



Closing the Gender Pay Gap



Why Pay Equity Has Stalled in New York City and the Urgent Need for Action

L.K. Moe
November 2023



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Dear Colleagues,

With a legacy that spans more than a century, Women Creating Change (WCC) relentlessly strives to support women in every facet of their lives—economically, politically, and civically. Today, as the President & CEO of WCC, I am honored to introduce—in partnership with The New School Center for New York City Affairs—our new report on the state of gender pay equity in New York City.

There can be no justice or equality without gender pay equity. It is not merely an economic concern but a moral imperative. When women, especially women of color, are paid less than their male counterparts for equal work, it perpetuates systemic discrimination, reinforces harmful stereotypes, and limits the potential of our entire city. The repercussions of this wage gap ripple through every aspect of our society, from our homes to our workplaces, and from our neighborhoods to our policy discussions.

While New York has long been celebrated for its commitment to progressive policies, it is clear that gender pay inequity remains pervasive in its borders. In these pages, we present compelling data that underscores the realities faced by so many women—the difficulties of making ends meet, providing for their families, saving for retirement, and striving for fair compensation for valuable work.

However, let this report also serve as a beacon of hope. It is the first in a series dedicated to identifying and overcoming the economic barriers that impede civic participation. For many women, the time and resources needed for civic engagement and community involvement are limited, exacerbating economic, gender, and racial disparities as those most impacted are unable to actively participate in the democratic process. Through this series, supported by the Nina Untermyer Fund, Robin Hood Foundation, J.P. Morgan Chase Foundation, New York City Workforce Funders, and The New York Community Trust, we aim to pave the way for positive change, offering a roadmap towards a future where gender pay equity becomes a reality in the city that never sleeps.

We all have a part to play in creating a more just and equitable New York City. We invite you to join us in this pursuit. To get there, we need to continue the fight for fair pay, higher wages, robust benefits, and more family-supportive policies that will allow women—and in turn, entire communities—to thrive.

Thank you for your support of WCC. Together, we can be the catalysts for transformative change in New York City and beyond. Your involvement is invaluable as we work towards a brighter future where gender pay equity isn't just a goal, but a lived reality, benefiting us all. Together, we can shape a city that truly exemplifies the principles of fairness, equality, and opportunity for everyone.

Warm regards,

Sharon Sewell-Fairman

President & CEO, Women Creating Change

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This report would not have been made possible without the financial support of the **Nina Untermyer Fund** and the vision of **Sharon Sewell-Fairman** and **Sabrina Stratton**, and **Women Creating Change**.

Robert Noble was a critical contributor to this report, offering both substantial data analysis and thoughtful feedback. Thank you to **James A. Parrott** who offered thought partnership and essential guidance.

Many experts offered insights and many organizations provided support to make this report possible. Thank you especially to **Jacqueline M. Ebanks** (SAE Consulting Group, LLC) for her sustained engagement and big-picture thinking on gender equity in New York. Thanks also go to **Beverly Neufeld** (PowHer New York), **Radhika Balakrishnan** (former Commissioner for the Commission for Gender Pay Equity for the City of New York), and **Yana Rodgers** (Rutgers University).

Thank you to the organizations and government agencies that provided data utilized for this analysis, especially **Daniel Perez** and the staff at the Economic Policy Institute for all their guidance on the use of the EPI's Current Population Survey data extracts used in this report.

Thanks to these CNYCA colleagues: **Emil Mella Pablo** for helping us overcome data hurdles; **Bruce Cory** for editorial assistance; **Seth Moncrease** and **Kristin Morse** for general support. Thanks also go to **Anita Mathew** and **Anya Berdan** at Women Creating Change, to **Lynsey Billet** and the team at Anat Gerstein, and to **Nicole Barsamian** at Barsamian Communication.

Finally, support provided by the **Robin Hood Foundation**, **J.P. Morgan Chase Foundation**, **New York City Workforce Funders**, and **The New York Community Trust** helped make our sustained engagement in this topic possible.



EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

From accountants to childcare workers, and lawyers to home health aides, women earn less than men in nearly all occupations for which there is sufficient earnings data. Even in occupations dominated by women, such as nursing and education, women earn less than their male counterparts. Women also earn less than men of the same race and ethnicity at nearly every level of educational attainment.

In the U.S., New York State, and New York City, there has been progress in gender pay equity since the Equal Pay Act was signed into law in 1963. However, over the past 25 years, progress has slowed, and, in New York City, has stalled. Nationally over the quarter-century from 1997 to 2022, the ratio of female to male earnings rose by six percentage points, and in New York State this gender earnings ratio rose by five points.¹ But in New York City, the gender earnings ratio has declined slightly. While New York City has a higher overall level of gender earnings parity, its pace of change has slowed compared to the state and the nation. As of 2022, the average New York City woman earned 90 cents for every dollar her male counterpart earned, which was unchanged from 2007 and slightly less than the 92 cents she received in 1997.

The slowdown in gender pay progress affects all women in New York City. It is a particularly heavy burden for women of color. In New York City in 2022, for every \$1 earned by a white man, white women earned 86 cents, Asian women earned 72 cents, Black women earned only 57 cents, and Hispanic/Latina women earned 54 cents. In other words, the average full-time Black or Hispanic woman worker in New York City works at least 1.75 times as long as a white man to reach the same earnings.

Pay inequity violates the basic meritocratic assumption that workers with comparable human capital should be rewarded equally for their work. Women are closing the gap in educational attainment and increasing their levels of labor force participation, but they are still often working in what have traditionally been women's jobs—and doing

more unpaid work at home—for less pay, on average, than men earn. Despite legislative strides in protecting women in the workforce, gender- and race-based disparities remain across industries and occupations and educational and racial backgrounds. These disparities reflect discrimination, either directly or as the result of social norms, and policy reforms and hiring practice changes are needed to reduce or eliminate them.

This report examines the drivers of gender pay inequity and the economic, social, and policy reasons women have not made more progress. This report discusses:

1. The drivers of the gender pay gap, including occupational segregation, unequal and unpaid domestic and care work, “the motherhood penalty,” and direct discrimination.
2. Overall trends in the ratio of female-to-male earnings in the US, New York State, and New York City, showing the long-term flatlining of gender pay progress.
3. How growth among very low-paid, female-dominated jobs such as home health aides, childcare, and other human services work in New York City (+56 percent over the past 20 years) along with growth in high-paid, male-dominated jobs, like those in the technology sector (+21 percent), together contribute to New York City’s worsening gender pay inequity.
4. How the gender pay gap affects women of different racial and ethnic groups, ages, and education levels. We find that the gender pay gap (compared to white men), is highest

for women of color, particularly Black and Hispanic/Latina women workers.

5. The earnings ratio improves slightly for women with education above a high school degree but remains roughly the same for women with some college (79 percent), four-year college degrees (76 percent), and postgraduate degrees (77 percent).
6. The gender pay gap worsens as women age: it is larger overall for women over age 35 than it is for women younger than that.

During the Covid-19 pandemic, the U.S. and New York experimented with family-supportive policies, such as the expanded child tax credit and greater flexibility for remote and fair and flexible work scheduling, where flexibility does not come at the expense of worker safety or fair pay. New York’s strong paid family leave, salary transparency protections, and expanded access to early childhood education, have the potential to support gender pay equity and women’s full participation in the workforce.

We conclude by highlighting policies that still need to be pursued, including: addressing pay inequities predominantly affecting women of color in the nonprofit human services sector; raising the pay of childcare providers; enhancing the child tax credits benefiting low-income families; restoring the purchasing power of the minimum wage; raising unemployment insurance benefits and facilitating swift access to these benefits especially for low- and moderate-income workers; and facilitating women’s civic participation by removing burdensome voting registration requirements, and allowing “no-excuse” absentee voting, among other provisions that would strengthen and expand voting infrastructure.



INTRODUCTION:

STALLED PROGRESS ON

GENDER PAY EQUITY

In New York City in 2022, full-time women workers overall earned 90 cents for every dollar earned by a man; and 67 cents for every dollar earned by a white man. From accountants and auditors to welders, wholesale buyers, and writers, women earn less than men in nearly all occupations for which there is sufficient earnings data.² Women also earn less than men of the same race and ethnicity at nearly every level of educational attainment.

Over the past 60 years there has been important progress in gender pay equity. When the Equal Pay Act was signed into law in 1963, nationally women earned on average 59 cents for every dollar a man did; in 1997, that had climbed to 81 cents on the dollar and by 2022 that ratio had reached 87 cents on the dollar (Figure 2).³

Yet, in the past two decades, progress has slowed at the national and state level and, in arguably the most important economic hub in the country, New York City, progress has stalled.

Nationally over the quarter-century from 1997 to 2022, the ratio of female to male earnings rose by six percentage points, and in New York State this gender earnings ratio rose by five points (Figure 2).⁴ But in New York City, the gender earnings

ratio has declined slightly. While New York City has a higher overall level of gender earnings parity, its pace of change has slowed compared to the state and the nation. As of 2022, the average New York City woman earned 90 cents for every dollar her male counterpart earned, which was unchanged from 2007 and slightly less than the 92 cents she received in 1997.

The gender earnings gap has far-reaching consequences for women and their families, impacting their overall earnings, financial stability, and career advancement opportunities. Lower lifetime earnings reduce women's ability to contribute to retirement funds or build financial cushions to meet unforeseen expenses or keep up with New York City's escalating cost of living. Unequal pay puts not only women,



but also their children, at a lifelong disadvantage, impeding their development and lessening their economic potential as adults. (In 2022, 19 percent of women in New York City had children under the age of five.)⁵ Women tend to live in poverty more often than men, and their lower salaries and wages also impact their benefits, meaning smaller employer contributions to pensions and Social Security and lower disability payments.⁶

This report investigates the drivers of the gender pay gap, the factors that set New York City apart from the overall US trajectory, and the state of gender pay in New York City. Women of all ages, races and ethnicities, and educational backgrounds are affected. Low-income women with lower levels of education lag behind their male peers; so do highly

educated, higher-paid women. But gender pay inequity hits women of color and those with the lowest earnings the hardest. Black women earn 57 cents and Latina/Hispanic women earn only 54 cents for every dollar a white male earns (Figure 8).

New York City and State have been leaders in advancing public policies that promote salary parity and support women in the workplace. These include requiring pay transparency in hiring and banning employers from asking about salary history or expectations, and enacting paid family leave, pregnancy discrimination prevention, and lactation laws. Nevertheless, persistent pay disparities show that the City and State need to do more to move the pay earnings ratio upward after a quarter-century of stagnation.



GENDER PAY EQUITY:

DRIVERS AND MEASUREMENTS

DRIVERS OF THE GENDER PAY GAP

Even though women experience a huge diversity of work and life circumstances, the gender pay gap persists across occupations, education levels, race and ethnicity, disability status, and sexual orientation. There is no single cause, and therefore no single way to bridge the gap. But four primary drivers can be identified:

- 1) occupational segregation and the undervaluing of female-dominated sectors by the market and government that results in low pay;
- 2) the “second shift” of unpaid work related to care work that women typically perform;
- 3) the “motherhood penalty” resulting from time out of the labor market; and
- 4) discrimination.

