

WHO'S YOUR DADDY?:
A COMPARISON OF INTERGENERATIONAL MOBILITY OF SOCIOECONOMIC
STATUS FOR SONS AND DAUGHTERS.

A Thesis by

Angela Drake

B.A., Wichita State University, 2005

Submitted to the department of Sociology
and the faculty of the Graduate School of
Wichita State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts

May 2007

© Copyright 2007 by Angela Drake

All Rights Reserved

WHO'S YOUR DADDY?:
A COMPARISON OF INTERGENERATIONAL MOBILITY OF SOCIOECONOMIC
STATUS FOR SONS AND DAUGHTERS.

I have examined the final copy of this Thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted for the degree of Master of Arts with a major in Sociology.

David W. Wright, Committee Chair

We have read this Thesis and recommend its acceptance.

Twlya Hill, Committee Member

Carolyn Shaw, Committee Member

DEDICATION

For Anastacia Ray

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor Dr. David Wright, who always seemed to know when I needed an encouraging word, for all of his assistance and support. Also a special thanks to Dr. Twyla Hill for the opportunity to learn so very much from her and for always believing in me. My family has sacrificed so much to make this possible, thank you Ryan. And finally, to my friends, especially Artrica Thomas for her encouragement and Rochelle Rowley for setting the pace, I could not have come this far without you.

ABSTRACT

Intergenerational mobility is of interest to social scientists, in part due to the persistence of the quest for the “American Dream”. Intergenerational mobility is a gauge of the opportunities each group has to increase their privilege, class, and income. In addition, it helps researchers understand the way our society creates class structures. Many studies have addressed intergenerational mobility, focusing on socioeconomic status (socioeconomic status) of fathers and its effect on their sons. Other studies have looked at father’s effect on son’s and daughter’s occupational mobility, but the effect of father’s socioeconomic status on daughter’s socioeconomic status has been overlooked thus far. This study examined the intergenerational mobility of socioeconomic status and if there are differences in the transmission of father’s socioeconomic status to their sons and daughters. Secondary data analysis of the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (1979-2002) was used for the analysis. A model was created in order to examine three sets of relevant theories: individual, structural, and gender-level. Univariate, bivariate and ordinary least squares (OLS) regression were utilized for analysis. Bivariate analysis shows that sons have higher socioeconomic status than daughters. OLS regression results indicate that father’s socioeconomic status has a positive effect on children’s socioeconomic status, net of other factors, but no statistical difference was found between sons and daughters.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. Introduction	1
2. Literature Review	2
Individual Model.....	2
Structural Model	6
Gender Model	9
Conceptual Model.....	14
3. Data and Methodology	14
3.1 Data	15
3.2 Variables	16
3.2.1 Dependent Variables.....	16
3.2.2 Independent Variables	16
3.2.2.1 Individual Level	16
3.2.2.2. Structural Level	18
3.2.2.3 Gender Level	19
4. Results	21
4.1 Univariate and Bivariate Analysis	21
4.2 Multivariate Analysis.....	24
5. Discussion	26
5.2 Limitations	28
6. References	30
7. Appendices	34

1. Introduction

Intergenerational mobility is of immense interest to social scientists and citizens. Intergenerational mobility is a gauge of the opportunities each group has to increase their privilege, class, and income. In addition, it helps researchers understand the way our society creates and maintains class structures (Nam, 2004). Many studies have addressed intergenerational mobility, focusing on socioeconomic status of the fathers and its effect on their sons. The effect of father's socioeconomic status on daughter's socioeconomic status has been overlooked thus far in research (Chadwick & Solon, 2002). Past researchers have used use same-sex patterning as the reasoning for not addressing daughters in their research, claiming that daughters pattern their behavior concurrent with their mothers and not their fathers (Stevens, 1986). Due to a lack of longitudinal data for mothers intergenerational research has not been able to examine this relationship.

