



Evaluation of Gender Pay-Gap in the Informal Sector in Ogun State, Nigeria



Olaifa Temitope A.

Federal University of Agriculture,
Abeokuta, Nigeria.
topeolaifa@gmail.com

Abstract: *Gender inequality has remained a critical issue in gender discourse particularly in academic spheres. The dimension of global gender inequality is likely to become more relevant as the world becomes more integrated technologically, economically and politically. Globally, gender differences in the labour market manifesting in pay differences have created a huge gap in the way men and women relate within the economic system. The informal sector is a major source of employment accounting for about 66% of all employments in Africa and women are active players in the sector in the entire African continent. In Nigeria, differences in income distribution are explained in terms of Participation in Labour Force (PLF). The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP, 2009) indicates that Nigeria's gender pay gap is one of the highest in the world. In the light of this, the study investigated gender pay gap in the informal labour sector in Ogun State, Nigeria. It deployed the quantitative survey method using stratified sampling method for determining its population and the descriptive statistics for analysis and the T-test to determine the hypothesis. The study found that there is no significant gap in the wages of male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State Nigeria. It further highlighted the impact of such discrimination on productivity. The study, aligning with the goals 5 and 11 of the Sustainable Development Goals, made suggestions to improve the situation.*

Keywords: Gender inequality, Informal sector, Gender Pay-gap, Sustainable development

Introduction

Gender inequality is a sensitive issue in developmental spheres. The question of how these inequalities are generated and how they had evolved over time has been a major debate in the social and academic parlance. The dimension of global inequality is likely to become even more relevant as the world becomes more integrated. At the same time, income inequality is seen as an important component for a country's overall development, which makes it important to understand the contributing factors. Around the world, gender differences in the labour market manifesting in pay differences have been persistent over time.

In the United States of America, the gender pay gap between male and female workers has evolved overtime. Marini (1997) rightly observed that women get lower pay compared to their male counterparts. In the 1980's, O'Neill and Polachek (1993) disclosed that there was a close wage gap in male and female earnings from 41% to 32%. In 1993, the United States Census Bureau (USCB) revealed that women earned 71 cents for every dollar men earned. This means that the wage gap exists around 29%. In 2004, it further revealed that the wage

gap between male and female workers in the US was at 25% (United States Census Bureau, 2004).

In Canada, gender pay gap between 1967 and 1999 was recorded at both 42% and 27.5% respectively (Statistics Canada, 1999). This increase in the female-male pay difference is attributed to the fact that women are more likely than men to make choices that involve forgoing work experience for family reasons, either by turning down overtime, promotions and/or transfers or by leaving the labour force to bear and raise children (Lero & Johnson, 1994). The desire to avoid short-changing one's family may also explain some women's decisions to refrain from obtaining the educational training required to enter well-paying yet time-intensive professional careers.

In the United Kingdom (UK), the gender pay gap (GPG) as at 2011 stands at 16% based on average full-time hourly earnings, down from 37% three decades ago and 21% in 1997 (Hopkins, 2011). This connotes that women in the UK labour force earns 16% less than their male counterparts. A major factor that can explain this is the high prevalence of casual jobs which have majority of the UK's women involvement. Other factors accounting for the disparity in the UK is the level of educational attainment of women and their age.

Overall, the wage disparities observed in the aforementioned developed countries are on the high following the ILO's declaration in 1951. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) Convention 100 on Equal Remuneration declares:

Each member shall, by means appropriate to the methods in operation for determining rates of remuneration, promote and, in so far as is consistent with such methods, ensure the application to all workers of the principle of equal remuneration for men and women workers for work of equal value (Hopkins, 2011).

In addition, the Treaty of Rome in 1957 set out the principle of equal pay for equal value (Townsend-Smith, 1986; Hopkins, 2011). The Article enshrined the concept of equal pay in Community Law and laid the foundation for equality legislation and policy in Europe. The article as enacted within the European Economic Community prohibits all discrimination on the grounds of sex in relation to pay. In 2006, the article was further reviewed and collapsed seven other directives into one in order to further elucidate on Community Law in the area of equal treatment between women and men (<http://eur-lex.europa.eu>, 2006). This directive makes it illegal to discriminate against women in the labour market or pay women lower wages than men when performing work of the same value within any country in the European Union (Hopkins, 2011).

