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**Abstract :**

The main objective of this article is to analyze the factors behind wage inequalities between men and women taking into account the qualification levels between these two groups. To achieve this goal, we used the standard Oaxaca model which allowed us to break down wages between these two groups to see the determinants of the gender pay gap. However, before decomposing, the determinants of salary were studied primarily through the Heckman selection model, for the entire population but also specifically for each sex. The main result is that men earn on average higher wages than women in all segments of the Senegalese labor market. An in-depth analysis of the factors behind these disparities was carried out. The results showed that there is a pay gap of 3.69% in the skilled segment and 5.41% in the non-skilled segment. The salary gap is therefore greater in the non-skilled segment.

**Keywords :** Human capital ; gender ; labor market**JEL Classification numbers :** E24 ; J16 ; J40**Introduction**

Labor markets are very often characterized by gender disparities that can be explained by the workers' characteristics and the companies that employ them (Drolet 2001, Muller 2006, Richard 2007, Fabling et al 2017). These inequalities are more observed at the level of very disparate wage practices between men and women.

In the context of the Senegalese labor market, the analysis of the figures shows that, even if women are more present in the labor market with regard to the evolution of the participation rate (36.9% in 2006; 40% in 2011 and 53.2% in 2016)<sup>3</sup>, inequalities persist especially with regard to the remuneration of the labor factor. In 2012, a *wageindicator*<sup>4</sup> survey revealed that in hourly terms there is a pay gap of about 10% for men (711 FCFA for men against 643 FCFA for women). In 2016, the average monthly salary of an employee is 131.033 FCFA for men against 99166 FCFA for women (ENES, 2016) ; which implies a salary differential of 32%.

These wage disparities are found despite a range of anti-discrimination laws<sup>5</sup>, and for many authors they may be a drag on economic activity (Nyu 2011, Schober and Winter-Ebmer 2011). Indeed, the greater autonomy of women appears not only as an end in itself but also as a vector of development through its expected positive impact on the health and education of children (World Bank, 2011, Zoellick, 2011).

Equality of opportunity makes it possible to respond to a goal of social justice, but also to a criterion of economic efficiency. It is in this sense that UN member countries have maintained the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) in the continuity of the Millennium Development Goals (post 2015 agenda).

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<sup>3</sup> According to ESPS I (2006), ESPS II (2011) and ENES (2016).

<sup>4</sup> The wageindicator survey is carried out on the whole Senegalese territory with 1948 people all exerting a wage job.

<sup>5</sup> Among the eight fundamental principles and rights at work of the ILO ratified by the Government of Senegal, we have :

- Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) ;

- Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958 (No. 111).

Wage disparities are rising to worrying proportions in the Senegalese labor market. This observation argues in favor of an in-depth analysis of the explanatory factors of wage inequalities by trying to answer the following questions. What are the factors behind these disparities? What is the link with the level of human capital between these two groups? Are women discriminated against?

The relationship between education and the labor market has attracted much interest since Mincer's work showed a correlation between income and the level of education attained (Mincer, 1958). In theory, educational decisions are motivated by the fact that education makes workers more productive and raises their earnings according to human capital theory (Schultz 1961, Becker 1964). Human capital is defined as "the knowledge, skills, competences and other qualities possessed by an individual and relevant to economic activity" (OECD, 1998).

Beyond the human capital theory, others thought of as new labor market theories have fully contributed to the analysis of wage disparities in the labor market as a whole (Yellen 1974, Akerlof and Yellen 1986, Cahuc and Zylberberg, 1996). However, these can not explain wage disparities between men and women without taking into account the different theories of discrimination. Discrimination in the labor market is observed when members of a minority group are treated differently from those of the majority group (Autor, 2003). It therefore implies that the individual characteristics of workers such as age, ethnicity, sex, etc., which are not related to productivity, are also of value in the labor market (Arrow, 1971 ; Heckman, 1998).

In the economic literature, the origin of discrimination has always been controversial. Becker (1971) states that discrimination results from employers' preferences, even if employers have perfect information on worker productivity. This "taste" may be specific to the employer, depending on his personal beliefs or prejudices ; or dictated by the clientele, not wishing to cope with certain types of populations : we speak of intentional discrimination.