Socioeconomic status is normally measured as a composite of education, occupational prestige, and income; all three components are a reflection of both past and present action and economical positions. The social mobility literature is largely comprised of three models: the individualist, the structuralist, and gender models. Individual theorists explain social mobility as a result of differing amounts of human capital and the effects of family background. Individuals have agency and make choices regarding the costs versus benefits (time, effort, and financial vs. increased wage and prestige) in order to maximize their own and their children's utility through human capital investments (Becker, 1974). Therefore the degree of value an individual's parents place on human capital investments, such as education, affects the individual's own attainment (Becker, 1991). In addition, employers make decisions on wages based on the level of productivity enhancing skills an individual holds (Becker, 1974). The structural

model argues that independent of individual attributes, income inequalities are based on the hierarchal economic position in which workers are located. Workers in the primary segment or positions are paid higher wages with increased benefits compared to those in the secondary segment or positions (Gordon, Edwards, and Reich, 1982). The gender model maintains that income inequalities are based upon a process of devaluation and sorting that places women into lower level and stereotypically female positions (Hartmann, 1979). Independent of individual attributes, women therefore lack the opportunity to obtain equal wages with men. This study incorporates these three models to examine socioeconomic status determination. The data for this study is from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth of 2004 (NLSY).

2. Literature Review

Most of the social mobility studies to date have addressed occupational mobility, focused on prestige. The American dream, however, is more focused upon wealth than occupation. Socioeconomic status broadens the scope to address social class mobility especially the role of income. Different occupations require different levels of education for entry and different occupations receive different amounts and types of income. Therefore, income becomes the outcome of educational and occupational trajectories, which form the basis of social classes.

2.1 Individual Model

Rational choice theorists argue that individuals are rational actors in the pursuit of maximum utility; by weighing the cost versus the benefits, individuals are deliberate in the fulfillment of their own self-interests (Coleman, 1988). However, not all choices lead to greater income. Human Capital theory assumes an open mobility system in which individual attainment is independent of origins. Human Capital theorists, such as Becker

(1974), believe that individuals earn different status levels due to differing amounts and types of human capital. Human capital is the investment an individual makes in productivity enhancing skills. Investments such as education, training, and experience are used to enhance an individual's skill level by providing them with specific skills that make them more productive in the work force, and therefore more valuable to employers (Becker, 1974). According to Becker (1974), human capital can also be inherited. Inherited human capital is the result of the parent's ability and propensity to invest in their children as well as the number of children in the home (Becker & Tomes, 1979 and Becker & Lewis, 1973).

Status Attainment theorists also view an individual's socioeconomic status as a result of two main elements: origin and intervening factors (Duncan, Featherman, and Duncan, 1972). Origin refers to the socioeconomic status in which an individual was raised. Intervening factors are mainly referring to education, but other factors can determine the ability to obtain education (Duncan et al, 1972). The Blau and Duncan (1967) status attainment model explains intergenerational transmission of occupational status from fathers to sons. Father's educational level and occupational status is explained as affecting this transmission modified by intervening variables, such as one's education and the occupational status of their first job (Blau and Duncan, 1967). Father's education is shown to affect son's educational attainment. Likewise the son's occupational status in first job is related to the father's occupational status. The largest connection is found between one's own educational attainment and first job; however, father's influence is indirect. Duncan, et. al., (1972) include other factors such as ambition, intelligence, and social influences (e.g. parental expectations, parental occupation, peer influences and school climate). Duncan et al. (1972) explains that, although these factors can have a

slight direct effect on status attainment, their true effect can be seen indirectly through education.

The Wisconsin Model expands upon explanations of Duncan et al by including social psychological variables, such as academic performance, mental ability, and influence of significant others, in order to observe the effect on occupational and educational attainment. This model finds that the socioeconomic status of parents is connected to the influence of significant others, such as parental or educator's expectations, which then influences one's level of occupational aspirations. Level of occupational aspirations is only slightly related, though, to occupational attainment. Mental ability is shown to greatly affect one's academic performance which directly affects significant others' influence, level of occupational aspirations, level of educational aspirations, and educational attainment. Level of educational aspirations also directly affects educational attainment which is the single largest predictor of occupational attainment (Sewell, Haller, and Ohlendorf, 1970). Alexander, Eckland, and Griffin (1975) expanded the Wisconsin model to include earnings with occupation and education and found that independently education only has an effect of .111 on individual's earnings. They argue that excluding socioeconomic origin and social psychological variables creates an exaggerated relationship between education and earnings.