The Organization for Economic Development (OECD) in 2006 revealed that majority of the European countries have a less than 20% gender wage disparity with countries like Belgium, New Zealand and Poland having the least of about 9 and 10 percents respectively. France, Spain, Netherlands, Greece and Denmark recorded about 13%, 18%, 17%, 12% and 11% respectively (OECD Earnings Database, 2006). Leading economies in the Asian Tigers Korea and Japan recorded high indicators of about 37% and 33% correspondingly (OECD Earnings Database, 2006).

Statement of the Research Problem

In Nigeria, differences in income distribution can be explained by the mode of participation in labour force (PLF). The International Labour Organization (ILO) disclosed that the labour force participation rate in Nigeria has improved significantly with male dominance on the decline while appreciable progress has been recorded in the number of women participation in the labour force. Statistically, there has been a steady decline in male participation in labour force from 75% in 1900 to 69% in 20010. In contrast, the female PLF increased steadily from 37% in 1980 to 40% in 2009 (Women's world, 2010). Generally, over the period of 1980 through 2009, the female GPLF has been on the rise while the participation of the males has been on the decline.

The rise in female labour force has been anticipated due to increasing educational attainment of women, decline in the fertility level, and increased emphasis on gender equality, desire to enjoy a higher quality of life as national per capita income rises, and several others (Fadayomi and Ogunrinola, 2013). The reason for the decline in the male labour force participation is connected to factors such as reduction in the number of work hours per week as a result of union agitation in the formal sector and massive lay-off due to unfavourable economic climate.

However, with the increased participation of women in the labour force, there is still pay gap between males and females. Article 17(3)(e) of the 1999 Nigeria Constitution enshrined the equal pay principle among the fundamental objectives and directives principles of state policy (Federal Government of Nigeria, 1999). This was further reinforced by the 2007 Gender Equality Duty applying to all public bodies and aspects of the 2010 Equality Act (Fapohunda, 2013).

In spite of the institutional policies in place to alleviate wage disparity in Nigeria, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2009) indicated that Nigeria's gender pay gap is one of the highest in the world and females are under-represented in the higher paid, more powerful positions.

In the light of the above, this study seeks to investigate the prevalence of gender pay gap in the informal labour sector in Nigeria. This is based on the fact that the UNDP (2016) declared that the informal sector is a major source of employment accounting for about 66% of all employments in Africa. Statistics have it that it employs about 74% of women and 61% of men in the entire African continent. It was further averred that the sector contributes to about 41% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in sub-Saharan Africa which Nigeria is a major economy.

Research Questions

The following are the research questions for the study:

- What is the mean wage of male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State?
- What are the factors considered in the allocation of wages to male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State?
- What is the level of disparity in the mean wage between male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State?
- What are the factors responsible for disparity between male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State?

Research Objectives

Based on this, the study investigates the occurrence of gender pay gap among male and female workers in the informal sector by:

- Determining the mean wage of male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State
- Highlighting the factors considered in the allocation of wages to male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State
- Evaluating the level of disparity in the mean wage between male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State
- Identifying the factors responsible for disparity between male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State

Hypothesis

The hypothesis is stated in the null form as follows:

Ho: there is no significant difference in the mean wages of male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State.

Theoretical Framework

The Human Capital Theory

Human capital is the knowledge, competencies, values, and social and personal attributes that are represented in the ability to perform labour so as to produce economic value. In other words, it can be defined as a measure of the economic value of an employee's skill set. Some of this is acquired through investment in education. The amount of investment a person places in education will have an impact on the income that the person receives after his education.

Gary Becker (1976) developed much of the framework for the human capital theory and its application to labour market segregation and discrimination. Becker (1976) hypothesized that females have a comparative advantage in domestic, non-market work than males who have a competitive advantage in the more traditional labour market. This work pattern has roots in agrarian and patriarchal societies where males possessed a comparative, strength-based advantage in labour-intensive agriculture, while females specialized in family work (Iversen and Rosenbluth, 2010).

From the perspective of the theory, it is posited that men possess capital (strength, skills, trainings) that are relevant to the labour market, while women possess capital relevant to engage in household duties. The human capital theory provides an explanation for gender differences in labour market access and participation by focusing on the comparative productivity of workers. The theory posits that labour productivity and labour supply and demand are affected by inherent sex differences that contribute to potentially lower levels of female productivity as compared to men (Anker and Hein, 1986). This is due to the beliefs that men are stronger, more skilled, and have the ability to stay long on the job than women. Resulting from this is the reluctance to hire women and the disparity in their wages. Anker and Hein (1986) argued that women are less productive than men because they have lower average levels of human capital. Human capital theory therefore attributes differences in male and female employment patterns and wage differentials to productivity differences between employees of different sexes.