On the other hand, Phelps (1972) and Arrow (1973) consider that the discrimination is the consequence of the impossibility for the employers to observe the productivity of the employees : it is the statistical discrimination. According to this theory, employers who do not have perfect information on the characteristics of workers are based on prejudices concerning the average characteristics of the demographic or social group to which the worker belongs. Thus, given that men are generally more productive than women, they often receive preferential treatment to the detriment of women.

In addition, it is important to emphasize that statistical discrimination can indirectly affect gender disparities, particularly through the human capital theory. Indeed, Lundberg and Startz (1983) argue that investment decisions in human capital can be affected by the presence of possible discrimination in the labor market. Thus, the categories that are likely to be discriminated against lead to lower investments in human capital, thus confirming by an actually lower productivity which was initially only the result of discriminatory corporate practices. For example, girls may forego high-level vocational programs because they anticipate difficulties in pursuing a career and choose less profitable pathways.

From an empirical point of view, Kabubo-Mariara (2003), in a study on the origin of wage gaps between men and women in Kenya, through the decomposition model of Oaxaca and Blinder was able to show that there is a 10% wage differential for men. This wage gap is explained in large part (70%) by discrimination and the rest (30%) by differences in productive characteristics. These results corroborate those of Neumann and Oaxaca (2004) concerning the case of Israel. They showed that men earn 26% more than women. They also pointed out that when the probabilities of having a job are not taken into account (no selectivity correction), the differences in characteristics between men and women explain only 36% of the wage gaps and the remains unexplained due to discrimination. In the same vein, Richard (2007) in Uganda, through the same decomposition model and Heckman's selection model, was able to show that there is an average monthly wage differential of 39% in favor of men whose the largest share is explained by discrimination against women (74%).

However, in other places, we observe a paradigm shift with wage differentials that are largely due to differences in productive characteristics between men and women. This is the case of the study by Drolet (2001) who used standard decomposition techniques (Oaxaca, 1973) to study in the Canadian context wage differences between men and women. The results show an average hourly

wage differential of 19%, most of which is inherent in the long list of productivity factors (88%). In this same register, the results of Belmondo (2012) for Cameroon are more expressive. Using the decomposition model of Blinder and Oaxaca (1973), he showed that there is a wage gap of 25%, mainly explained by differences in productive capacities between men and women.

In the end, with regard to the literature on wage disparities between men and women, it seems that the problem of inequalities in the labor market is still acute. If for some, they result from differences in endowments of productive capacities in terms of levels of education, professional experiences, etc., more favorable to men; others consider that they are the result of discriminatory practices against women.

The main objective of this article is to analyze the factors behind wage inequalities between men and women taking into account the qualification levels between these two groups. More specifically, the first step is to first identify the determinants of wages generally, but also specifically, taking into account gender and the level of human capital, and secondly to break down wages in order to study the factors that would be responsible for the wage differentials between the two groups.

This research is based on the following assumptions :