Examining socioeconomic origin, fathers are seen by individualist theorists as affecting their children's human capital due to their own positions. Since the fathers' position coincides with economic capital, fathers have varying degrees of resources to invest in the creation of their children's human capital (Biblarz, Bengtson, and Bucur, 1996). Individualistic theory also assumes that during childhood individuals learn values on how to make a living from their parents (Biblarz et al, 1996). Children therefore

pattern their behavior on the examples and expectations that their parents set (Biblarz, et al, 1996). In addition it is suggested that if fathers value education and have invested in their own education, then they are more willing to make the investment in their offspring (Biblarz, et al, 1996 and Becker, 1991). Therefore, hypothesis 1 states that as father's socioeconomic status increases, respondent's socioeconomic status increases.

Since individual theorists view socioeconomic status as a result of differing investments in human capital, comparative advantage theory is used to explain the differences in women's experiences and outcomes. Comparative advantage views each individual's position as a result of societal ranking. According to Talcott Parsons (1940), every society has a system of ranking individuals based on moral evaluation. Men and women are ranked differently based on their ascribed sexual status. As society moved from agricultural to industrial work, the family and work became two different domains. Since parents were unable to bring their children into the factory environment, there was a need for a new household division of labor in order to manage the family. Since women give birth and men do not, they are not only unavailable during that activity but they are also more attuned biologically to take care of the children, therefore there is a comparative advantage. Women can take care of children at a lower cost than men and men can work at a lower cost than women. This ranking of sex roles separates women from occupations that might cause harm to the family. Competition in occupations between husbands and wives is seen as disruptive to family solidarity. Therefore, women's separation within the labor market is seen as an advantage for society and the family (Parsons, 1940).

The individual perspective does very well in explaining the supply side differences in status but falls short on the demand side (Granovetter, 1981). After an

individual has made their choices, maximized their utility and been influenced by background factors they still need to be placed within a position to make their utility productive. The demand side of status differences is explained within the structural perspective.

2.2 Structural Model

Structural theorists view the distribution of income as a result of hierarchal economic positioning. Each position within the economic hierarchy has a set range of income, therefore one's position directly determines their income, independent of individual attributes. For example, a dishwasher with a doctoral degree will have the same income as a dishwasher with a high school diploma. Choice and/or family background means little for economic success if one is not located in an economic position that has higher earnings.

Dual economy theory views the economy as divided into two separate economies, the monopoly firms and the competitive firms, based on the technical relations of production (Averitt, 1968). Monopoly firms are larger in size, sales, number of employees, and assets than competitive firms. These firms are normally diversified and control a network of businesses or products to increase their size and power and to protect themselves in times of economic crises. They also extend across many regions, nationally or globally. These businesses operate on large financial resources so that they are able to focus on future planning and not immediate crisis management (Averitt, 1968). Due to the size and stability of such firms, they experience high profit and are able to provide workers with greater job stability and wages (Gordon, Edwards, and Reich, 1982). Brown and Medoff (1989) found workers in companies with 500 or more employees made 35% higher wages than those in smaller companies.

Competitive firms are relatively small businesses, more likely to be individually or family owned, and are limited to one region. They routinely have little resources to fall back on in times of economic crisis and are more susceptible to closure and bankruptcy. They generally produce one product or type of product and, if located within the same industry as a monopoly firm, the competition and prices set by the large monopoly firm are difficult to overcome (Averitt, 1968). Competitive firms therefore have a lower profit margin and pay lower wages and provide less job security. Davis, Haltiwanger, Katz and Topel (1991) found a \$2.82 per hour gap in real hourly wages between production workers in plants with 20 to 49 employees and production workers in plants with 5000 or more employees. Monopoly firms often subcontract to the competitive firms for labor that requires less specific training. The subcontracting puts the risks associated with economic downturns on the competitive firm as well as allows the monopoly firm to pay less in wages and resources for these services or goods (Gordon et al, 1982).