Occupational Segregation

This term refers to the uneven distribution of men and women across industries. Fields skewed toward men, such as information technology and finance, tend to pay better than fields dominated by women, such as education, office and administrative support, and care work.

Several factors influence such segregation. Women might be “steered” toward certain occupations based on stereotypes about “women’s work,” or they may choose to work part-time in fields that accommodate flexible schedules, in part because of gendered expectations around domestic and care work. Moreover, professions dominated by women tend to be undervalued and thus lower-paid, perpetuating a cycle of unequal compensation. Low pay in women-dominated industries occurs in both private and publicly-funded sectors, such as care workers. The devaluation of work in female-dominated occupations and the lack of women in high-paying industries leads to an overall disparity in earnings, reinforcing broader gender wage inequality.

The Second Shift

“The second shift,” a term coined by sociologist Arlie Hochschild, refers to the additional unpaid domestic and caregiving responsibilities that many women undertake after their formal work hours. According to the Institute for Women’s Policy Research, women in the United States spend 37 percent more time on unpaid household and care work than men,⁷ an imbalance that only got worse during the Covid-19 pandemic.⁸ Childcare, housework, and eldercare often fall disproportionately on women’s shoulders. This means that not only do women effectively have two roles—one in the workforce and another at home—but that the additional and often exhausting demands of the second shift can also constrain their ability to engage in paid work, networking, or additional training and education to advance in their careers. This dual burden hinders career advancement, exacerbating the gender pay gap.

The Motherhood Penalty

On an average day, women in households with young children spend twice as much time providing in-person care as men.⁹

Workforce participation is consistently higher for fathers of young children than for mothers. In 2021, 66 percent of women with children younger than age six participated in the labor force, compared with 94 percent of men with children

that age.¹⁰ Because of occupational segregation, women tend to earn less in a two-parent heterosexual household, so it often makes financial sense for a woman to take time away from paid work. Carework therefore affects women across the earnings spectrum, putting exhausting burdens on women working full-time while performing the lion’s share of domestic chores. It squashes the upward trajectory of high-earning mothers by putting them at a disadvantage during their prime-earning years.

A recent study of the importance of childcare for working mothers in New York City found that universal 3-K significantly increased women’s labor force participation.¹¹ At the same time, women working as professional careworkers have among the lowest wages of any occupation; both paid and unpaid carework remain undervalued.

A recent report from the U.S. Department of Labor estimated that lifetime employment-related costs to mothers providing unpaid care work total nearly \$300,000, most of which resulted from years out of the labor force.¹² Women therefore tend to lose out on prime-earning years and be passed over for advancement, falling behind male counterparts in their professions.

For women who stay in the workforce, a combination of lost years in the workforce, social norms, lower-paid occupations, and outright discrimination, mean that mothers working full time are paid on average 71 percent as much as fathers. “The motherhood penalty” therefore encompasses the multi-dimensional negative impact on earnings and career advancement that the gendered social expectations, work constraints, policy failures, and discrimination have on earnings and career advancement.

Discrimination

After accounting for all observable differences in factors such as college major, occupation, and work hours, a gender pay gap still exists. This remaining disparity can be attributed to direct discrimination. Nationally, it hovers around seven percent of earnings between male and female college graduates, after accounting for all other measurable demographic differences.¹³ Sex discrimination is often also the reason women are less likely than men to reach the highest-paying leadership and executive positions.

The pay gap attributable to direct gender bias and discrimination exists for all women, but overlapping forms of oppression result in women of color experiencing outcomes that are worse. Kimberlé Crenshaw’s framework of intersectionality helps explain how multiple aspects of an individual’s identity,

such as race, gender, and class, intersect and interact to create experiences of discrimination and disadvantage.¹⁴ Women’s experiences and outcomes of the gender pay gap are not uniform; their racial and ethnic backgrounds, their

socioeconomic statuses, and other identity markers mean that women of color face distinct challenges and disparities in pay due to the compounding effects of circumstances, opportunities, and structural and direct racial biases.

MEASURING THE GENDER EARNINGS RATIO AND THE GENDER PAY GAP

In this report, we distinguish between a *gender earnings ratio* and the *gender pay gap*. An earnings ratio is calculated by dividing women’s median earnings by men’s median earnings. The gender pay gap divides the difference between median men and women’s earnings by men’s median earnings.

Both measurements illustrate gender wage disparities; we highlight the earnings ratio to illustrate the proportion of men’s earnings that women receive. For example, an earnings ratio of 0.80 means a woman earns 80 cents for every dollar a man earns.

The gender pay gap highlights the penalty women experience in their wage earnings. It is defined as the gendered difference in average gross earnings as a percentage of male gross earnings and can be adjusted (“the adjusted gender pay gap”) to consider factors such as age, education, years of experience, occupation, and industry. This allows a better understanding of how much of the pay gap may be due to discrimination versus other factors. Throughout this report, we indicate which measurement—the earnings ratio or the gender pay gap—is used, while also emphasizing that neither measure fully captures the gender pay inequality that individual women experience.

Both measurements of gender pay equity can be calculated in relation to all men or to men of certain groups. As the overall most socially and economically privileged group of workers, white men are often used as a baseline for assessing the gender pay gap or earnings ratio.

To illustrate the importance of this baseline, see Figure 1. When assessed against all men, the gender earnings ratio in New York City is 90 percent: that is, for every dollar a man earns, women earn, on average, 90 cents. By contrast, in comparison to white men specifically, the gender earnings ratio deteriorates to 65 percent. This highlights the economic advantage white men hold in the labor force relative to women, but also to men of other races and ethnicities. (Please see Appendix 1 for a detailed discussion of data sources.)

Available Census data sources root this analysis in a gender-binary that fails to capture the experiences of gender expansive, transgender, and gender non-conforming people for whom gender- and race-based discrimination is equally pertinent. In this sense, the sample is not fully representative of the wider population. The prevailing literature finds that LGBTQ+ and gender nonconforming people face unique and interrelated economic barriers, that the gender pay gap is persistent across sexual orientation, and that regardless of sexual orientation, women tend to have lower earnings than men.¹⁵ Due to data constraints, this report relies on the reported sex of respondents, though the policy connections and implications we draw out are important for LGBTQ+ and gender-nonconforming people.

FIGURE 1 **Earnings Ratio and Pay Gap for Full-time NYC Workers (hourly earnings \$2022)**

	Earnings Ratio = $\frac{\text{Women's median earnings}}{\text{Men's median earnings}}$	Pay Gap = $\frac{\text{Men's median earnings} - \text{Women's median earnings}}{\text{Men's median earnings}}$
All men	2022 Earnings Ratio = $\frac{\$26.00}{\$28.85} = 90\%$	2022 Pay Gap = $\frac{[\$28.85 - \$26.00]}{\$28.85} = 10\%$
White men	2022 Earnings Ratio = $\frac{\$26.00}{\$40.00} = 65\%$	2022 Pay Gap = $\frac{[\$40.00 - \$26.00]}{\$40.00} = 35\%$

Note: Authors’ analysis of 2022 CPS-ORG extract from Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.





PROGRESS IN GENDER PAY

EQUITY HAS STALLED

Over the past five decades in the U.S., the earnings ratio of women to men has slowly improved. In 1980, full-time women workers earned only 67 cents to every dollar a man earned, in 1997, that was 81 cents, and in 2022, the earnings ratio nationally had climbed to 87 cents. Over the past 25 years, New York State closely paralleled national trends, with the earnings ratio for women climbing from 83 cents to 88 cents. In New York City, however, gender pay equity has stalled over this quarter-century.

The trajectory of gender pay equity shows somewhat choppy year-to-year changes; Figure 2 averages three years of data to smooth the graphic depiction of the trends; it also reflects such large-scale macroeconomic changes as the late-1990s welfare reform, and the 2008-09 Great Recession. And yet, the overall trend is clear: over the past 20-25 years, progress has slowed and, in the case of New York City, stalled.¹⁶

New York State is home to an economy that has regional differences. In general, gender pay equity in the Downstate suburbs (Suffolk, Nassau, and Westchester, Orange, and Rockland counties) and in Upstate New York have seen

greater improvement, while still lagging New York City in level of gender equity. In Upstate New York, the earnings ratio has increased over the past 25 years from 79 percent in 1997 to 88 percent in 2022. In the Downstate suburbs, the gender ratio has risen from 74 percent in 1997 to 87 percent in 2022 (See Figure 3). Regional differences in pay equity may be driven by differences in industry concentrations (See Figure 9).

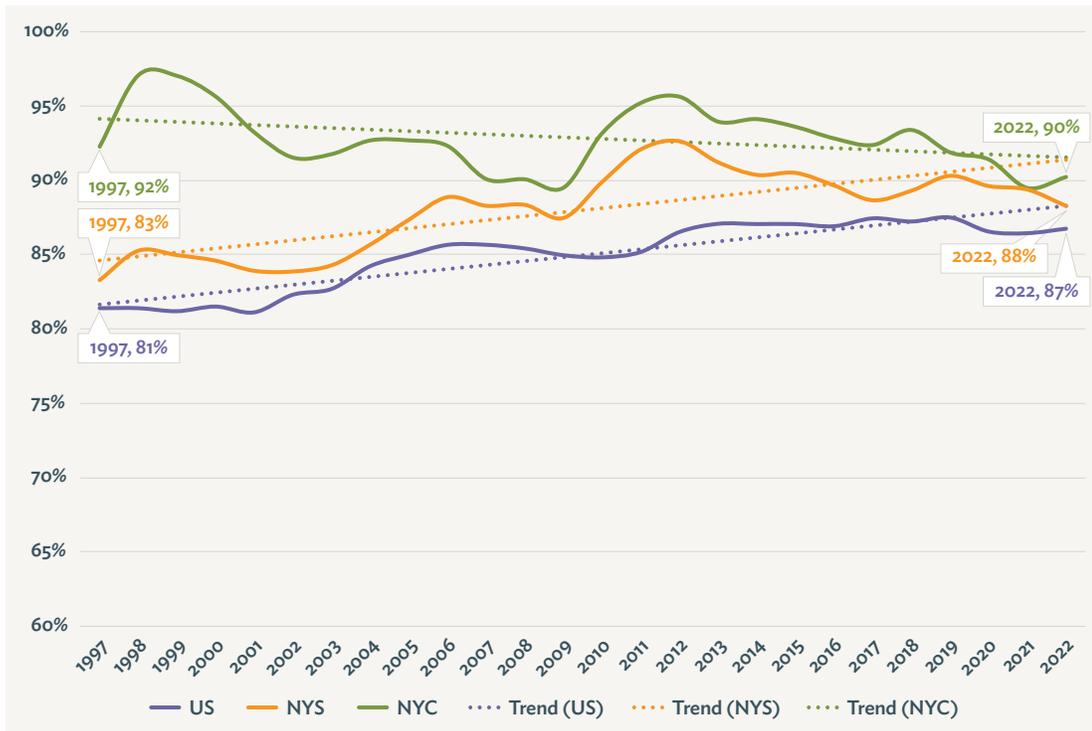


FIGURE 2
Women’s Median Earnings as a Percentage of Men’s for Full-time Workers in NYC, NYS, and the US, 3-year Averages (1995-2022)

Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.