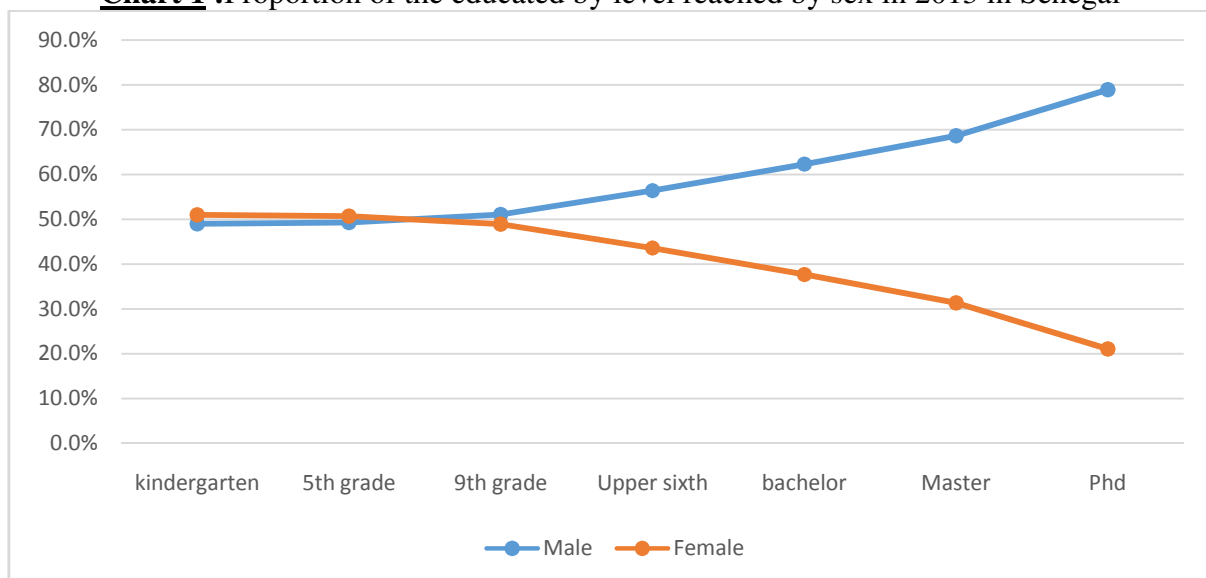
- The level of education and professional experience have a positive effect on the wages of individuals ;
- Discrimination against women is at the root of gender wage disparities.

The article is structured as follows : the first section is devoted to mapping the Senegalese labor market by gender. The methodology and data source are presented in the second section and the last section is dedicated to the discussion of the results.

## I. Mapping the Senegalese labor market by gender

The analysis of the level of education according to the gender in Senegal shows great disparities especially for the higher level. Even though in 2000, the international community's commitment to achieving a primary education goal for all, it was possible to have an almost equal tendency to benefit girls from kindergarten to elementary school. It even reaches 51.7% for the latter against 48.3% for boys (RGPHAE, 2013). From secondary school, the trend is totally reversed with a proportion of educated up to 78.9% for men who have reached the 8th year of study of higher education while it is 21.1% in women.

**Chart 1** :Proportion of the educated by level reached by sex in 2013 in Senegal



**Source** :Author, based on RGPHAE (2013)

Disparities are also noted in the population with vocational training. Those who have received vocational training are mostly men, 63.4% compared to 36.6% for women (RGPHAE, 2013). In addition, young women find it difficult to take advantage of training opportunities due to segregation and gender stereotypes. They are sometimes dissuaded from opting for certain branches

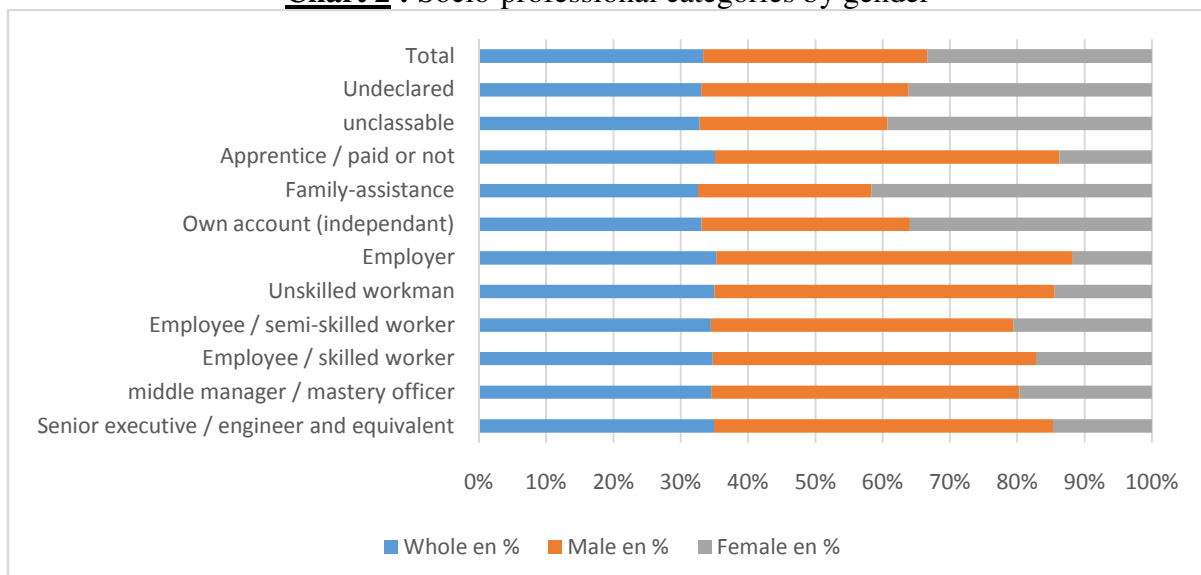
and are often oriented towards sectors with lower pay levels (nursing care, secretarial work, teaching, etc.). Men, on the other hand, are more likely to opt for modern science and technology training and professions.

