NO MAN LEFT BEHIND: ACCESS TO EDUCATION AND JOBS FOR MEN

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The following faculty have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content, and recommended that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Arts with a major in Sociology

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DEDICATION

To my mother Christine, my brother Dustin, and mentor Dr. David Wright
You are my inspiration

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ABSTRACT

With the emergence of the information society and globalization, educational advancement, especially college, has become paramount in achieving and maintaining economic independence. Over the last decade, women have increased their education stock at a faster rate than men. This research attempts to explain the factors that lead to women's increased educational attainment over men's. Secondary data analysis was used from the Current Population Survey of March 2007 consisting of 58,665 respondents. The alternative model used is comprised of individual, structural, and gender model level factors. Univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analysis were used to examine the independent effects on annual wages. The results suggest that unlike women, men have more non-degree job opportunities that allow them to earn wages above the median without having to invest in their human capital to the extent that women do.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

With the emergence of the information society and globalization, educational

advancement, especially college, has become paramount in achieving and maintaining economic

independence. Over the last decade, women have increased their education stock at a faster rate

than men. Even though men still have an economic advantage over women in today's economy,

their slower rate of educational advancement places them at risk. Educational investment is often

framed by push/pull factors. In occupations with declining wages, workers are pushed to seek

alternative routes to maintain their economic status; whereas in occupations where promotion is

based on educational credentials, investment in education becomes a pull factor. Given the

occupational sex-segregation that continues to exist in the economy, the question arises as to

whether certain occupations provide men the opportunity to defer educational investment given

the possible higher rates of economic returns within certain occupations. If there are occupations

for men which pay a premium wage without advanced educational training, could this explain

men's slower rate of college attendance relative to women.

The majority of literature available explains the decrease in male college attendance

using three models: Individual, Structural, and Gender. The individualist model views

individuals as rational beings who make decisions to invest in their human capital based on the

expected value of his or her payoff. The structuralist model states that the position in which a

person occupies in the labor structure dictates the monetary payoff he or she will receive. The

gender model believes women to be devaluated, sorted, and segregated into jobs within the labor

market with smaller rates of return than men. To see how each of these models may contribute to

understanding the decrease of male college attendance, the Income Determination model

(Wright, 1992) which combines all three models is applied. The data for this study came from the March 2007 Current Population Survey (CPS).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INDIVIDUALIST MODEL

The idea of rational choice theory is that the decision maker is rational if decisions made are consistently in pursuit of his or her own objectives. It is assumed that each person's objective is to maximize the expected value of his or her own payoff (Satz, 1994; Sen, 1994). Rationality is seen as intelligently maximizing such a payoff function, using all the available instruments, subject to feasibility (Satz, 1994; Sen, 1994; Turner, 1991; Tversky, 1986). In other words rational choice theory states that an individual chooses based on what choice is going to acquire them the most utility with the least amount of cost up front.

Human Capital theory differs from Rational Choice theory that it suggests individuals derive economic benefits from investments in people (Becker, 1975; Ben-Porath, 1967; Graham, 1981; Sweetland, 1996). In particular, education consistently emerges as the prime human capital investment for analysis (source Becker, 1975; Sweetland, 1996). Unlike Rational Choice theory, human capital theory suggests that there is a pull factor to obtain jobs with high premium wages. However, those jobs require higher levels of education beyond high school. People invest in higher education in hopes that the return will be a position with premium wages (Becker, 1975; Denison, 1974). While working towards a degree which will hopefully yield higher wages, the individual chooses to earn fewer wages while investing in human capital in hopes that by sacrificing early on, they will financially benefit from the investment ultimately (Becker, 1975; Ben-Porath, 1967; Bowles, 1975).

The methodology developed by Becker compared personal incomes of college graduates with those of high school graduates. Income differences between the two groups were then related to costs of attending college. His research hypothesis stated, "If the rate of return was significantly higher than the rate earned on tangible capital (wages), there would be evidence of underinvestment in college education. On the other hand, if the rate of return were lower than the rate of return on investments in tangible capital, there would be evidence of overinvestment in college education (Becker, 1975)". Becker discovered that investments in college education provided indirect returns in addition to direct returns (higher wages); therefore, he concluded that an underinvestment in college education was not possible (Becker, 1975; Groot, 1994). In other words, an individual who invests in higher levels of education will always earn higher wages than an individual who does not invest in higher levels of education. Given human capitals assumptions, it would be expected that males would make more than females based on their educational contribution. However, females have higher education stock than what males do. Yet, males make more than what females do.

Unlike Human capital theory which believes mostly in the individuals ability to invest in themselves to obtain what they want, Status Attainment states that the success of an individual is not completely rested on their ability to invest in their human capital but also the influence of their family background and successes of their parents (Blau, 1967; Duncan, 1972; Haller, 1967; Haller, 1973).

Best known among causal theories of status attainment is Blau and Duncan's 1967 model. Blau and Duncan's model is based on data collected from a single cross-sectional sample of the American adult male population as part of the 'Bureau of Census' "Current Population Survey" of March, 1962 (Blau, 1967; Duncan, 1972; Haller, 1973). The overall questions Blau

and Duncan hoped to better understand the status attainment processes were to what extent inherited status determines the social fate of individuals, and to what extent earlier positions in status hierarchies affect later levels of attainment (Haller, 1973). From their model, Blau and Duncan discovered that while parental positions exercise some significant direct effects, their primary influences on occupational attainment is indirect via educational level (Blau, 1967; Duncan, 1972; Haller, 1967; Haller, 1973).

The second model of status attainment was developed by a group of researchers originally affiliated with the University of Wisconsin. The data was collected from a one-third random sample of Wisconsin's male high school seniors in 1957 (Haller, 1967; Haller, 1973). Information was obtained at the time on parental status, area of residence, and other objective variables as well as on more subjective factors such as significant others' influence and respondent's educational and occupational aspirations (Haller, 1973). The Wisconsin model was first used to describe data on the sub-sample of farm residents. Later on the model was also applied to other areas also such as a village, small city, medium city, and large city in order to verify original results (Haller, 1967; Haller, 1973). Like Blau and Duncan's model, the Wisconsin model came to similar conclusions regarding the causal order of comparable status variables. The model in fact says that particularly all the effect that family's socioeconomic status has on a person's educational and occupational attainment is due to it impact on the types of attainment-related personal influences that the person receives in his adolescence and in particular the educational attainment influence (Haller, 1967; Haller, 1973). In both models, the impact of education is more than twice as strong as any other factor in the models (Haller, 1967; Haller, 1973).

