

## Careers satisfaction in the Ecuadorian civil service: a gender perspective

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**Abstract:** Groeneveld (2009) found that women in the Dutch civil service are slightly more satisfied with their career opportunities than men, in an environment which has become more favorable to them in the recent years. Even if the gender difference found is significant, it is so small that its relevance is questionable. Using her methodology this paper seeks to understand if her findings can be applied cross nationally. Ecuador is an interesting case with a similar changing environment where women seem to be better represented at higher levels of the Ecuadorian civil service and where the wage gap has been significantly reduced in recent years. Contrary to the initial hypotheses that established a similar phenomenon would be observed, there are no statistical significant differences between genders in careers satisfaction even after controlling for socio-demographic variables. However, staff turnover for men is larger. It was found that the main variable to explain career satisfaction is salary and the position within the hierarchies in the state structure. In this context, the public sector employees value more the extrinsic aspects of the job than the intrinsic ones. Differences can also be found in the general level of satisfaction between people coming from different regions within the country.

**Key words:** Gender, motivation, Public Sector, Ecuador, staff turnover

**Resumen:** Groeneveld (2009) encontró que las mujeres en la administración pública holandesa están un poco más satisfechas con sus oportunidades profesionales que los hombres, en un entorno que se ha vuelto más favorable hacia ellas en los últimos años. Incluso si la diferencia de género encontrada es significativa, es tan pequeña que su relevancia es cuestionable. Utilizando su metodología, este artículo busca comprender si sus hallazgos se pueden aplicar en otros Estados. Ecuador es un caso interesante con un entorno cambiante similar donde las mujeres parecen estar mejor representadas en los niveles más altos de la función pública ecuatoriana y donde la brecha salarial se ha reducido significativamente en los últimos años. Contrariamente a las hipótesis iniciales que establecían que se observaría un fenómeno similar, no existen diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre géneros en la satisfacción profesional incluso después de controlar variables sociodemográficas. Sin embargo, la rotación de personal de los hombres es mayor. Se encontró que la principal variable para explicar la satisfacción profesional es el salario y el puesto dentro de las jerarquías en la estructura estatal. En este contexto, los empleados del sector público valoran más los aspectos extrínsecos del trabajo que los intrínsecos. También se pueden encontrar diferencias en el nivel general de satisfacción entre personas provenientes de diferentes regiones del país.

**Palabras clave:** Género, motivación, Sector Público, Ecuador, rotación de personal

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## 1. Introduction

In the coming years, the Ecuadorian civil service will benefit from the education investments the central government started in 2007. A variety of scholarships that range from full tuitions paid at the top universities in the world, to easier access to loans, have benefited more than 10,000 students. The entry of these students into the labor market will help to increase the country's economic development. In order to prevent a 'brain drain', grant recipients are required to work in-country for twice the duration of their programs. Hence, the different ministers will have a larger supply of highly educated employees in the coming years. However, understanding the motivations of people in the public sector is fundamental to facilitate the retention of good employees for human resources management policies.

The public sector has increasingly begun to develop managing diversity policies through affirmative action and find mechanisms to increase the representation of women and ethnic minorities in the civil service. There is research into this question from a race perspective. While this could be explored through a gender lens as well, this study will focus primarily on gender because little empirical research has been done on the topic in Ecuador. Until recently, the focus of these policies has primarily been on attraction and selection, while less attention has been paid to their career development. Whereas quotas are set for the representation of women and ethnic minorities in the higher ranks of the civil service, not much is known about how often they get promoted and how they perceive their career opportunities. This may be a central issue in understanding the causes of high levels of turnover and the ramifications that come with it.

Given a lack of current studies concerning the issue, prior to examining the drivers and motivations with specific regards to women in public sector careers, it is essential to ascertain a broader understanding of the Ecuadorian public servant's motivations. From this, an analysis identifying differences between the positions of women and men in the public sector can then be made.

The purpose of this paper is twofold. First, to have a better understanding of the motivations of Ecuadorian public servants, using the methodology found in Sandra Groeneveld's *Careers in the Dutch civil service: a gender perspective* (2009). Secondly, this paper aims to see if Sandra Groeneveld's finding that women in the Dutch civil service are slightly more satisfied with their career opportunities than men, applies in a context as different as that of Ecuador. Her paper was chosen in particular as a route model because of its clear and concise methodology that is applicable to this research paper. It was also chosen, to question some of the information found in her conclusions that might not be applicable to every single context to challenge the mimetic isomorphic implications that would come from her findings. This paper hopes to offer insight

about what motivates modern civil servants and what is common and cross-cultural in their motivation.

## 2. Theoretical considerations: gender and careers

There have been several discussions in career research. The main perspectives have been organizational led by sociologist and individual led by economists (Groeneveld, 2009, p. 495). The changing organizational Ecuadorian case will be described to analyze how these different perspectives could provide a useful theoretical framework to understand this context. It will be discussed to what extent these changes may impact career opportunity satisfaction of males and females differently. Following this, some individual factors will be used as possible explanations of why we would observe these differences.

### 2.1. Literature review

#### 2.1.1. Organizational perspectives:

Socio-cultural barriers against women, inherent to the organization structures shape the context and the career opportunities women get and their consequent satisfaction. Notably, the glass ceiling has been a main theme in the careers literature for a long time. It is defined as a concentration of women in lower-level and clerk positions as a result of initial hiring at the entrance level. It leads to an absence of upward career mobility caused partially by these barriers. Because of this, tokenism, the policy and practice of making a superficial gesture, without real interest, feeling, or effort, towards the inclusion of members of minority groups, arise and can be self-perpetuating.

Two of these cultural barriers are *think-manager-think-male* and the *organizational identity crisis*. First “think-manager-think-male”: manager’s job are generally perceived as requiring stereotypically male traits (risk taking, decisiveness, directive, assertive, ambitious). According to social role theory, men are perceived as agentic, independent and dominant. Women on the other hand, are perceived as communal, nurturing and sensitive. Therefore, they would have differing leadership styles. However, experiments suggest female managers think otherwise and the association between sex role stereotypes and perceived required management features was strongest between female managers (Schein, 1975).

Second, organizational identity crises are found in the work place. Role congruity model states there is socially constructed conflict between the roles of females in society and the character requirements of leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). When a female manager starts acting as a social male, applying what is thought of as masculine leadership traits, she gets criticized for not

being feminine enough and gets rejected for having an aggressive and bossy management style. Without human agency or the capacity to make choices and to enact and enforce those choices, females are perceived to be deprived of leadership skills, further enforcing these initial gender perceptions (Sen, 2005, p. 160).

Therefore, it becomes easier for women to accept stereotypes given to them than to challenge the status quo because it offers a comfortable and known position. It is a position which doesn't threaten or upset their male colleagues and therefore avoids the woman being perceived in a negative light by colleagues. "The personal consequence for tokens, of course, was a measure of self-distortion... Submissiveness, frivolity or other attributes may be feigned by people who feel they are prescribed by the dominant organizational culture" (Kanter, 1993, p. 393). Because of these structural discriminations<sup>1</sup> within institutions, women are denied rights and opportunities, keeping them away from achieving the same positions their male counterparts have access to. For example, women are also excluded from occupying the positions of their equally qualified male counterparts due to their responsibility to provide child-care (Kail & Cavanaugh, 2014, p. 413).