Women also accumulate fewer professional experiences simply because the specialization of work within the family continues to hurt them, but also because they face career breaks throughout their professional career. They must be available to manage their family responsibilities : caring for children, managing housework and other activities within the family (Lundberg, 2008). In Senegal, about three out of four women report performing household chores during the day while almost all men do not perform chores (ESPS, 2011). The latter are therefore more available to carry out paid employment and possibly to work additional and / or additional hours. Thus, on the basis of the above developments, it appears that men are therefore better equipped in terms of productive capacities and are also more present on the labor market.

These differences in terms of human capital endowments affect the labor market with relatively different opportunities depending on whether the worker is male or female. In fact, regardless of the age group considered, the level of activity is higher for men than for women. According to the latest labor market statistics, it is 61.1% for men and 46.7% for women in the population aged 10 or over, and 70.6% and 53.2% respectively for men and women. the population aged 15 or over. From the point of view of the level of occupation, it is 51.7% for men against 29.2% for women with regard to the population aged 10 or over. Regarding the population aged 15 and over, it is 47.8% for men and 24.7% for women (ENES, 2016)<sup>6</sup>. The analysis of the wage employment rate reveals that, even though the overall rate is relatively low (37%), that of men (43.5%) far exceeds that of women (26.3%). The same disparities are observed for the unemployment rate. The analysis by sex reveals that in 2016 unemployment affects women more (19.3%) than men (8.1%). Like other labor market indicators, the level of underemployment also reveals the vulnerability of women in the labor market. It is more important for women (39.3%) than for men (19.9%).

The analysis of the occupational socio-occupational category according to gender also reveals a horizontal segregation with more men in the skilled categories and a reverse trend for the unskilled (see Chart 2). This reinforces the thesis of the vulnerability of women in the Senegalese labor market, often closed in socioprofessional categories characterized by a certain precariousness.

**Chart 2 : Socio-professional categories by gender**



**Source :** Author, based on ESPS II data (2011)

<sup>6</sup> In Senegal, the working-age population is at least 10 years old. But we also take the population 15 years and over to facilitate international comparisons.



**II. Methodology and data**

From the existing literature, we use Oaxaca and Blinder's (1973) decomposition method to study wage inequalities between men and women. We first estimate the male and female earnings equation from a Mincer earnings function (1974) :

$$W_{is} = \alpha_s X_{is} + \varepsilon_{is} \tag{1}$$

Where  $W_{is}$  is the logarithm of the wages (of men and women),  $X_{is}$  is a set of explanatory variables that determine the wage and  $\varepsilon_{is}$  is an error term. These variables include the individual characteristics of the worker (level of education, vocational training, age, age, place of residence, marital status and gender) and the characteristics of the firm (the business sector and the institutional sector).

Then we will break down the wage gap into one part from differences in individual characteristics (share explained) and an unexplained share resulting from the difference in the yield of these characteristics. Salary discrimination is then that part of the average wage gap that is not attributable to differences in the productive capacities of men and women (Blinder 1973, Oaxaca 1973).

