

Fall 2012

Gender Pay Gap in Public Organizations: An Analysis of Trends in Pay Gaps Between Men and Women in Federal Agencies

Aisha Coore
Kennesaw State University

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**Gender Pay Gap in Public Organizations: An Analysis of Trends in Pay Gaps
Between Men and Women in Federal Agencies**

Aisha Coore

A Practicum Paper Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the

Masters of Public Administration

Kennesaw State University
December 2012

Department of Political Science and International Affairs

Master of Public Administration Program

College of Humanities & Social Sciences

Kennesaw State University

Kennesaw, Georgia

Certificate of Approval

This is to certify that the Capstone Project of

Aisha Coore

Has been approved by the Program Director

For the capstone requirement for the Master of Public Administration

Professional exercise in the Department of Political Science and International Affairs

At the December 2012 graduation

Capstone Director:

Sungjoo Choi, PhD.

Title: Gender Pay Gap in Public Organizations: An Analysis of Trends in Pay Gaps
Between Men and Women in Federal Agencies.

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Executive Summary

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 prohibited gender-based wage discrimination in the workforce specifically between men and women that had an identical skill set and were performing the same job. The gender pay gap has been an issue in the American workforce and particularly public administration as early as the 1800s, but has continued through the 1940s, 1950s and up to 2012. There are many different forms of pay gap or other names for the same issue, such as; the glass ceiling, sex discrimination, and comparable worth. Although each term has a different meaning, the outcome remains that women are discriminated against in some form (i.e., pay differentials and/or promotions, etc.).

The purpose of this paper is to examine pay disparities between men and women in the federal government and explore the progression over time in an effort to see whether there have been significant changes.

This analysis is an exploration of trends in pay gaps between men and women in the federal government. The data used in the study were gathered from all cabinet level federal agencies in 2008 and 2010 in an effort to establish a pattern.

In sum, although the pay gap has improved significantly over the past 40 years the data still shows that women are paid less than their male counterparts regardless of experience and education.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank God for the hope and faith that has kept me going. Dr. Sunjoo Choi, for being my practicum supervisor and for assisting me through this process. Dr. Barbara Neuby for her guidance and clarification she was always so eager to provide. Dr. Andrew Ewoh for always taking the time to meet with me and answer any questions I had, no matter how mundane they may have been, and most of all my husband and my mom for their, love, support and patience through this process, without whom I would not have been able to do this.

I would also like to thank the staff in the MPA program and Political Science, Ms. Natalia Menseses, Ms. Clara Ginn, Ms. Linda Caudell and the entire MPA faculty. Former Dean Vengroff, Dean Dorff and the College of Humanities and Social Sciences.

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Gender Pay Gap in Public Organizations: An Analysis of Trends in Pay Gaps between Men and Women in Federal Agencies

Introduction

I have worked in the corporate sector and am now employed in the public sector. I have found one commonality between both sides of the workforce, which is, that women performing the same job functions are paid less than men. I found that though women have the same experiences, skill sets, and educations, they are continually paid less than their male counterparts. I wished to know why this was the case.

In order to understand my research question I began investigating where the pay gap began. According to the research I have come across women, were not as visible in the workforce until around the 1940s and 1950s because they were staying home to take care of their homes and their families. Because women were new to the workforce they did not have the same experience or skill set as their male counterparts. Therefore, they were paid significantly less, and the pay gap began. In the 1960s and 1970s, women were earning about 60 percent of men's salaries. Though there was continued growth in women being integrated into the workforce this new boom had no effect on the lower average salaries of women even given the fact that at this point women's experiences, skill sets, and educations were commensurate with men's (Lewis 1998).

This research will look at trends over a period of time (particularly 2008 and 2010) to determine if there have been significant changes in pay disparities between women and men in federal agencies. I will look at cabinet level agencies,

including but not limited to, the Department of Education, the Department of Labor, and the Department of Defense. My data will come from the federal employment statistics website, which breaks down cabinet level jobs, gender, and salaries. In 2012 this issue continues. Though the pay gap has gotten better over time, the fact still remains that women are paid less than their male counterparts. I feel that it is my duty as a public administrator to look at problems in public administration and try to understand them and possibly come up with a recommendations, but in order to understand the issue all of aspects must be addressed.

Overview

Before the civil war the U.S Patent office was the only federal agency that hired women. The late nineteenth century is where we begin to see women's movements take shape with women fighting for equal rights. In the 1960's *The Feminine Mystique* was published by Betty Friedan, who was also the founder of the National Organization for Women. Friedan started a movement that encouraged women to "claim their individual person while understanding and recognizing that men are largely responsible for women's lack of equal status in the workplace and at home" (D'Agostino and Levine 2011). At this point in history women started speaking and becoming major influences in public arenas.

In recent years the number of women who have entered the workplace has increased as well as the number of women entering graduate programs, yet the number of women working and being promoted in the federal government has not increased as some might expect.. A study conducted by Naff in 1994 concluded that stereotypes are a major setback for women advancing in their careers. Women

working in the federal government with children were often not even looked at for promotions because their supervisors presumed that they were not able to work the long hours necessary for the position (women with children received an average of 2.84 promotions and women without children received 3.2 promotions).

“Opportunity, power and numbers are three significant features that differentiate men from women in leadership posts. There is an asymmetry of women and men in public management. This means that men hold a disproportionate number of key posts, affording them much more discretion and decision making authority than women have” (D’Augustino and Levine 2011). Women are not seen as equal to their male counterparts in the federal government after having the same skill sets.

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in 2009 there were 52.9 percent of women in the work force of 122 million women; 72 million were classified as employed. In some states across the U.S. men were earning \$20,000 to \$30,000 more than women and \$35,000 more in the corporate world. A study in 2011 showed that men’s average salary was \$48,765 while women’s average salary was \$38,373. Data from the Census Bureau’s 2011 Community report stated that Wyoming has the most severe case of the gender pay gap. According to the 24/7 Wall St. one of the explanations for this gap in states such as Wyoming is the fact that some states are considered to be “blue collar” states meaning that the industry provides jobs such as construction that is male dominated. In North Dakota the natural gas industry employs hundreds of thousands of people and in 2011, 90 percent of those workers were male and the women that were employed by the natural gas industry were paid approximately \$46,000 less than their male

counterparts. The five states in similar industries were among the highest states affected by the gender pay gap (Sauter November 2, 2012). In states like North Dakota women are mainly employed in retail, which pays slightly above minimum wage. West Virginia for example has one of the highest rates of pay inequality and their highest paying employer is Wal-Mart. Women working full-time in West Virginia had an average salary of \$14,304 in 2011. Though some states like North Dakota and West Virginia may look bleak there is good news for higher earning states like Massachusetts. Women's average salary in Massachusetts was around \$47,000 (which is one of the highest in the country) compared to men's average salary in the same state at \$60,000.