Acceptance of role encapsulation and as a result, limited demonstration of competence, may keep down the number of women in the upper ranks of an organization. "Role encapsulation confirms dominant stereotypes and confirms to them how right they were all along" (Kanter, 1993, pp. 393-394). As a consequence, women would be less likely to quit their jobs and accept the role given to them by the organizational culture. Supplementary organizational barriers also arise. Examples of this are the lack of female role models, absence of mentoring and women hired in low-productivity positions (Russo, 2010).

To fight these problems affirmative action policies are introduced to try to shape the behavior within institutions. However, if these policies are not accompanied by a cultural change, it becomes hard to change structural norms, and more tokenistic policies can result, if any. An example of this is the 1970's analysis of affirmative action and equal employment opportunities. Women that could be interested in the opportunities and challenges these policies offered said that they would not apply for these positions "the label makes it a dead end. It's a way of putting us out of pasture." (Kanter, 1993).

### **2.1.2. Individual Characteristics**

Human capital theory establishes that education, experience, age, leadership abilities and responsibility determine pay and promotion (Alkadry & Tower, 2006). These are crucial factors in explaining differences in career outcomes between genders. However, these are also the generic

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<sup>1</sup> also referred to as indirect discrimination

causes of pay gaps within the personnel implying that women have less access to success determinant factors like education.

For this work, lower educational levels, less work experience, and part-time working could explain lower average functional level and salaries for females compared to males. Reducing the gap in career outcomes between men and women should result in an increase of women's human capital. Furthermore, socio-demographic factors explain why women's careers fall behind. There is an interruption or even a stop in their career development with maternity. As a consequence, having children will impact women's careers and career outcomes. The higher likelihood of women to choose family over their careers, restricts their schedule and makes them appear less committed to their jobs than male counterparts. Gaining human capital, such as work experience, becomes harder because of domestic constraints. Women on the "mommy track" are then more likely to abandon the workforce.

The difference between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation is a central theme in this motivation study. Moreover, they shape public servant opportunities perception that do not necessarily fit the reality. Even having the same results in careers opportunities, higher initial demands lead to a lower level of satisfactions from the individual. People with high intrinsic orientation (also referred to as expressive orientation), appreciate opportunities for creative self-expression, intellectual accomplishment, the autonomy it gives them, the responsibility and getting pleasure from mastering the job tasks. On the other hand, people with high extrinsic orientation (also referred to as instrumental orientation), primarily give importance to the remuneration and view work principally as a means of attaining remuneration (Malka & Chatman, 2010, p. 738). Stressing the relative prominence of the content of the job, females are moderately more intrinsically motivated than their male's counterparts. On the other hand, males value extrinsic aspects of the job such as salary and the promotion prospects moderately more than females (Groeneveld, 2009, p. 497).

### **2.2.3. Main Criticisms to the Groeneveld 2009 paper**

When designing a survey that could be applied to the Ecuadorian context, taking Groeneveld's survey questions as a base, certain criticisms have to be made. Namely criticisms of both theory and an interpretation of the results.

First from a theoretical perspective, Groeneveld (2009) showed that in the Netherlands a lot of labor market research has frequently demonstrated the relationships between motherhood, part-time work, career interruptions and labor market outcomes for men and women. Motherhood and marital status have a negative impact on women's career success. (Groeneveld, 2009, p. 497).

This is also the case when the comparison is made between males and females with the same human capital. In our survey, questions will be added to see if motherhood and marital status have an effect on careers satisfaction. In contrast to her findings, the data obtained for this paper do not allow us to confirm the same situation in Ecuador.

Groeneveld tries to explain this with sociologist Catherine Hakim's research that states that differences in work motivation between men and women are result of women's lower work centrality (Hakim, 2002). Work centrality is the belief regarding the value and importance of work in a person's life (England & Misumi, 1986). Lower work centrality not only influences a women's' career progress negatively, but also explains the paradox that women are more satisfied than men.

This assumes that, in prosperous modern societies, virtually all women have a genuine choice between family work and market work. Further, women make their choice based on their preference for a particular lifestyle: work-centered, home-centered or one that combines paid work and time with family. However, other scholars say Hakim's preference theory is flawed, as it does not take into account the 'adaptive preferences' phenomenon, by which women adjust their choices in response to persistent gender inequality and make a conscious decision not to play by the current rules of the game (Leahy & Doughney, 2014).

This theory is worthy of consideration with its limitations as it challenges Groeneveld given for the Dutch civil service. Yet, it is still not a panacea to understand different labor market outcomes for men and women. Further analysis is needed to see if it applies to a developing country like Ecuador.

Second, through an interpretation of the results, even if the values found in her regression are significant, they might not be relevant. The gender variable oscillates between .051 to .071 on a 0 to 5 scale. This means that gender can affect up to 1.42% of the overall final level of satisfaction result. When the sample size is large enough, very small differences will be detected as significant. The difference is indeed real. However, it does not mean that the difference is large or important. When a person answers, five options on the Likert scale are presented to him to choose from. A 1.42% of influence even though significant, is particularly small. Groeneveld herself says in her conclusion that their measure of satisfaction with career opportunities leaves room for interpretation.

More important is the fact that even though the paper presents the type of function as a variable to consider, it does not include any information whatsoever about the current position within the hierarchy or and the current salary of the person answering the survey. These values can have a larger role in determining the person's satisfaction than gender or any other socio-demographical characteristics.

## 2.2. Organizational Context:

Since 2007, there has been a strong political will to give access to historically underprivileged groups. The new Ecuadorian constitution from 2008 guarantees equality and says that it will adopt affirmative action to promote real equality in favor of the rights of those who are in an unequal position (Constitución política de la República del Ecuador, Article 11.2, 2008). According to civil service Labor Law, the state should promote the equal participation of women and men in charges of nomination and designation (Ley Orgánica de Servicio Público, Article 5, 2010). Moreover, a transitory commission was created in 2009 to advocate for women's rights. One of their main functions is to define how public institutions can guarantee equality between genders (Decreto Ejecutivo No. 1733, 2009). Thus far, its main focus has been fighting violence against women.

To improve the institutions within the state and their performance, it is important to understand the motivations behind the public sector employees. The name stated in the 2010 Labor Law for the employee working for a state institution is 'public servant'. However, they are still referred to as a 'public functionary'. This change in terminology shows how there is an attempt to reframe the civil service concept. Even with the constitutional guarantee, the private sector and still several public institutions, have not yet included affirmative action policies to tackle gender inequality. Some ministers have included race or ethnicity affirmative action policies but not gender.

Few academic papers have been written about the effects of affirmative action in the Ecuadorian labor market. The ones found, focus on race. However, the main question raised by these scholars also applies to gender: "what kind of affirmative action(s), conceived by whom, and for what, and with what political, social, cultural, and civilizational project and life vision?" (Walsh, 2014).

A possible answer to the questions raised by Walsh (2014) applied to gender is, that the chosen path was mimetic isomorphism trying to imitate more developed country's structures. Due to the increasing returns in the development of these institutional arrangements it is hard that the gender equality frame will be challenged, and it is likely that path dependency towards gender equality will continue. Proof of this has been the way the government communicates about its achievements and climbing the rankings of the Global Gender Gap Index (El ciudadano, 2014).