Similar to dual economy theorists, labor market segmentation theorists divide the labor market into segments that have different inequality processes; their focus is on the workers' positions or social relations of production, not the institutional or technical organization of the business. The first is the core or primary segment (Gordon et al, 1982). The core pays higher wages, provides benefits for employees, and contains chances of advancement, job security, and decision making positions. The second segment is the periphery; these positions are low paid with no benefits, often consist of contingency positions, positions are highly fragmented in skills, offers little job security, and little to no chance of mobility within company, thus increasing the chances of lay offs as well as decreasing employee loyalty (Berhardt, Morris, Handcock, and Scott, 2001). In his study of labor market segmentation, Paul Osterman (1975) states that unlike

the primary sector, wages in the periphery sector are determined solely by the hours worked and that amount of experience and education do not significantly affect earnings. In the primary sector, human capital (i.e. education and experience) yields higher wages than the periphery sector. Labor market segmentation theory explains changes in social mobility and the increase of income inequality as a result of the continual increase in segmentation of the labor market. This segmentation has resulted in an increasingly large periphery group as firms benefit from the low cost of such a labor force. This increase makes upward mobility difficult especially for those who lack higher education (Berhardt et al, 2001). Therefore, hypothesis 4 states that those within the high-skilled industry will have higher socioeconomic status, net of other factors.

Due to the increasing polarization of class status in the U.S., the distributional model looks beyond previously mentioned “occupationally-linked factors” to view socioeconomic status as the result of the distribution of resources and generative capital, as determined by large corporations and government organizations (Wysong, Perrucci, and Wright, 2002). Generative capital refers to money that earns money, such as stocks, bonds, and property, versus consumptive capital such as salary and earnings that is used to purchase items or services. Emerging from these types of capital is three groups. About 80% of the population relies solely on consumptive capital, meaning they earn what they spend and do not have the ability to invest and/or save. The next group is referred to as the comfort class, which comprises of approximately 15% of the population. Their consumptive capital is greater than their expenditures, therefore they have discretionary income and are able to make small investments although not enough to support themselves. Finally there is the superclass, the top 5% of the population which relies mostly on generative capital, money from their family investments. The superclass

receives 70% of their income from capital gains. An individual's placement within these groups is determined by a combination of work and family background. The superclass originate in a wealthy family, attend private and Ivy League schools, and hold corporate or government positions that place them in a position to have access to generative capital as well as the ability to control access and distribution of the groups beneath them. The power of distribution guarantees the privileged class the ability to maintain their status and pass their status to their children, thus creating the foundation of inequalities (Wysong et al, 2002).

The structuralist perspective views status differences as a result of position occupied within the economic hierarchy, but overlooks the mechanisms that place individuals within those positions. The gender perspective explains how an individual's ability to obtain any given position within that hierarchy is dependent upon individual attributes.

2.3 Gender Model

Individualists treat gender as a variable to be controlled, just as one would control for income or education. This is problematic due to the general inability to change one's gender. Structuralists treat gender as a part of the structure of society. Society is built upon a hierarchy of positions where women are in a lower position than men. Gender theorists see gender as a process. Heidi Hartmann (1979) argues that since we live in a patriarchal society, the gender process devalues and sorts women into inferior roles and positions compared to men. Capitalism supports patriarchy because of the benefits of free labor in the home and men also reap the benefits of domination and superiority (Hartmann, 1979). The positions that are granted to women are devalued because of stereotypes and assumptions of present or future family obligations.

Independent of individual attributes, women are seen as natural nurturers who are responsible for the domestic responsibilities of our society. They therefore are sorted into domestically related fields within the labor market. These fields are then devalued by lower pay, shorter hours, and lower economic positions (Hartmann, 1979). Accordingly, hypothesis 8 states that daughters will have lower socioeconomic status than sons, net of other factors.