The average wage gap between men and women is then :

$$\bar{W}_m - \bar{W}_f = \hat{\alpha}_m(\bar{X}_m - \bar{X}_f) + \bar{X}_f(\hat{\alpha}_m - \hat{\alpha}_f) \tag{2}$$

Where the  $\bar{W}$  are the estimated average wages, the m and f indices of the male and female employees, the  $\bar{X}$  the average of the characteristics and the  $\hat{\alpha}$  the returns of these characteristics estimated in a gain equation.

Oaxaca and Ramson (1994) propose to take as a non-discriminatory standard the results of the earnings estimate for the entire population. The decomposition of the average salary is written:

$$\bar{W}_m - \bar{W}_f = \bar{X}_m(\hat{\alpha}_m - \hat{\alpha}_{norm}) + \bar{X}_f(\hat{\alpha}_{norm} - \hat{\alpha}_f) + \hat{\alpha}_{norm}(\bar{X}_m - \bar{X}_f) \tag{3}$$

The first term represents the men's compensation supplement for men's characteristics compared to the norm: this is the male advantage. The second term is the difference in remuneration of women's characteristics compared to the norm: it is the female disadvantage. The third term is the pay gap due to a difference in productivities between the sexes. In sum, the first two terms form the unexplained component of the pay gap : it is the wage gap due to discrimination ; and the third term is the justified or explained part of the wage gap.

Since the population whose salary is observed is not a random sample of the reference population, there may be a problem of selection bias. To solve the latter, we use the two-step procedure of Heckman (1979). The method consists of estimating, using a Probit model, the probability of belonging to the group whose salary is observed, calculating the inverse of the Mills ratio, and then including it as an explanatory variable in the salary equation. The variables considered for selection are : level of education, vocational training, age, square of age, place of residence, marital status and gender.

The data used come from the Senegal Poverty Monitoring Survey (ESPS-II, 2011). This survey was conducted by the National Agency of Statistics and Demography (ANSD), thanks to the technical and financial support of development partners. This poverty monitoring survey in Senegal, which is a duplication of the 2005-2006 survey, was mainly aimed at providing the main indicators of poverty. The overall sample of the survey initially covers 20,250 households, including 12,690 in urban areas and 7560 in rural areas. It is drawn in two phases : primary units or first-degree census districts and secondary units or second-degree households.

The database contains 176,296 individuals, including 84,558 men and 91,738 women. Of these individuals, 49,560 are in paid employment, including 29,097 men and 20,463 women. A descriptive analysis of the data reveals the different salient points (see Table 1). The first observation is that the average wage of women in logarithmic terms (9.85) is lower than the average wage of the whole population (10.23), unlike that of men (10.51). The average age of women is 35 while they are 33 for men. In terms of educational attainment, the finding is that uneducated women (73%) are relatively higher than uneducated men (57%). Men are also better qualified (21%) than women (9%).

**Table 1** : Profiles of men and women in the Senegalese labor market

	Whole	Women	Men
Logsalary	10,23182	9,85082	10,51354

Age	33,91654	34,69670	33,33969
No education	0,63645	0,72652	0,56985
Primary	0,20954	0,17217	0,23717
Middle	0,08938	0,06253	0,10923
General secondary	0,01992	0,00977	0,02743
Technicalsecondary	0,02125	0,01676	0,02457
GeneralSuperior	0,00526	0,00237	0,00739
Technical Superior	0,01820	0,00988	0,02436
On-the-job training	0,10645	0,06929	0,13393
Singles / Divorced	0,35490	0,26602	0,42062
Married (Union)	0,64510	0,73398	0,57938
Rural	0,56041	0,58296	0,54374
Urban	0,43959	0,41704	0,45626
Skilled	0,16077	0,08877	0,21401
Unskilled	0,83921	0,91123	0,78595
Primarysector	0,64026	0,69878	0,59698
Secondarysector	0,15647	0,09235	0,20388
Tertiarysector	0,20327	0,20887	0,19914