During the last years, these achievements have been outstanding. In 2014, Ecuador achieved the position number 21 out of 142 nations in Global Gender Gap Index. Before 2008, Ecuador was in the 82<sup>nd</sup> position. The index measures opportunities to participate in the economic activity of the country, access to education, health and life expectancy and political power. The

World Economic Forum congratulated Ecuador and gave it the best scores in the areas of enrolment to primary, secondary and third level of Education, in aspects of health and participation in the political life of the country (World Economic Forum, 2014). These indexes show Ecuador has achieved 96% universal primary school education. Furthermore, 47% of the scholarships to higher education were granted to women (Asamblea Nacional, 2015).

Endeavoring to politically persuade contains two parts: 1) a frame that portrays the issue and 2) a set of implications that follow from that frame (Jackson & Krebs, 2007, p. 43). Observing how Ecuador has risen to higher positions in the gender equality indexes, it could be argued that the gender equality frame has been accepted as well as the implications that follow. The current government presents itself as a progressive government, fighting for gender equality (Correa, 2015). The gender equality implications are present all along the National Plan of Good Living which are the guidelines designed to create public policies and public investment projects in Ecuador (Plan Nacional del Buen Vivir 2013-2017).

Nevertheless, improving positions in rankings does not necessarily mean a better working environment for women. First, when performance indicators are measured with rankings, problems may arise. These are three. 1) Indeterminacy: when you add in the statistical confidence intervals it often happens that you can only robustly distinguish between the extreme ends of the distribution, 2) volatility: an issue that arises when several numbers with the subjective weight of this indicators are put together to create a single overall number 3) output distortions: if there are high stakes that are attached to a ranking system there are strong incentives for gaming and cheating (Hood, Dixon, & Wilson, 2009).

Second, the same occurs with an ideational explanation where gender inequalities are due to the spread of dominant masculine norms in society. According to a study of the national office of statistics of 2014, the amount of domestic work women do without being paid is thirty two weekly hours compared to the nine men do. These differences result in a remarkable twenty three hours difference between men and women (INEC, 2014). This is proof that the initial questions of “1) what kind of affirmative action 2) for what, 3) and with what political, social, cultural, and civilizational project and life vision?” still need further discussion.

Given the historical lack of attention to these issues, the current dynamically changing and evolving environment could certainly be one of the causes women feel more satisfied with their career opportunities even if the majority of the positions are still held by men.

From 2003 to 2006 the average proportion of women appointed to the ministerial cabinet was 21.4%, and from 2008 until 2012 36.4%. The 41% achieved in January 2007 was a first in

Ecuadorian history. Moreover, the president appointed a woman, Guadalupe Larriva<sup>2</sup> Minister of Defense, challenging the collective and military imagery about the exercise of authority and national defense (Palacios Jaramillo, 2008). While she died nine days after being appointed Minister, in a tragic helicopter crash, the head of state handed the Minister portfolio to another woman after her.

Year	Total amount of people appointed	Women appointed	% of Woman appointed
January 2003	15	4	27%
July 2004	15	2	13%
October 2005	15	4	27%
October 2006	21	4	19%
January 2007*	17	7	41%
October 2008	38	13	34%
August 2009	38	13	34%
April 2010	38	16	42%
July 2012	37	13	35%

\*Ec. Rafael Correa is appointed as president

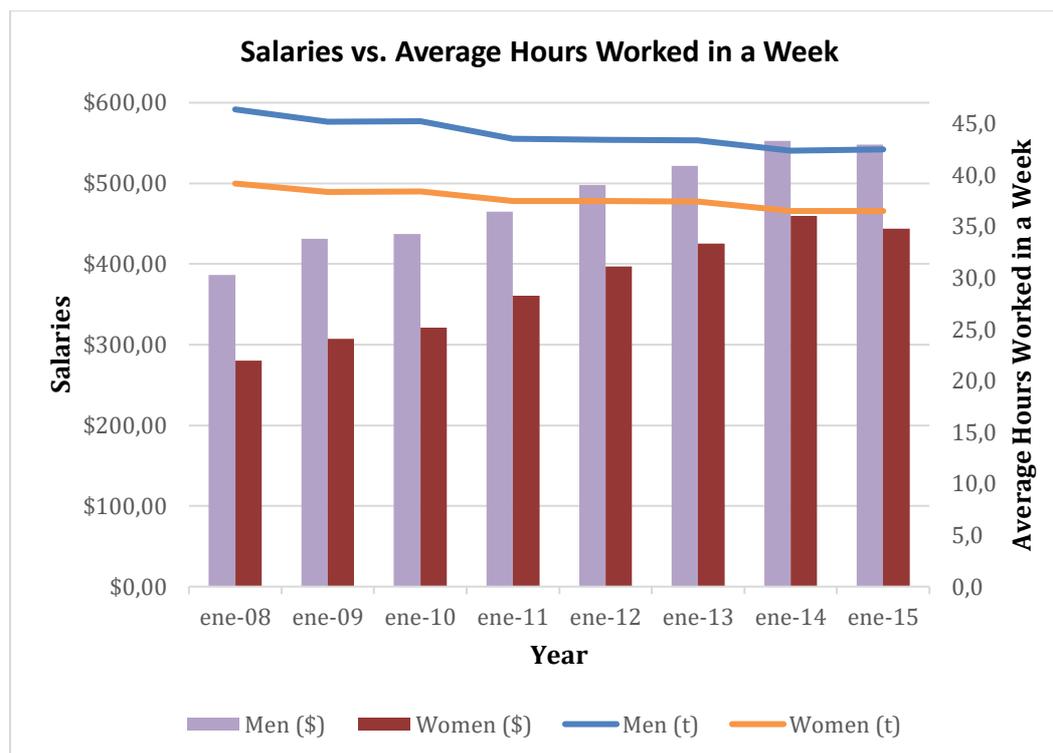
Source: Presidency of the Republic, women integrating the ministerial cabinet

Even with a strong political will, these types of changes take time. In the United States for example, there are Federal laws such as the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the title VII of the Civil Right Acts of 1964, which attempt to remedy the gender pay disparity. Unfortunately, despite years of equal opportunity and affirmative action efforts, there is still a concentration of women in lower level positions (Alkadry & Tower, 2006, p. 888).

### 2.2.1. Ecuadorian context evolution in civil society

The following graph was constructed with data coming from the Ecuadorian Office of Statistics. It shows the general wage evolution for both men and women in the last years in the Ecuadorian society. It helps to contextualize the country's reality.

<sup>2</sup> Two days earlier the Defense Minister announced Ecuador would not renew its contract with the United States Armed Forces which allows US troops to be stationed in and operate from Manta Air Base.



Source: Data from Report: *Indicadores Laborales* (INEC, 2015)

Even though equality is guaranteed by law, the path to equality takes times and does not happen from one day to the other. The average salaries in urban areas for both genders have severely increased over the years, while the amount of average working hours has been reduced. In addition, it is important to consider that the wage gap has been reduced from 72.58% in 2008 to 83.11% in 2014. This shows that the policies introduced by the government have not been simple tokenism but have led to real change.