Although wage potential of an individual is not directly related to the class status of their parents (in particular father), the drive/ motivation to earn higher levels of education is directly influenced. With higher levels of education comes higher wage premiums which all combined increase an individual's social status. Given status attainment's assumptions, it would be expected that both men and women from similar family backgrounds could be equally influenced or driven to achieve higher levels of education. However, educational attainment for women has continued to increase, where as men's has continued to decrease. Yet, women with higher levels of education continue to make less than males regardless of educational attainment.

2.2 STRUCTURALIST MODEL

Structuralist models take individuals into consideration as being rational but they place more emphasis on positions within a structure. Within that structure exists an economic hierarchy of which each position has a specific range of income associated with it. It is the position in which an individual occupies that determines their wage potential. For example, if one bus driver has a PhD and the other a high school education, the difference in education level will be irrelevant to the earning potential because of the position (such as a bus driver) that they occupy.

The theory of dual economy centers on the concept of economic concentration. Economic sectors refer to groups of economic organizations which are qualitatively different and internally homogeneous (Coverdill, 1988). Jobs in competitive/ peripheral industries are thought to pay less than jobs in the monopolistic/ core, to provide little or no training, and to offer few prospects for advancement (Coverdill, 1988; O'Connor, 1973). However, industries located within the monopolistic/ core sector have national/global market production, high market share, price setting ability, and high profit potential which results in their ability to also sustain higher wages for their employees (O'Connor, 1973). From the dual economy perspective, organizational

features of firms and industries directly affect earnings (O'Connor, 1973). Monopolistic/ core firms extract monopoly profits from the competitive firms to which they sell, and they demand preferred customer rebates from their suppliers. Many periphery firms exist as satellites of center firms which are their only or main customers (Hodson, 1982). For example, aircraft parts manufactures in relation to aircraft manufactures.

Women are thought to be over represented in the competitive sector (Coverdill, 1988; Hodson, 1982; O'Connor, 1973). Sometimes, women are unable to find employment in the core industries because of institutional barriers erected either capriciously or purposely by firms, by unions, and by the explicit or implicit action of government (Coverdill, 1988). It is also argued that the supply of labor in competitive industries is further labor inflated by workers who want and will accept lower wages to obtain irregular work (Coverdill, 1988). Because women are generally more involved with domestic responsibilities, they are more likely to be willing or forced to take lower waged jobs not located in the core industry in order to work closer to home and have flexible hours.

Defined by Reich, Gordon, and Edwards, the theory of labor market segmentation is, "the historical process whereby political-economic forces encourage the division of the labor market into separate submarkets, or segments, and distinguished by different labor market characteristics and behavioral rules. Thus, segmented labor markets are the outcome of the process of segmentation" (Reich, 1973). These segments may cut horizontally across the occupational hierarchy as well as vertically. The primary sector can be split into the "subordinate" and "independent" jobs (Hodson, 1982; Reich, 1973). Subordinate primary jobs are routinized and encourage employees having personality characteristics of dependability, discipline, responsiveness to rules and authority, and acceptance of a firm's goals. Factory and office jobs

tend to be present in this segment (Reich, 1973). In contrast, independent primary jobs encourage and require creative, problem-solving, self-initiating characteristics and often have professional standards for work. Voluntary turnover is high and individual motivation and achievements are highly rewarded (Dickens, 1988; Reich, 1973). Within these subgroups of the primary sector, are other subgroups. The primary and secondary sectors used in segmented labor market theory are differentiated mainly by stability characteristics. Primary jobs require and develop stable working habits; skills are often acquired on the job; wages are relatively high; and possibilities of job advancement exist (Reich, 1973). Secondary jobs do not require and often discourage stable working habits; wages are low; turnover is high; and advancement opportunities are few. Typically, secondary jobs are mainly (though not exclusively) filled by minority workers, women, and youth (Dickens, 1988; Reich, 1973).

While there are many minorities in both the independent and subordinate groups, there are various subgroups within that that exclude particular populations of people. For instance, certain jobs are "race typed". They are groups that are segregated by prejudice and by labor market institutions. This also occurs with sex. Certain jobs have generally been restricted to men; others to women. Wages in the female segment are usually lower than in comparable male jobs. Female jobs often require and encourage a "serving mentality" (Reich, 1973). This "serving mentality" often directs providing services to men. These characteristics are encouraged by family and schooling institutions (Reich, 1973).

When it comes to landing the job, skills and education seem to have little to do with earning a high wage position. Segmented labor market theory is all about sorting (Dickens, 1985; Dickens, 1988; Hodson, 1982; O'Connor, 1973; Reich, 1973). Males are sorted into primary jobs because many of those jobs are predominately male oriented. These jobs tend to pay much higher

wages and give advancement opportunities (O'Connor, 1973). In order for women to compete for these primary jobs, they have to earn the higher levels of education and prove themselves over in order to be considered. Most of the time, women still hit the ceiling and are sorted into jobs that may be in the primary sector but still limiting (O'Connor, 1973; Reich, 1973). It is not as necessary for men to go to college to earn degrees like women because men are not likely to be as limited as women by the income they can make with no college degree or post college degree. While examining the mechanisms contributing to the decline in college degrees earned by males, a big contributing factor may simply be the ability for males to easily move up into higher segments of the labor market. This may be likely because they are male and regardless of educational degrees earned, they will not easily be segmented out like women and other minorities (Reich, 1973). The higher wage jobs in the labor market may be segmented to be more predominately white male. So, regardless of their educational background, there will always be a job there waiting for them because of their membership in the white male demographic.

2.3 GENDER MODEL

Individualists and structuralists view gender as just a variable but inevitably something that can be overcome. Feminists however see gender as a process of devaluation and sorting. The sex of an individual determines the availability of jobs and high wages that the person may have access. In the gender model, women have been and will continue to be disadvantaged in the labor markets because of crowding in the female labor market, the obstacles placed in front of women who attempt to venture out of their own labor market as well as the obligations they have to the home. On the other hand, men are benefited regardless of their marital status or investment in education and specialized skills or lack there of (Bergmann, 2005).

Within the gender model, lower wages earned outside the home for women is attributed to the role women play within the household. Socially, women have been placed in the role of being the caretaker of the home and children. However, the work and time a woman may put in is not compensated with wage. As a result of no wage, women's work is devalued. This pattern transfers over to jobs women may take outside the home. The jobs that will be available or attractive to women are seen as women's work and therefore devalued with smaller wages. Many feminists argue that by devaluating women's work outside the home with smaller wages, only pushes women back into the home (Bergmann, 2005).