	New York City	New York State	Downstate Suburbs	Upstate
1997	92%	83%	74%	79%
1998	97%	85%	77%	80%
1999	97%	85%	80%	79%
2000	96%	85%	81%	79%
2001	93%	84%	80%	79%
2002	92%	84%	78%	80%
2003	92%	84%	82%	81%
2004	93%	86%	85%	82%
2005	93%	87%	87%	83%
2006	92%	89%	87%	84%
2007	90%	88%	88%	85%
2008	90%	88%	91%	85%
2009	90%	87%	89%	84%
2010	93%	90%	86%	87%
2011	95%	92%	84%	88%
2012	96%	93%	84%	88%
2013	94%	91%	83%	88%
2014	94%	90%	85%	86%
2015	94%	91%	86%	88%
2016	93%	90%	89%	86%
2017	92%	89%	87%	88%
2018	93%	89%	89%	88%
2019	92%	90%	90%	87%
2020	91%	90%	90%	86%
2021	89%	89%	89%	84%
2022	90%	88%	87%	88%

FIGURE 3
Women’s Median Earnings as a Percentage of Men’s for Full-time Workers in New York State, City, Upstate, and Downstate Suburbs, 3-year Averages (1995-2022)

Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.

HIGHER GENDER PAY INEQUITY COMPARING WOMEN TO WHITE MALE EARNERS

Gender pay inequity is even starker when using white men as a benchmark for comparison, flattening even modest improvements across this period. Comparing all women to white men, national and state gender pay ratios are virtually flat, while in New York City the earnings ratio is further from parity today than it was in 1997 (See Figure 4).

In New York City in 2022, the earnings ratio of all women full-time workers to white male full-time workers was 67 percent, two points lower than it was in 1997. The worsening gender pay gap in New York City is likely due to a combination of factors, especially the growth of female-dominated, lower- and middle-earning occupations and the concurrent growth of male-dominated high-earning occupations (such as finance, in which white men dominate).

Why the decreases in New York and the particular volatility in New York City over the past two decades? Below, we show how the concentration of women workers in fast-growing, lower-paid industries, especially the care work sector, may be a contributing factor. In both New York State and New York City, Medicaid rules have facilitated the rapid growth in the number of home health aides, an occupation that tends to be predominantly female and among the lowest paid. By contrast, especially in New York City, the growth of high-paid finance and technology jobs tends to be dominated by male workers. We return to these trends in more detail below (See Figure 7).

The notably worse gender pay earnings for New York City when comparing women to white men (Figure 4) is due to the very high median earnings of white men and the depressed male racial earnings ratio, or the ratio of earnings by men of color to white men (See Figure 5).

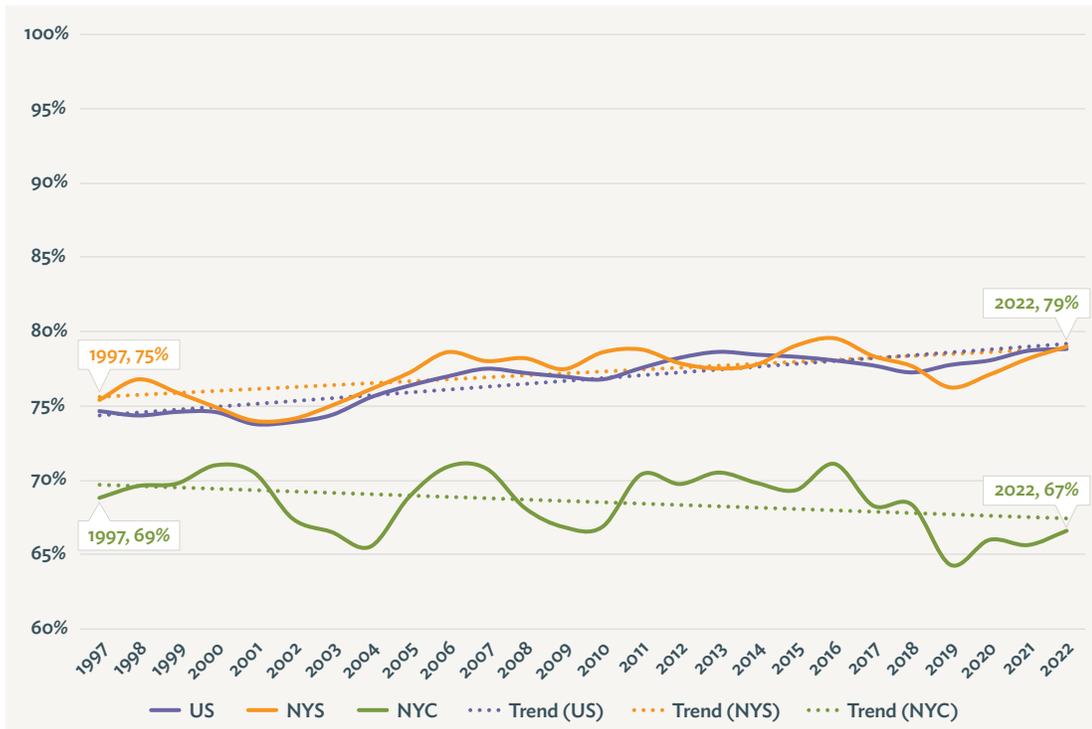


FIGURE 4
Women’s Median Earnings as a Percentage of White Men’s for Full-time Workers in NYC, NYS, and the US (1995-2022)

Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.

NEW YORK CITY'S DEPRESSED MALE RACIAL EARNINGS RATIO

Figure 5 shows the slow national improvement from 75 percent in 1997 to 79 percent in 2022, as well as in New York State, which saw the same change over that period.

Nevertheless, disparities remain persistent and substantial—especially in New York City, where the male racial earnings ratio has been more volatile and has fallen consistently below

national and state levels. While major dips in racial pay equity followed the recessions of 2000 and 2008, overall change has been essentially flat (see trendline in Figure 5) with the three-year pooled average in 2022 only slightly above the 1997 level. The drivers of racial pay equity among men—and why this ratio has deteriorated—is beyond the scope of this report, but undoubtedly reflects some of the trends exacerbating gender pay inequity in the city, with the growth of high-wage work dominated by white men and low-wage jobs filled by women and men of color.

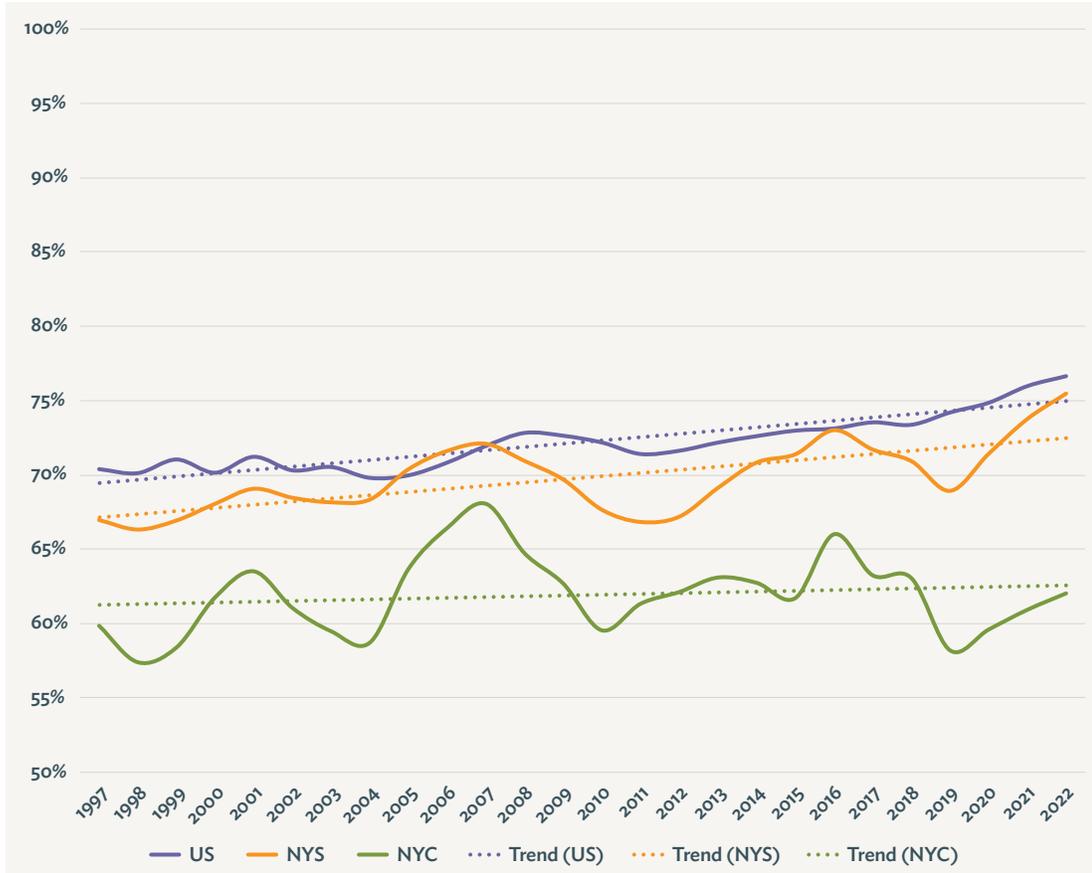


FIGURE 5
Men of Color Median Earnings as a Percentage of White Men for Full-time Workers in NYC, NYS, and the US, 3-year Averages (1995-2022)

Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.





NEW YORK CITY'S OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION AND LOW-PAID JOB GROWTH CONTRIBUTE TO GENDER PAY INEQUITY

Men and women are often steered—through educational experiences, social norms, or gendered family care expectations—into different types of work or roles in their jobs.

This pattern is called occupational segregation. It can result in certain fields becoming predominantly male- or female-dominated, which in turn contributes to unequal distribution of opportunities and wages, as it often places women and minorities in jobs that historically offer lower pay and fewer opportunities for advancement.

To analyze how occupational segregation may be contributing to the stalled progress toward gender pay equity, we divide the economic landscape into seven broad categories: blue collar work; carework; education; high-wage management and professional workers; low-wage service and retail work; middle-wage professional jobs; and the public administration sector (Figure 13).

Here, **blue-collar** includes jobs in construction, manufacturing, and transportation; **carework** includes a range of human

services and social assistance jobs, as well as childcare; **education** includes the public and private education sector; **high-wage** jobs include finance, information (including newspaper, film, and media and telecommunications), professional services, and many tech workers; **low-wage service work** encompasses accommodation, food services, and retail; **middle-income professional jobs** include the healthcare sector (except home health care), performing arts, museum workers; and **public administration** includes all government workers, elected officials, and criminal justice workers.