To distinguish the states where women's salaries are the lowest in the country 24/7 Wall St. compared the average incomes for the past year of both men and women who worked full-time, year-round in each state. Based on data gathered by the U.S. Census Bureau and information released as part of the 2011 American Community Survey the following was reported:

1. Wyoming

Difference in full-time, year-round income: \$17,838

Female full-time, year-round median income: \$35,698 (24th lowest)

Male full-time, year-round median income: \$53,536 (ninth highest)

2011 unemployment rate: 6 percent (seventh lowest)

2. Alaska

Difference in full-time, year-round income: \$15,285

Female full-time, year-round median income: \$41,529

(11th highest)

Male full-time, year-round median income: \$56,814 (fifth highest)

2011 unemployment rate: 7.6 percent (22nd lowest)

3. Louisiana

Difference in full-time, year-round income: \$15,130

Female full-time, year-round median income: \$32,633

(ninth lowest)

Male full-time, year-round median income: \$47,763 (20th highest)

2011 unemployment rate: 7.3 percent (16th lowest)

4. Utah

Difference in full-time, year-round income: \$15,094

Female full-time, year-round median income: \$34,052 (13th lowest)

Male full-time, year-round median income: \$49,146 (19th highest)

2011 unemployment rate: 6.7 percent (11th lowest).

5. Washington

Difference in full-time, year-round income: \$13,979

Female full-time, year-round median income: \$41,817

(ninth highest)

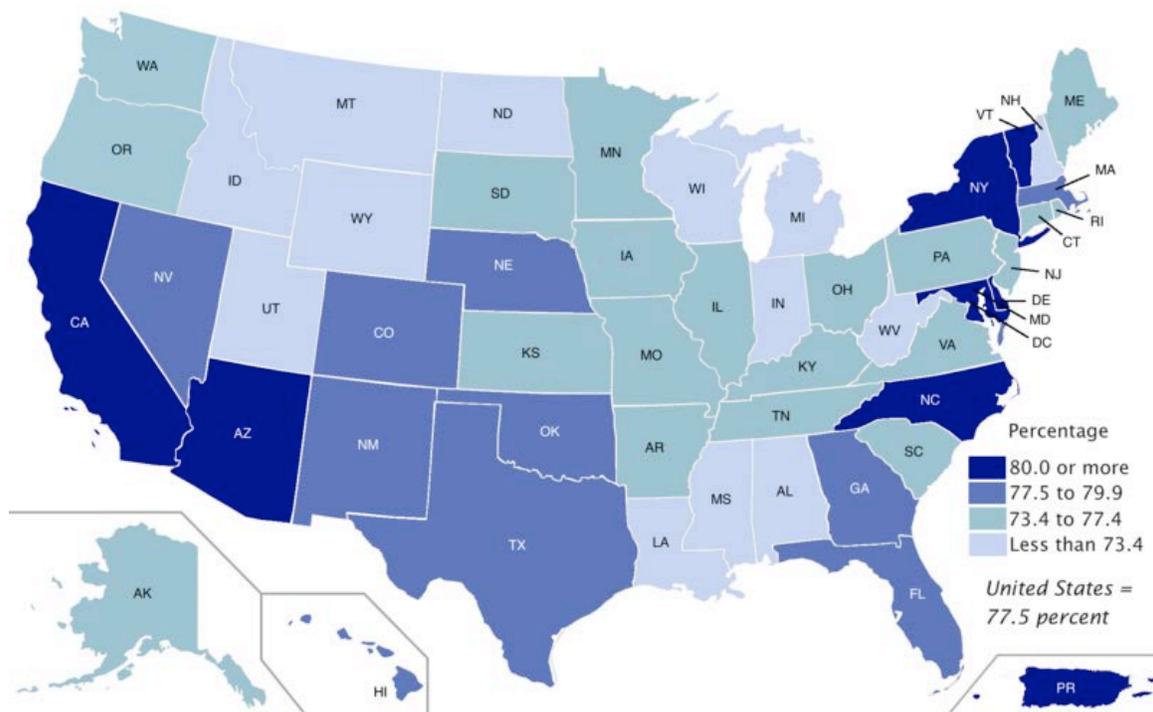
Male full-time, year-round median income: \$55,796 (sixth highest)

2011 unemployment rate: 9.2 percent (16th highest)”

(Sauter November 2, 2012).

Figure 1 demonstrates the U.S. at a glance and highlights areas where the gender pay gap is the widest. The darker blue focuses on areas where women earn 80 percent or more of their male counterparts salary and the lightest blue puts an emphasis on states where women earn less than 73.4 percent of men’s salaries.

Figure 1



http://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/a/ab/US_Gender_pay_gap,_by_state.png

The gender pay gap not only affects the United States, it affects the world. Women with the same experience, education and skill set are not paid equally as compared to their male counterparts.

In their study on *Unequal Pay*, Mohamed Alkadry and Leslie Tower looked at the implementation of the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and determined that after 40 years of its enactment the pay gaps still exist. “A 2003 study by the General Accounting Office found that women earned 79.7 percent of what men earned, even after controlling for occupation, industry, years of experience, job tenure, number of work hours, time off for childbearing, race, marital status, and education. By comparison women’s earnings in 1983 equaled 80.3 percent of men’s earnings, an indication that the pay gap is not shrinking” (Alkadry and Tower 2006). The

authors discussed a topic known as the “glass ceiling” effect in their research. The glass ceiling attributes the pay difference between men and women to the low number of women in higher administrative level positions. This is due in part to women being hired at entry-level positions. Women have remained in lower level positions and faced numerous obstacles when trying to advance, and if they do advance they do so at a much slower pace than their male counterparts. It is as though they can advance only so far, and then face an invisible barrier when trying to progress in their careers. They can see men advancing above them, but they cannot. This idea is where the term glass ceiling comes from. The glass ceiling has been described as an unrecognized barrier that prevents women from progressing to a position of power in their careers (Huitlin 2003).

After beginning the research, I asked myself another question: Are women not being paid the same because they are pursuing positions that make them feel good rather than applying for jobs that pay more? According to the research “protected groups” (women, minorities and veterans) seem to choose jobs in public service (Lewis and Frank 2002). It made me think, women could be making less because they seek out jobs that are emotionally satisfying such as education or human services, while their male counterparts are pursuing jobs that pay more money without emotional attachments. But according to the findings, pay gaps still exist even in female dominated fields like social work. Though the pay gap is a problem in every area of the country’s workforce, I will look at public administration across the board and more specifically the federal government.