Division of household labor argues that women are economically disadvantaged to men in the labor market because the woman's place is in the home taking care of the house and children and not to be the financial provider (Bergmann, 2005). According to Bergmann, women are paid less in labor markets because culture socially obligates them to the home. According to a study by Coverman, women make less in the labor market because they do more household labor than males (Coverman, 1983). However, due to the lack of employer's employee child care services, government support and limited male support, the burden of childcare is placed upon women. This becomes a double burden for many women because they still have to work.

Unlike division of household labor theory which views the gender gap as a process of sorting, crowding theory attributes the wage gap difference to occupational sex segregation. Crowding theory states that in any market, the commodities that cater to a certain kind of demand are sold, and supply and demand on that market set the price for those commodities. The market that caters to the demand for male labor fills all the jobs open only to men, and dictates the wage for those jobs. Similarly, women workers sell their labor in the market that fills all the jobs open only to women, and sets the wages in those jobs. Women labor segments tend to pay

much less because there is a smaller pool of jobs within the female labor market to compete for. With so many women competing for the small amount of jobs, the wages for those jobs decrease (Bergmann, 2005).

According to crowding theory, it is very possible that the reason that men are less likely to obtain college degrees is because the opportunities in job markets catering especially to men are vast. A majority of those jobs require specialized skills which limit the supply of men to fill the job and increases the demand for men to fill the jobs. With demand, employers tend to offer higher wages. However women have fewer job opportunities within their market and the jobs are high in supply. Jobs that are high in supply have the ability to offer lower wages.

The revolving door perspective can account for extensive sex-type mobility because it recognizes a variety of stages in the career development process, and it recognizes a host of pressures women face. Most women will face one or more barriers to the pursuit of a career at some point; they are likely to overcome some of these and not others (Jacobs, 1999). Thus there are reasons to expect substantial flows of women into and out of male-dominated occupations. In 1984, Marini and Brinton suggested that this process of sorting and segregating males and females in preparation for the labor force begins at a very young age and progresses to adulthood. Jacobs mentions that this segregation process strongly influences the vocational aspirations of males and females (Jacobs, 1999). In other words, a little girl may think she wants to be a fireman but as she becomes more segregated by her gender in social life, her aspirations of being a fireman fall to the waste side and she takes on job aspirations located in the female labor market. On the other hand, if a female still chooses to pursue a career within the male dominated labor market, she is bound to come upon discrimination and other related obstacles. Some women may overcome some obstacles in their way and be very successful. However, no

matter how successful a woman may be, she will always find it difficult be as successful as her male colleagues.

The decrease of males earning college degrees could be attributed to the revolving door perspective. For instance, many females may want a job within the male dominated labor market, but they set their aspirations on practical women jobs because they stumble across obstacles which push them out. The revolving door perspective does not consider education between the sexes to make a difference within the job market. No matter how much education or other credentials an individual may have, the only thing that matters in the male dominated job market is whether you are male or not.

Job queues and gender queues theory argue that society grants men first choice of jobs and men select the most attractive ones available (Reskin, 1990). When women enter into labor markets that were at one point predominately male the overall wages of those labor markets decrease. As a result, males leave these labor markets in search of jobs that will pay higher wages. Job queues and labor queues govern labor market outcomes. Employers hire workers from as high in the labor queue as possible and workers accept the best jobs available to them. As a result, the best jobs go to the most preferred workers and less attractive jobs go to workers in low labor queue (Reskin, 1990). By definition, queues are composed of ordered elements (occupation, jobs, subgroups, and workers) and their ordering dictates which groups end up in which jobs (Reskin, 1990). Queues can be characterized by three structural properties: the ordering of elements (jobs groups and workers), their shape (the relative sizes of various elements, population, subgroups in the labor queue and occupations in the job queues), and the intensity of the ranker's preference. Changes within these properties redistribute groups across occupations (Reskin, 1990).

In application towards the decline of males earning college degrees, the increase of females entering into once male dominated labor markets (which require college degrees) causes the average wages for that particular market to go down. Men choose to leave these occupations in search of markets (that tend to exclude women) that will allow them to earn higher wages. Basically when college was readily available to men and not women, men took advantage of it because it helped to place them in job sectors that were out of reach for women. However, once the increase of college enrollment for females began to take place, fewer and fewer labor markets that were once out of reach for women are now more in their grasp. The sheer presence of women in a labor market sector causes the wages to decrease.

2.4 ALTERNATIVE MODEL

Gender   Structural

Individual   Income
(Wright,1992)
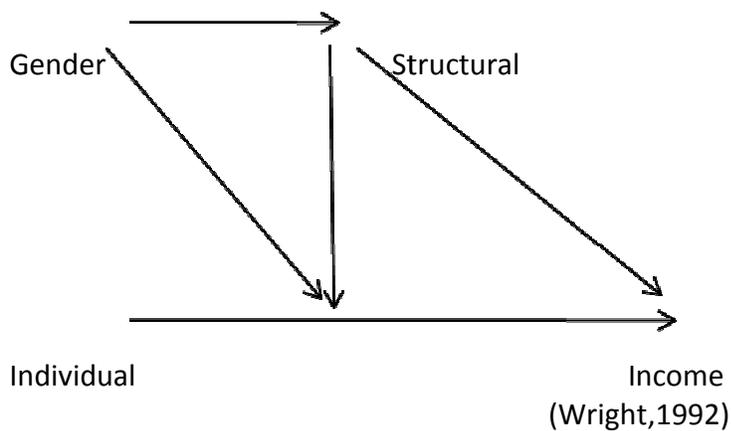
The income determination model consists of three parts: Individual, Structural, and Gender. The individual segment views individual's as rational beings that will choose options that afford them the most benefits regardless of long term outcomes. The individualist models also state that humans will invest within themselves (in most cases education) if they believe there will be intrinsic and extrinsic returns. In regards to degree attainment, the more education and investment one makes in themselves, the greater their financial return will be. The

12

stucturalist argue the positions within the structure determine the rate of return. For example in various industries, individuals who are placed in managerial positions (monopolistic) will have higher wages than positions within service (competitive) regardless as whether the service worker has a higher level or education than the manager. While applied to the structuralist school of thought, the decrease in educational attainment for males may be attributed to factors related to the insignificance of education among many positions in the economic hierarchy (especially within the monopolistic sector). Feminists within the gender model believe women are devaluated, sorted, and segregated into jobs within the labor market with small rates of return. A woman chooses to enter into the work force, will first have her work be devalued because she is a female and her proper place is in the home. As a result, she will be sorted into work sectors in which wages are lower (competitive sector). If a woman does choose to enter into a male dominated work field, she will still experience many hurdles which will eventually push her back out of the male dominated work sector and into more traditional feminine jobs to complete with other women for low wages. Within the gender model, educational attainment, experience, and other credentials have little to do with landing a job with high wages, but everything to do with the sex of an individual.