New York City's workforce is spread across these industries, with the largest concentrations in high-wage jobs (24 percent of workers), low-wage service work (21 percent), and blue-collar jobs (17 percent). Compared to New York State, New York City has a higher concentration of careworkers and high-wage jobs, and fewer blue-collar and education jobs. New York City and New York State have a comparable proportion of low-wage service and public sector jobs (See Figure 6).

The concentration of women in lower and middle-wage jobs and the overrepresentation of men in high-wage occupations contribute to the gender pay gap. In New York City, women make up 83 percent of the care sector workforce, 68 percent of the education workforce, and 63 percent of the middle-wage professional jobs. By contrast, men make up 76 percent of blue-collar work and 56 percent of high-wage jobs (Figure 7). It is telling to compare these compositions to the national

picture: women are even more overrepresented in carework in NYC compared to the in the U.S. as a whole.

Men have higher median hourly earnings than women, even in female-dominated industries. In 2022, the gender earnings ratio was most equitable in the carework sector, though this is one of the lowest-paid sectors in absolute terms. By contrast, the gender earnings ratio was lowest in public administration and the education sector, perhaps due to men holding more senior (and thus well-paid) roles (See Figure 7). At the national level, however, education is a sector that is much closer to parity (along with middle-wage professional work), while high-wage work retains the greatest gender gaps. At the national level, the carework industry contains even greater gender disparity than in New York City, in part because median male earnings are higher in absolute terms (See Figure 9).

	NYC	NYS
 Blue collar work (Construction, manufacturing, transportation, utilities, agriculture, building services (incl. security services), public-sector transportation (MTA workers))	17%	21%
 Careworkers (Home health care, social assistance, childcare)	10%	7%
 Education (Education sector, including private K-12 schools, universities, colleges, and public sector information)	8%	10%
 High-wage management and professional workers (Finance, information, professional services, real estate, management of enterprises)	24%	20%
 Low-wage service and retail work (Accommodation, food services, amusement, casino, fitness, other services, retail)	21%	22%
 Middle-wage professional and related occupations (Healthcare, except home health care), performing arts, museum workers, spectator sports	14%	15%
 Public administration (All government, criminal justice, elected officials, city agency workers, but not service oriented public professions, such as teachers and MTA workers or hospitals)	4%	5%
NA (respondent did not answer)	1%	1%
Total (count)	3,974,730	9,460,636

FIGURE 6
Economic Breakdown for New York City and New York State by Industry Grouping of Full- and Part-time Workers (2022)

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40.

Industry Type	Total Workers		Female Workers		Male Workers		Total Industry Proportion (M+F)	
							Industry Proportion — Female	Industry Proportion — Male
 Blue collar work	694,778	168,865	525,913	17%	24%	76%		
 Careworkers	399,308	333,168	66,141	10%	83%	17%		
 Education	327,569	222,538	105,031	8%	68%	32%		
 High-wage management and professional workers	971,245	424,964	546,280	24%	44%	56%		
 Low wage service and retail work	844,521	371,704	472,817	21%	44%	56%		
 Middle-wage professional and related category	568,812	359,250	209,562	14%	63%	37%		
 Public administration	141,849	65,809	76,040	4%	46%	54%		
Total	3,948,082	1,946,298	2,001,784	100%	49%	51%		

FIGURE 7
New York City
Occupations are Gender
Segregated (2022)

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute, 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.

In the past 20 years, New York City’s economy has seen significant shifts in the number of workers concentrated in each industrial sector. Most sectors saw an increase in the size of their workforce, most notably carework (+56 percent), high-wage management and professional work (+21 percent), and public administration, which comprises a subset of government workers, (+21 percent). All these increases outpaced the growth in economically active people in the city across the same period (+7 percent). Blue collar work is the only sector which has seen considerable contraction over the past 20 years (-11 percent). Both middle-wage and low-wage sectors remained relatively constant in terms of workforce size.

Overall, in New York City, the largest number of women workers hold high-wage jobs. However, the industries with

the highest concentrations of women (e.g., the industry workforces most skewed toward women) are: carework, including social assistance (individual and family services jobs), the home health sector, and childcare; and middle-wage professional jobs. By contrast, men are overrepresented in high-wage finance, real estate, and information jobs.

The low-paid carework sector (with median hourly wages for full-time women workers of \$17.50) has grown 56 percent over the past 20 years while the male-dominated high-wage sector has also outpaced the city’s overall workforce growth. The growth of low-wage, women-dominated work and high-wage, male-dominated work will continue to perpetuate gender inequity.

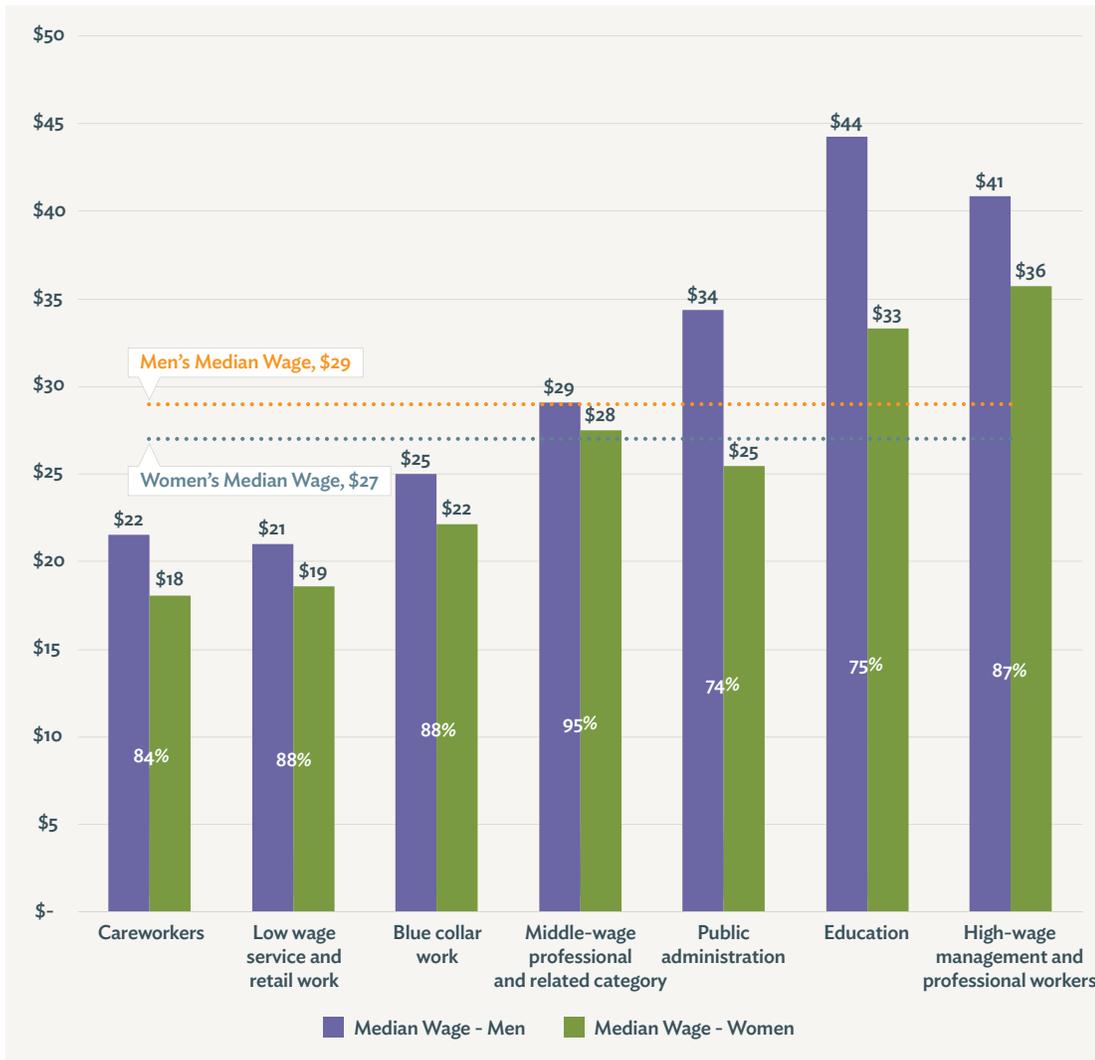


FIGURE 8
Median Hourly Wages by Industry Category and Gender for Full-time Workers in New York City (2020-2022)

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.

	US	NYS	NYC
Blue collar work	6%	-12%	-11%
Careworkers	41%	33%	56%
Education	17%	4%	13%
High-wage management and professional workers	27%	15%	21%
Low wage service and retail work	5%	-6%	1%
Middle-wage professional and related category	10%	-3%	-1%
Public administration	22%	10%	21%
All	12%	0%	7%

FIGURE 9
Employment Change by Sector, New York City, New York State, and the U.S. (2003-2022)

Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.





DEMOGRAPHIC DIFFERENCES

Pay inequities affect women of all ages and education levels. The overall gender pay gap is useful for understanding the pervasiveness of earnings gaps and the need for inclusive solutions. However, women of different backgrounds, races, and ethnicities have experienced different degrees of earning inequality.

GENDER PAY DISPARITIES & RACE AND ETHNICITY

Women working full-time are generally paid less than men in the same racial or ethnic group (See Figure 10). There is, however, even greater disparity within some racial and ethnic groups. As shown in Figure 5, white women lag their male counterparts by the largest gap (86 cents for every dollar), while Black women are closer to pay parity with their male counterparts (93 cents for every dollar). However, Black women's median hourly earnings are lower than white women's in absolute terms (\$23 compared to \$35 for full-time workers). Similarly, Hispanic or Latina women earn 92 cents on the dollar paid to full-time male workers in the same ethnic group, but their earnings level is less than two-thirds that of white women. Median hourly wages for full-time Asian men and women were roughly equal.

The gender pay gap is both pervasive and complex: women experience pay disparities to their male colleagues, but also see different earnings gaps compared to other racial and ethnic groups in relative and absolute terms. (See Figure 10, where

earnings from the most recent three years were grouped due to sample size restrictions.)

Using white men as a baseline comparison, rather than comparing women to men in the same racial or ethnic group, highlights the overall low median pay levels for women of color. Compared to white men, Hispanic or Latina women earned 53 cents, Black women 57 cents, Asian women 72 cents, and white women 86 cents for every dollar earned by a white man (Figure 11).