Although, the human capital theory places emphasis on human endowments such as educational attainment as a major factor causing wage disparity between males and females, the trend in this contemporary time seem insignificant as we have more women striving to acquire knowledge in diverse fields of life. This development has resulted in change in the social structure which makes women even more qualified for a job and pay than their male counterparts.

Literature Review

Conceptualizing Wage Disparity

Gender pay gap is the difference between the average wages of men and of women (Zsusza, 2012). It is inequality or difference in the average wage earned by women and the average wage earned by men. It can also be identified as situations in which a woman receives less money than a man for the same job with none of the allowable legal distinctions present. It is the observable differences between wages paid to women and wages paid to men. Over the centuries there had been a great disparity in wage relation between male and females in formal organizational structures. Although, the gap has been shrinking gradually yet, it remains a puzzle for social scientists due to the continuous upgrading of women capital development, which has narrowed down the educational distribution that men have in the workforce.

In the United States of America for example, the Federal Equal Pay Act makes it illegal to pay men and women working for the same employer different wages for substantially equal work (Alexander, *et. al*, 2003). On average, women in the EU earn around 16 % less per hour than men. The gender pay gap varies across Europe. It is below 10 % in Slovenia, Malta, Poland, Italy, Luxembourg and Romania, but wider than 20 % in Hungary, Slovakia, Czech Republic, Germany, Austria and Estonia. Although the overall gender pay gap has narrowed in the last decade, in some countries the national gender pay gap has actually been widening (Hungary, Portugal). The gender pay gap exists even though women do better at school and university than men. On average, in 2012, 83 % of young women reach at least upper secondary school education in the EU, compared to 77.6 % of men. Women also represent 60 % of university graduates in the EU (Eurostat, 2014).

Causes of wage disparity

Overtime, researchers had launched inquiry to unravel the triggers of wage disparity between men and women. Basically, these factors have been categorized as:

Human Capital Factors: it is generally believed that women have lower capital development in terms of their education and those with a better educational qualification are employed as administrative assistants which have a relatively low pay compared with their male counterparts. The lack of requisite qualification and professional skill by females in the society has an overhauling effect on how they relate with the economic system. This syndrome can be hinged to the patriarchal system in most parts of Africa and other less developed countries where people invest in the male child while the females are left to handle domestic responsibilities like bearing and raising children. Furthermore, the under-development of female human capital may also be responsible for the low demand for females in professions or occupations with a higher pay. It is also largely assumed that demands and supply of labour is highly competitive and females do not possess the endowments in terms of strength, skill and qualification that will make them compete favourable with men in the labour market.

Social Factors: social factors such as child bearing, family responsibilities and societal nuances are major causes of wage disparity between male and female in the society. Due to their biological make-up, females are more likely to stay out of job more than a man to give birth. More so, in an era where employment has become so difficult, the probability of a woman regaining her employment after childbirth is low. The gender pay gap widens when women have children and when they work part-time (Martins, Eddleson and Veiga, 2002). Women spend more time than men carrying out domestic and care work, and few men take parental leave or work part-time. Women work shorter hours and often part-time in order to combine their family responsibilities with paid work. Opportunities for women to progress in their jobs and receive higher pay are also affected by their family responsibilities. Martin *et al* (2002) asserts that women choose to leave the workforce more frequently and for longer periods to care for family than do men.

Social nuances that when a woman is at the top of her career or at a top management cadre means she must have bought her way through or such a woman had engaged in an immoral act to occupy such high and powerful positions can also dissuade most women from taking up positions that will improve take home.

Structural Factors: societal structures and organizational policy are major determinants of wages. It is customary to state that in any setting, be it social, political and religious; women are not worthy to occupy positions of influence and power. This has over the years been the norms which only not dictate gender relations in these circuits but also determines gender economic relations. Organizations tends to reserve certain sensitive positions with high wages for male workers while female are left to battle with lesser positions that attracts lesser pay. It has often been argued that the patriarchal structure in the society favours a male to occupy positions with the attractive wage package while the women occupy the lower positions with less attractive wage packages. This is a major reason of disparity in wage relations between male and female in the society.