The federal government is the country's largest employer, and since the passage of the Civil Service Act of 1883, the federal civil service has implemented and sustained the merit system. The purpose of the merit system was to separate 10 percent of government jobs from the political arena and to create a system where people were hired according to their capabilities and merit, not political affiliation. There have been numerous laws and orders passed in an effort to keep the federal government free of discrimination, specifically race, religion, and sex.

Today there is another type of discrimination called "maternal wall bias" which is when working mothers face discrimination for being working mothers. For example, these caregivers can face situations when they are not hired, not given a promotion, or given "special treatment" because they are mothers. The special treatment refers to not being asked to work overtime, being overlooked for projects, etc. Today women are suing their respective employers in federal court and winning if they feel they have been discriminated against due to their sex (Cuddy and Williams 2012). This is of importance because one of the reasons the pay gap began was because women did not enter the workforce until the 1940s due to the fact that they were caregivers at home, this plays a role in determining the history, present and future of the gender pay gap.

There are other names for women's pay disparities including but not limited to sex segregation and comparable worth. Both are still prominent in the workforce. Some employers use sex-specific demands for workers performing particular jobs. Employers assign male and females to various tasks in part because of beliefs they hold about men performing specific jobs and women performing specific jobs

catered to their gender roles. “Indeed, Bergmann (1986:114) contended that a segregation code prohibits mixing the sexes as equals and reserves upper-level jobs for men. Surprisingly little attention has been paid to the effect of employers’ gender-role attitudes on their personnel decisions, although Reskin & Padavic (1988) found that holding traditional gender-role attitudes predisposed supervisors against using women in customarily male plant jobs” (Reskin 1993). The cause of sex segregation can be seen as gender role socialization, which looks at socializing children (boys and girls) from birth. For example, girls might not be asked to participate in an activity at school that may be considered to be too hard for them, while boys are expected to have “tougher skin.” This early separation is a part of the make-up of the U.S. society. In previous studies there is evidence that suggests that men are not welcoming to women in male dominated occupations, so women gravitate to more gender neutral roles in an effort to avoid the discrimination (Reskin 1993).

Comparable worth (also known as pay equity) refers to the notion that men and women should receive equal pay for having comparable experience when performing the same tasks. Comparable worth was not a major issue until a few years back and not for lack of it being an actual issue. It just wasn’t recognized until recently. Comparable worth is not to be confused with sex segregation. An example of comparable worth can be seen in a lawsuit that took place in Washington State where female state workers sued their employer over pay equity because their job as female secretaries was comparable in worth to that of heavy equipment operators, a job predominantly held by men. In an effort to dissect the issue of pay

disparities it was important for me to do thorough research in the field, and comparable worth and sex segregation are important factors in pay disparities that are still prevalent today (England 1992)

Regarding career advancement women are also seen in fewer management roles as compared to their male counterparts. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission released a report in 1989 and noted that the number of female managers more than tripled since 1970. In 1991 the U.S Department of Labor released findings that stated that out of nine fortune 500 companies only 6.6 percent of executive level positions were held by women. But the statistics are just as staggering in the federal government: although 46 percent of federal employees are women only 15 percent hold upper level executive positions and only 12 percent hold senior level positions (Newman 1993).

As in the case of wage inequality, gender differences in human capital account for only part of the workplace authority gap, leaving much of it unexplained. For example, various studies have determined that women are less likely to possess supervisory authority at work than their male counterparts that possess equivalent levels of education, occupational experience, and prestige. Family characteristics such as marital status and the presence of children, report similar findings. Across three indicators of workplace authority and autonomy, women undergo large disadvantages. Not only is there a large gender gap in work-based authority, but women also deal with additional disadvantages through lower earnings (Huffman and Cohen 2004).

Literature Review:

The literature is a significant analysis of studies as it pertains to pay disparities for women in public administration and looks at how socialization plays a key factor in the gender pay gap. The question becomes, what relationship does sex-role socialization have with career success? The answer can be found in a one's culturally prescribed role socialization. This gender socialization role promotes sex-role differences that attribute to powerful individual barriers in terms of career advancement for women. The traditional roles a woman plays, i.e., daughter, wife, and mother endure and effect women's social status and position in society. The workplace is not a bubble where the outside world is blocked out but it reflects the larger highly gender-stratified society. Within this type of society, the definition of a women's place begins early and is deep-seated in men and women by the time they reach the workforce. This only perpetuates the social rules already fortified with the majority of women working in support, not supervision, administration, not management; predictable occupations, not non-traditional fields (Newman 1993).

Women administrators in public schools continue to be underrepresented when it comes to leadership positions. This reality has raised a question among various scholars; do sex role stereotypes and sex role socialization play a role? One explanation of sex role socialization and sex role stereotypes according to the authors is that young girls don't engage in team activities such as sports as much as boys do. Team activities are where children learn social skills and important aspects of being successful. And since boys are generally seen as team captains and pushed harder and girls participate but are not given the same expectations this

socialization is where boys and girls learn how to communicate and act when they reach adulthood. While management is stereotyped as being dominated by males, women in the same managerial positions are viewed differently. Women managers are seen as emotional when making a decision while male managers are seen as in control and level-headed (Adkinson 1981).

Some differences in leadership style in public schools is that women principals tend to involve themselves in the instructional supervision, their concern for with students, and involving students in the community more so than male principles. According to the literature sexual equality is rare in society. In most social heterosexual settings the male dominates, leaving the women somewhat powerless and not embraced with the same respect as males in the same position.

One way to change this inequality is to focus on strategies for social change. This can be accomplished by starting at the beginning and , treating boys and girls equally from, playing during recess to involving them in conversations were their onions are valued no matter their gender. The federal government is trying to change educational practices that endorse sex biases (Adkinson 1981).

Most recently President Obama passed the Lilly Ledbetter Act in 2009 which amended the Civil Rights Act of 1963, in an effort to close the gender pay gap. Though many laws have been passed and changes have been made, the inequality gap between men and women is still very much in place because behaviors are learned from family relationships and society, and the only way to change this is to start with young girls and boys before they enter the workforce.

Some scholars argue that women and the equity issue have been ignored because men dominate publications in professional journals. This has been attributed to the silence women seem to feel regarding equal pay.