3. METHODS

3.1 HYPOTHESIS

Individual model hypothesis:

1. Net of other factors, increases in age will lead to increases in wages.

2. Net of other factors, increases in educational attainment will lead to increases in wages.

Structural model hypothesis:

3. Net of other factors, it is predicted higher skilled occupations within the labor market will lead to higher earnings.

4. Net of other factors, it is predicted that the goods industry will lead to increases in wages.

Gender model hypothesis:

5. Net of other factors, it is predicted that being a woman will lead to a decrease in wages.

6. Net of other factors, being a member of a minority will lead to a decrease in wages.

3.2 DATA:

The data for this study came from the March 2007 Current Population Survey (CPS). The survey is conducted monthly by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of labor statistics. The main purpose of CPS is to collect information on the employment situation. However, the CPS also collects information on the demographic status of the population such as age, sex, race, marital status, educational attainment, and family structure. From time to time, questions pertaining to health, education, and work experience may also be included. 72,000 households are set for interviews monthly and approximately 57,000 of them containing roughly 112,000 persons 15 years old and over are interviewed. 450 Armed Forces members living with civilians either on or off base within these households are included.

For the purpose of this study, restrictions were made to select only civilians working full year, full-time or part-time jobs for a wage. Respondents who were self employed were removed. In addition, respondents with current military spouses living outside the household were also removed. Age restrictions were set to only include respondents whose age ranged from 25 years to 59 years. The sample restriction on income selects only those who are making at least $258 to

$100,000 yearly. The sample size of this study was, 58,665. It includes 29,080 males and 29,585 females.

The Current Population Survey provides a population weight. Weights allow generalizability across the United States population. However, in some statistical packages, weights can create biased population parameters that increase the probability of a type one error. To minimize the probability of a type one error, a relative weight was applied. Dividing the weight by its mean creates the relative weight. Relative weights maintain the sample size, but generate the distribution of weighted population data.

3.3 VARIABLES

3.3.1 DEPENDENT VARIABLE

The dependent variable for this study is an interval level measure of annual earnings ranging from $258 to $100,000. Normally, income is prone to be highly skewed. Most scholars fix this by calculating the log for annual wages. In this case however, the annual earnings variable was not greatly skewed due to the sample restriction. For this reason, annual earnings were left in dollars. Quintiles and centiles were also created to examine income distributions.

3.3.2 INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variables from the individual model segment include: age, educational attainment, and residential location. Age is an interval level variable measured in years with a range of 25-59 years. It is expected that with increases in age, income increases due to gaining work experience. Educational attainment is a five level ordinal variable with levels: no high school diploma, high school diploma, some college, college degree, and graduate degree. Binary variables were created for each category of degree as well as a binary for those with a college degree or higher. It is predicted that wages will increase as educational attainment increases. Location variables

include both residential location as well as regional location. Both are nominal variables. Region haves four categories: northeast, Midwest, south, and west. Residential location includes: rural and urban. A binary was created for individuals working in the south as it has been shown that people working in the southern region are more likely to receive lower wages. A binary variable was also created for those living in the rural areas. It is predicted that individuals living in the rural areas will report less income.

Variables in the structural model segment include: hours worked per week, work status, occupation level variable, industry, size of company, class of worker, and union membership. Hours worked per week is an interval level variable. It is predicted that an increase of hours worked per week, will lead to an increase in wages. The occupation level variable is a four level ordinal variable with the following value labels: white collar high skill (managers and professionals), white collar low skill (clerical and sales), blue collar high skill (precision craft and transportation), and blue collar low skill (service and labor). Binary variables were created for each category of level of occupation. It is predicted that increases in skill and position will lead to increases in wages. The level of industry is a nominal variable with value labels: agricultural, goods, services, and government. From this variable, a binary level variable was created to denote the goods producing sector. It is predicted that individuals in the goods industry will have higher wages than those in the service industry. Size of company is a three level ordinal variable with values: small (10-24 employees), medium (25-99 employees), and large (100+ employees). Binaries were created for each level of company size. It is predicted that increase in size of company will lead to an increase in wages. Class of worker is a four level nominal variable with values: private, federal, state, and local. A binary was created for individuals who worked in the federal sector of work class. It is predicted that those will work

for the government, will earn higher wages than those who don't work in the government sector. Union membership is a binary level variable. It is predicted that individuals who are in unions will make higher wages than those who are not members of a union.

Variables in the gender model segment include: sex, marital status, type of household, occupational sex segregation, presence of children, race/ethnicity, minority status, and immigrant status. Sex is a two level nominal variable with values: male and female. A binary level variable was created for female. It is predicted that being female will lead to decreases in wages. Marital status is a seven level nominal level variable with values: married-civilian spouse present, married-air force spouse present, married-spouse absent, widowed, divorced, separated, and never married. Marital status was condensed into a three level nominal variable with value labels: married, ever married, and never married. Binaries were created for each of the three levels of marital status. It is predicted marital status will lead to a decrease in wages. Type of household is a three level nominal level variable that was created from family type and kind of family. The values for type of household are: husband and wife, single person, and alone. Occupational sex segregation variable measures the concentration of females within job markets. It is derived by taking the percent of females within each three digit occupation divided by the percent of females within each occupation, divided by percent of women in the labor force. Values equal to one mean that men and women are equally represented, greater than one mean that women are over represented, and less than one meaning that women are underrepresented. Presence of children is comprised of two interval level variables: number of persons under the age of six and number of persons under the age of eighteen. Binaries were created for both variables. It is predicted that the presence of children will lead to decrease in wages. Race/Ethnicity is a nominal level variable that was created from race and Hispanic variable.

Race/Ethnicity's values are: white non-Hispanic, black non-Hispanic, Hispanic, and other non-Hispanic. A binary level variable was created for each of the four value labels as well as a binary for minority. The minority binary was created by examining wages earned by each group. It was determined that white non-Hispanic and other non-Hispanic earned the highest wages. Black non-Hispanic and Hispanic are economically considered minority. It is predicted that minority status will lead to a decrease in wages. Immigrant is a binary created from birth status variable. It is predicted that immigrant status will lead to a decrease in wages.

