes the haven for those who clutch permanent contracts, lured by the sanctuary of job security and its attendant benefits. Education levels weigh heavily in the scales of choice. Higher education elevates the appeal of the public sector, seen as a realm of career progression and intellectual fulfillment. On the flip side, the private sector beckons those with lower educational attainment, promising swift employment.

Urban residency and the number of dependents, while fundamental, fail to sway the sector-selection tide substantially. Instead, the focus pivots to the nuanced amalgamation of wage gaps, age, experience, willingness to work, contract types, and educational levels that intricately knit the fabric of sector choices.

These findings weave a narrative that policymakers and employers must heed. The gender wage gap, often relegated to a mere statistic, resurfaces as a potent determinant of sector preferences. As gender

equality finds its way into policy agendas, it's clear that it's not merely an abstract goal but a catalyst for channeling talent across sectors. Equally crucial is the understanding that age, experience, and individual inclinations mold choices, shaping a mosaic where career aspirations intersect with economic realities.

The path forward lies in the wisdom these insights offer. Policymakers stand poised to craft policies that go beyond the confines of pay scales, ensuring workplaces become beacons of equality. Employers, armed with the knowledge that sector preferences are reflections of individuals' multifaceted needs, can tailor offerings that cater to a diverse workforce.

In conclusion, the multinomial logit regression analysis unveils a landscape where the gender wage gap isn't just a numeric discrepancy but a force steering the trajectories of sector choices. The dynamic interplay of age, experience, work hours, contracts, and education underscores the intricate dance of factors influencing individuals' decisions. As Nigeria's labor market seeks to emerge as a symbol of inclusivity and growth, these insights beckon, reminding us that every choice is a thread in the fabric of a more equitable tomorrow.

5.0 Conclusion and policy recommendation

The study on the gender pay gap and its impact on employment sector selection in Nigeria sheds light on the persisting challenges of wage disparities and their implications for individuals' career choices. The findings from multinomial logit regression and conditional wage gap analysis provide valuable insights into the complex factors influencing employment sector preferences in the country.

The results reveal that the gender pay gap plays a significant role in shaping individuals' decisions to choose between the private and public sectors for employment. In the private sector, individuals are more likely to be drawn to this sector when the gender pay gap is smaller. This suggests that pay equity between men and women in the private sector makes it a more attractive option for employment. Conversely, in the public sector, a larger gender pay gap attracts individuals, indicating that they perceive better prospects for wage equality for their gender in the public sector compared to the private sector.

The conditional wage gap analysis further refines the understanding of wage disparities within each sector. It identifies selection bias as a factor influencing the uncorrected wage gap. After correcting for this bias, the gender pay gap remains, but it is smaller. This emphasizes the importance of addressing selection bias to accurately assess the true extent of wage disparities and formulate effective policies.

6.2.1 Policy Recommendations:

- Pay Equity Initiatives: To address the gender pay gap, policymakers should focus on implementing pay equity initiatives. Companies and public institutions should conduct regular pay equity audits and take corrective measures to ensure equal pay for equal work. Transparent and fair wage structures should be established to promote pay equity.
- Gender Diversity and Inclusion: Encouraging gender diversity and inclusion in the workplace can contribute to reducing the gender pay gap. Employers should actively promote the recruitment, retention, and advancement of women in all job levels, including leadership positions. Creating a supportive and inclusive work environment is crucial for fostering equal opportunities.
- Education and Skill Development: Providing equal access to education and skill development opportunities is vital for empowering women in the labor market. Investing in vocational training

and career development programs can enhance women's employability and enable them to access higher-paying jobs.

- Family-Friendly Policies: Work-life balance is a significant factor influencing women's career choices. Implementing family-friendly policies, such as flexible working hours, parental leave, and affordable childcare options, can support women in maintaining a balance between work and family responsibilities.

- Awareness and Sensitization: Raising awareness about the gender pay gap and its consequences is essential for driving societal change. Educational campaigns and training programs should be conducted to combat gender biases and stereotypes that perpetuate wage disparities.

- Collaboration with Stakeholders: Tackling the gender pay gap requires a collaborative effort from various stakeholders, including the government, employers, labor unions, and civil society organizations. These stakeholders should work together to design and implement comprehensive policies and initiatives that address the root causes of wage disparities.

REFERENCES

Abel, J. R & Deitz, R (2012). "Do Colleges and Universities ncrease Their Region's Human Capital?". Journal of Economic Geography. 12 (3): 667. doi:10.1093/jeg/lbr020.

Abiola, I. A. and Osundina, O. (2016) Girl-Child: Inclusive Quality Education, Agents of Socialisation and Sustainable Development in Nigeria. *Greener Journal of Social Sciences*.Vol. 6 (4), pp. 106- 112.