The National Education Association (NEA) reported data on women in educational administration and then ceased in the 1920's. The NEA resumed releasing gender data in the 1970's but has not released a report since 1981. This silence is contributing to the lack of data on women and the issue of equity. Now, the American Association of School Administrators provides the most recent data on women and public school administration (Yeakey et al 1986). Data from AASA reveals that there was a decrease in male administrators from 1974-1982 (80.8%-68.2%) and an increase in female administrators between the same years (11.8%-18.9%).

Sex role stereotypes and socialization attribute to the gap in equity issues for women. The researchers continue to look for ways that women's perceptions as well as society's perceptions have changed which will hopefully bring the gap closer together.

Tokenism is a term that refers to underrepresented women in male dominated work environments. Mia Hultin looked at Rosabeth Moss Kanter's "Seminal Ethnographic Study" and analyzed a longitudinal data set suggesting that men working in female dominated occupations have better opportunities for promotions and raises. Based on the information compiled from the study Hultin suggests that tokenism plays a huge role in the treatment of women and men at the workplace. Kanter explains how "token" women are not included in important

aspects needed for success on the job, for example, the ability to make powerful decisions and form powerful relationships. Kanter argued that performance expectations, social separation and role definition were the result of unequal numbers of women and men in a workplace, “a review of empirical data concludes that these outcomes occur only for token women in gender inappropriate occupation” (Yoder 1991)

The research looked at examining in detail how occupational sex segregation in the labor market affects male and female workers’ career choices. (Hutlin 2003). Sweden is one country that has been seen as having overall gender equality. In Sweden, women participate equally with their male counterparts in their positions, and the salary gap with regard to gender is among the lowest in the Western world. Sweden is also known for its encouragement of women, especially mothers entering the labor market. But Sweden still has flaws and struggles with gender equality. For example, the abolishment of gender discrimination was not put into place until 1980. The problem is that people have focused so much on equality as an outcome, instead of evaluating and eliminating the root of the problem and the hindrances for inequality (Hutlin 2003)

It seems as though in every situation, even when men are the minority in the workplace, men have an advantage in both pay and advancement. The research has shown that men in female dominated work environments have greater opportunity for advancement and higher pay because they are the minority, which means that they move up in a glass escalator instead of hitting the glass ceiling like women do.

There are differences across the board regarding the pay gap not only does this affect the federal government it affects public administration as well as corporations. An article published by the *Chronicle of Higher Education* stated that women faculty hires in academia has increased tremendously over the past seven years, but these women hires are generally hired in non-tenure track positions. The American Political Science Association's survey data from 1990-1993 found that 19 percent of part-time faculty are women, but they only make up 16 percent of full-time faculty and hold only 10 percent of all tenured positions that are in PhD programs in political science. Based on the results of the surveys described above not much has changed in the way of gender equality. The authors suggest there is plenty of room for women in public administration to have a voice and publish more articles relating to gender issues in the work place (Adkinson 1981).

Pay disparities between men and women have generally been credited to the inadequate number of women in higher paying upper levels of an organization. In spite of years of equal opportunity and affirmative action attempts women continue to stay in lower level positions. "A 2003 Study by the General Accounting Office found that women earned 79.7 percent of what men earned even after controlling the occupation, industry, years of work experience, job tenure, number of work hours, time off for childbearing, race, marital status, and education" (Alkadry and Tower 2006). There are various reasons for pay disparities like the fact that employees in the public sector earn less than employees in the private sector (i.e., sex socialization, the glass ceiling, etc.). But the federal government has taken more steps to increase and maintain gender equality, and in fact explore ways to account

for the pay gap issue. There has been more of an effort regarding salaries and redistribution of the salaries in the federal government as compared to the private sector. The federal government has been working to address the pay gap, and there have been major strides taken in closing the gap, but at the rate that the country is going it could take decades before the gap is completely eliminated.

Many countries have passed laws regarding the gender pay gap and have demanded equivalent treatment of women in the workforce. While the wage gap has been decreasing in some countries, the issue seems to be problematic in practically every labor market around the world. The rate that men are paid more than women varies across each country but the root of the problem is the same (Blau and Kahn 2001).

The gender wage gap continues to affect Europe. The United States passed the EEO act in 1967, but most European countries passed an equal pay act in the mid to late 1980s with the exception of Russia and Hungary who passed equal employment acts in 1994. In 2005 Belgian women earned 93 percent of their male counterparts' salaries, Danish women earned 90 percent, German women 81 percent, Greek 87 percent, Spanish 86 percent, French 88 percent, Irish 80 percent, Italian 91 percent, Luxembourgian 83 percent, Dutch 79 percent, Austrian 79 percent, Portuguese 94 percent, Finnish 82 percent, Swedish 82 percent and the British 76 percent (Rubery et al. 2005). Portuguese women are the closest to closing the gap with women earning 94 percent of male salaries while Britain is the furthest behind only earning 76 percent of male salaries. The authors say it like this, "Gender segregation implies that women are concentrated in specific segments

of the labor market in low graded jobs, in service work, in the public sector and in part-time jobs ((Rubery et al. 2005).” Pay policies and practices impacts society differently by sector, however, the form of the gender effects as outlined above vary among societies. Each society has a different way of viewing the gender and how it pertains to the workforce. In the U.S. and Australia female nurses earned larger salaries than their male counterparts, but the salaries for nurses in Canada and the U.K. decrease leaving males earning more than females in human service fields. . The authors determine that the figures suggest that there are societal differences that contribute to the difference in pay scales across the world.

Female dominated work areas are generally lower paid than male dominated areas, although these variations include a variety of reasons for this issue, beginning with social norms and values that assist with establishing the foundation of the wage structure in the U.S. and abroad. This section establishes a pattern of the gender pay issue not only in the U.S. but around the world and seeks to understand if social norms attribute to pay inequality abroad.

The gender pay issue is prevalent in other countries. When it comes to Asia the gender pay issue has not seen the same progression as other countries. Similar to China, Vietnam has introduced a labor contract system. The 1994 labor code validates labor contracts as the foundation for the employee-employer relationship and seeks to alleviate gender based work discrimination. These labor market improvements have been applied consistently across gender groups; however, this development affects males and females in different ways because apparent and unapparent traits differ by gender (Liu 2004). An interesting fact about the pay gap

in Vietnam is that women earned 77 percent of men's salaries in 1993 and 82 percent of men's salaries in 1998, which is a faster improvement as compared to the U.S. salary progression.