Despite increased participation of women in the labor market, the division of household labor has not changed dramatically. Due to gender role ideologies within our society, men as the breadwinner and women as the caregiver, working women are faced with a double burden of work and home responsibilities. Regardless of occupational position, women are still responsible for a disproportionate amount of unpaid labor within the home compared to men (Cohen, 2004). According to Shelton and John (1996), men are responsible for 20% to 30% of all home labor including childcare. Women are assumed to be natural nurturers whose main concern should be and is their family and home. Due to this innate nurturing, when women are in the labor market they are segregated into fields associated with caring tasks. They also are assigned more of the domesticated tasks not associated with their positions, for instance, if a woman is present in a meeting with all equal positioned male coworkers and coffee needs to be made, it is expected that she will do so. Hiring practices are also affected by women's perceived household and family duties (Cohen, 2004). Employers assume that a woman will marry, have children and care for those children, as well as miss work in order to care for ill children. Employers view these "imminent" responsibilities as a detriment to the position and assume that in time a woman will be unable to perform as well as a man would after marriage and children (Cohen, 2004). In contrast, when men marry they receive a

“marriage premium”, Korenman and Neumark (1991) found an increase of 8% when a man marries. Employers may justify these differences, due to a man’s “responsibility” to support his family.

Crowding theory explains inequality of wages between genders as a result of the limited occupational opportunities of women (Bergmann, 2005). Due to these limitations, there is a surplus of women to fill these positions which in turn drives down wages. Since the wages are so much lower in female dominated fields, employers are able to hire multiple employees for these positions which render these positions less productive. According to Bergmann (2005), due to the division of one position among multiple employees, these types of positions require less skill, therefore making employees within these positions less valuable.

Jerry Jacobs’ “Revolving Door” theory refers to the life long cycle of social control that women experience (Jacobs, 1989). He sees this cycle as consisting of three parts: early socialization, educational discrimination, and the gendered segmentation of the labor market. Early socialization teaches women what roles and occupations for which they are suited. Discrimination in higher education keeps women disproportionately out of male dominated fields. Moreover, discrimination in the form of hiring processes and harassment keep women out of certain positions later on in life. The revolving door refers to Jacobs’ (1989) finding that women are continually entering male dominated positions but they are leaving at nearly the same rate. In a 1997 study in Wisconsin, Sheridan (1997) found that over two-thirds (68%) of the women that entered a male-dominated field subsequently moved out of that field. Therefore, when looking at the numbers of women within male-dominated fields it appears as though women are

obtaining equality within these fields, but since women do not sustain these positions these fields remain unequal.

Reskin and Roos (1990) use Queuing theory to take a structural approach to examine occupational sex segregation. Although women are reported to be moving into male dominated fields, researchers find that occupational-level segregation is persistent in the few fields that have become mixed. Women move into once male dominated fields as these positions have become less desirable to men or the demand for employees has grown past the supply of qualified men (Reskin and Roos, 1990). Once these positions have been affected by structural factors and benefits, wages and chances of advancement have decreased, men have moved on to other fields leaving vacancies for women.

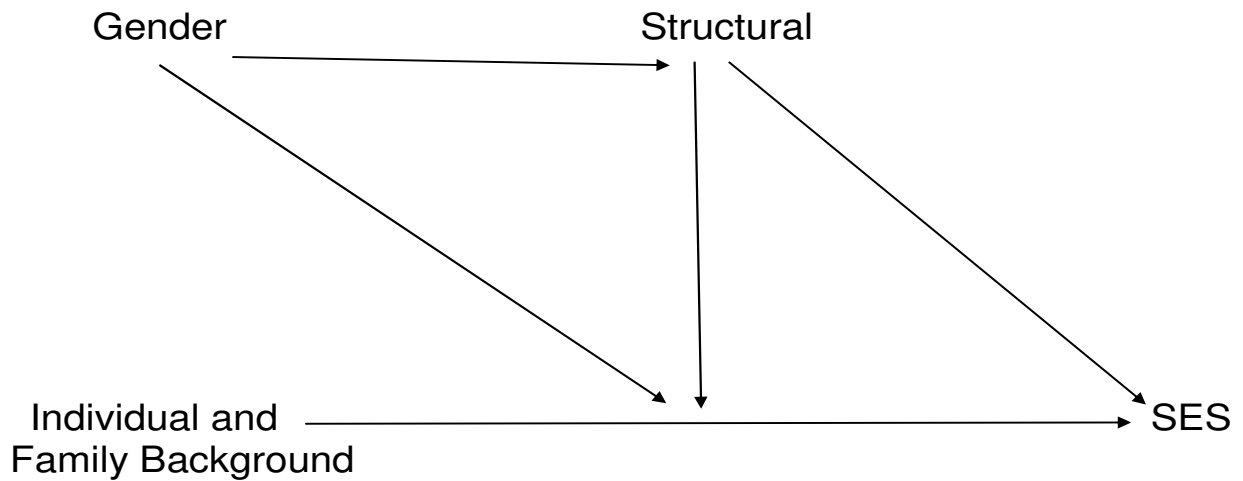
According to Queuing theory, employers rank applicants from most desirable to least desirable and individual attributes are only considered within their rank. Since most employers prefer to hire men over women, this preference creates a gendered queue (Reskin and Roos, 1990). Workers also maintain the job queue by ranking jobs by order of attractiveness. Since men have a higher ranking, they are able to more easily move to new positions when structural influences affect their current positions. This keeps women in the less desirable jobs with lower pay, less benefits and lower autonomy as men continue to maintain their privileged positions (Reskin and Roos, 1990). For example, women account for 37.7% of all college and university professors, but they make up 73.7% of all other teachers, in the lower paid and less prestigious positions (Reskin, 1993).