4.0 RESULTS

4.1 TABLE 1A

When looking at data from full-time full-year working men and women, table 1, women earn less annually than men, $30,827 versus $40,296. Among individual level factors, women are less likely than men to have less than a high school diploma or equivalent than men 7.4% versus 12.1%. Women are less likely than men to earn a high school diploma or the equivalent 28.8% versus 33.6%. Women are more likely than men to have some college 30.5% versus 27.1%. Women are more likely to earn a college degree than men 22.7% versus 19.2%. Women are more likely to earn a graduate or professional degree than men 10.7% versus 8.0%. Women are the same age as men, 41.4 versus. 40.5 years. There is no difference between men and women who live in rural locations 15.3% versus 15.1%. There is a slight difference between women and men who live in the southern region of the United States, 36.3% versus 35.3%.

4.2 TABLE 1B

Among structural level factors, women are more likely to work part-time hours than men, 17.1% versus 4.2%. Women worked fewer hours per week than men, 38.3 versus 42.6. Women are less likely to work for the government (2.9% versus 3.6%), less likely to be members of a

union (2.3% versus 2.9%), less likely to work for companies occupying less than ten employees (10.4% versus 12.7%), and less likely to work for companies occupying ten to ninety nine employees (14.8% versus 17.5%). Women are more likely to work for companies occupying more than one hundred employees, 74.8% versus 69.8%. Women are less likely to work in the good producing sectors, 11% versus 34%. Women work in white-collar high-skill jobs more often than men, 46% versus 29% and more often work in white-collar low-skill than men, 33% versus 16%. Women are less likely to work in blue-collar high-skill jobs than men, 4% versus 32%. Women are less likely to work in blue-collar low-skill jobs than men, 17% versus 24%. Women are more likely to work in occupations with higher prestige than men 46.1% versus 42.1%.

Among gender level factors, women are more likely to work in occupations where women are more likely to fill the position than men 1.41 versus .62. Women are less likely to be married than men, 61% versus 63.9%. Women are more likely than men at one time to have been married, 20.9% versus 13.7%. Women are less likely than men to have never been married (18.2% versus 22.4%), less likely to have children under the age of six in their household than men (18.8% versus 20.5%), less likely to declare themselves minority than men (26.5% versus 28.6%), and less likely to be of immigrant status than men (13.5% versus 18.2%).

4.3 TABLE 2

Regardless of one's job requirements in terms of educational credentials, the pay gap is fairly consistent ranging from 62%-72%. There are higher concentrations of men in jobs that require less education; whereas, women are more concentrated in jobs that require higher levels of education. Such as 14.5% of men versus 7.7% of women work in jobs that require only a high school diploma. Also, men make more in each lower level compared to the next higher level than

females. For instance, men with a high school diploma and some college make $35,000 versus women who have a college degree only earn $30,000.

4.4 TABLE 3

In jobs that require a high school diploma, the total median earnings are $20,000. Women are less likely than men to work in jobs that are above the total median earnings, 5.6% versus 43.3%. Women are more likely than men to work in jobs that provide earnings below the total median earnings, 41.5% versus 24.6%. When separated out by types of jobs and the percent concentration for males and females, women are less likely than men to work in construction/extractive jobs, 1.5% versus 29.7%. Median earnings for construction/extraction jobs are $26,000. Women are less likely than men to work in installation/repair jobs, 0.1% versus 1.0%. Median earnings for installation/repair jobs are $28,000. Women are less likely than men to work in production high-skill jobs, 3.1% versus 4.4%. Median earnings for production high-skill jobs are $25,981. Women are less likely than men to work in transportation high-skill jobs, 0.9% versus 8.2%. Median earnings for transportation high-skill jobs are $27,500. Women are more likely than men to work in food preparation & service jobs, 28.9% versus 14.2%. Median earnings for food preparation & service jobs are $15,000. Women are more likely than men to work in building grounds maintenance jobs, 34.7% versus 23.7%. Median earnings for building grounds maintenance jobs are $20,000. Women are less likely than men to work in farm, fish and forestry jobs, 4.4% versus 5.3%. Median earnings for farm, fish and forestry jobs are $18,200. Women are more likely than men to work in production low-skill jobs, 17.9% versus 8.1%. Median earnings for production low-skill jobs are $20,000. Women are more likely than men to work in transportation low-skill jobs, 8.2% versus 5.1%. Median earnings for transportation low-skill jobs are $18,959.

4.5 FIGURE 2

Figure two shows the different concentration of jobs that hold 90% of men and 90% of women. There are only 21 occupations in which women concentrate 90% or more versus 134 occupations in which men concentrate 90% or more. Because there are is such a demand for men to fill those 134 different occupations, employers have to be competitive with wages and offer more money to fill the positions. Within occupations for women, the opposite is true. There is less demand to fill the 21 occupations and employers can offer less money to fill the position.

4.2 Multivariate Analysis

4.6 TABLE 4

The Adjusted R-sq is .553. This indicates that 55% of the variance is explained by the model. Regardless of all the other factors controlled, women are still paid less. As it was predicted in hypothesis #5, net of other factors, being woman will lead to a decrease in wages. Women receive -$4,751.43 less than men do annually. As hypothesized in #1, wage will increase with every unit of age net of other factors. For the full sample, income increases by $216.51. However, men receive a greater rate of return on age $227.14 versus $178.81. As hypothesized in #2, wage will increase with every unit of educational attainment, net of other factors. According to the full sample, people with a graduate level of education make more than those with a high school diploma $18,140.84 versus $4,107.60. However, men with a high school diploma, some college, and college degree receive a greater rate of return than women. As Hypothesized in #3, higher skilled occupations will lead to an increase in wages net of other factors. For the full sample, income increases for white-collar high skill by $11,473.63 versus blue collar high-skill $4,740.86. However, men receive a greater rate of return for white-collar high skill and blue-collar high skill jobs, $13,632.54 versus $9,754.59 and $5,222.94 versus

21

$2,522.82. As hypothesized in #4, those who work in the good producing sector will earn more than those who do not work in the goods producing sector, net of other factors. According to the full sample, those in the goods producing sector earn $2,589.69 more than those who are not. As hypothesized in #6, those who identify themselves as minority will earn less than those who do not identify themselves as minority, net of other factors. According to the full sample, minorities will earn 2,385.52 less than those who are not minority. However, men who identify themselves as minority earn $3,118.91 less versus women who earn $1,715.89.