Education plays a key role in the male, female workforce dynamic in Vietnam. The typical education for females in Vietnam declines over time and is lower than the mean education of males in 1998. Because the time frame is small, dramatic changes to the workforce are unlikely. A probable account of this occurrence is that workers tend to become self-employed versus staying in the workforce. The data suggests that the majority of the women in the Vietnamese workforce who leave the public sector also leave the wage sector and either join a less formal workforce (i.e., housekeeping) or do not return to the workforce. This change allows for the data to show that males tend to stay in the wage sector and so will earn more over an extended period of time (Liu 2004). It is difficult to obtain accurate data due to the inconsistent workforce between men and women in Vietnam. Women tend to leave the workforce sooner than their male counterparts either by working in more non-traditional jobs or not working at all. This information makes it difficult to collect accurate data when women are either leaving the workforce or working in more non-traditional jobs.

Though the gender pay gap is an global issue, some of the statistics are encouraging. The fact that Portuguese women are earning 94 percent of their male counterparts' salaries is extremely important to this research and shows that the gap is closing. Other countries including the U.S. continue to progress towards closing the pay gap, but continued advocacy and education will bring awareness and

hopefully change to the issue. My hypothesis is: H1- Why are women in the federal government paid significantly less than their male counterparts. This hypothesis leads me to my research question; why are women in all of the cabinet levels agencies in the federal government paid less than their male counterparts?

Methodology:

The pay gap between men and women is not equal and is in fact still prevalent today for multiple reasons, but a major factor is gender. In 2010 women earned approximately 77 percent of what men earned, compared to 1967 when women earned around 58 percent of what their male counterparts earned. Some scholars suggest that if the wage gap continues at its current pace it could take up to 45 years to eliminate the problem and, unfortunately when women are hired for a new position they are paid according to their salary history. If that is low to begin with the average women may have a difficult time trying to catch up and close the pay gap. Researchers suggest leveling the playing field and one place to begin to understand the problem is to understand how the statistical analysis plays a part in the federal government today.

The purpose of this study is to utilize quantitative data in an effort to examine pay disparities between men and women in the federal government and to establish and determine trends, particularly in 2008 and 2010. In an effort to compile information, data was collected from the U.S. Office of Personnel Management's website (opm.gov/feddata). The 15 cabinet level agencies; There were 393 sub-agencies in 2008 and 401 sub-agencies in 2010 Department of Agriculture, Department of Commerce, Department of Defense, Department of

Education, Department of Energy, Department of Health and Human Services, Department of Homeland Security, Department of Housing and Urban Development, Department of the Interior, Department of Labor, Department of State, Department of Transportation, Department of the Treasury and Department of Veterans Affairs provided the analysis needed to perform a T-Test.

The paired t-test determined that there are significant differences between gender salaries in the federal government and tested whether or not the two different autonomous populations do indeed have diverse mean values. The t-test was performed through SPSS and verified that the mean between both groups is significant in 2008 as well as 2010. For example, the data demonstrated that in 2008 a male Air force Communications employee's average salary was \$86, 224 while his female counterpart's average salary was \$67, 040 (table 1). And in 2010 a male Air force Communications employee's average salary was \$91, 580 while his female counterparts was \$72, 490 (table 2). In 2008 the mean average according to the paired test was \$90, 040 for men and \$77, 400 for women (figure 2). While in 2010 the mean average according to the paired test was \$94, 251 for men and \$83, 362 for women that calculated to a significance of .000 (figure 3). The data tables in 2008 and 2010 reflect the largest pay discrepancy between men and women in the federal government which is in the Department of Defense.

The study provides answers to the following questions; 1. Are women paid less than their male counterparts? 2. Are men and women performing the same job paid equally? 3. Has there been a significant change in 2008 and 2010? Each Department was reviewed and divided by the salaries of men and women. This

information allowed for an interpretation of the correlation of pay gaps in the federal government. The answers to the questions above are as follows: 1. Yes, according to the research and statistical data women are paid less than their male counterparts. 2. Yes, women performing the same job in cabinet level agencies in the federal government are paid less than their male counterparts. 3. Though there has been some change from 2008 to 2010 (men and women’s salaries have increased) the average gap in actual salary is similar.

The 2008 paired t-test verifies that the hypothesis was alternative meaning there is significant in salaries between men and women. The t-value for the 2008 data was 20.823, there was 392 degrees of freedom and the p-value is close to zero leading to the conclusion that there is a significant difference in mean salaries in cabinet level agencies in the federal government. The 2010 paired t-test also verifies the alternative hypothesis. The t-value according to the 2010 data was 20.030, there were 400 degrees of freedom leading to the p-value being close to zero. Table 1 reflects some of the cabinet level agency salaries in 2008. Figure 2 is the analysis of the t-test of all of cabinet level agencies. Table 2 reflects some of the cabinet level agencies in 2010. Figure 3 is the t-test for all cabinet level agencies.

Table 1 (2008)

Average Salary as values (2008)	male	female
AF02-AIR FORCE INSPECTION AND SAFETY CENTER	\$90,024	\$63,032
AF03-AF OPERATIONAL TEST AND EVAL CTR	\$91,924	\$63,177

AF04-AIR FORCE COMMUNICATIONS AGENCY	\$86,224	\$67,040
AF05-AIR FORCE INTELLIGENCE SERVICE	\$98,345	\$86,002
AF06-AIR FORCE AUDIT AGENCY	\$89,086	\$75,799
AF07-AF OFC OF SPECIAL INVESTIGATIONS	\$89,513	\$71,595
AF08-AIR FORCE OFFICE OF SECURITY POLICE	\$83,342	\$71,867
AF09-AIR FORCE PERSONNEL CENTER	\$67,804	\$58,555
AF0B-U.S. AIR FORCE ACADEMY	\$64,348	\$49,535
AF0D-U.S. AIR FORCES, EUROPE	NA	NA
AF0J-AIR EDUCATION AND TRAINING COMMAND	\$54,982	\$49,813
AF0M-HEADQUARTERS, AIR FORCE RESERVE	\$61,306	\$50,835
AF0N-IMMEDIATE OFFICE, HEADQUARTERS, USAF	\$121,148	\$94,732
AF0R-PACIFIC AIR FORCES	\$63,006	\$47,639
AF0U-AIR FORCE INTEL, SURVEIL, & RECON AGENCY	\$85,032	\$69,497
AF0V-AIR FORCE SPECIAL OPERATIONS COMMAND	\$63,846	\$52,055
AF11-AIR FORCE MANPOWER AGENCY	\$69,940	\$65,522
AF1A-AIR FORCE C2 & INTEL, SURVEIL & RECON	\$88,230	\$65,151
AF1C-AIR COMBAT COMMAND	\$60,290	\$50,003
AF1G-AIR FORCE LOGISTICS MANAGEMENT AGENCY	\$97,719	\$83,524
AF1L-AIR MOBILITY COMMAND	\$59,470	\$51,285
AF1M-AIR FORCE MATERIEL COMMAND	\$67,434	\$63,278
AF1P-AIR FORCE REAL PROPERTY AGENCY	\$99,274	\$81,748
AF1Q-HQ AF FLIGHT STANDARDS AGENCY	\$84,908	\$64,170