Individuals also rank positions based on attractiveness as seen within their parent's positions. Stevens (1982) found that father's occupation is more likely than the mother's to influence both their sons and daughters, due to greater prestige of the father's

position. Research has found within occupation wage gaps ranging from 11 to 26 percent, depending upon occupation, between males and females (Groshen, 1991). Consequently, even when daughters replicate their father's positions they do not achieve the same status as the son would in the same position. Therefore, hypothesis 9 states that father's socioeconomic status will more positively contribute to son's socioeconomic status than to daughter's socioeconomic status.

Homosocial production is used to describe the tendencies of large corporate executives to exhibit preference in hiring and promotion of employees with a similar social appearance and background to their own (Kanter, 1997). With the majority (76.7%) of executives being men and white (86.7%), homosocial production is a barrier to women and minorities attempting to advance within the corporate world (U.S Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2004). Since positions in the higher levels of the corporations have more ambiguous job descriptions and higher stress, employers feel that they need an employee that they understand and can trust. Due to the long hours and social aspects in many high level positions, executives desire employees with whom they will be able to communicate and feel comfortable spending a great deal of time. Women do not fit this criterion for male executives and therefore are grouped together with other women and held back based on stereotypes of gender, independent of individual attributes (Kanter, 1997).

2.4 Conceptual Model



adapted from wright, 1992

The conceptual model includes the three previously discussed theoretical approaches, individual, structural, and gender, in order to control for each approach's explanation for differences in intergenerational mobility of socioeconomic status, for fathers to sons and fathers to daughters. The individual and family background model argues that socioeconomic status is determined by individual attributes, such as human capital and father's socioeconomic status. Human capital is increased through rational choices, such as education or training. Intergenerational mobility would therefore be a result of differing amounts of self-investment or investment by parent in their children's human capital. The structural model maintains that socioeconomic status is determined by the position occupied within the economic hierarchy, independent of individual attributes. Compensation is determined by one's position within the labor market, with higher positions providing increased compensation. Gender theorists view gender as a process of devaluation and sorting. Women are therefore located in positions of less pay and prestige based upon assumptions and stereotypes of gender roles. Women also experience lower returns on individual investments such as education due to their gender.

Daughters therefore are expected to be of a lower socioeconomic status relative to sons, independent of individual attributes. Also sons are expected to obtain a higher contribution to their socioeconomic status from father's than daughters.

3. Data and Methodology

3.1 Data

This study uses the 1979-2004 National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY). The NLSY data was collected through a national probability sample of young men and women living in the United States. The interviews were conducted starting in early 1979 when the respondents were between the ages of 14 and 22. Respondents were re-interviewed annually until 1994 and have been interviewed biannually from 1996 through the present. The NLSY sample contains 12,686 individuals. Restrictions were made in the sample to include only cases with complete responses to the dependent variable, socioeconomic status of the respondent. Military personnel and those without valid responses for respondent's or respondent's father's occupation were dropped from the sample, thus resulting in a final sample of 4,769.

The NLSY data includes a national probability weight that must be employed in order to compensate for over sampling. Applying a weight to a data set can be problematic in that it expands the sample size, reducing the standard error, resulting in biased population parameters. Therefore a relative weight was created, dividing the weight by the mean of the weight, which replicates the sample size and generates the distribution of the weighted sample.