**Source :** Author, based on ESPS II (2011)

### III. Estimate and discussion of results

#### 1. Determinants of Wage Using Heckman's Selection Model

The use of Heckman's method with selection bias correction to estimate the wage equations yielded the results in Tables 2 and 3. These provide the marginal effects from the estimation of wage equations for both segments of the labor market. Indeed, given the specificity of the segments observed in the Senegalese labor market, we considered it appropriate to make separate estimates for each segment (the skilled and the Unskilled based on socio-professional categories), this allows to assess the determinants of the salary for the different segments, taken in isolation. For each segment, a first estimate is made first for the entire population including the gender variable to see if the latter affects the salary. It is then removed in order to make separate estimates for men and women. The coefficients taken as a group are significantly different from zero at the 1% threshold (Chi<sup>2</sup>-likelihood ratio test). These models have a good quality of adjustment.

The results of the estimates show that for the skilled segment, the sign of the coefficient associated with the variable "age" is positive and significant only for the population as a whole, whereas it is not significant if segmentation *male-female* is done (Table 2). On the other hand, for the unskilled, the sign is positive and significant for the whole population as well as for men and women (Table 3). These results indicate that older workers have on average a higher salary because of the experience that they have been able to garner throughout their professional careers, even if this observation is much more observed in the segment of the unskilled. These results are consistent with those found in other countries (Kabubo-Mariara, 2003, Richard, 2007 and Belmondo, 2012). There is also a threshold effect, ie the age from which the impact on wages becomes negative. Indeed, the "age" variable squared is negative and significant in both segments, even if it is not significant for the skilled.

Education and vocational training have a positive effect on wages regardless of the segment and gender (see Table 2 and 3). This refers to the theory of human capital (Schultz 1961, Becker 1964, Mincer 1974), which attests a positive correlation between educational attainment and wages. Nevertheless, it should be emphasized that on-the-job training is not significant for the skilled segment.

Also, the results show that married couples earn on average higher wages than those who live alone (single, widowed or divorced). This corroborates the results of Kabubo-Mariara (2003) for Kenya and Richard (2007) for Uganda. In fact, married couples generally have very high charges and

therefore set a reservation wage that allows them to be properly supported. However, marital status is not significant when gender is distinguished except for unskilled men (see Table 2 and 3).

The results of this research also show that wages in Senegal depend on the place of residence. The wage remuneration in urban areas is relatively higher than that observed in rural areas according to the result of Belmondo (2012). This could be related to the types of employment in the urban environment compared to those in the rural area around the primary sector.

Regarding the sector of activity, the results show that the variable in the state is not significant for the skilled. On the other hand, for the unskilled, the wages observed in the secondary and tertiary sectors are on average higher than those of the primary sector. The economic interpretation of this variable is similar to that for the residential area. The same phenomenon is observed with regard to the institutional sectors. Indeed, the remuneration of work in the formal and public private sectors is on average higher than that observed in the informal sector.

Finally, the results show that the sign of the coefficient associated with the "woman" modality is negative and significant for the entire population in both segments (see Table 2 and 3), which reflects a lower average female wage. to that of men. In order to analyze the factors behind this wage gap, a new estimate based on the Blinder and Oaxaca decomposition model is used to measure the wage gap and explanatory factors.

**Table 2:** Estimation of salary equations with correction of selection bias in the skilled segment

	Whole	Women	Men
<b>Logsalary (log of the salary)</b>			
Age	0.060** (0.034)	0.064 (0.331)	0.054 (0.263)
Age squared	-0.001 (0.134)	-0.001 (0.450)	-0.000 (0.454)
<b>Level of education : ref no education</b>			
	(0.134)	(0.450)	(0.454)
Primary	0.158 (0.179)	0.182 (0.572)	0.161 (0.392)
Middle	0.432*** (0.002)	0.648* (0.063)	0.369 (0.112)
General secondary	0.643*** (0.004)	0.994* (0.085)	0.540 (0.128)
Technicsecondary	0.917*** (0.000)	1.242*** (0.002)	0.789*** (0.008)
General superior	1.037*** (0.000)	1.466* (0.069)	0.925** (0.037)
Technicalsuperior	1.236*** (0.000)	1.694*** (0.000)	1.087*** (0.000)
On-the-job training	0.088 (0.512)	0.085 (0.869)	0.069 (0.730)
<b>Marital status : ref. single</b>			
Mariés (union)	0.196* (0.076)	0.048 (0.841)	0.248 (0.199)
<b>Residence : ref.urban</b>			
Rural	-0.322*** (0.004)	-0.359 (0.283)	-0.324* (0.053)
<b>Activity sector : ref. primary sector</b>			
Secondarysector	0.058 (0.633)	0.145 (0.720)	0.034 (0.853)