4.7 TABLE 5

As it was predicted, higher skilled occupations within the labor market that require higher degrees of educational attainment will lead to increases in wages, net of other factors. According to the full sample, occupations that require a college degree make $22,063.86 more annually than occupations that require only a high school diploma. In occupations that require a college degree in which wages between men and women are significantly different, women make $20,522.10 more annually than women who are in jobs that only require a high school diploma. Men make $23,964.33 more annually than men in jobs that require only a high school diploma. Occupations that require high school diploma to a college degree make $11,755.29 more annually than jobs that only require a high school diploma. In occupations that require a high school to a college degree in which wages between men and women are significantly different, women make $10,305.90 more a year than women who are in jobs that only require a high school diploma. Men earn $13,648.56 more a year than men who work in jobs that only require a high school diploma. Occupations that require a high school diploma to some college make $6,295.72 more annually than jobs that only require a high school diploma. Women in occupations that require a high school diploma to some college earn $5,361.40 more a year than women who work in jobs

22

that only require a high school diploma. Men who work in occupations that require a high school diploma or some college earn $5,985.17 more annually than men who work in jobs that only require a high school diploma.

5. CONCLUSION

5.1 DISCUSSION/ HYPOTHESIS

Among the individual level factors, as it was hypothesized in #1, increases in age lead to increases in wage, net of other factors. However, the increases in wages benefited men more than women. Previous literature indicated that investing in ones human capital would lead to increases in wage. As it was hypothesized in #2, net of other factors, increases in educational attainment will lead to increases in wages. However, men consistently held wages higher than women who had attained one level higher of education. Previous literature within the structural model indicated that the level of prestige a position held within the labor market would dictate the wage associated. Among the structural level factors, as it was hypothesized in #3, higher skilled positions within the labor market lead to increases in wage, net of other factors. However men benefited more than women financially in the white-collar high skill and blue-collar high skills jobs. As it was hypothesized in #4, net of other factors, individuals in the good producing sectors will earn more annually than individuals who do not work in the good producing sectors. Previous literature within the gender model discussed that regardless of other factors such as education, age, social class, and occupational prestige, to identify oneself as a woman would lead to a decrease in wages. As #5 predicted, women earn less than men, net of all other factors. Finally, as it was also predicted in #6, to be a minority will lead to a decrease in wages, net of other factors.

5.2 LIMITATIONS

There are three main limitations that are apparent in this study. First, by using cross-sectional data, the indicators may not capture the effect of recent changes, such as if one had gotten a divorce, been promoted/demoted, and so forth right before the survey period. The impact of those changes may not yet appear in the annual wages. Second, there is a lack of employment history. One cannot tell from the data the duration in a particular job, promotions, raises, time that may have been taken off from work, est. Third, there is no data on local markets and what jobs actually exist.

5.3 FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS/POLICY IMPLICATIONS

There are four main policy areas needing attention. First, there need to be stiffer penalties and enforcement of discrimination and equal pay laws, such as affirmative action. Secondly, there needs to be an institution of comparable worth program for wage determination. By having such programs, will create a set standard as to how wages per job should be determined. This standard would hopefully relieve some of the wage inequality. Thirdly, to increase occupation integration for women, with the hopes to reduce occupational sex segregation. Finally, due to the lack of childcare support by employers, the government and men, there needs to be an increase in support from all three areas in order to reduce women's burdens of childcare and give them the same opportunity to pursue their careers as fully as men.

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APPENDICIES

TABLE 1A
Values for Full Sample by Sex

Variables:	Full Sample	Men [1] [2]	Women	pay-gap
Annual earnings (mean):	$35,464	$40,296 *** ^	$30,827	76.5%
Annual earnings (median):	$33,000	$39,000	$28,600	73.3%
(stddev):	(19670)	(20017)	(18160)	
Full-time Full-year only:				
Annual earnings (mean):	$40,067	$43,549 *** ^	$36,085	82.9%
Annual earnings (median):	$38,000	$41,000	$34,000	82.9%
(stddev):	(18161)	(18730)	(38000)	
% less than HS dipl (0,1)	9.7%	12.1% ***	7.4%	
	0.3	0.3	0.3	
% high sch diploma (0,1)	31.1%	33.6% ***	28.8%	
	0.5	0.5	0.5	
% some college (0,1)	28.8%	27.1% ***	30.5%	
	0.5	0.4	0.5	
% college degree (0,1)	21.0%	19.2% ***	22.7%	
	0.4	0.4	0.4	
% graduate/professional degree (0,1)	9.4%	8.0% ***	10.7%	
	0.3	0.3	0.3	
% high school diploma or less	40.9%	45.7% *** ^	36.2%	
% college degree or higher	30.3%	27.2% *** ^	33.3%	
Age (years)	41.0	40.5 ***	41.4	
	(9.8)	(9.8)	(9.7)	
% Rural (0,1)	15.2%	15.1%	15.3%	
	(0.4)	(0.4)	(0.4)	
% South (0,1)	35.9%	35.5% *	36.3%	
	(0.5)	(0.5)	(0.5)	
Sample n (weighted):	58,665	29,080	29,585	
	100.0%	49.6%	50.4%	

[1] = *** p< 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05
[2] = effect size great = > .20