This can be explained by a general rise of salaries but also more women accessing higher positions. The increasing number of educated women that enter the civil service at a later stage in their career highlights the fact that they also start at a higher position. The representation of women in higher positions in the civil service is thus likely to be affected as a result of these “firmer floors” as is shown for the US (Bowling, Kelleher, Jones, & Wright, 2006). Therefore, the opportunities available to women in the civil service would likely increase over time.

In recent years, more and more women perform professional labors that historically have been performed by men. In 2001 for example, there were 64 women with physics university degrees. In 2010, there were 1125 women. Moreover, in scientific and intellectual professions, 53.3% are performed by women. In the labor market, the female population increased in the economically active population by 80% between 2001 and 2010. In the private sector for example, according to the national economic census, 48% of the registered establishments have of women

as an owner or manager (INEC, 2014). This allows us to see that there is a general trend in the population, allowing women to play a greater role within the Ecuadorian economy.

### 2.3. Hypotheses

To recap, the recent laws, affirmative action policies, the existence of the National Council for Gender Equality, political will and educational developments imply that women's career opportunities in the Ecuadorian civil service are increasing at a faster pace compared to those of men. As a consequence, men could perceive the changing career trajectories more negatively than women.

However, first it will be tested if the historical structural discrimination, that states that men have had a longer tenure within the civil service, holds. Possible causes of this are that they entered the civil service at a time when traditional careers were more conventional. Confronted with this background it could be expected that first, women's satisfaction with career opportunities has increased in the recent years and second, it is higher compared to that of men.

The same three hypotheses from Groeneveld (2009) will then be tested. Further two other hypotheses will be tried. Ecuador and the Netherlands are very different countries, and different results are to be expected in this analysis. It will be analyzed if even within the country's different regions there can be career satisfaction differences. *Ecuador* is a *multicultural*, multi-ethnic nation–state with four different regions. The majority of the public institutions are located in Quito, in the Andes Region, and in Guayaquil, in the Coast.

Finally, it could be the case that there is not a particular association between gender and career satisfaction. To try to avoid any type of confirmation bias, one hypothesis will be included that states the actual level of satisfaction a public servant is a product of the achievements, recognition, responsibility, advancement and growth opportunities. This is stated in Herzberg's motivation-hygiene theory and Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1943) (Herzberg, 1966).

#### 2.3.1. Careers Satisfaction Hypothesis

***Hypothesis 1:*** Women are more satisfied with their career opportunities in comparison to men.

***Hypothesis 2:*** Women are more satisfied with their career opportunities in comparison to men controlling for human capital variables like different education levels and socio-demographic characteristics.

Females will be more satisfied with their career opportunities comparing them to men with the same human capital and socio-demographic characteristics in similar work situations. If there were

gender differences in work motivation, that would imply that males expectations about their career opportunities are different from those of females.

Higher female's career opportunity satisfaction is expected to be a reflection of their lower expectations resulting from different work motivations compared to males. As a consequence, they will give more value to the extrinsic characteristics of the job than men, resulting in higher career opportunity satisfaction.

***Hypothesis 3:*** Dissimilarities between females and males in career opportunity satisfaction is explained by the different values given to the intrinsic and the extrinsic characteristics of the job.

***Hypothesis 4:*** Different regions within the same country can have different levels of satisfaction with regards to gender.

Given the importance of socio-cultural barriers in determining perceptions of the role of women within employment, it follows that environment shapes the perception of these opportunities within different regions.

***Hypothesis 5:*** The satisfaction of the civil servant is mainly due to the position in the hierarchy achieved by the person and his/her level of responsibility. The payment also defines how satisfied the person is.

Questions included in the survey, are insightful in determining if the civil servant is more motivated by extrinsic factors than intrinsic ones.

### **3. Methods**

The main purpose of this paper is to see if Sandra's Groeneveld findings in the Dutch civil service paper can be applied to the Ecuadorian context. I will use similar questions to the ones presented in her paper translated to Spanish in an online survey. The survey was sent to a database of 2914 civil servants after asking for permission from different institutions, and 161 people replied.

The database contained the entire population of 15 different state institutions and was obtained in August 2014. Once the person leaves the institution, the email is deleted, and the user is no longer able to use it. Undelivered emails will be tallied to see how many people kept their jobs and to see if there is a difference between men and women stability in the labor force. The data was weighted to improve representativeness. In the multivariate analyses, however, the un-weighted data was used.

#### **3.1. The survey**

The dependent variable in this analysis survey will be how satisfied people are with their career opportunities. A 5-point Likert Scale was used to measure the level of satisfaction from (1) very dissatisfied to (5) very satisfied.

Several independent variables are implemented in this study.

First, the gender of the respondent. Then, several demographic variables are controlled for. Age is measured in years. The respondent's marital status and the employment situation of the spouse are combined into one four-category variable: single, having a partner who does not work, having a partner working less than 20 hours and having a partner who has a job of 21 hours or more. Care responsibilities are further indicated by having children at home requiring care (or not).

Second, a variable for the type of function is adopted. In contrast to the "careers in civil services" that adopted five categories, three function types are used: management or administrative, executive, advisory. This is better suited for Ecuador. This was treated as an independent variable, to analyze if men and women with similar functions diverge in satisfaction with their career opportunities.

Third, numerous human capital variables are included in the analysis. Educational level is divided into four categories: general high school education, university education, holding master's degree and holding a PhD. The civil servant's contract determines the number of working hours in a week. It was asked if their position is either part time or full time. Both, tenure in the public sector and time spent in the current position are measured in years.

Fourth, I took the same two variables as indicators of intrinsic and extrinsic work motivation (or orientation), respectively: interesting work and terms of employment. An analysis of both the content of the job and the extrinsic characteristics of the job are adopted. The job content evaluation is measured by a Likert Scale consisting of the following five items: 1) The duties I perform in my job are pleasant for me, 2) The content of my job is varied, 3) My job is useful for society, 4) My job offers me the opportunity to develop my talents, 5) My job interests me personally and professionally, 6) I feel the content of my job is important. Respondents could indicate whether they agreed with the items or not, with (1) indicating very much disagree and (5) very much agree. Factor analysis and reliability analysis showed that the six items scored very well on the dimension content of the job, with Cronbach's alpha = .881.

The evaluation of the extrinsic aspects of the job is measured by a Likert Scale as well with the following three items: 1) my wage corresponds to my function, comparing it to other places where I could work, 2) my performance is measured to determine my salary, 3) the organization gives me opportunities to increase my salary. Respondents could indicate whether they agreed with the items or not, with (1) indicating very much disagree and (5) very much agree. Factor analysis and reliability analysis showed that the three items scored well on the dimension content of the job, with Cronbach's alpha = .738. The scale is constructed by calculating the mean score on the three items.

In Sandra Groeneveld's paper the real wage and position within the hierarchy were missing in the analysis presented. I want to analyze if the salaries and the respondent position within the hierarchies have an influence on the civil servant satisfaction. In the Ecuadorian government the salaries are defined by two wage scales (civil servant 1 to 14) and another one for a superior hierarchical level (1 to 10), used for the elected officials, advisor's and higher managing responsibilities. This variable is added to see if the income levels and the hierarchical position have an influence over the satisfaction.