Consequences of the gender wage gap

The existence of the gender wage gap is cause for concern first of all because it means that women on average are financially disadvantaged relative to men. It can be argued that the gender wage gap is not equitable, because only part of the difference in pay can be explained by human capital differentials, and this brings up worries about discrimination against women. The fact that women earn less than men has negative consequences not only for them but their families as well, who would probably enjoy having a higher total income. The fact that women are generally paid less, leads to unequal gender relations within the family and in society as well. And to the extent to which the gender wage gap is the consequence of unequal pay for the same work, it is part of the broader problem that our social norms still tolerate discrimination, even though it is illegal to discriminate, i.e. unfairly let a person's sex (or race, or religion, etc.) become a factor when deciding who gets a job, a promotion, better pay, etc. It is well documented that there is a substantial gap in median earnings between women and men even after controlling for work experience, education and occupation (the most important factors accounting for wage differences in general and the gender wage gap in particular). Even after accounting for key factors, women earned on average 80 percent of what men earned in 2000 (Weinberg, 2007).

Wage gap between males and females would lead to a higher level of poverty among women than among men, especially among women raising children alone. In fact, women's poverty level affects a significant proportion of children. There are policies that could be introduced

to improve children's well-being, such as subsidies for childcare, paid maternity leave and enforcing the payment of child support by fathers could also reduce the burden of raising children, which today falls disproportionately on women (Goldin, 1990). While it is taken for granted that men work outside the home, women can do it only if they can combine it with their household duties, which are unequally shared with their husbands (Sen, 2001). This means not only unequal relations within the family, but leads to inequalities in employment and in recognition in the outside world, including wages.

When women earn less than their husbands, it strengthens the patriarchal beliefs that it makes more economic sense to invest more in the husband's career than in the wife's. Thus, women are more likely to work part-time or take time off work to look after their family's needs, than men are and investing less in the wife's career perpetuates unequal earnings.

Perspectives to gender wage gap

In approaching the study on gender wage gap, three basic perspectives are examined. Three major perspectives surfaced in examining gender relations and wages earned. These perspectives are the;

1. Individualistic perspectives
2. Structural perspective
3. Gender perspective

Individualistic perspective: the individualist perspective borrows its positions largely from the rational choice theory which views man as a thinking being, goal oriented and always desire the best for himself. The perspective illustrates that individuals seek to maximise their cost while also maximising utility. It explains that human actions and decisions are taken based on the individual opportunities and preferences. Every man would take actions that would eventually accrue to his social and psychological development. As a result, individuals would ultimately invest in human capital that will increase their productivity as well as their income. Tiffany (2007) described investments in human capital as a range of activities from schooling and on-the-job training, but all investments increase the mental and physical abilities of an individual and therefore increase real income possibilities (Goud, 2002).

This perspective affords a tangible explanation for the differences in income earned by men and women as it is believed that more men tend to invest in trainings (academic, skill and professional) which afford them the opportunity to move higher in their offices which will definitely increase their pay package. Women on their hand tend to invest more time learning skills that would make them a better home caretaker and manager. This is due to the way the society is structured that relegates women's role to the family.

Structural perspective: The structural perspective claimed that social structures determine the wage that is attached to a position and the kind of persons that could ascend to that position. Organizations have structures and salary scale that distribute income to their employees on the basis of education, experience or productivity. It has often been argued that the patriarchal structure in the society favours a male to occupy positions with the attractive wage package while the women occupy the lower positions with less attractive wage packages. This explains the widened gap between male and female employees in an organization and by extension, the gap between males and females in the society. Furthermore, the perspective places emphasis on economic positions as major determinants for wage allocation and disparity between males and females in the society.

Gender Perspective: Gender perspective assumed that wage disparity is an offshoot of how society confers roles and assigns duties to people based on their sex. It is believed that gender is a social construct that assigns values and importance to individual based on their being male or female. Tiffany (2007) opined that the gender of a worker determines how the work is rewarded, through a devaluation and sorting process. This translates that value and rewards on the jobs are assigned on the basis of gender. It could be further explained that a man is assigned to a duty that is more valuable and rewarding as compared to female counterpart with the same qualification. This distribution is further engendered in the dominant theory which is used to describe men as dominant specie in the society.