GENDER PAY DISPARITIES & AGE

Workers tend to earn more money as they age, though increases can plateau or decrease after age 55. This increase in pay can be attributed to gains in skills, work experience, education, and seniority. But this age premium is lower for women than for men. The gender pay gap also increases with age, with a small pay gap separating men and women at the beginning of their careers widening as workers progress through their working lives. In New York City, for full-time

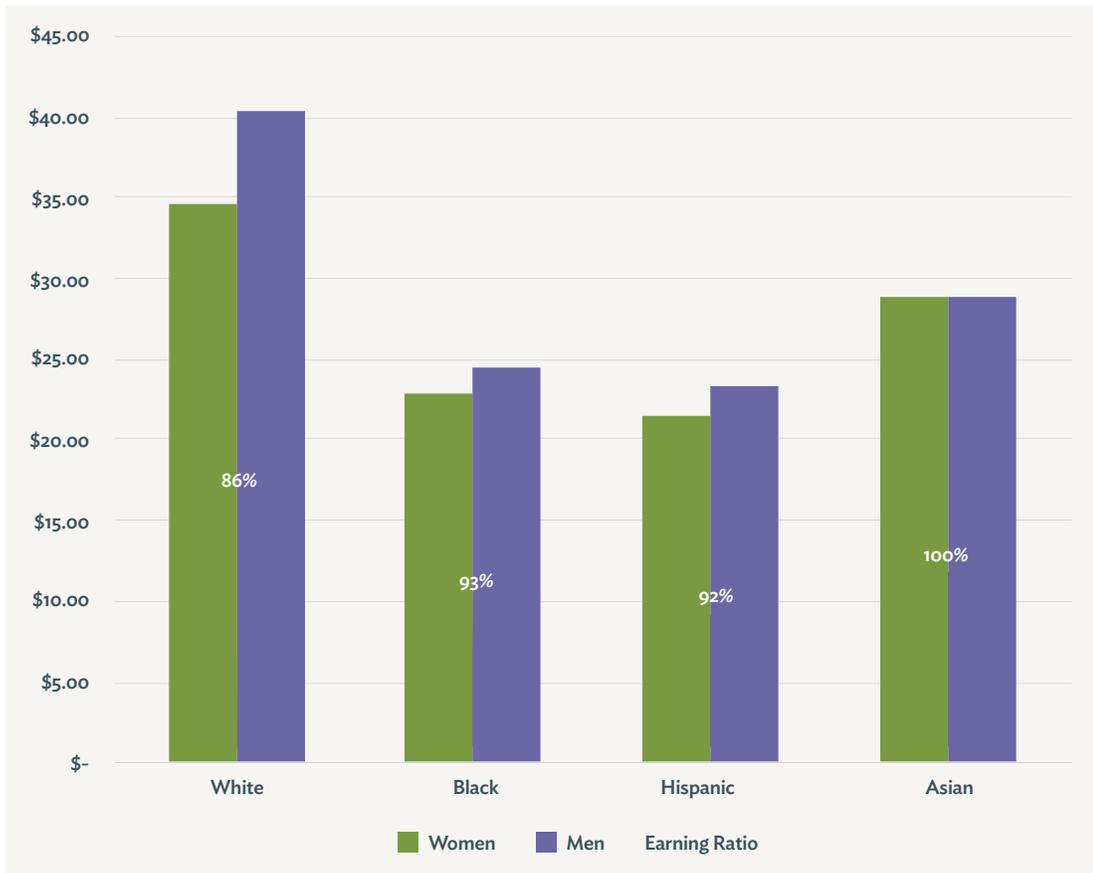


FIGURE 10
Median Hourly Earnings, by Gender within Racial/Ethnic Groups (2020-2022) (\$2022)

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.

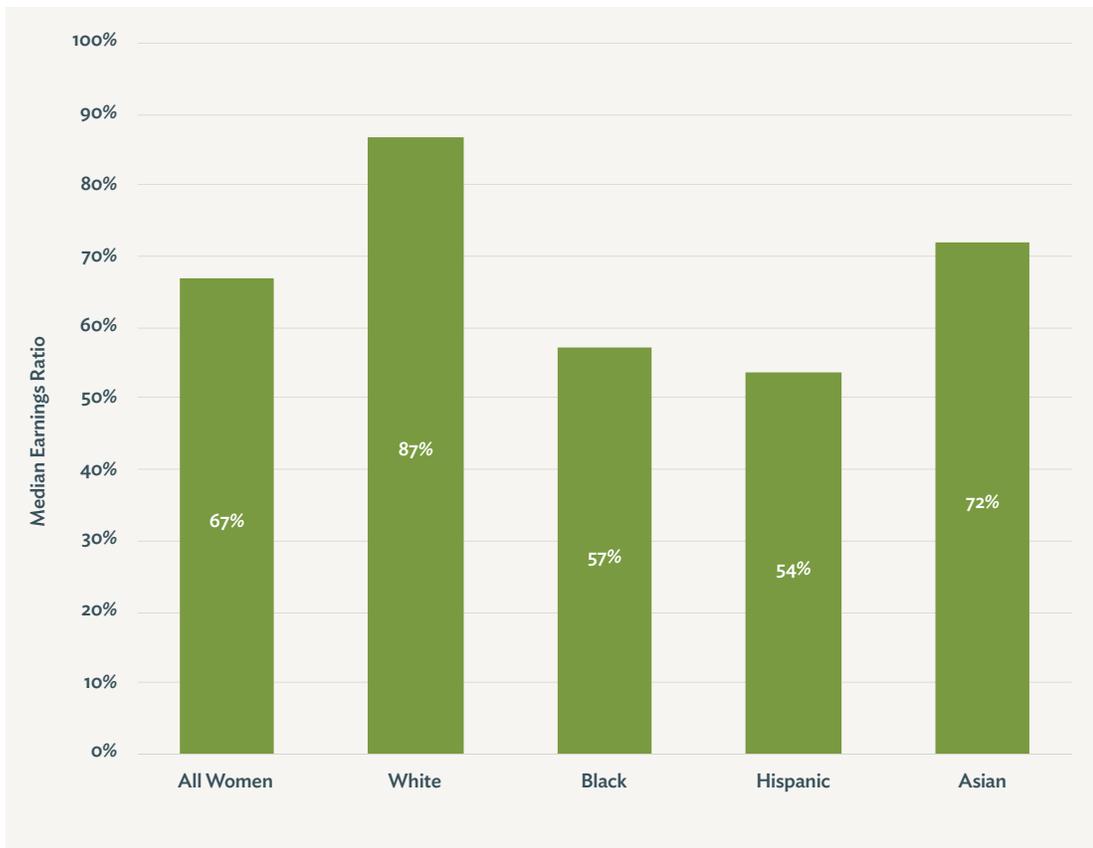


FIGURE 11
Racial Disparities among Women's Median Earnings Ratios in NYC (2020-2022) (Baseline—White Men Only)

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.

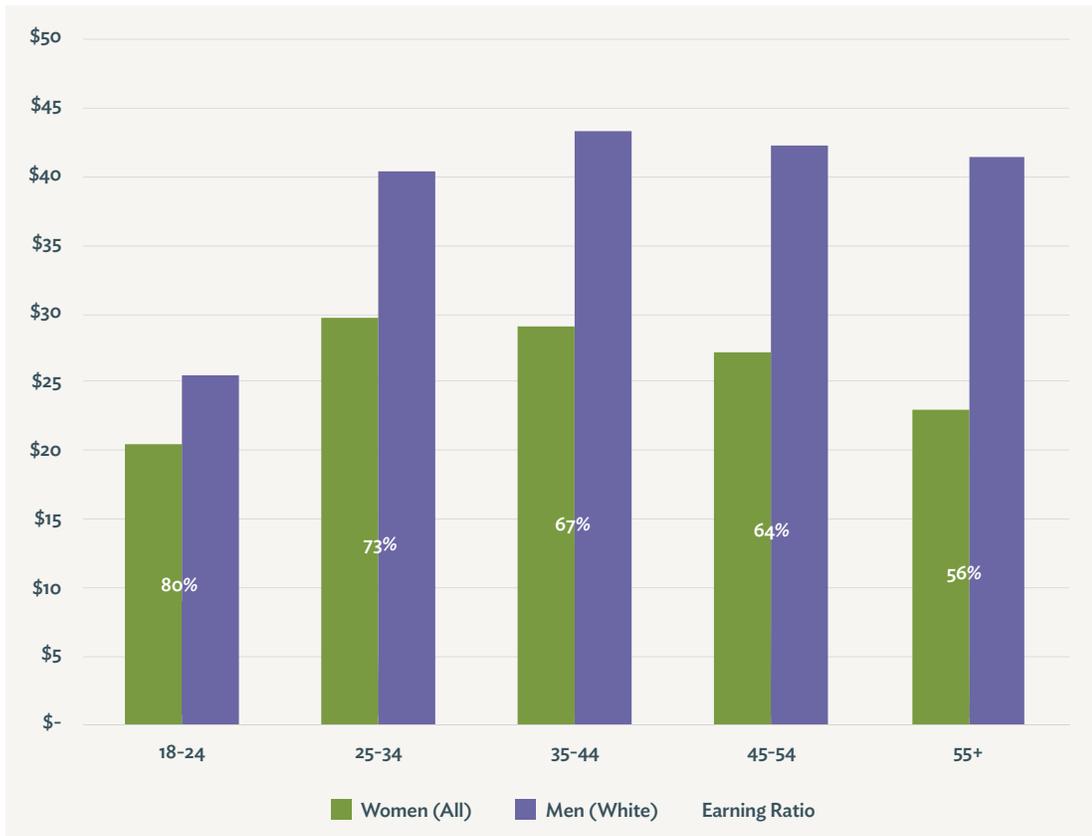


FIGURE 12
Gender Gap Relative to White Men Grows with Age, Median Earnings (in hourly wages) by Age Group and Gender in NYC (2020-2022)

Note: Data source: 2020-2022 Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.

workers ages 18 to 24, women were paid 80 percent of what men were paid on an hourly basis (See Figure 12). This disparity grows for prime-age workers (ages 35 to 44), where women earn 67 percent of the median male hourly earnings. The gap is even larger for older workers, ages 55 to 64, a range in which women earn only 56 percent of median male earnings.

The gender pay gap grows with age for all race and ethnic groups. However, the magnitude of change within each demographic group differs. (For more detail on how age affects the earnings ratio for women of different races and ethnicities, please see Figure D in the Appendix.)

EDUCATION

Earnings tend to increase with years of education. However, gender pay inequity persists across all levels of education.

For New York City workers, there is a consistent earnings payoff to greater educational attainment (See Figure 13). Over the past 25 years, the percent of New York City women holding a bachelor’s degree or higher increased from seven percent to 17 percent. And yet, while the gender gap narrows for such, the earning ratio remains persistent or even slightly decreases when

women increase their level of educational attainment from some college (79 percent), to a bachelor’s (76 percent), to an advanced degree (77 percent). (See Figure 13). The impact of education on the earnings ratio is slightly different for all race and ethnic groups, with a consistently wider pay gap for Black and Latina Women across education groups (See Appendix I, Figure E).