Due to the high regionalism in the country I decided to add a regional variable to see if it influences the study.

I also decided to ask whether the civil servant felt respected in the organization.

Descriptive statistics and correlations of the variables are given in Table A1 in the Appendix.

The table shows that male civil servants are more satisfied with their career opportunities than female civil servants ( $r = .057$ ) even though it is not a statistically significant relationship. Gender differences are also observed regarding some independent variables. Male civil servants are older and have longer tenure in the public sector. In comparison to females, they are less likely to be single, and more likely have a partner not engaged in employment. Males more often hold a master's level degree. There are no significant differences in the administrative, executive and advisory positions. Males have significantly better salaries and positions in the Ecuadorian civil service. Surprisingly no significant difference is found between gender in the intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of the job as well as the job orientation. A significant positive correlation of 0.188 in the level of satisfaction of public employees with more than 10 years working in the public sector is found. This is the only group in our sample that worked in a period previous to the current administration got in office.

## **4. Results**

### **4.1. Population analysis**

The database was obtained in August the 8<sup>th</sup> 2014 and the email to request an answer to the survey was sent on August the 8<sup>th</sup> 2015.

The first result was obtained when I sent the email requesting public servants to reply to the survey. When public servants quit an institution for which they have worked for, their email is automatically eliminated and is no longer usable. Out of the 2914 emails sent, 1006 did not have a recipient anymore. In a period of a year, 34.5% of the initial population was not performing the same job, observing the level of staff turnover in the Ecuadorian civil service is quite high. This

lead to lower productivity levels, tasks overload for the remaining employees, lost knowledge, new costs for training and interviewing. In addition, a low sense of belonging to the organization, coordination problems, as employees are constantly moving, lead to a change in the image of the organization that will be perceived as a place where people don't feel comfortable, and this has an effect on the relationships with the organization clients (Reyes Ponce, 1991) (Chapman & White, 2011). This can even increase revolving doors where the public employee leaves the institution with fewer incentives.

The institutions that can retain its employees will therefore, become more efficient. According to Bernadette Kenny, a company of 40,000 full-time employees could save around \$140 million per year by reducing its annual turnover from 40% to 15% (Kenny, 2007). This was in 2007 and applied to the United States. However it is worth taking this into account and to analyze how it could be extrapolated to the Ecuadorian public sector, considering 20.5% of the people working in urban areas are public servants (INEC, 2015). State savings could be substantial if there was a reduction of staff turnover *ceteris paribus*.

Second, analyzing the total population, it consisted of 58% males and 42% females. As was seen before, the president himself has not able to establish an equal ministerial cabinet. The same happens in lower rankings within the ministers. This is what the data shows with more males employed than females.

Third, analyzing the results of the 1006 rebound emails of the people that already left the job. If it was expected to see the same proportions of females and males quitting their jobs, 420 females and 586 males would be quitting their jobs out. In reality, less woman quitted their jobs. Out of the 1006 rebound emails, 369 were women, and 637 were men. Within these 15 institutions, an average employment pattern of 72 women for every 100 men is common. But, 58 women quit their job for every 100 men in a one year period. This shows that the rotation of males is higher than the rotation of females. If this is the case, a possible explain could be that males are less satisfied with their jobs and therefore, have higher level of rotation. Others explanations are possible.

	Total Population	Proportion	Expected population that would have quit if the proportion was respected (1006*proportion of the gender of population)	Observed number of public employees who quit
Woman	1218	0,42	420	369
Man	1696	0,58	586	637
Total population	2914		1006	1006
woman/man ratio		0,72	0,72	0,58

Fourth, there was a significant difference in the numbers of years between genders working in the civil service in our sample. It could be inferred from this, that the historical structural discrimination argument holds. Women have significantly spent fewer years in the labor force in the public sector according to the sample.

	Less than 1 in the public sector	1 to 3 years in the public sector	3 to 5 years in the public sector	5 to 10 years in the public sector	More than 10 in the public sector	total
Woman	4%	44%	22%	15%	14%	100%
Man	0%	25%	27%	17%	31%	100%

Male (M=6.61, SD=4.07) and Female (M=4.61, SD=3.59) conditions;  $t(158) = 3.31$ , one tailed p value = 0.00569.

#### 4.2. People's satisfaction

Sandra Groeneveld had available data collected by the Dutch Ministry of Interior since 1999. In the Ecuadorian case, historical surveys about careers satisfaction in the public sector are hard to find. To see if there is an evolution, I will compare the results obtained by the survey to the results published by the national bureau of statics in 2011. It showed that women were moderately satisfied with their careers and education with 6 out of 10 (El Mercurio, 2011).

Gender	Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Neither satisfied or dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied.	Mean	Std. dev.
Male	5,62%	20,22%	25,84%	37,08%	11,24%	3,28	1,08
Female	15,28%	11,11%	22,22%	45,83%	5,56%	3,15	1,17

Unweighted data

Even though in the sample, more females than males are more than satisfied with their career opportunities (51.39% vs. 48.31%), the average career opportunity satisfaction is higher for men than for women. This contradicts the first three hypotheses. However, these results are not statistically significant so, the null hypothesis of no association between gender and career satisfaction cannot be rejected.

According to this sample, women in 2015 had higher levels of satisfaction: 6.30 (3.15/5) compared to the 6/10 of 2011. The total population of our database of females staying in the job is 849 females. 72 of them answered our survey. Using Slovin's formula it can be stated that this sample represents the population with a margin of error of 0.11. With this margin of error, it could be suggested according to the data that female's satisfaction has improved but the sample size is not big enough to confirm this.

When people were asked whether they felt respected or not in the organization they work for, no major difference was observed. 83.3% of females said they did feel respected, compared to an 82% of males.

### 4.3. Survey results.

Table OLS regression with satisfaction with career opportunities as the dependent variable, standardized coefficients.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>Salary/Position</b>							.3718*	.293**	.243**
<b>Gender</b>									
Woman	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref		Ref	
Man	.128	.027	.025	-.009	.016	.020		-.033	
<b>Age</b>		.225**	.213*	.179	.154	.162			.133
<b>Marital status</b>									
Single		Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref			
Partner, no job		-.139	-.139	-.150	-.131	-.153			
Partner, Job>20hrs		.108	.091	0.071	.002	.005			
Partner, Full - time job		-.019	-.014	-.062	-.056	-.043			
<b>Children at home</b>									
Yes		Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref			
No		-.021	-.024	-.029	-.020	.005			
<b>Function</b>									
Administrative			Ref	Ref	Ref	Ref			
Executive			.042	-.013	-.099	-.107			
Advisory			.068	.043	.030	.016			
<b>Education</b>									
High school education				Ref	Ref	Ref			
University				-.186	-.210	-.200			
Master				-.046	-.035	-.036			
PhD				-.007	-.026	-.020			
<b>Years in the current job</b>									
Less than 1				Ref	Ref	Ref			
1 to 3 years				-.081	.109	.154			
3 to 5 years				-.250	-.111	-.077			
5 to 10 years				-.063	.029	.060			
More than 10 years				-.182	-.050	-.017			
<b>Years in the public sector</b>									
Less than 1				Ref	Ref	Ref			
1 to 3 years				-.064	-.087	-.223			
3 to 5 years				.085	.062	-.040			
5 to 10 years				.091	.018	-.070			
More than 10 years				.140	.097	-.003			
<b>Intrinsic work orientation</b>					.120	.079			
<b>Extrinsic work orientation</b>					.219*	.198*			
<b>Evaluation work situation:</b>					.156	.195			
<b>Evaluation work situation: extrinsic aspects</b>					.117	.113			
<b>Region</b>									
Coast						Ref			
Andes						-.211*			
Oriente						-.064			

N 161; model 1 contains weighted data; models 2 to 9 contain unweighted data; \*\* p<.01; \*p<.05.