Tertiarysector	-0.030	-0.028	-0.021
	(0.774)	(0.915)	(0.902)
<b>Institutionalsector : ref.informalsector</b>			
Formalprivatesector	0.082	0.180	0.009
	(0.474)	(0.508)	(0.964)
Publicsector	0.366**	0.458	0.313
	(0.014)	(0.165)	(0.215)
<b>Gender : ref. men</b>			
Women	-0.404***		
	(0.000)		
Mills (lambda)	3.449	4.170	4.822
	(0.592)	(0.637)	(0.720)
N	6552	1540	5012
Rho	1.000	1.000	1.000
Sigma	3.449	4.170	4.822
Wald_chi2 (global significance test of Fischer)	227.771***	53.179***	74.274***
	0.000	0.000	0.000

**Source :** Author, from ESPS II (2011)

\*  $p < 0,1$  \*\*  $p < 0,05$  \*\*\*  $p < 0,01$

**Note :**

- i. The endogenous variable is the logarithm of the wage
- ii. The ratings (\*\*\*), (\*\*) and (\*) indicate the respective significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% thresholds.

**Table 3 :** Estimation of salary equations with correction of selection bias in the unskilled segment

	Whole	Women	Men
<b>Logsalary (log of the salary)</b>			
Age	0.074***	0.047***	0.095***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Age squared	-0.001***	-0.000***	-0.001***
	(0.000)	(0.003)	(0.000)
<b>Level of education : ref no education</b>			
	0.099***	0.206**	0.031
Primary	(0.000)	(0.012)	(0.218)
	0.173***	0.308***	0.102***
Middle	(0.000)	(0.008)	(0.001)
	0.190***	0.518*	0.087
General secondary	(0.000)	(0.082)	(0.118)
	0.760***	0.861**	0.624***
Technicsecondary	(0.000)	(0.030)	(0.000)
	0.566***	0.592	0.493**
General superior	(0.001)	(0.532)	(0.015)
	0.885***	1.033	0.775***
Technicalsuperior	(0.000)	(0.157)	(0.000)
	0.048**	-0.049	0.049*
On-the-job training	(0.026)	(0.701)	(0.055)
<b>Marital status : ref. single</b>			
Mariés (union)	0.210***	-0.108	0.343***
	(0.000)	(0.177)	(0.000)
<b>Residence : ref. urban</b>			
	-0.602***	-0.366**	-0.625***



Rural	(0.000)	(0.044)	(0.000)
<b>Activity sector : ref. primary sector</b>	0.304***	0.394***	0.265***
Secondarysector	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
	0.385***	0.318***	0.372***
Tertiarysector	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
<b>Institutionalsector : ref.informalsector</b>	0.100***	0.075	0.128***
Formalprivatesector	(0.000)	(0.101)	(0.000)
	0.405***	0.375	0.439***
Publicsector	(0.000)	(0.267)	(0.000)
	-0.557***		
<b>Gender : ref. men</b>	(0.000)		
Women	-0.612**	-2.990**	0.212
	(0.027)	(0.032)	(0.530)
N	35429	16506	18923
Rho	-0.569	-1.000	0.196
Sigma	1.075	2.990	1.081
Wald_chi2 (test de significativité global de Fischer)	5681.358	204.954	4049.143
	0.000***	0.000***	0.000***

**Source :** Author, from ESPS II (2011) \*  $p < 0,1$  \*\*  $p < 0,05$  \*\*\*  $p < 0,01$

## 2. Breakdown of the wage gap between men and women

The results of the estimates (see Table 4) reveal an average wage differential between men and women in all segments of the Senegalese labor market. The gap is 3.69% in the skilled segment and 5.41% in the non-skilled segment. The difference observed between the different segments justifies the relevance of analyzing the phenomenon separately. Thus, it is apparent that the wage gap in the unskilled segment is well above the wage gap in the skilled segment.