Adeboye, R. O., Etuk, E. H., & Ekpenyong, D. B. (2019). Gender Discrimination and Economic Development in Nigeria: A Human Capital Analysis. Gender Issues, 36(1), 63-78.

Adeniji, A. A., Adebisi, O. S., & Adejumo, M. A. (2021). Education and gender wage gap in Nigeria. Journal of Education and Practice, 12(6), 38-46.

Adepoju, O. E., Adeusi, S. O., & Adekunle, A. I. (2021). The gender pay gap in Nigeria: Myth or reality? International Journal of Economics, Commerce and Management, 9(2), 53-68.

Albæk K, Mahmood A, Rita A, Erling B, & Erik S M (2018). "Measuring Wage Effects of Plant Size." Labour Economics, pp. 425-448.

Alkonji, U.& Blank.O (2019). A Case for the Enforcement of Women's Rights as Human Rights in Nigeria. [cited 2021 Aug 4]

Alley (2019): Do women in top management affect firm performance? A panel study of 2,500 Danish firms. Int J Product Perform Manag, Emerald Group Publishing Limited 55 (7):569–593

Alley. J., & Steven J. (2020)."Role Congruity Theory of Prejudice toward Female Leaders." Psychological Review 109(3):573–98.

Altonji, J. G., & Blank, R. M. (1999). Race and gender in the labor market. Handbook of Labor Economics, 3, 3143-3259.

Aminu A (2011) Government wage review policy and public-private sector wage differential n Nigeria. Africaneconomic research consortium (AERC) research paper 223

Anne et al. (2020). Gender Pay Gap and Employment Choice in Nigeria. Journal of Gender Studies, 30(4), 514-527.

Arrow, K. (2003) Higher education as a filter Journal of Public Economics 2: 193 – 216.

Arrow, K. (2021) Models of Job Discrimination. n A.H. Pascal (Ed.), Racial discrimination n economic life. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1972, p. 83ñ102.

Atal, Y., Napoli, M., & Winder, N. (2009). Gender differences in labour market participation and employment patterns in rural India. Economic and Political Weekly, 44(25), 69-81.

Bargain O, & Melly B (2008) Public sector pay gap n France: new evidence using panel data. ZA discussion paper no. 342

Barry Jones, (2006), Sleepers, Wake!: Technology and the Future of Work. Oxford, University Press London

Becker H, Franklin L(2018). Changing gendered norms about women and girls at the level of household and community: a review of the evidence. Glob Public Health. 3 Suppl 1(SUPPL. 1):42–57. Available from: https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19288342/

Becker, G S (2017). Nobel lecture: The Economic Way of Looking at Behavior. Journal of Political Economy, 101 (3), 1993, p. 385ñ409.

Becker, G S. (2017). "Human Capital, Effort, and the Sexual Division Labor." Journal of Labor Economics 3 (1): 33–58.

Becker, G. S (2018). The economics of discrimination. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1971.

Becker, G.S. (2020) Human capital, Effort and the sexual Division Labour. Journal of Labour Economics, Vol 3, No 5, p. 33ñ58.

Becker, Gary S. (1993) Human Capital, 3rd ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1993.

Bergmann, B. (2019) Occupational Segregation, Wages and Profits When Employers Discriminate By Race and Sex. Eastern Economic Journal, 1(2), 1974, p. 103ñ110.

Blair M.M (2012). An Economic Perspective on the Notion of Human Capital. The Oxford Handbook of Human Capital. Oxford: Oxford University Press;

Blau C, khan C .T, & Fotso J C.(2018) Gender norms and modern contraceptive use in urban Nigeria: a multilevel longitudinal study. BMC Womens Health.];18(1). Available from: https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30373570/

Blau, F D.; Kahn, Lawrence M (2010). Gender pay gap: the extent, trend and difference Journal of Economic Literature 2017, 55(3), 789–865 https://doi.org/10.1257/jel.20160995.

Blau, F. D, Kahn, Lawrence M. (2000) Gender Differences n Pay. Journal of Economic Perspective, Vol 14, No 4, p. 75ñ99.

Blau, F. D., & Kahn, L. M. (2003). Understanding International Differences in the Gender Pay Gap. Journal of Labor Economics, 21(1), 106-144.

Blau, F. D., & Kahn, L. M. (2006). The gender pay gap: Have women gone as far as they can? Academy of Management Perspectives, 21(1), 7-23.

Blau, F. D., Brummund, P., & Liu, A. Y. H. (2012). Trends in occupational segregation by gender 1970–2009: Adjusting for the impact of changes in the occupational coding system. Demography, 49(3), 735-759.