Methodology

Research Design

The study design for the research work will combine elements of both qualitative and quantitative research.

Study Area

The area selected for the project is Ogun State. The state harbours within it 20 local government areas and 37 Local Council Development Association (LCDAs). The estimated population of the State is pegged at 5,217,716 according to the 2013 population growth reports released by the National Population Commission (NPC) and the National Bureau of Statistics (NBS).

Study Population

The study population consisted of male and female workers in the informal sector. This consists of workers in shops, supermarkets, sales girls and boys and others employed in the semi-skilled market in Ogun State.

Sample Size

The sample size for the study is calculated based on the Krejcie and Morgan sample size formula $s = \frac{X^2 NP(1-P)}{d^2 (N-1) + X^2 P(1-P)}$ (Baron, 2004). Considering the state's population of 5,217,716, the calculation will give an estimated figure of 384 respondents at 95% confidence interval.

Sampling Procedure

The stratified random sampling method was deployed. First, Ogun State was stratified into the three Senatorial Districts which are, Ogun Central, Ogun East and Ogun West. In each Senatorial District, three urban and semi-urban localities were selected. The selection was based on the level of informal commercial activities engaged in those cities. This is supposed to enhance an appreciable representation of workers in the informal sector in the state. In Ogun East, Sagamu, Ijebu Ode and Ijebu North Local Governments were selected. Also, in Ogun Central, Abeokuta South, Obafemi Owode and Ifo Local Government Areas were selected. In Ogun West, Adodo/Ota, Yewa South and Yewa North Local Government Areas were selected. Please refer to table 1 below:

Table 1: Summary of Sampling Procedure

S/N	Senatorial District	Local Govt. Area	City/Town	No. of Questionnaire
1.	Ogun Central	Abeokuta South Ifo Obafemi Owode	Ibara Akute Mowe	42 42 44 Sub-Total = 128
2.	Ogun East	Ijebu Ode Sagamu Ijebu North	Ijebu Ode Sagamu Ijebu Igbo	44 42 42 Sub-Total = 128
3.	Ogun West	Adodo/Ota	Otta	44
		Yewa North Yewa South	Aiyetoro Ilaro	42 42 Sub-Total = 128
	GRAND TOTAL			384

Instrumentation

The instrument used in gathering data for this study was structured questionnaire. For the primary data, 384 questionnaires were administered to the respondents in the different subdivisions of the state at 128 pieces per senatorial district. Data were collected through primary sources using questionnaire. Data were analysed using descriptive statistics, and the T-test of difference of means to test the hypothesis.

Findings

The result displayed in Table 1 shows the income earned by the respondents in the study area. It depicts that Majority (26.8%) of the respondents earned \leq ₦10,000. About 22% of the respondents earned between ₦11,000 and ₦20,000, 21.9% earns between ₦21,000 and ₦30,000 while 18% earns between ₦ 31,000 and 40,000 and 10.4% earns between ₦41,000 and ₦50,000

Table 1: Income of respondents

Income (₦)	Frequency	Percent (%)
9,999	103	26.8
10,000-19,999	88	22.9
20,000-39,999	84	21.9
40,000-49,999	69	18.0
\geq 50,000	40	10.4

Source: Olaifa Temitope; Field Report, 2021

Result shown in Table 2 reveals that majority (41.4%) of the respondents holds a Senior Secondary School Certificate, while 35.4% has a Primary School Leaving Certificate and another 23.2% attended a tertiary institution.

Table 2: Education

Qualification	Frequency	Percent (%)
Primary	136	35.4
Secondary	159	41.4
Tertiary	89	23.2

Source: Olaifa Temitope; Field Work, 2021

Result in Table 3 show the age distribution of the respondent in the three senatorial districts in Ogun state. it was revealed that the age of most (71.4%) of the respondents are less than 30

years of age while about 78% of the respondents are between the age range 30 and 40 years.

Table 3: Age

Age	Frequency	Percent (%)
less than 30	274	71.4
30-40	78	20.3
above 40	32	8.3

Source: OlaifaTemitope; Field Work, 2021

Majority (64.6%) of the respondents believed that the process of determining wages/salaries is similar to other workers in the sector. In the light of this, result showing in Table 4 depicts that majority of the respondents (78.8%) attested that sales, (55.2%) nature of the job, (55.6%) office structure and (50.5%) length of service are the major income determinant in the sector.