AF1R-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. AFRICA COMMAND	NA	NA
AF1S-SPACE COMMAND	\$71,110	\$62,338
AF1W-AF ENGINEERING AND SERVICES CTR	\$80,116	\$62,351
AF1Y-AIR FORCE CIVILIAN CAREER TRAINING	\$56,329	\$58,329
AF21-AIR FORCE NUCLEAR WEAPONS AGENCY	\$95,797	NA
AF24-HQ USAF DIRECT SUPPORT ELEMENT	\$102,980	\$82,459
AF25-AF-WIDE SUPPORT ELEMENT	\$94,426	\$87,065
AF27-AF AGENCY FOR MODELING AND SIMULATION	\$101,755	\$98,595
AF2A-AIR FORCE COST CENTER	\$99,965	\$91,160
AF2D-AIR FORCE PERSONNEL OPERATIONS AGENCY	\$86,744	\$100,670
AF2E-AIR FORCE LEGAL SERVICES CENTER	\$100,596	\$73,672
AF2F-AIR FORCE MEDICAL SERVICES CENTER	\$81,603	\$81,680
AF2G-AF SERVICE INFORMATION AND NEWS CENTER	\$74,470	\$53,569
AF2I-AIR NATIONAL GUARD SUPPORT CENTER	\$89,765	\$75,226
AF2K-USAF HISTORICAL RESEARCH CTR	\$77,882	\$58,882
AF2L-AIR FORCE TECHNICAL APPLICATIONS CENTER	\$84,427	\$63,360
AF2M-AIR FORCE REVIEW BOARDS OFFICE	\$91,553	\$77,055
AF2Q-AIR WEATHER SERVICE	\$74,916	\$60,406
AF2R-AIR FORCE PROGRAM EXECUTIVE OFFICE	\$133,261	\$119,017
AF2S-HQ NORAD	\$95,126	\$54,416
AF2T-AIR FORCE SUPPLY CENTER	\$90,066	\$62,415

AF2U-AIR FORCE MORALE, WELFARE & REC CENTER	\$83,550	\$70,381
AF2Z-HQ AIR FORCE MEDICAL OPERATIONS AGENCY	\$78,107	\$53,971
AF34-AIR NAT GUARD UNITS (MOBIL) (TITLE 5)	\$63,758	\$53,535
AF3C-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. CENTRAL COMMAND	\$90,373	\$71,015
AF3D-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. SPEC OPER CMD	\$87,409	\$73,666
AF3N-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. ATLANTIC CMD	\$91,295	\$77,618
AF3Q-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. STRATEGIC CMD	\$88,774	\$68,702
AF3T-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. TRANSPORTN CMD	\$86,440	\$72,619
AF3V-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, OTHER THAN EUROPE	\$91,529	\$62,197
AF3W-AIR FORCE CTR FOR ENVIRONMNTL EXCELLENCE	\$95,767	\$75,831
AF3Y-AIR FORCE FREQUENCY MANAGEMENT AGENCY	\$103,791	\$103,918
AF4D-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. NORTHERN CMD	\$87,294	\$70,025
AF4W-AIR FORCE DISTRICT OF WASHINGTON	\$69,739	\$61,133
AF5J-AIR FORCE FINANCIAL SERVICES	\$44,709	\$46,500
AF5K-AIR FORCE PETROLEUM AGENCY	\$90,406	\$70,516
AFNG-AIR NATIONAL GUARD UNITS (TITLE 32)	\$60,432	\$53,120
AFZG-U.S. SPEC OPERATIONS CMD (ANG, TITLE 32)	\$56,926	\$47,545

Figure 2 (2008 data)

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Male	90040.64	393	21706.681	1094.957
	Female	77400.74	393	16623.929	838.566

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Male & Female	393	.835	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Pair 1	Male - Female	12639.908	12033.874	607.029	11446.469	13833.347

Paired Samples Test

		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Male - Female	20.823	392	.000

Table 2 (2010)

Average Salary as values	Male	Female
AF**-INVALID	NA	\$43,964
AF01-AIR FORCE MANAGEMENT ENGINEERING AGENCY	\$55,354	NA
AF02-AIR FORCE INSPECTION AND SAFETY CENTER	\$92,949	\$77,440
AF03-AIR FORCE OPERATIONAL TEST AND EVALUATION CENTER	\$95,419	\$65,800
AF04-AIR FORCE COMMUNICATIONS AGENCY	\$91,580	\$72,490
AF05-AIR FORCE INTELLIGENCE SERVICE	\$106,469	\$108,329
AF06-AIR FORCE AUDIT AGENCY	\$94,614	\$82,458
AF07-AIR FORCE OFFICE OF SPECIAL INVESTIGATIONS	\$99,154	\$82,743
AF08-AIR FORCE OFFICE OF SECURITY POLICE	\$86,780	\$88,055
AF09-AIR FORCE PERSONNEL CENTER	\$67,694	\$63,415
AF0B-U.S. AIR FORCE ACADEMY	\$68,204	\$54,325
AF0D-U.S. AIR FORCES, EUROPE	NA	NA
AF0J-AIR EDUCATION AND TRAINING COMMAND	\$59,068	\$53,771
AF0M-HEADQUARTERS, AIR FORCE RESERVE	\$66,272	\$54,459
AF0N-IMMEDIATE OFFICE, HEADQUARTERS, USAF	\$127,982	\$107,543
AF0R-PACIFIC AIR FORCES	\$67,872	\$51,902
AF0U-AIR FORCE INTELLIGENCE, SURVEILLANCE, & RECONNAISSANCE AGENCY	\$89,730	\$75,556
AF0V-AIR FORCE SPECIAL OPERATIONS COMMAND	\$67,635	\$53,872
AF11-AIR FORCE MANPOWER AGENCY	\$73,724	\$68,733
AF12-AIR FORCE PUBLIC	\$84,425	\$83,045