30

TABLE 1B
Values for Full Sample by Sex

Variables:	Full Sample	Men	[1]	[2]	Women
Structural- level factors:					
% Part-time (0,1)	10.8%	4.2%	***	^	17.1%
	(0.3)	(0.2)			(0.4)
Hours per week	40.4	42.6	***	^	38.3
(median)	40.0	40.0			40.0
	(8.9)	(8.2)			(9.1)
Annual hours	2109.7	2109.7	***	^	1851.9
(median)	2080.0	2080.0			2080.0
	(589.8)	(545.7)			(602.9)
% Government (0,1)	3.2%	3.6%	***		2.9%
	(0.2)	(0.2)			(0.2)
% Union member (0,1)	2.6%	2.9%	***		2.3%
	(0.2)	(0.2)			(0.2)
% company < 10 employees (0,1)	11.5%	12.7%	***		10.4%
	(0.3)	0.3			0.3
% company 10 to 99 employees (0,1)	16.1%	17.5%	***		14.8%
	0.4	0.4			0.4
% Company > 100 employees (0,1)	72.4%	69.8%	***		74.8%
	0.4	0.5			0.4
% Goods-producing industry (0,1)	22.0%	34.0%	***	^	11.0%
	0.4	0.5			0.3
% White-collar High-skill (0,1)	38.0%	29.0%	***	^	46.0%
	0.5	0.5			0.5
% White-collar Low-skill (0,1)	24.0%	16.0%	***	^	33.0%
	0.4	0.4			0.5
% Blue-collar High-skill (0,1)	18.0%	32.0%	***	^	4.0%
	0.4	0.5			0.2
% Blue-collar Low-skill (0,1)	20.0%	24.0%	***		17.0%
	0.4	0.4			0.4
Occupational Prestige	44.12	42.11	***	^	46.05
	13.4	(13.2)			(13.3)
Gender:					
Occupational Sex-Segregation	1.02	0.62	***	^	1.41
	(0.7)	(0.5)			(0.5)
% Married (0,1)	62.4%	63.9%	***		61.0%
	(0.5)	(0.5)			(0.5)
% Ever-married (0,1)	17.4%	13.7%	***	^	20.9%
	(0.4)	(0.3)			(0.4)
% Never-married (0,1)	20.3%	22.4%	***		18.2%
	(0.4)	(0.4)			(0.4)
% with children under 6 (0,1)	19.6%	20.5%	***		18.8%
	(0.4)	(0.4)			(0.4)
% Minority (0,1)	27.3%	28.1%	***		26.5%
	(0.4)	(0.4)			(0.4)
% Immigrant (0,1)	15.8%	18.2%	***		13.5%
	(0.4)	(0.4)			(0.3)
Sample n (weighted):	58,665	29,080			29,585
	100.0%	49.6%			50.4%

[1] = *** p< 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05

[2] = effect size great = > .20

Table 2

Distribution of Males/Females by Job Educational Requirements

Jobs that require:	Percent concentarion				Annual earnings				
	male	1	2	female	male	1	2	female	pay-gap
total	100.0%			100.0%	$39,000	***	^	$28,600	73.3%
High Sch diploma	14.5%	***	^	7.7%	$24,000	***	^	$15,000	62.5%
HS dipl & some college	44.3%	***	^	37.4%	$35,000	***	^	$22,100	63.1%
3 dipl, some college, college degree	18.6%	***	^	23.2%	$43,000	***	^	$30,000	69.8%
Some college, college degree	10.4%	***	^	14.3%	$52,000	***	^	$43,000	82.7%
College degree	12.1%	***	^	17.4%	$55,000	***	^	$40,000	72.7%

1 = *** p< 0.001; ** p < 0.01; * p < 0.05
2 = effect size great = > .20

Table 3
Occupational Sex Segregation and Median Earnings for
Jobs that Require a High School Diploma

Jobs requiring High Sch Diploma	percent concentarion		earnings	
	male	female	total	
Total	100%	100%	$20,000	
construction/extractive	29.7%	1.5%	$26,000	(above)
installation/repair	1.0%	0.1%	$28,000	(above)
production high-skill	4.4%	3.1%	$25,981	(above)
transportation high-skill	8.2%	0.9%	$27,500	(above)
food preparation & service	14.2%	28.9%	$15,000	(below)
building grounds maintenance	23.7%	34.7%	$20,000	
farm,fish,forestry	5.3%	4.4%	$18,200	(below)
production low-skill	8.1%	17.9%	$20,000	
transportation low-skill	5.1%	8.2%	$18,959	(below)
percent job above median:	43.3%	5.6%		
percent jobs below median:	24.6%	41.5%		

Figure 2
Median Annual Earnings in Occupations
which are 90% Male or Female, 2007

Occupations with 90% or more Women (21 jobs)

Occupations with 90% or more Men (134 jobs)
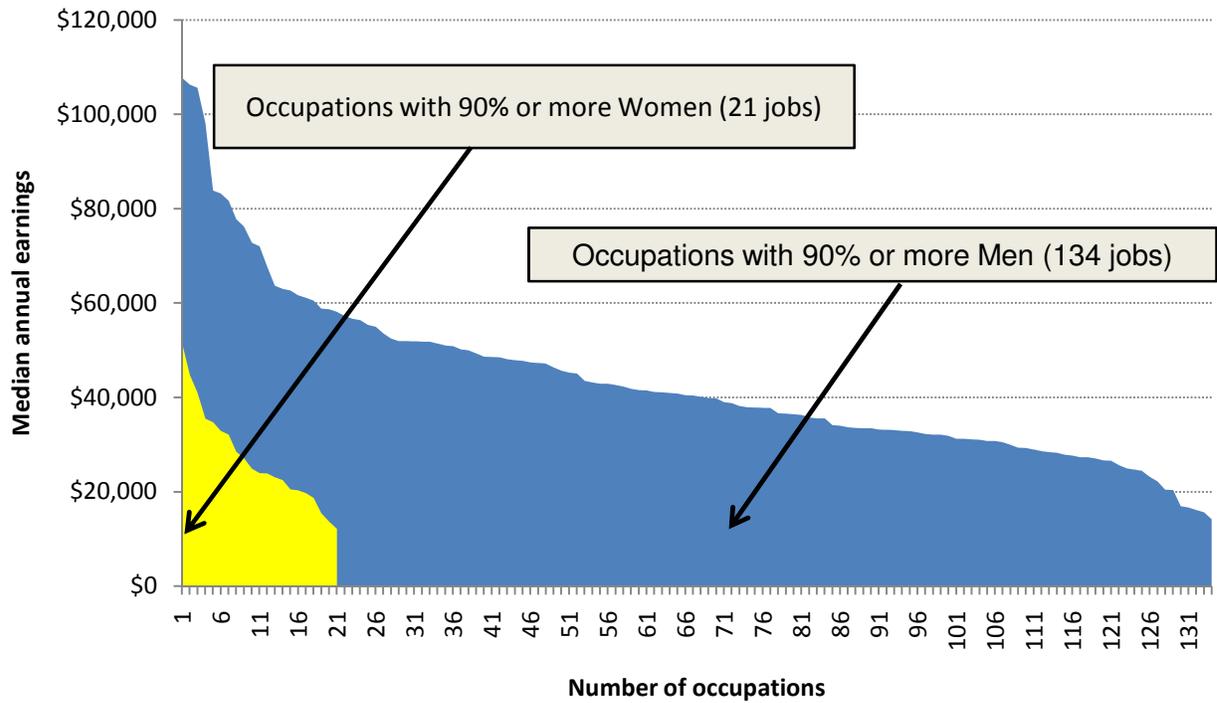
Median annual earnings