The gender pay gap widens with age and remains persistent regardless of educational attainment. Both factors have lifelong effects, for lifetime earnings, ability to prepare for and fund retirement, and to provide for children and family members.¹⁷

COVID-19 SHORT-TERM DISRUPTION AND LONG-TERM EFFECTS

The economic and social disruption wrought by Covid-19 was particularly hard on women workers and caregivers. Overall, women made up more than half of the frontline and essential workers, with one paper finding that, nationally, women made up over 64 percent of frontline workers and women of color were 41 percent of frontline workers.¹⁸ These included high concentrations of women in grocery stores, cleaning positions, and childcare.¹⁹ Women were also disproportionately represented in essential healthcare jobs, including nurses,

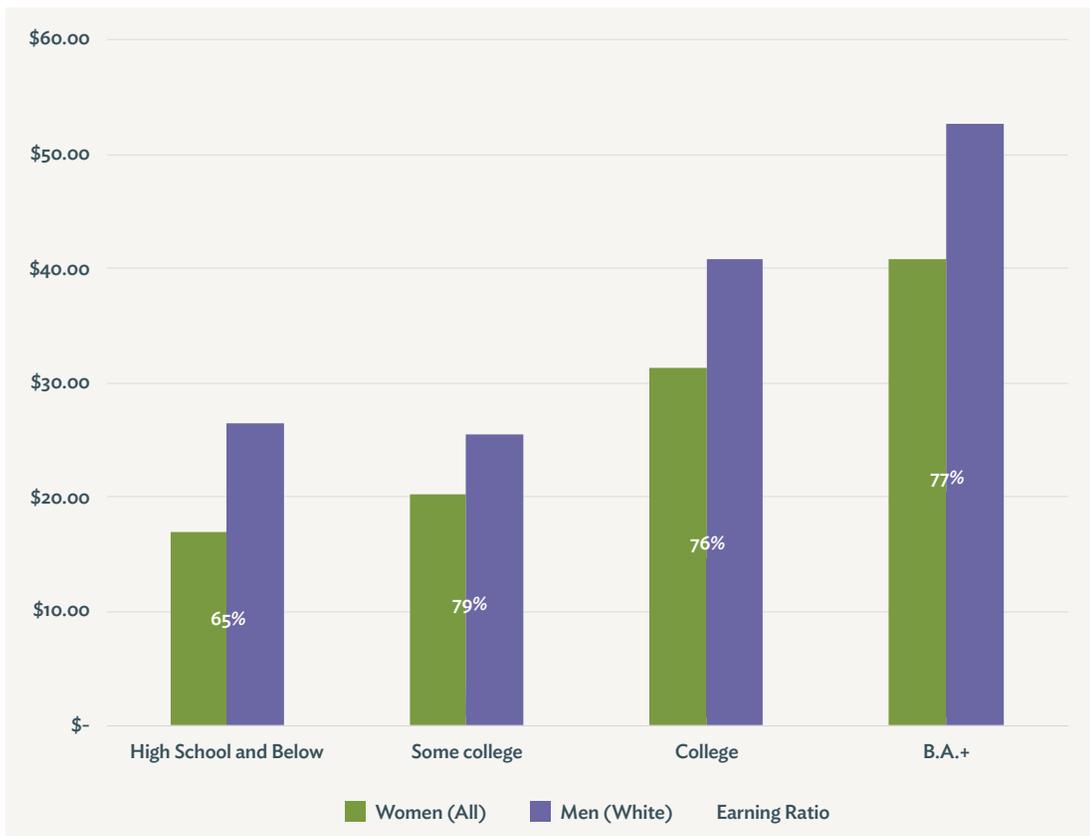


FIGURE 13
Gender Pay Gap Persists with More Education for Full-time Workers; Median Earnings (in hourly wages) by Education Level and Gender in NYC (2020-2022) (Baseline—White Men Only)

Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; See Appendix I for full citation.

nursing assistants, home health aides, and other healthcare practitioners and technicians, who held among the highest-risk jobs in the earliest days of the pandemic.

At the same time, women workers faced heavy job losses in the early part of the pandemic.²⁰ The New York City Economic Development Corporation found that women had a higher unemployment rate (21 percent) compared to men (18 percent) at the peak of the economic turmoil.²¹

School closures and heightened risks at nursing homes put additional care burdens on women, who had to take on an extended “second shift,” balancing paid work and home work hours, or, alternatively, exit the labor market to cope with increased care responsibilities. Even before the pandemic, childcare and juggling the demands of coordinating the household was the primary reason married women cited for needing to work from home, rather than the office.²²

The long-term economic effects stemming from the pandemic for women workers are just beginning to be understood. While labor force participation for women overall has rebounded to (and in New York City, surpassed) pre-pandemic levels, the pandemic also highlighted the greater unpaid carework burden for women.²³ Women returning to

work after a period away from the labor market missed time, sometimes years, of earning, experience, and professional advancement. Therefore, even with labor force participation rebounding, the economic effects of the pandemic are likely to persist throughout women’s working lifetimes.

However, some pandemic-era changes to work routines offer a silver lining for women workers. Many businesses adopted flexible work arrangements, some that persist, which created greater overall acceptance of nontraditional work schedules. (This remote-work flexibility remains sector-specific, often implemented in a business-by-business context, and is unlikely to affect carework or education, both female-dominated industries.)

Additionally, school closures prompted many fathers to take on greater responsibility for childcare, contributing to a gradual social shift in the lopsided division of household labor. Finally, the pandemic prompted innovative policy, with “care-led” economic recovery agendas.²⁴ The UN proposed a feminist economic recovery; Hawaii adopted a feminist Covid-19 recovery plan.²⁵ In the New York City Council, a “Marshall Plan for Moms” (subsequently called the “Moms First” agenda), was introduced prioritizing policies to support working moms and families.²⁶





CONCLUSION: POLICIES TO
SUPPORT WORKERS, THEIR FAMILIES,
AND THE ECONOMY

Social and economic inequality have pervasive, lifelong effects on women workers, their families, and their children. The gender pay gap exists across all occupations for which there are data to measure earnings. While earnings gaps persist across all races and ethnicities, all levels of education, the lowest earners tend to be women of color. And, as laid bare by the economic and public health turmoil of the past three years, women workers are disproportionately represented in essential and frontline jobs especially in health care and as home health aides. Women face these economic inequalities alongside greater “second shift” care responsibilities and “motherhood penalty” lower lifetime earnings associated with family rearing. All these economic hurdles also curtail women’s civic and political participation, diminishing opportunities to participate in and shape public life.

The American workplace often fails to adequately support many workers, especially those who are caretakers and parents. In the U.S., there is no national paid parental leave system. In New York City, the realities of low pay, little work scheduling flexibility, and gendered care work expectations are compounded by both high costs of living and of childcare.

Policies that help women remain economically productive and attached to the labor market can benefit individual workers and businesses. When firms provide more family-supportive policies, women can remain attached to their jobs, reducing turnover costs for employers and boosting lifetime earnings for women. Establishing family-friendly policies as a norm among employers would generate a sea change for women workers who, confident they could remain in the workforce if they had children, would be more likely to invest in their own education and skills-building, both of which can increase long-term earnings. When women invest in their own education, households can also benefit—households with higher education are more likely to have a more equal division of labor in household work.²⁷

The rationale for employers to provide policies that support working families is also strong: family-friendly policies have been found to improve recruitment and retention among workers, boost worker productivity, and reduce lateness and absenteeism.²⁸ Family-supportive policies, including paid family leave and affordable childcare services, also have long-term, large-scale economic benefits by nurturing and educating the workforce of the future.²⁹

Policy responses during the Covid-19 pandemic provide a glimpse of what the federal government could do to further gender equality in the workplace. The Families First Coronavirus Response Act (FFCRA) included temporary provisions for paid sick leave and expanded family and medical leave, which allowed working parents to juggle professional and family responsibilities during an extraordinary health emergency.³⁰ As part of the American Rescue Plan in 2021, the child tax credit was increased, made fully refundable (allowing lower-income families to benefit regardless of whether they owed income taxes), and delivered on a monthly basis so as to help with regular expenses. The ending of this child tax credit enhancement in 2022 resulted in more than doubling child poverty in the US.³¹ One study found that preserving the expanded child tax credit could have kept five million children from poverty.³²

In many areas, New York State and New York City have forged ahead of the nation in family-supportive legislation. Though there is currently no federal mandate for paid family leave, New York, along with 10 other states, has implemented its own paid

family and medical leave laws, which allow employees to take time off for the birth or adoption of a child, to care for a seriously ill family member, or to recover from their own serious health conditions.³³ New York State and New York City also have strong pregnancy anti-discrimination laws, which prevent employers from considering pregnancy in hiring and firing decisions.³⁴

The passage of a strong family leave law in 2016, advocated by women's groups across New York State, increased the share of private workers eligible for paid parental leave to 88 percent in 2021. (It's just 23 percent nationally.)³⁵ Out of all regions in the state, New York City accounted for the greatest share of paid family leave transactions between 2018-2021 (although this was below the City's share of the State's overall population and private sector employment during those years). Beginning in 2023, New York State began to offer 12 weeks of fully paid parental leave for State employees.

CURRENT POLICIES

Over the past decade, numerous pieces of legislation, executive orders, and programs of action have been introduced to benefit New York City families, especially working mothers. (See Appendix B for a more detailed list of recent NYC policies.)

- + **Early Childhood Education Expansion**—Since 2014, free, full-day pre-kindergarten for children ages 4+ has been offered to all New York City residents. As of September 2021, 3-K was expanded to serve a total of 40,000 children. While that program was intended to be expanded to include all three-year-olds, the current administration's focus has shifted from universality toward affordable childcare for low-income families.³⁶
- + **Protecting Workers from Salary History Questions**—The use of salary history in employee selection and hiring can reinforce gendered wage gaps by hiring women at suppressed salaries. Since 2017, employers have been prohibited from asking about a prospective employee's salary history.
- + **Pay Equity**—Executive Order 84 for 2021 established the Mayor's Office Pay Equity Cabinet to close the gender and racial pay gap in the City's workforce. This order included mandating internal organizational data collection and assessment as to whether employee gender, racial, or sexual orientation correlate with pay disparities. Since January 2019, New York City agencies have been

required to report annual salary data on gender, ethnicity, and race, with the aim to identify and eliminate pay disparities in the City’s workforce.

+ **Workers’ Rights**—Executive Order 70 of 2021 created the Mayor’s Office of Youth Employment, recently folded into the Mayor’s Office of Talent and

Workforce Development, to expand City programs and services for young New Yorkers and coordinate disconnected youth services. Such programs have potential to expand professional opportunities and ameliorate gendered occupational segregation by introducing all youth to in-demand jobs, from carework to high-paid professional industries.