3.2 Variables

3.2.1 Dependent Variable

The dependent variable used in this study is respondent's socioeconomic status. Socioeconomic status is measured by a combined standardized scale created using the respondent's educational level, income, and occupational prestige. Education was years of school completed. Occupational prestige was measured using a prestige scale from 0 (lowest) to 100 (highest). Income was measured in raw dollars of earnings per year. The socioeconomic status variable is a summation of the standardized education, occupation, and income factors. In order to contrast high and low socioeconomic groups, centile and quartile socioeconomic status measures were created.

3.2.2 Independent Variables

3.2.2.1 Individual-Level Variables

The individual level independent variables used in this study are age, current poverty status, poverty status as a child, number of siblings, father's socioeconomic status, and living in urban or rural area as an adult and also as a child. Age is measured at the interval level in years, with a range of only 37 to 45 years of age due to the sampling method, children of original sample. Since increases in experience are expected to cause increases in human capital through increased experience (Becker, 1974), it is expected that as age increases, socioeconomic status will also increase.

The education variable in the data set is originally measured by highest grade of school completed. A five level ordinal variable was then created for less than high school education, high school education, some college, college graduate and graduate level education. A set of dummy binary variables was also created for each of the five ordinal level categories with one indicating the specified level of education.

Poverty variables for both present time and childhood are measured as binaries, living in poverty equaling one. It is expected that individuals raised in or currently in a poverty situation will have a lower socioeconomic status (Biblarz, et al, 1996 and Becker, 1991). The number of siblings variable is measured as a binary, one equals the respondent had a sibling. Due to division of parent's resources among children, it is expected that having siblings will decrease socioeconomic status (Becker & Lewis, 1973).

Father's income was not available in the NLSY so income was imputed from the Current Population Survey 1979 (CPS) using the father's earnings from the longest held job in 1978. A 250 cell matrix of a 5 level ordinal education (less than high school, high school diploma, some college, college graduate, graduate degree), a 25 level occupational variable and a binary full-time part-time status, was created. The CPS was used to determine the median earnings for each one of the matrix cells. The median value was then assigned to the fathers who were categorized into each of the matrix cells. This new dataset was then merged onto the NLSY to match the father's NLSY matrix value with the CPS matrix value imputing income onto the father's corresponding record in the NLSY. Then a combined standardized scale was created using the father's educational level, income and occupational prestige. Education was measured as years of school completed. Occupation was measured using a prestige scale from 0 to 100. Each reported occupation is assigned a prestige score, 0 being the lowest. Income was measured in raw dollars of earnings per year. In order to contrast high and low socioeconomic groups, centile and quartile measures were created. It is expected that as respondent's father's socioeconomic status increases so will that of the respondent (Biblarz, et al, 1996 and Becker, 1991).

A set of four binaries was created to measure father's occupation at the interval level; white collar high skill (management, professional, education, and health), white collar low skill (clerical and sales), blue collar high skill (precision craft, transportation, protective services and high skill production), and blue collar low skill (labor, assembly and farming). It is expected that as father's occupational level increases, respondent's socioeconomic status will also increase (Blau and Duncan, 1967).

The nominal variable, rural or urban for age 14 (lived in country, on a farm, or in town) was recoded for measurement as a binary, one equaling living in urban environment at age 14. For the respondent's current urban/ rural adult variable, the original binary variable was used, one equals living in an urban environment. Due to higher percentages of poverty in rural environments, it is expected that living in an urban environment will increase socioeconomic status (Gibbs, 2004).

3.2.2.2 Structural-Level Variables

The structural variables used in this study are number of jobs held, hours worked, full-time full-year employment, employment sector, high-skill industry, occupational group, and occupational prestige. Number of jobs held is measured at the interval level in jobs held by respondent to date. It is expected that the as number of jobs held increases socioeconomic status will decrease (Berhardt et al, 2001). Hours worked is measured at the interval level in hours for the past calendar year. A binary, one representing full-time full-year employment, was created from hours worked. It is expected that respondents working full-time full-year will have higher socioeconomic status than respondents working part-time or part-year (Osterman, 1975).