Number of occupations

TABLE 4

OLS Regression Analysis for the Income Determination Model
(Dependent variable=annual wages)

Predictors:	Full Sample			Men				Women		
	Unstd.	[1]	Std.	Unstd.	[1]	Std.	[2]	Unstd.	[1]	Std.
Individulal-level factors:										
age (years)	$216.51	***	0.108	$227.14	***	0.111	<>	$178.81	***	0.096
age squared	-$10.44	***	-0.047	-$13.26	***	-0.059	<>	-$7.67	***	-0.038
graduate level or higher (0,1)	$18,140.84	***	0.269	$18,215.70	***	0.247		$17,487.05	***	0.297
college degree (0,1)	$13,145.02	***	0.272	$13,694.52	***	0.269	<>	$12,079.95	***	0.278
some college (0,1)	$7,679.04	***	0.177	$8,384.59	***	0.186	<>	$6,238.75	***	0.158
high sch diploma (0,1)	$4,107.60	***	0.097	$5,000.43	***	0.118	<>	$2,579.83	***	0.064
less than HS dipl. (0,1)	ref/grp			ref.grp.				ref.grp.		
rural residence (0,1)	-$4,369.59	***	-0.080	-$4,554.83	***	-0.081		-$4,131.60	***	-0.082
south region residence (0,1)	-$2,327.40	***	-0.057	-$2,551.53	***	-0.061		-$2,170.05	***	-0.057
Structural-level factors:										
annual work hours	$14.94	***	0.448	$14.54	***	0.396	<>	$14.96	***	0.497
white-collar high-skill	$11,473.63	***	0.283	$13,632.54	***	0.310	<>	$9,754.59	***	0.268
white-collar low-skill	$5,012.62	***	0.109	$5,082.49	***	0.092		$4,533.76	***	0.117
blue-collar high-skill	$4,740.86	***	0.092	$5,222.94	***	0.121	<>	$2,522.82	***	0.028
blue-collar low-skill	ref/grp			ref.grp.				ref.grp.		
goods-producing (0,1)	$2,589.69	***	0.055	$2,358.11	***	0.056		$2,469.62	***	0.043
government worker (0,1)	$8,464.54	***	0.076	$8,007.01	***	0.074		$8,710.00	***	0.081
union member (0,1)	$2,921.49	***	0.024	$3,354.66	***	0.028		$2,467.71	***	0.021
num employees at company	$3.80	***	0.082	$4.46	***	0.095	<>	$3.09	***	0.071
Gender:										
female (0,1)	-$4,751.43	***	-0.121							
occupational sex segregation	-$3,972.17	***	-0.132	-$5,328.68	***	-0.139	<>	-$3,042.42	***	-0.088
married (0,1)	$2,638.77	***	0.065	$4,742.51	***	0.114	<>	$781.82	***	0.021
has child under age 6 (0,1)	$1,277.82	***	0.026	$719.87		0.015		$1,018.30	***	0.022
minority (exc asian) (0,1)	-$2,385.52	***	-0.054	-$3,118.91	***	-0.070	<>	-$1,715.89	***	-0.042
immigrant (0,1)	-$2,423.87	***	-0.045	-$2,559.13	***	-0.049		-$1,897.49	***	-0.036
(Constant):	-12,362	***		-13,418	***			-13,632	***	
Adjusted R-sq.	0.553	***		0.524	***			0.543	***	
n=	55,293			27,077				28,216		

[1]=*** p<0.001; ** p<0.01; * p<0.05; ns non-significant

[2] significant difference between men and women at the .05 level or higher

TABLE 5
OLS Regression Analysis for the Income Determination Model
(Dependent variable=annual wages)

Predictors:	Full Sample			Men			Women		
	Unstd. [1]		Std.	Unstd. [1]		Std. [2]	Unstd. [1]		Std.
req. college degree	$22,063.86	***	0.499	$23,964.33	***	0.500 <>	$20,552.10	***	0.527
req HS, some col., col deg.	$11,755.29	***	0.243	$13,648.56	***	0.265 <>	$10,305.90	***	0.240
req. HS dipl or some college	$6,295.72	***	0.157	$5,985.17	***	0.149	$5,361.40	***	0.143
req. HS diploma only	ref.grp.			ref.grp.			ref.grp.		
Individulal-level factors:									
age (years)	$207.81	***	0.103	$226.82	***	0.111 <>	$159.37	***	0.085
age squared	-$9.65	***	-0.044	-$12.10	***	-0.054 <>	-$7.13	***	-0.035
rural residence (0,1)	-$4,946.59	***	-0.090	-$5,216.05	***	-0.093	-$4,634.63	***	-0.092
south region residence (0,1)	-$2,591.61	***	-0.063	-$2,914.38	***	-0.070 <>	-$2,396.92	***	-0.063
Structural-level factors:									
annual work hours	$15.06	***	0.451	$14.55	***	0.397 <>	$15.11	***	0.502
goods-producing (0,1)	$3,268.14	***	0.069	$3,622.64	***	0.086 <>	$2,190.52	***	0.038
government worker (0,1)	$9,819.85	***	0.088	$9,911.52	***	0.092	$9,617.21	***	0.089
union member (0,1)	$3,393.47	***	0.027	$3,448.50	***	0.029	$3,326.72	***	0.028
num employees at company	$3.94	***	0.085	$4.88	***	0.104 <>	$3.20	***	0.074
Gender:									
female (0,1)	-$5,216.04	***	-0.133						
occupational sex segregation	-$2,660.74	***	-0.089	-$5,182.30		-0.135 <>	-$1,094.25		-0.032
married (0,1)	$2,682.14	***	0.066	$4,793.80	***	0.115 <>	$656.12	**	0.018
has child under age 6 (0,1)	$1,312.97	***	0.027	$649.86		0.013	$1,053.65	***	0.023
minority (exc asian) (0,1)	-$3,361.21	***	-0.076	-$4,155.24	***	-0.093 <>	-$2,633.64	***	-0.064
immigrant (0,1)	-$2,234.70	***	-0.041	-$2,565.91	***	-0.049 <>	-$1,307.74	***	-0.025
(Constant):	-10003	***		-9988	***		-13455	***	
Adjusted R-sq.	0.530	***		0.501	***		0.521	***	
n=	55,292			27,076			28,215		

[1]=*** p<0.001; ** p<0.01; * p<0.05; ns non-significant
[2] significant difference between men and women at the .05 level or higher