POLICY SUGGESTIONS

The City and the State can pursue a suite of worker and family-supportive policies to combat the persistent, systemic gender inequality in earnings:

- Address human services pay inequities** affecting predominantly women of color in the nonprofit human services workforce at the City and State level in line with the #JustPay campaign.³⁷
- Raise the pay of childcare workers** who are among the lowest-paid workers and are overwhelmingly women and predominantly women of color. This can be achieved by changing the State’s reimbursement to providers on behalf of families who are income-eligible for vouchers to an alternative cost-based method, and securing City and State public benefit options, including retirement funds, for home-based childcare workers.³⁸
- Restore minimum wage purchasing power** by indexing the minimum wage to match rising labor productivity and increasing costs of living. The State should also raise wages for home health workers, adopt a meaningful annual minimum wage inflation adjustment, and eliminate the tipped minimum wage. Women and workers of color stand to benefit most from minimum wage adjustments.³⁹
- To combat rising poverty, particularly child poverty**, the State should enhance tax credits benefiting low-income families.⁴⁰
- The State should raise unemployment insurance benefits** for low- and moderate-income workers and take actions to improve accessibility to benefits. These increases can be funded by fixing unemployment insurance financing and making large corporations and gig companies pay into a system from which their workers benefit.⁴¹
- Support greater civic participation by women by making voting easier.** This should involve expanding recent State efforts to remove burdensome requirements and allow vote-by-mail and no-excuse absentee voting.⁴² Additional work should codify the restoration of voting rights for formerly incarcerated persons and strengthen the City’s voting infrastructure, by expanding hours and providing childcare services on election days.⁴³



APPENDIX

Data Sources and Analysis

This report utilizes the Economic Policy Institute’s monthly and May extracts from the Current Population Survey (CPS). The CPS is a federal government survey prepared monthly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS).

We use the CPS Outgoing Rotation Group (ORG) data extracts, which include individuals ages 16+ in outgoing rotation months. The CPS employs a ‘rolling panel’ sampling framework in which households are in the survey for four consecutive months, out for eight, and then back in for four months. The ORG files present data on those CPS respondents in either their fourth or eighth month of the survey. This means that in any given month, “the ORG file represents a quarter of the CPS sample.”⁴⁴

For wage analysis we use a measurement of hourly wages that excludes overtime, commissions, and tips.⁴⁵ While either measure of hourly pay provides a means of comparing worker pay, here we use throughout reported hourly earnings without adding in any imputed earnings of tips or commissions.

Definitions for race and ethnicity in the Census data have changed over time. Until 2002, the number of race categories ranged from three (white, Black, and Other) to five (white, Black, American Indian/Eskimo/Aleut, Asian or Pacific Islander, and Other). From 2003, respondents could report a single or multiple races from a list of 21 race categories. In May 2012, five additional categories were added. Hispanic ethnicity data is gathered from a separate question. The EPI CPS extracts used in this report contain a number of harmonized variables combining and categorizing race and Hispanic ethnicity. In this report, we rely on the ‘wbhao’ variable, which breaks down race into the

following categories: white, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Other. Although this categorization is standard when conducting such analysis, it is important to acknowledge that such a breakdown can “obscure substantial variation within those groups.”⁴⁶

Detailed Report Figure/Chart Notes

Data is sourced from the Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; where noted, figures use 3-year averages (e.g. 1997 value is the 3-year average of 1995, 1996, and 1997) and lines are smoothed to ease interpretation. Full-time is defined as respondents working greater than or equal to 35 hours per week at their primary job. New York City data points are only observable from 1995 onwards due to the availability of the ‘countyfips’ variable. Throughout, the sample includes workers 16 and older. Downstate suburbs comprise New York counties Suffolk, Nassau, and Westchester, Orange, and Rockland. Upstate New York encompasses all remaining counties.

In Figure 5, men of color defined as all non-white workers, including racial groups (Black, Asian, Other) and Ethnic group (Hispanic) and uses 3-year earnings averages and smoothed lines for full-time workers. In Figure 6, the economic breakdown for New York City and State by Industry, includes only economically active respondents and groups together part-time and full-time workers to maintain sufficient sample size (NB: in 2020, 24% of women worked part-time in 2022 compared to 17% of men), based on EPI variable ‘ftptstat’(values (3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 12) classed as PT and (2, 5, 8, 9, 11) as FT); sample aged 16 and over. In Figure 7, “Total”

excludes respondents who did not provide an answer for their industry work category. In Figure 9, only economically active respondents included; Both part-time and full-time workers included to maintain sufficient sample size (NB: in 2020, 24% of women worked part-time in 2022 compared to 17% of men), based on EPI variable 'ftptstat'(values (3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 12) classed as PT and (2, 5, 8, 9, 11) as FT). Figure 10 includes full-time workers only. The CPS 'Other' category within the race variable was omitted due to sample size. Figure 11 includes only full-time workers. The CPS 'Other' category within the race variable was omitted due to insufficient sample size. Figure 12 includes only full-time workers aged 18 and over (those under the age of 18 were omitted due to issues with small sample size). Figure 13 includes only full-time workers.

Regional Gender Pay Equity Trends, 1995-2022

Figure A shows single-year gender earnings ratio over time, from 1995 to 2022 at five-year intervals (except between 2020 and 2022), comparing the annual earnings of all women to white men (aged 16+) in the US overall, New York State, New York City, the Downstate Suburbs (Suffolk, Nassau, Westchester, Orange and Rockland counties), and Upstate New York (all remaining counties outside NYC and the downstate suburbs). Every region tracked here has shown improvement in the gender earnings ratio between 1995 and 2022 except New York City, where it has fallen from 69 percent in 1995 (and a peak of 72 percent in 2005) to 65 percent in 2022.

	1995	2000	2005	2010	2015	2020	2022
US	76%	74%	78%	77%	78%	79%	80%
NYS	73%	73%	78%	80%	79%	79%	78%
NYC	69%	70%	72%	67%	67%	69%	65%
Down-state Suburbs	68%	69%	76%	74%	68%	69%	73%
Upstate	72%	73%	78%	80%	79%	79%	78%

FIGURE A
Yearly Gender Earnings Ratios Over Time by Area for All Workers (Baseline—White Men Only)

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; All workers included regardless of hours worked (i.e., full-time and part-time); sample aged 16 and over. Downstate suburbs comprise New York counties Suffolk, Nassau, Westchester, Orange, and Rockland. Upstate New York comprises all remaining counties in the state.

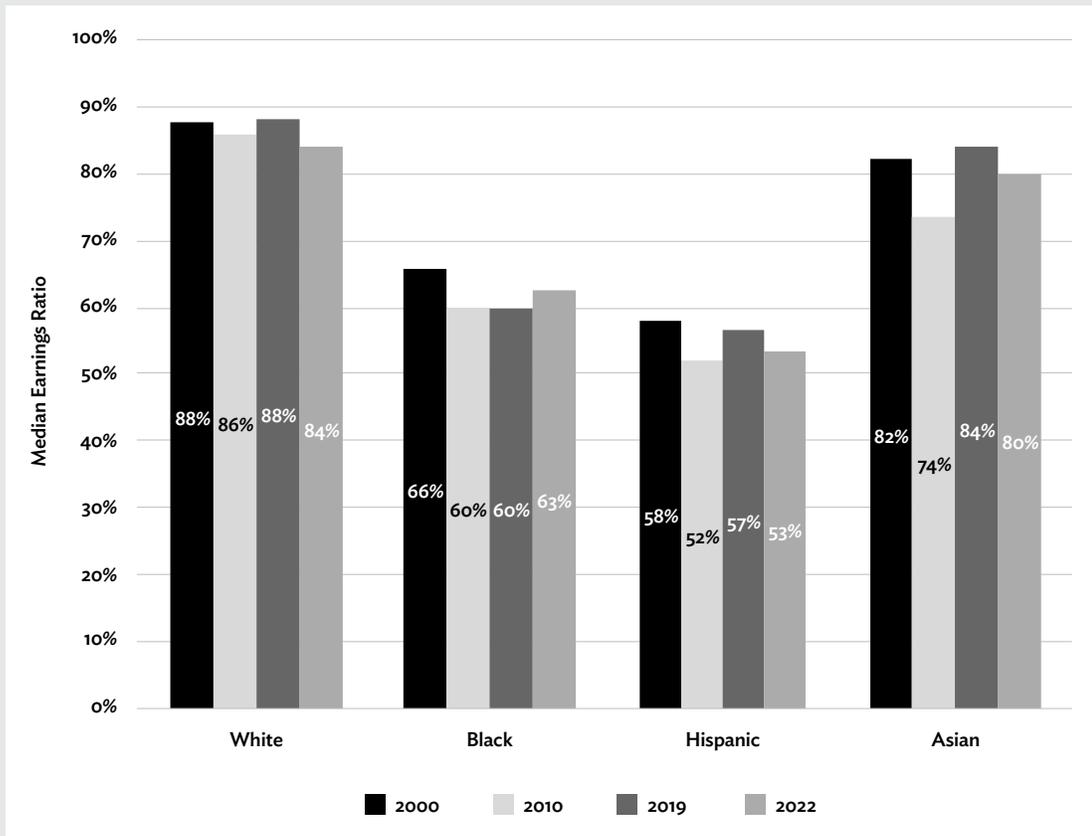


FIGURE B
Racial Disparities
among Women’s Median
Earnings Ratios in NYC
(2000–2022) (Baseline—
White Men Only)

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; Full-time workers only (works more than or equal to 35 hours per week at primary job); sample aged 16 and over; earnings ratio based on reported hourly earnings.

Figure B tracks changes in the earnings ratios between white men and women of different racial groups over time. Pay disparity between white men and white women has remained relatively constant over the past two decades, worsening slightly in the most recent year of data (Figure 1 in text). Overall trends mask specific racial and ethnic differences. The pay gap widened between Black women and white men from 66% in 2000 to hover at 60 percent for nearly a decade between 2010 and 2019, before narrowing slightly in 2022 to 63 percent.

For both Hispanic and Asian women, the past two decades have seen uneven movement in pay parity, though the magnitude of the gender earnings ratio is higher for Asian women (80 percent in 2022) than for Hispanic women (53 percent in 2022), which is the demographic group that earn the least, on average, compared to white men. White women have also not seen marked pay improvement since 2000, though they as a group have the highest pay ratio, earning 84 cents for every dollar earned by a white man.

The gender pay gap grows with age for all race and ethnic groups, however the magnitude of change within each demographic group differs (Figure D). Using all men as a baseline, Figure D shows that the gender pay gap remains

most consistent for white women across their working lifetimes, while drops off most dramatically for Asian women, where the earnings ratio plummets from 93 percent for workers ages 18–24 to 47 percent for workers ages 65 and older.

FIGURE C
Median Hourly Earnings by Gender and Race, NYC (2022)

	White	Black	Hispanic	Asian
Women	\$34.72	\$22.87	\$21.42	\$28.83
Men	\$40.38	\$24.49	\$23.34	\$28.85

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; Full-time workers only (works more than or equal to 35 hours per week at primary job); sample aged 16 and over; earnings ratio based on reported hourly earnings.