In the skilled segment, almost of the wage gap (94%) is explained by the coefficient differences assigned to individual characteristics, which means that the wage differential results almost from discrimination against women, although there is a small part of the wage gap explained by the differences in individual characteristics between the two groups, such as human capital, housing area, socio-occupational category, sector of activity etc. This result corroborates those of Muller (2006) in France and Richard (2007) in Uganda.

In the non-skilled segment, coefficient differences accounted for 110% of the wage gap. However, it is important to note that in this segment, individual characteristics are more favorable to the female workforce. They therefore make it possible to reduce the wage differential by 10%.

On all sides, the analysis shows that wage disparities in the Senegalese labor market are mainly the result of differences in coefficients correlated with individual characteristics. Discrimination is largely responsible for the wage differentials observed in the labor market.

**Table 4 :** Salary gap in the different institutional sectors (Oaxaca method)

	Logsalary			
	Skilled segment		Unskilled segment	
	Absolute gap	Relative gap	Absolute gap	Relative gap
<b>Men</b>	11,435***		10,263***	
<b>Women</b>	11,028***		9,736**	
<b>Salary gap</b>	0,407***	3,69%	0,527***	5,41%
<b>Explained gap</b>	0,024	5,90%	-0,054***	-10,25%
<b>Unexplained gap</b>	0,383***	94,10%	0,581***	110,25%
<b>N</b>	6544***		34159***	

**Source :** Author, from ESPS II (2011)

\*  $p < 0,1$     \*\*  $p < 0,05$     \*\*\*  $p < 0,01$

**Note :**

- i. The endogenous variable is the logarithm of the wage.
- ii. The ratings (\*\*\*), (\*\*) and (\*) indicate the respective significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% thresholds.

### Conclusion

The purpose of this article was to analyze the factors behind wage inequalities between men and women taking into account the qualification levels between these two groups. We started from the assumption that with equal skills, men earn relatively more than women. To achieve this goal, we used the standard Oaxaca model which allowed us to break down wages between these two groups to see the determinants of the gender pay gap.

However, before decomposing, the determinants of salary were studied primarily through the Heckman selection model, for the entire population but also specifically for each sex. Nevertheless, given the specificities of the Senegalese labor market segments, it seemed important to make a separate analysis according to the segments. The results obtained after estimates have shown that practically in all sectors, factors such as educational level, age and age squared and other individual characteristics such as the area of residence, the socio-professional category, industry and gender have a significant influence on workers' wages. The main result is that men earn on average higher wages than women in all segments of the Senegalese labor market.

An in-depth analysis of the factors behind these disparities was carried out. The results showed that there is a pay gap of 3.69% in the skilled segment and 5.41% in the non-skilled segment. The salary gap is therefore greater in the non-skilled segment.

In the skilled segment, although part of the wage gap is explained by differences in individual characteristics (6%), most of the wage differential is related to discriminatory practices against women (94%). The latter are more observed in the non-skilled segment, where they account for 110% of the wage gap. Nevertheless, in this segment the individual characteristics are more favorable to the female workforce, which has made it possible to reduce wage disparities by 10%.

In the light of these different results, some lessons of economic policy can be drawn. However, it should be emphasized at the outset that in Senegal, like most other African countries, issues of gender inequality are mainly related to cultural as well as religious considerations. In this sense, the lessons that can be learned at the end of this research in order to move towards greater equity include :

- combat discriminatory practices in all institutional sectors, particularly in the private sector ;
- promote the education and retention of girls and encourage them to take an interest in training and modern jobs access to science and technology ;
- - create new formal employment opportunities adapted to the skills and socio-economic characteristics of women to enable them to access productive and decent jobs ;
- promote community development programs in rural areas and ensure that women are more involved in their implementation.

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