Table 4: Factors of determining wages

Factors	Yes (%)	No (%)
Sales	303 (78.8%)	81(21.2%)
Office structure	214 (55.6%)	170 (44.4%)
Nature of job	212 (55.2%)	172 (44.8%)
Length of service	194 (50.5%)	190 (49.5%)

Source: OlaifaTemitope; Field Work, 2021

In Table 5, the result shows that the respondents believed that pay differences exist between male and female workers in the sector. Factors responsible for this as highlighted in Table 6 shows that academic qualification of the workers is not pre-requisite for determining wages as previously illustrated in Table 4. Rather, it was discovered that responsibilities and job expectations (65.5%), skill (15.5%), relationship with the management staff (10.3%), and length of service (8.7%) are factors accountable for the pay difference among male and female workers in the informal sector.

Table 5: Do pay differences exist among male and female workers?

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	254	66.1
No	130	33.9

Source: OlaifaTemitope; Field Work, 2021

Table 6: Factors accountable for pay differences among male and female workers

Factors	Frequency	Percent (%)
Responsibilities and job expectations	251	65.5
Skill	60	15.5
Relationship with management	40	10.3
Length of service	33	8.7

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Result in Table 7, shows the mean wage between male and female workers in the informal sector. It was revealed that the mean wage for male workers in the informal sector is ₦26, 771 while for the female workers, the mean wage is ₦26, 042.

Table 7: Mean wage between male and female workers in the informal sector

Sex	Mean wage
Male	₦26, 771
Female	₦26, 042

Source: Olaifa Temitope; Field Work, 2021.

Hypothesis Testing

Ho: there is no significant difference in the mean wages of male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State.

The hypothesis for the study which states that “there is no significant difference in the mean wages of male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State” was tested using student T-test. The result of the hypothesis shows that there is no significant difference, ($t = 0.552, p < 0.01$) between the mean wage of male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State. The null hypothesis was therefore accepted and the alternate hypothesis rejected.

Table 8: T-test showing the difference in the mean wage of workers

Variables	N	Mean	Std deviation	T-Value	P-Value	Decision
Male	192	2.6771	1.39929	0.552	0.581	Not Significant
Female	192	2.6042	1.21059			

Source: Field Work, 2021

Discussion

The result shows that there is a gap in the earned income received by male and female workers in the informal sector. It shows that there is a difference of less than a thousand naira between male and female workers in the sector. Major reasons that could attributed for this is that the informal sector is a highly competitive and women dominated sector where duties and responsibilities are assigned not on gender nor certification as it operates in most formal sector. Rather, tasks are assigned on the basis of availability, competence and demands of the job. This supports assertions by Blau and Khan (2000) that societies experienced a narrowed gender wage gap in sectors that requires less education certification or training.

It could be deduced that the increase in the demand for women especially in service and sales-related offices account for the level of women-domination experienced in the sector. Also, most women in a bid to maintain a stable home and family tends to opt for employment in the informal sector which offers a lesser pay compared to their husbands. Manning (2005) viewed this as a major reason for gender wage gap.

Employees in the informal sector further revealed that in terms of gender relations with employment and income earned, there is no parity between male and female. Owing to the traditional beliefs that male deserves to earn higher than female due to enormous responsibilities of catering and providing for the needs of the family. This idea further fuels the notion of the patriarchal theories who explained that male dominance in economic activities is due to the huge responsibilities society places on their shoulders as the breadwinner and head of a family. Perrons (2009) shared this view in his assertion that “in many ways the organisation of the workplace and the domestic division of labour retain the imprint of a male breadwinner society which presents a challenge to gender equity within employment and in society more generally.” Although, this notion is fast fading due to

restructuring in the global economy and recession that hit most economies, thus paving way for most women and causing a paradigm shift in the global economic relations.