### **Model 1**

In the first model, only gender is adopted as an independent variable. As was concluded from the correlation analysis, men are slightly more satisfied with their career opportunities than females but it is not a significant association, so this affirmation is not conclusive.

### **Model 2**

Demographic variables are included in this model. Again gender is not significantly associated with satisfaction. The same occur with marital status and children at home to care for. Age is the only variable with a statistically significant association with career satisfaction.

### **Model 3**

Here, type of function is included using the administrative category as the reference one. It can be observed that the type of function has no significant association with career satisfaction.

Even after controlling for the type of function the same can be observed for gender. There is no particular association between gender and careers satisfaction.

### **Model 4**

The education level is included in this model with the years working in the public sector and the current job. Again, there is no statistically significant associations for any of the values presented. Even age becomes not statistically significant when these variables are included.

The dissimilarities between male and female civil servants career opportunity satisfaction are not significant. When human capital characteristics are included into our analysis, male civil servants become less satisfied with their career opportunities than are their female colleagues. However, these numbers are not statistically significant and it is in fact very small (-.009). Therefore, hypothesis 1, 2 and 3 cannot be confirmed.

Contrary to what was observed in the Netherlands, it seems that having a partner with no job reduces career satisfaction. Similarly in the cases where the partner has a half time job, career satisfaction increases and having a partner working full time decreases career satisfaction.

Another conflicting finding with the Netherlands is that there is the tendency for being more satisfied with careers opportunities if the civil servant has children at home, holding the rest of the variables constant. Again, these results are not significant in any of the studies so, no definitive conclusions can be drawn from these findings.

For more comparison with the Netherlands, the *Careers in the Dutch civil service: a gender perspective 2009* regressions can be found in the Table 2 in the appendix.

### **Model 5**

Work motivation and the work situation evaluation are controlled in this model to see if there is a difference in career satisfaction between male and female civil servants. It can be observed this is not the case. Still, no significant association is found between gender and careers satisfaction. The only variable with a significant value is extrinsic work orientation whereby its coefficient is higher than that for intrinsic one even though the latter is not significant. The same occurs in model 6 controlling for the region. It can be inferred that the public servants value much more the extrinsic aspect of their job more than the intrinsic part of it.

Using the same models as Groeneveld 2009 it can be observed that gender has no particular influence on career satisfaction for the Ecuadorian case.

### **Model 6**

Hypothesis 4 cannot be confirmed. There is still no significant difference between genders controlling for the different regions within the country. However, statistically significant differences can be found in the general level of satisfaction between people coming from different regions within the country, *ceteris paribus*.

### **Model 7, 8, and 9**

In all of the models, there has been no association between gender and careers satisfaction. But there is a significant association between the position within the hierarchy of the civil servant and his/her satisfaction. For every 1000 USD increase in the salary an increase in career satisfaction from .243\*\*, controlling for age in model 9, to a .3718\*\* is found, when the regression is run considering salary as the only independent variable. The data is open for interpretation to know whether this is the case because of intrinsic factors or extrinsic factors.

Analyzing annex 1, significant correlations between both the intrinsic and extrinsic factors and careers satisfaction are observed. The same occurs when the correlation is between the intrinsic and extrinsic factors and our salary/position variable. A negative correlation of -.151 between being a male and the evaluation of extrinsic aspects of the job value with a p-value of .056 is found. Males are more likely to believe that they can get better salaries outside the public sector. That might be a possible explanation of why the men staff turnover is higher in than those of women.

Comparing the data obtained from this paper from 2015, to the one of the Netherland's of 2009 used for the Groeneveld analysis, the average level of satisfaction in Ecuador is higher than the one found in the Netherland's 3.22/5 vs. 2.98/5. The average age of the Ecuadorian civil servant is 35.80 compared to 45.13 in the Netherlands'.

The smaller size of our sample of 161 civil servants compared to the 3835 of her analysis is a limitation of this study. Due to the size of our sample cohort effects of different groups that entered to the civil service in different years are hard to make. The same applies when trying to observe differences in satisfaction levels within different institutions.

## 5. Conclusion and discussion

### 5.1 Conclusions

There is an emphasis in academic research on the role of Latin American leaders in public administration. However, this paper addresses a gap in the literature by focusing on career motivations in lower and medium levels of the public administration in this context. It is important because the way public servants perform in their jobs gives citizens a better or worse image of the state as a whole.

This paper has given us some insights about the motivations and career satisfaction behind the Ecuadorian public servant. Whereas targets are formulated about the representation of women and ethnic minorities in the higher ranks of the civil service, not much is known about how often they get promoted and how they perceive their career opportunities. In spite of the attention to tools like affirmative action used by human resource management in the Ecuadorian civil service to include historically unprivileged groups, real empirical research is seriously lacking to test the assumptions on which it is based.

In Ecuador as in the Netherlands, during the past years, there has been a changing environment more favorable to women where the wage gap has been reduced. The evidence suggests there has been a positive evolution in women's career opportunity satisfaction during the last years according to the results obtained in this investigation, but there is still a long way to go to achieve gender equality. As the *Minister of Social Development*, Cecilia Vaca Jones affirmed, these processes of social transformation like women protection consolidation system take years to occur, but it is certain that there will be no turnover in these changes (Ministerio Coordinador de Desarrollo Social, 2015). Yet, to this date in Ecuador the president himself has not been able to achieve equality in his ministerial cabinet and the same still occurs across the lower ministerial higher rankings.

The methodology found in Sandra Groeneveld 2009 paper was used for this paper. The conclusion found in her research was that women in the Dutch Civil service are slightly more satisfied with their career opportunities than men. However, even if the values found in her regression are significant, their relevance is debatable as the gender variable oscillates between .051 to .071 on a 0 to 5 scale. This means that gender can affect up to 1.42% of the final result. In that

line, three hypothesis about gender differences were established to test her findings in Ecuador but were not confirmed. In contrast to our initial idea that women would be more satisfied in the Ecuadorian civil service as a result of the faster evolution of their career opportunities compared to those of men, the evidence suggests men are still more satisfied than women with their career opportunities even when sociodemographic, and motivational variables are controlled for. However, these results are not statistically significant. As expected the satisfaction levels found in this data were different than those of the Dutch civil service.

The entire population of the 15 institutions studied, employ 72 women for every 100 men. But, 58 women quit their job for every 100 men in a one-year period. This shows that the rotation of men is higher than those of women. Analyzing the extrinsic motivation questions in our survey, it was found that men are more likely to believe that they can get better salaries outside the public sector.