AFFAIRS AGENCY		
AF13-HQ USAF AND SUPPORT ELEMENTS	\$126,146	\$103,025
AF1A-AIR FORCE C2 & INTELLIGENCE, SURVEILLANCE & RECONNAISSANCE	\$94,944	\$67,847
AF1C-AIR COMBAT COMMAND	\$64,781	\$53,635
AF1G-AIR FORCE LOGISTICS MANAGEMENT AGENCY	\$98,077	\$85,877
AF1L-AIR MOBILITY COMMAND	\$63,472	\$55,443
AF1M-AIR FORCE MATERIEL COMMAND	\$70,737	\$68,170
AF1P-AIR FORCE REAL PROPERTY AGENCY	\$109,488	\$91,532
AF1Q-HQ AF FLIGHT STANDARDS AGENCY	\$94,864	\$76,937
AF1S-SPACE COMMAND	\$80,098	\$70,435
AF1W-AIR FORCE ENGINEERING AND SERVICES CENTER	\$83,487	\$71,285
AF1Y-AIR FORCE CIVILIAN CAREER TRAINING	\$54,481	\$54,850
AF20-AIR FORCE AGENCY FOR MODELING/SIMULATION	\$104,668	\$103,120
AF21-AIR FORCE NUCLEAR WEAPONS AGENCY	\$95,460	NA
AF24-HQ USAF DIRECT SUPPORT ELEMENT	\$113,174	\$93,905
AF25-AF-WIDE SUPPORT ELEMENT	\$99,234	\$88,805
AF2A-AIR FORCE COST CENTER	\$109,728	\$97,618
AF2D-AIR FORCE PERSONNEL OPERATIONS AGENCY	\$80,245	\$78,934
AF2E-AIR FORCE LEGAL SERVICES CENTER	\$103,627	\$76,919
AF2F-AIR FORCE MEDICAL SERVICES CENTER	\$93,836	\$95,129
AF2G-AIR FORCE SERVICE INFORMATION AND NEWS	\$68,712	NA

CENTER		
AF2I-AIR NATIONAL GUARD SUPPORT CENTER	\$93,080	\$82,354
AF2K-U.S. AIR FORCE HISTORICAL RESEARCH CENTER	\$67,068	\$60,939
AF2L-AIR FORCE TECHNICAL APPLICATIONS CENTER	\$90,770	\$66,605
AF2M-AIR FORCE REVIEW BOARDS OFFICE	\$96,816	\$85,450
AF2N-AIR FORCE CENTER FOR STUDIES AND ANALYSES	\$82,359	NA
AF2Q-AIR WEATHER SERVICE	\$73,382	\$65,679
AF2R-AIR FORCE PROGRAM EXECUTIVE OFFICE	\$139,459	\$122,217
AF2S-HQ NORAD	\$90,641	\$64,462
AF2T-AIR FORCE SUPPLY CENTER	\$96,264	\$61,738
AF2U-AIR FORCE MORALE, WELFARE AND RECREATION CENTER	\$86,808	\$77,108
AF2W-11TH WING	\$61,712	\$70,823
AF2Z-HQ AIR FORCE MEDICAL OPERATIONS AGENCY	\$81,999	\$63,335
AF34-AIR NATIONAL GUARD UNITS (MOBILIZATION) (TITLE 5)	\$67,281	\$58,080
AF3C-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. CENTRAL COMMAND	\$89,980	\$77,303
AF3D-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. SPECIAL OPERATIONS COMMAND	\$96,936	\$82,499
AF3N-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. ATLANTIC COMMAND	\$95,974	\$84,647
AF3Q-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. STRATEGIC COMMAND	\$93,897	\$79,189
AF3T-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S.	\$91,352	\$77,686

TRANSPORTATION COMMAND		
AF3V-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, OTHER THAN EUROPE	\$97,691	\$67,878
AF3W-AIR FORCE CENTER FOR ENVIRONMENTAL EXCELLENCE	\$102,964	\$83,346
AF3Y-AIR FORCE FREQUENCY MANAGEMENT AGENCY	\$112,902	NA
AF4D-AIR FORCE ELEMENTS, U.S. NORTHERN COMMAND	\$90,093	\$78,040
AF4W-AIR FORCE DISTRICT OF WASHINGTON	\$74,559	\$66,251
AF5J-AIR FORCE FINANCIAL SERVICES	\$45,556	\$37,097
AF5K-AIR FORCE PETROLEUM AGENCY	\$94,279	\$78,540
AFGS-AIR FORCE GLOBAL STRIKE COMMAND	\$60,742	\$50,672
AFNG-AIR NATIONAL GUARD UNITS (TITLE 32)	\$65,475	\$57,557
AFZG-U.S. SPECIAL OPERATIONS COMMAND (ANG, TITLE 32)	\$59,772	\$50,918
AF-DEPARTMENT OF THE AIR FORCE	\$69,717	\$63,320

Figure 3 (2010 data)

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1 Male	94251.82	401	21481.450	1072.732
Female	83362.91	401	17760.161	886.900

Paired Samples Correlations

	N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1 Male & Female	401	.863	.000

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
				Lower	Upper
Pair 1 Male - Female	10888.918	10886.091	543.625	9820.198	11957.638

Paired Samples Test

	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1 Male - Female	20.030	400	.000

Findings

Public administrators are bound by four pillars of public administration; economy, efficiency, effectiveness and social equity. It is extremely important to not only understand the pillars public administrators have been tasked to uphold, but to practice them daily. Some researchers suggest that social equity must be measurable for it to be meaningful. The data and research collected provide measures needed to address the issue. Social equity is an important topic when referring to the gender pay gap. Justice, fairness and equitable distribution all play a part in social equity (Svara and Brunet 2004). For this reason, the research on gender pay gaps is not only important but necessary in an effort to assist public

administrators on moving forward when serving the public and how to address economy, efficiency, effectiveness and social equity.

The pay gap can be addressed through education and providing reinforcement for activities dealing with the issue. Awareness of the pay gap, women working together with employers, government, women's organizations and unions, professional activity and most of all collaboration can all support the push towards equal pay. Better execution and implementation of laws are also needed to address the issue (Alkadry and Tower 2006).

There are arguments that support this analysis of the gender pay issue, but there are also arguments against the issue. Research shows that more than any other industry the federal government has made leaps and bounds concerning gender pay. In 1992 the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB) published a report affirming that evidence of the glass ceiling in the federal government had limitations such as inadequate representation of women in leadership roles, lower promotion rates for grade level positions and differences in experience and education. MSPB concluded that there were factors of the glass ceiling that women could not regulate (i.e. stereotypes, employers) but there were factors within their control such as education and experience (Grundmann 2011). Most scholars seem to agree to that the federal government has made significant strides towards gender equality but the field is far from equal. According to a report by the MSPB many changes in gender pay have been implemented in the federal government. In fact over the past 20 years the federal government has made significant progress in hiring and promoting women and, more women are employed in the federal

government than any other industry, all the while offering opportunities for advancement and pay increases.