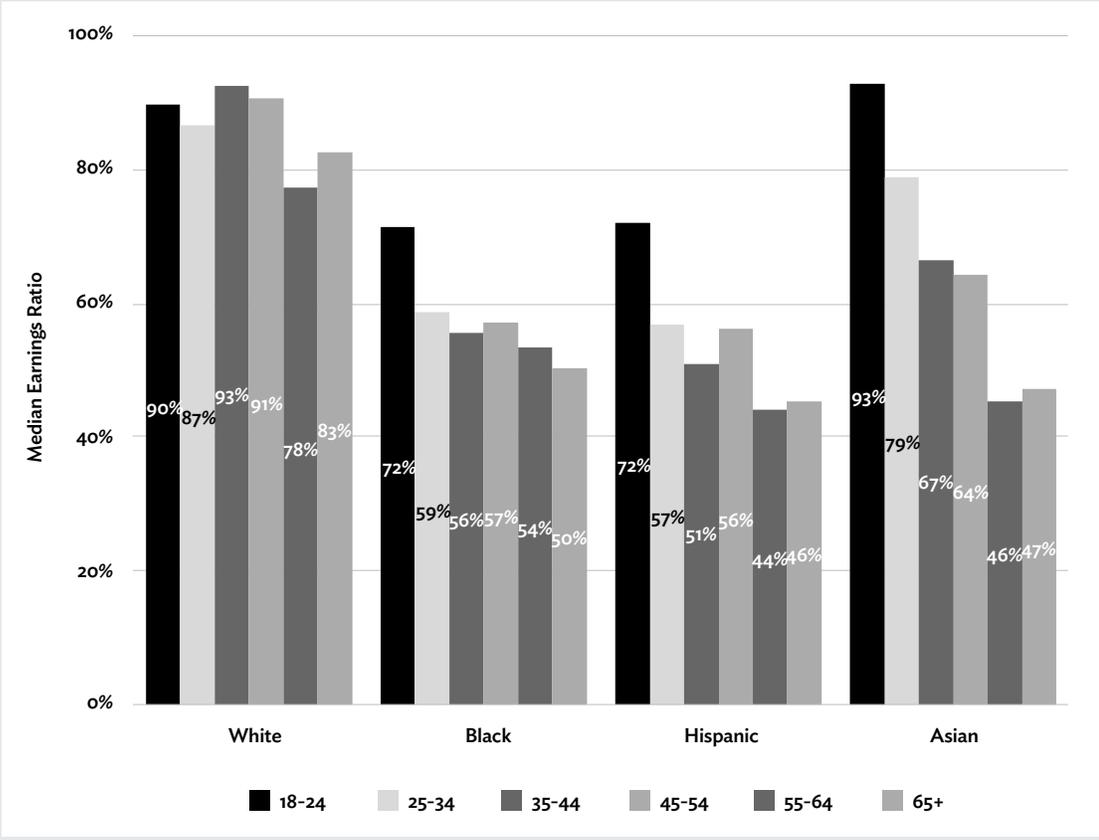


FIGURE D
Earnings Ratio (based on median hourly wages) by Age and Race in NYC (2020-2022)

Note: Data source: 2020-2022 Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; Full-time workers (works more than or equal to 35 hours per week at primary job) aged 18 and over (those under the age of 18 were omitted due to issues with small sample size).

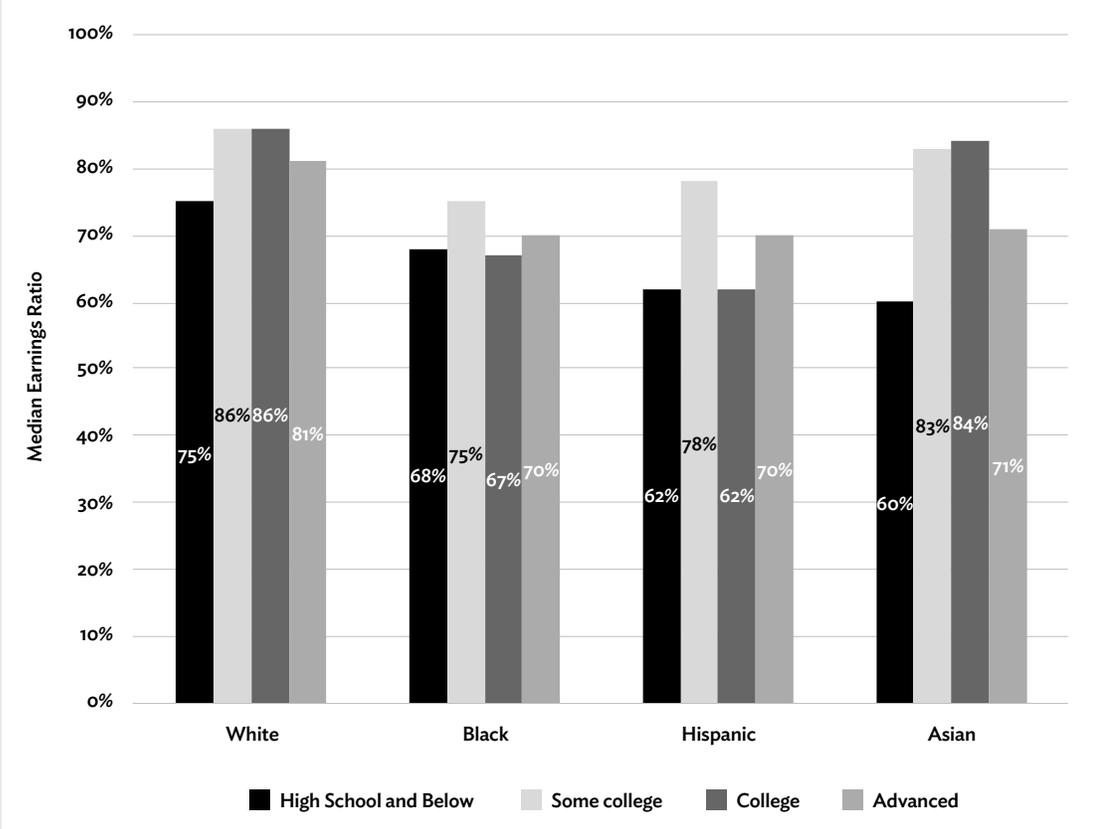


FIGURE E
Gender Pay Gap Worse for Black and Latina Women across Education Groups; Earnings Ratio (based on median hourly wages) by Education Level and Race in NYC (2020-2022)

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; Full-time workers only (works more than or equal to 35 hours per week at primary job); sample aged 16+ using median hourly wages.

Industry Type	Total Workers	Female Workers	Male Workers	Total Industry Proportion	Industry Proportion		Median Female Hourly Earnings	Median Male Hourly Earnings	Earnings Ratio
					Female	Male			
 Blue collar work	694,778	168,865	525,913	17%	24%	76%	\$19.23	\$22.00	87%
 Careworkers	399,308	333,168	66,141	10%	83%	17%	\$17.50	\$19.00	92%
 Education	327,569	222,538	105,031	8%	68%	32%	\$28.85	\$37.00	78%
 High-wage management and professional workers	971,245	424,964	546,280	24%	44%	56%	\$33.65	\$38.46	87%
 Low wage service and retail work	844,521	371,704	472,817	21%	44%	56%	\$16.25	\$19.23	85%
 Middle-wage professional and related category	568,812	359,250	209,562	14%	63%	37%	\$26.00	\$30.00	87%
 Public administration	141,849	65,809	76,040	4%	46%	54%	\$26.25	\$38.46	68%
Total	3,948,082	1,946,298	2,001,784	100%	49%	51%	\$23.08	\$26.92	86%

FIGURE F
New York City
Gendered Occupational
Segregation, (part-time
and full-time workers,
2022), with Median
Wage Data

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; Sample includes only economically active respondents and excludes those who answered N/A; Both part-time and full-time workers included to maintain sufficient sample size (NB: in 2020, 24% of women worked part-time in 2022 compared to 17% of men), based on EPI variable 'ftptstat' (values (3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 12) classed as PT and (2, 5, 8, 9, 11) as FT); sample aged 16 and over.

Industry Type	Total Workers	Sum of Females	Sum of Males	Proportion	Proportion of Females		Median Female Hourly Earnings		Earnings Ratio
					Proportion of Females	Proportion of Males	Median Female Hourly Earnings	Median Male Hourly Earnings	
 Blue collar work	45,603,137	10,827,634	34,775,503	28%	24%	76%	\$19.88	\$23.33	85%
 Careworkers	6,751,487	5,428,569	1,322,918	4%	80%	20%	\$18.00	\$23.00	78%
 Education	14,224,380	9,820,390	4,403,989	9%	69%	31%	\$25.00	\$28.57	88%
 High-wage management and professional workers	28,048,979	12,844,948	15,204,031	17%	46%	54%	\$28.17	\$38.46	73%
 Low wage service and retail work	38,450,238	19,428,142	19,022,097	24%	51%	49%	\$15.38	\$17.90	86%
 Middle-wage professional and related category	22,056,252	14,530,825	7,525,427	14%	66%	34%	\$24.02	\$27.40	88%
 Public administration	7,793,879	3,564,976	4,228,902	5%	46%	54%	\$25.27	\$31.25	81%
Total	162,928,351	76,445,484	86,482,866	100%	47%	53%	\$20.71	\$25.00	83%

FIGURE G
United States
Gendered Occupational
Segregation for All (FT +
PT) Workers (2022)

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute. 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; Only economically active respondents included; Both part-time and full-time workers included to maintain sufficient sample size (NB: in 2020, 24% of women worked part-time in 2022 compared to 17% of men), based on EPI variable 'fptstat'(values (3, 4, 6, 7, 10, 12) classed as PT and (2, 5, 8, 9, 11) as FT); sample aged 16 and over.

	Share of Females	Share of Males	Share of Working Population
NYC	44%	40%	42%
Downstate Suburbs	21%	22%	22%
Upstate	35%	37%	36%
 Blue collar work	10%	31%	21%
NYC	37%	34%	35%
Downstate Suburbs	25%	23%	23%
Upstate	38%	43%	42%
 Careworkers	11%	3%	7%
NYC	65%	51%	62%
Downstate Suburbs	14%	18%	15%
Upstate	21%	31%	23%
 Education	14%	6%	10%
NYC	35%	33%	35%
Downstate Suburbs	22%	23%	23%
Upstate	42%	44%	43%
 High-wage management & professional workers	18%	22%	20%
NYC	53%	49%	51%
Downstate Suburbs	24%	26%	25%
Upstate	24%	25%	24%
 Low wage service & retail work	22%	21%	22%
NYC	37%	45%	41%
Downstate Suburbs	19%	17%	18%
Upstate	43%	38%	41%
 Middle-wage professional	19%	10%	15%
NYC	41%	40%	41%
Downstate Suburbs	21%	22%	21%
Upstate	37%	38%	38%
 Public administration	4%	5%	5%
NYC	34%	30%	32%
Downstate Suburbs	24%	27%	26%
Upstate	41%	44%	43%

FIGURE H
**Industry Breakdown by
New York Region (2022)**

Note: Data source: Economic Policy Institute, 2023. Current Population Survey Extracts, Version 1.0.40; Population universe restricted only to economically active respondents; All workers included regardless of hours worked (i.e., full-time and part-time) to maintain sufficient sample size; sample aged 16 and over; Respondents who did not provide an answer for their industry have been removed from the figure.

Endnotes

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