The first significant finding was that within the same country different regions can have different levels of satisfaction. The second one is that there is a significant association between the position within the hierarchy of the civil servant with its correspondent salary and the level of satisfaction. Comparing the higher value of extrinsic work orientation coefficient compared to those of the intrinsic one, even though the latter are not significant, it can be inferred public servants value much more the extrinsic aspect of the job in comparison to the intrinsic part of it. This may help to explain the observed high levels of staff turnover in the Ecuadorian civil service. In a period of a year, 34.5% of the initial population were not performing the same job. High turnover rates lead to lower productivity levels, tasks overload for the remaining employees, lost knowledge, new costs for training and new costs for interviewing. Improving these situations offers a great opportunity for savings in the public sector. Further investigation is needed to see how different levels of satisfaction leads to different levels of productivity and efficiency.

## **5.2 Limitations, discussion and suggestions**

Further investigation about how to do this is still necessary. First, human resources theory advices to make retention a top priority, improving the workplace. Better explanation of the role they should play within the institution to give a sense to what they are doing, a better division of tasks, a better description of their job, making them feel they are part of something bigger than themselves are possible suggestions that need to be tested (Kenny, 2007). A clear line of command is necessary. The multi-level organization sub optimization is a problem faced by the public sector (Hood, 1976). In Ecuador, 6 Coordination Ministers were created to direct 21 Ministers under them. Their efficiency must be also tested, especially in giving employees a good understanding of

what they are doing, avoiding duplicate activities that can lead to frustrating outcomes in the motivation of public employees. Tools of e-governance could be used to detect these problems.

There is room for interpretation in the measure used to define career opportunity satisfaction. A person's career opportunities evaluation depends on several factors. First of course, the actual career opportunities and the perceived career opportunities. However, the evaluation also depends on how the public servant defines the career opportunities and the expectations the employee has about them. Furthermore, careers satisfaction is only one of the several features of subjective career outcomes. Yet, to really understand the career development of the civil servant in general, and for the different genders, objective measures of career success are necessary.

A panel design is needed to assess relationships between causes, careers and outcomes. It would allow to distinguish between individual effects and cohort effects. Another type of study could be done to analyze the impact of affirmative action policies by comparing perceptions of career opportunities between organizations with and without these initiatives (Groeneveld, 2009, p. 503).

One factor missing in our analysis that would be an interesting variable to consider for future investigations would be not isolating females' paid work from their unpaid work by investigating how many hours of house work they perform (Leahy & Doughney, 2014).

Also to consider, the questions about child care: who is in charge of it, under what circumstances and how are the costs shared (Leahy & Doughney, 2014). Unpaid work, including household work is usually not recognized. Its economic and social value is ignored. Society in general relies on the unpaid and underpaid work done by women (Folbre, 2001). Other suggestion is to present gender-disaggregated statistics. Even if the information presented by the Ecuadorian bureau of statistics offers insightful information, this data is still rare in certain cases.

Additionally, similar conclusions to the ones found for the Dutch civil service can be applied to Ecuador. The presumed gender differences briefly stated with the social role theory could be tested by asking men and women how they define careers and career success. To really comprehend the different ideas behind careers arrangements and their determinants of success, more qualitative research methods could be applied. This would allow to test if there is a difference, if any, in these ideas between the different genders and the expected role of them within the society.

Additionally, the application of these methods would also enable more ways to measure careers and career success, to construct indicators that could eventually be 'gender proof' (Groeneveld, 2009, p. 504). Moreover, the Ecuadorian and the Dutch societies are different. In the Netherlands, women have had more access to jobs done historically by men than in Ecuador.

They have different realities and no mimetic isomorphic recommendations should be drawn. Some contradictions are found in the direction of the associations between the variables and the levels of satisfaction analyzing the differences between the different countries regressions. One example is the contradictory side of the association in these two countries, between having children or not and career satisfaction. Applying these research methods would also permit to have measures of careers success that are context based.

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Appendix

Table A1 Descriptives and correlations

	Mean	Std Dev	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1) Gender male %	0,55	0,50	1													
2) Age	35,80	9,97	,250**	1												
3) Single	0,47	0,50	-,237**	-,264**	1											
4) No working partner	0,12	0,32	,252**	,201*	-,342**	1										
5) Partner half time	0,06	0,24	0,076	0,01	-,240**	-,094	1									
6) Partner full time	0,35	0,48	0,039	0,134	-,691**	-,271**	-,191*	1								
7) No children at home to take care for	0,54	0,50	-0,027	-0,152	,511**	-,088	-0,124	-,412**	1							
8) Administrative	0,41	0,49	-0,089	-0,119	0,082	-0,031	0,076	0,039	0,048	1						
9) Executive	0,55	0,50	0,07	0,067	-0,087	0,019	0,076	0,039	0,048	-,927**	1					
10) Advisory	0,04	0,19	0,045	0,133	0,013	0,03	,221**	-0,146	-0,016	-,164*	-,219**	1				
11) Highschool	0,07	0,03	-0,078	0,101	0,019	0,043	0,123	-0,111	-0,07	0,052	-0,03	-0,056	1			
12) University	0,48	0,50	-0,153	-0,13	,216**	-,085	0,008	-,172*	-0,004	,203**	-,203**	0,006	-,275**	1		
13) Master	0,42	0,49	,176*	0,052	-,207**	0,082	-0,061	,192*	0,071	-,243**	,227**	0,033	-,240**	-,818**	1	
14) PHD	0,02	0,16	0,063	0,084	-0,069	-0,058	-0,041	0,132	-0,093	0,029	-0,017	-0,031	-0,045	-0,155	-0,135	1
15) Less than 1 in current job	0,09	0,28	-,166*	-,195*	0,11	-0,113	0,103	-0,09	0,063	0,012	-0,077	,172*	-0,004	-0,035	0,052	-0,049
16) 1 to 3 years in current job	0,59	0,49	0,038	-,175*	-0,006	-0,008	0,005	0,01	-0,034	-0,076	0,114	-0,103	-0,004	,202*	-,193*	-0,029
17) 3 to 5 in current job	0,14	0,35	-0,025	-0,036	-0,061	-0,149	0,042	0,143	0,056	-0,015	0,046	-0,08	-0,116	-,183*	,231**	0,049
18) 5 to 10 in current job	0,08	0,27	0,037	0,102	-0,003	0,104	-0,076	-0,029	-0,047	0,031	-0,009	-0,058	-0,084	-0,014	0,074	-0,047
19) More than 10 in current job	0,10	0,30	0,09	,420**	-0,019	,200*	-0,085	-0,072	-0,027	0,103	-0,161*	0,154	,222**	-0,073	-0,07	0,08
20) Less than 1 in the public sector	0,02	0,14	-0,153	-0,145	0,055	-0,05	-0,035	-0,006	0,127	-0,021	-0,061	,215**	-0,039	-0,042	0,07	-0,022
21) 1 to 3 years in the public sector	0,34	0,47	-,208**	-,382**	,207**	0,026	-0,019	-,223**	0,048	0,13	-0,102	-0,07	-0,001	,259**	-,226**	-0,113
22) 3 to 5 years in the public sector	0,24	0,43	0,042	-0,108	0,082	-0,117	-0,085	0,036	0,056	0,03	0,013	-0,111	0,005	-0,055	0,023	0,096
23) 5 to 10 years in the public sector	0,17	0,37	0,036	0,023	-0,086	-0,061	0,022	0,12	-0,086	-0,07	0,103	-0,088	-0,127	-0,069	0,127	0,035
24) More than 10 in the public sector	0,24	0,43	,206**	,560**	-,255**	,159*	0,099	0,108	-0,074	-0,106	0,029	,200*	0,121	-,158*	0,095	0,005
25) Intrinsic work orientation	4,25	0,69	0,067	0,128	-0,033	-0,093	0,119	0,037	-0,092	-,169*	,170*	-0,007	0,047	-0,016	0,009	-0,057
26) Extrinsic work orientation	2,31	0,95	-0,072	-0,039	-0,013	-0,03	0,102	-0,074	0,062	-0,09	0,054	0,091	-0,019	0,06	-0,067	0,053
27) Evaluation content of the job	4,08	0,72	-0,016	0,081	-0,03	-0,07	0,102	0,027	-0,117	-,170*	,171*	-0,008	0,033	-0,022	0,011	-0,019
28) Evaluation extrinsic aspect	3,11	1,20	-0,151	-0,095	0,011	-0,097	,171*	-0,033	-0,002	-,211**	,184*	0,065	-0,085	-0,002	0,031	0,053
29) Andes region	0,61	0,49	-0,004	0,044	0,06	-0,141	-0,11	0,088	0,129	-0,005	0,021	-0,044	-0,015	-0,012	0,031	-0,036
30) Coast	0,37	0,49	-0,004	-0,046	-0,024	0,116	0,068	-0,087	-0,088	-0,042	0,022	0,052	0,026	-0,002	0,001	-0,04
31) Amazonia	0,02	0,14	0,032	0,007	-0,129	0,092	,155*	-0,006	-0,149	,165*	-0,153	-0,027	-0,039	0,05	-0,116	,273**
32) Salary/Position	1754,47	941,92	,307**	,300**	-,284**	0,092	-0,026	,247**	-0,056	-,396**	,350**	0,109	-,158*	-,315**	,389**	0,048
33) Satisfaction level	3,22	1,13	0,057	,206**	-0,042	-0,09	0,132	0,038	-0,049	-0,087	0,045	0,107	0,091	-0,148	0,09	0,039