Conclusion

Manifestations of gender inequality abound in our contemporary society. According to Bureau of Labor Statistics data, in **2020**, women's annual **earnings** were 82.3% of men's, and the **gap** is even wider for many women of colour. Events have drawn attention of policy makers around the globe issues of gender inequality in education, politics, management as well as employment and labour relations. Women often than men are always at the centre of discussions and debates on inequality. In spite of global efforts and protocols aimed at ensuring parity in gender relations, women suffer marginalisation, disenfranchisement and non-representation in socio-economic and political domains. Several studies on gender inequality had established wage differences among workers in the formal sector. This forms a new breed of disparity between male and female. In Nigeria, this disparity manifest in form of gender participation in labour force. It has been identified that more male are found in the circles of formal employment which gave them access to high pay and incentives compared to female who are mostly active in the informal sector characterised by less pay and minimal gender role differentials. This study, after evaluating the prevalence of gender wage gap among male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State, Nigeria, found that there is no significant difference in the income earned by male and female workers in the informal sector in Ogun State, Nigeria.

Recommendations

The study derived some lessons learnt from the informal sector as it suggests that:

As women continue to be assigned equal responsibilities as their male counterparts, it is incumbent on employers to ensure that there is no disparity in wages. Gender equality should reflect in all spheres of life and living engagements and need be sustained. This would demonstrate the sincerity of societies, campaign for equality.

Responsibilities and job demands should be given utmost considerations in the allocation of wages. This in essence means that wages should be commensurate to the demands of the office occupied and the role expectations of such an office regardless of the gender of the employee.

Gender-segregating structures must be demolished. Level playgrounds must be established for women and men to demonstrate their skills, talents and capabilities, and be rewarded accordingly. Wages should not be dictated by gender but by performance. All codes, conventions and laws that promote gender par disparity must be revisited and abolished as the case demands.

References

- Anderson, D. J., Binder, M., & Krause, K. (2003). The motherhood wage penalty revisited: experience, heterogeneity, work effort, and work-schedule flexibility. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review* 56, 273-294.
- Becker, G. (1965). A theory of the allocation of time. *Economic Journal*, Vol.71 pp 493 – 517.
- Blau, F. & Kahn, L. (2000). Gender differences in pay. *Working Paper 7732*. National Bureau of Economic Research.
https://www.nber.org/system/files/working_papers/w7732/w7732.pdf

- Federal Government of Nigeria (2009). Federal Republic of Nigeria Official Gazette on 2006 Population and Housing Census, number 2, volume 96, Abuja, Nigeria.
- Goldin, C. (1990). *Understanding the Gender Gap: An Economic History of American Women*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Gould, D. 2002. Rising wage inequality, comparative advantage, and the growing importance of general skills in the United States. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 20, (1), 105-145).
- Lero, D. S. & Johnson, K. L. (1994). 10 Canadian statistics on work & family. Catalogue No. 94-E-204. Ottawa: Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women
- Manning, A. (2007). The gender pay gap. *Centrepiece- The magazine for economic performance*. Centre for Economic Performance, LSE. Orebro University Business School.
- Marini, M. (1997). The gender gap in earnings at career entry. *American Sociological Review*, 62, (4), Aug., 588-60
- O'neill, J. & Polachek, S. (1993). Why gender gap in wages narrowed in the 1980's. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 11, 205-228.
- OECD Economics Department (2006). Female labour force participation: past trends and main determinants in OECD countries. OECD.
- Perrons, D. (2009). Women and gender equity in employment – patterns, progress and challenges. IES Working Paper WP23.
- Sen, A. (2010). Many faces of gender inequality. *Frontline*, 18(22)
- Tiffany, F. (2005). *Gender and the wage gap: still not equal*. A paper submitted to the Department of Sociology and the Faculty of the Graduate School of Wichita State University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts.
- UNDP (2002). *Human Development Report*. Oxford University Press, Inc, New York, USA.
- UNDP (2010). *Human Development Report 2010: The real wealth of nations: pathways to human development*. United Nations Development Programme, New York, USA.
- UNIFEM (2000). *Status of Nigerian Women and Men: A Statistical Profile*. Lagos. UNIFEM.
- United Nations (2010). *The world's women 2010: trends and statistics*. Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations, New York. (Fadayomi and Ogunrinola, 2013)
- United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. 2004. *American Time Use Survey*. <http://www.bls.gov>.
- United States Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. 2020. *American Time Use Survey*. <https://blog.dol.gov/2021/03/19/5-facts-about-the-state-of-the-gender-pay-gap> Accessed on 17th May, 2021.
- Weinberg, D. (2007). Earnings by gender: evidence from census 2000. *Monthly Labor Review*: 25-34.
- Zsusza, D. (2012). Wage inequality and the gender wage gap: are American women swimming upstream? A dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy to the Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Maryland, USA.