Though the federal government is leading the country in the progression of pay equity there are still barriers not easy to overcome. Stereotypical supposition about women's abilities, suitable roles for women and the differences between men and women when it comes to family obligations mobility and interest in leadership roles all play a part in the stagnant movement towards pay equality. The MSPB gives some suggestions on closing the gender pay gap; Feedback to employers and employees, recruitment and development of supervisors, Utilizing internal and external sources, acknowledging and dealing with stereotypes, vigilance against sex-based discrimination and maximizing flexibility in the work for job expectations (Grundmann 2011).

As of 2011 women held 44 percent of professional and administrative positions (which pay higher) and women now account for 30 percent of Senior Executive Service in the federal government. Administrative occupations have seen the most progression with women earning 93 percent of their male counterparts' salaries. There is an increasing amount of women working in fields such as; human resources, medical and public health, finance an accounting, social insurance and social science, general management and administration and business and industry but the numbers seem to dwindle in the fields of information technology, natural and biological sciences, security, physical science, investigation and enforcement, transportation and engineering and architecture, (which are the jobs that tend to pay higher salaries) (Grundmann 2011).

There are various reasons why male and female employees are paid on different scales and either advance or not advance in terms of promotions. One of the reasons is that employees that work in mission-critical fields are more likely to develop and advance than employees in staff support positions. Another area of mention is the hiring process for employees and potential employees in the federal government. When choosing internal candidates the federal government usually picks from a pool of employees with a clerical or administrative background (generally dominated by women). When agencies move to external hiring the pool widens and leaves the hiring manager little room for leeway. The “rule of three” (which selects from the three highest ranking applicants) can be detrimental in the hiring process because it leaves the hiring manager very little room to make their own decision. The rule of three will soon be a thing of the past as the federal government will soon be using category rating as part of the President’s office hiring reform initiative (Grundmann 2011).

Some scholars believe that gender segregation plays a role in the gender pay gap and one factor that contributes to the gender segregation is the role men and women play in household responsibilities. Men are seen as the breadwinners that go out work and provide for the family, while the women stays home taking care of the household duties. Society views men and women’s roles in the same way, quite similar to that of the children being separated on the playground based on their gender.

The U.S. view on women and men’s roles has progressed tremendously but there is still room for improvement. The woman to man ratio has gradually

increased since the 1970s but seems to be at a standstill from the 2000s and beyond. According to the data set performed (see figures 2 and 3) women's salary rose from 2008 to 2010, but men's salaries rose as well, thereby keeping the pay gap the same even after accounting for a pay increase. Comparing women's salaries in the U.S. with the global world provides a broader view of the issue. In resemblance to other countries U.S women compete when it comes to education and experience and has a longer commitment to the issue of pay equality and fair employment practices; however the gender pay gap is larger in the U.S. than most of the countries discussed in the literature review (i.e., Sweden, Norway, etc.). In order for the gender pay gap to remain consistent larger gains must be met. (Blau and Kahn. 2001). Women's skills need to be recognized and utilized so that fair opportunities will help to level the playing field.

Equal Pay Day was created by the National Committee on Pay Equity in 1996 and its purpose was to demonstrate the gender pay gap and its effects. The National Committee on Pay Equity tries to bring awareness to the issue of pay equity in an effort to educate and bring about change. Many companies realize that gender pay is a problem and are working to either eliminate or at least shed some light on the situation. This organization is important to the analysis of this research because it shows that people are trying to create awareness and make a difference regarding this issue (Hallman 2012).

The gender pay gap, can also be referred to as other names i.e., comparable worth, sex segregation, the glass ceiling, etc. But the root of the problem is the same,

women in the workforce are paid significantly lower than their male counterparts even after accounting for experience and education.

Recommendations

In order to resolve any problem, the recognition that a problem actually exists is key. People need to understand the issue of the gender pay gap in order to bring about change. But it's not enough just to recognize the problem; the next plan of action is to act on the information received. Patience and understanding will be extremely important, especially when realizing that people have different opinions and this sort of change is not something that will happen overnight. Though the U.S. has shown tremendous progression the fact that this country is among the lowest when it comes to equal pay is staggering. Women have been fighting for equal rights for decades and the ability to keep fighting is one that cannot be met with anger or frustration. Though the Lilly Ledbetter Act was passed in 2009 by President Obama very few companies have been affected by it, neither have they implemented the new law in their workforce. For the companies that have been affected, equal pay documentation is important to have but can be cumbersome for some employers to implement (Hallman 2012). Some scholars give suggestions for how to eliminate the gender pay gap and one of the most important ways to do that in my opinion is to implement equal pay for equal work. Employees working the same job should be paid according to the job they perform not their gender. If gender is taken out of the equation and people are paid according to their performance the gender pay gap will soon deteriorate. One suggestion the authors make is to initiate mid-year increases, so that the gender issue can be fixed over-

time. Observing pay levels and communication is another suggestion. Supervisors should be abreast on current laws and be sure they are being implemented (Hallman 2012).

In order to create change one must identify the problem, initiate a plan of action and be educated about how to continue the progression that was started many years ago.

Conclusion

The gender pay gap is an issue that plagued our society for decades. After women entered the workforce they were not given the same opportunities as their male counterparts. They did not possess the same skills and education and therefore were not compensated for that. As of today, women who have the same skill set, experience and education are still not paid equal to their male counterparts. There are various percentages regarding what the gap is as today. Overall women earn around 75-80 percent of every dollar their male counterparts earn. Scholars give many reasons for the gender pay gap such as societal implications, sex-segregation, social roles, etc. The glass ceiling is a term that is associated with this issue and though women have made great progression towards pay equality they are still behind other countries. The glass ceiling is not indestructible but women are generally not hired for high level executive or high paying positions. Salary differences are not always clear but discrimination and stereotypes are not the only factors that affect pay equity.

An analysis of reasons that the likelihood of promotion signifies that demographic elements such as sex, ethnicity and race are much less vital than

factors such as the actual position held. The fact remains that men and women vary in terms of education and experience, but the choices women and men make as far as their occupation choices also differ. Supervisory and or managerial roles may not be as appealing to women that may not interested in supervising employees. Family, life, work balance sometimes plays a key role in decisions women make about career choices.

In sum, pay equality has advanced although the gender pay gap is still an issue that will take decades to eliminate. But if work toward progression, awareness and tenacity continue women have the ability to catch up to their male counterparts and be paid for their work not their gender.

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