Table A1 cont.

	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
15) Less than 1 in current job	1																		
16) 1 to 3 years in current job	<b>-,370**</b>	1																	
17) 3 to 5 in current job	-0,126	<b>-,490**</b>	1																
18) 5 to 10 in current job	-0,091	<b>-,356**</b>	-0,121	1															
19) More than 10 in current job	-0,103	<b>-,399**</b>	-0,136	-0,098	1														
20) Less than 1 in the public sector	<b>,447**</b>	<b>-,165*</b>	-0,056	-0,041	-0,046	1													
21) 1 to 3 years in the public sector	0,014	<b>,351**</b>	<b>-,177*</b>	<b>-,162*</b>	<b>-,236**</b>	-0,098	1												
22) 3 to 5 years in the public sector	-0,02	0	<b>,225**</b>	-0,061	<b>-,188*</b>	<b>-,402**</b>	1												
23) 5 to 10 years in the public sector	-0,139	<b>-,167*</b>	<b>,197*</b>	<b>,294**</b>	-0,094	-0,062	<b>-,319**</b>	<b>-,254**</b>	1										
24) More than 10 in the public sector	-0,016	<b>-,191*</b>	<b>-,185*</b>	-0,004	<b>,549**</b>	-0,077	<b>-,314**</b>	<b>-,249**</b>	1										
25) Intrinsic work orientation	0,134	-0,08	-0,009	-0,029	0,042	-0,005	-0,056	-0,076	0,032	0,112	1								
26) Extrinsic work orientation	<b>,166*</b>	-0,051	0,005	0,034	-0,11	0,051	-0,027	-0,027	0,124	-0,068	0,026	1							
27) Evaluation content of the job	<b>,179*</b>	-0,131	-0,007	0,029	0,028	0,048	-0,115	-0,006	0,024	0,098	<b>,833**</b>	0,079	1						
28) Evaluation extrinsic aspect	<b>,176*</b>	0,031	-0,066	0,031	<b>-,169*</b>	0,103	0,003	-0,099	0,1	-0,025	0,071	<b>,552**</b>	0,106	1					
29) Andes region	-0,069	-0,047	0,073	0,051	0,011	0,11	<b>-,158*</b>	0,097	-0,015	0,056	-0,027	-0,124	0,042	-0,068	1				
30) Coast	0,081	0,042	-0,058	-0,04	-0,041	-0,106	<b>,160*</b>	-0,076	-0,037	-0,035	0,053	0,111	-0,008	0,083	<b>-,961**</b>	1			
31) Amazonia	-0,043	0,021	-0,056	-0,041	0,108	-0,019	-0,001	-0,078	<b>,184*</b>	-0,077	-0,093	0,051	-0,124	-0,051	<b>-,172**</b>	-0,106	1		
32) Salary/Position	-0,048	0,031	0,045	-0,016	-0,044	-0,077	<b>-,302**</b>	0,015	0,112	<b>,247**</b>	<b>,193*</b>	0,059	<b>,170*</b>	<b>,251**</b>	<b>,045</b>	-0,019	-0,094	1	
33) Satisfaction level	0,076	0,009	-0,128	0,042	0,026	0,013	<b>-,211**</b>	0,016	0,029	<b>,188*</b>	<b>,285**</b>	<b>,281**</b>	<b>,301**</b>	<b>,255**</b>	<b>-,180*</b>	<b>,201*</b>	-0,068	<b>,283**</b>	1

\*\* Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table A2 Careers in the Dutch civil service: a gender perspective 2009 regressions

OLS regression with satisfaction with career opportunities as a dependent variable, standardized coefficients

	1	2	3	4	5
Sex					
Men	ref	ref	ref	ref	ref
Women	.058**	.069**	.071**	.051**	.014
Age		.007	-.002	.006	-.042*
Marital status					
Single		ref	ref	ref	ref
Partner, no job		.021	.014	.009	.004
Partner, job ≤ 20 hrs		.007	.000	-.001	-.015
Partner, job > 20 hrs		-.008	-.021	-.025	-.025
Children at home requiring care					
Yes		ref	ref	ref	ref
No		.005	.006	.015	.016
Function					
Management			.130**	.117**	.050**
Support/staff			.042*	.026	.038*
Policy			.048**	.043*	.006
Executive			-.007	-.008	-.004
Other			ref	ref	ref
Education					
Lower education				ref	ref
Secondary general and vocational				-.032	-.004
Higher vocational				-.032	-.033*
University				-.072**	-.072**
Working hours				-.037*	-.014
Years in current job				-.161**	-.073**
Tenure with employer				.069**	.053**
Intrinsic work orientation					-.014
Extrinsic work orientation					.036**
Evaluation work situation: content of the job					.339**
Evaluation work situation: extrinsic aspects					.409**
Adjusted $R^2$	.003**	.003**	.018**	.036**	.387**

$N \geq 3835$ ; unweighted data.

\*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$ .