A set of five binaries (government, private, non-profit, self-employed, family business) were created for the respondent's employment sector, in order to measure

employment type at the interval level. Due to the government sectors inclusion in the core segment (Tolbert, Horan, and Beck, 1980), it is expected that respondents working in the government sector will have higher socioeconomic status than those in other sectors. A binary was also created for high-skill industry, it is expected that working in a high-skill industry will increase socioeconomic status (Berhardt et al, 2001). A set of four binaries was created to measure respondent's occupation at the interval level: white collar high skill (management, professional, education, and health), white collar low skill (clerical and sales), blue collar high skill (precision craft, transportation, protective services and high skill production), and blue collar low skill (labor, assembly and farming). It is expected that socioeconomic status will increase as occupational level increases.

3.2.2.3 Gender-Level Variables

The gender-variables used in this study are sex, occupational sex segregation, race, marital status, and children. The sex variable was measured as a binary, one equals female. It is expected that women will have lower socioeconomic status than men (Hartmann, 1979).

The occupational sex segregation variable measures the degree of sex segregation within an occupation. A value of 0 represents an occupation consisting of all men, a value of 1 is an equal distribution of men and women, and above 1 represents an overrepresentation of women within an occupation. The index is created by measuring the percent women within each 4-digit occupational code and then dividing this percent by the total percent of women in the labor force. It is expected that the occupational sex segregation value will be higher for women than for men (Jacobs, 1989 and Reskin and Roos, 1990).

A set of three binaries were created to measure race at the interval level, White non-Hispanic, Hispanic, and Black. In addition, a binary was created to represent minority or non-minority, one equals minority. It is expected that minorities will have lower socioeconomic status than non-minorities (U.S Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2004).

The original marital status variable was recoded into a set of binaries representing, married, ever married, and never married. Also a single binary was created coded one equals currently married and zero equals never married and once married. It is expected that male respondents who are currently married will have higher socioeconomic status than those once married or never married (Korenman and Neumark, 1991).

Two binaries were created to measure respondent's parental status from the original number of children and age of children variables. One binary was created for preschool age children, one equals the respondent has a child under six. Another binary was created to include all children; one equals respondent has a child under eighteen. It is expected that female respondents with children under the age of 18 will have lower socioeconomic status (Hartmann, 1979 and Shelton and John, 1996).

Hypotheses –

Individual/Family background

- 1). Net of other factors, as father's SES increases respondents' SES increases.
- 2). Living in poverty at the age of 14 will result in lower SES as an adult, net of other factors.
- 3). As age increases SES increases, net of other factors.

Structural

- 4). Working in a high-skill industry increases SES, net of other factors.

- 5). Net of other factors, as number of jobs increases, SES decreases.
- 6). As hours worked increases SES also increases, net of other factors.

Gender

- 7). Daughters are in lower level occupational positions than sons
- 8). Daughters will have lower SES than sons.
- 9). Father's SES will more positively contribute to son's SES than daughter's SES.
- 10). Sons will experience a greater marriage premium than daughters, net of other factors.
- 11). Having children will more positively affect son's SES than daughter's SES, net of other factors.

4. Results

4.1 Univariate and Bivariate Analysis

Table 1 provides the univariate analysis for sons, daughters and the full sample on the descriptive variables. Bivariate analysis values are represented in Table 1 for individual, structural, and gender factors.

As shown in Table 1, the mean centile value of socioeconomic status for sons is higher than the same value for daughters (51.02 vs. 49.67). The difference in socioeconomic status among sons and daughters is statistically significant, thus supporting hypothesis 8. Individual level factor bivariate analysis indicates that daughters obtain slightly more education in years than sons (13.9 vs. 13.7). Daughters are also more likely to live in poverty than sons (5.4% vs. 3.6%). No statistical significance was found for the differences in means between sons and daughters in age or living in a rural area for this sample.

Bivariate analysis of background variables indicates that the mean centile value for father's socioeconomic status is higher for sons than daughters (51.5 vs. 48.9).

Father's education in years is also higher for sons than for daughters (12.3 vs. 12.0).

Living in a rural area at the age of 14 and living in poverty at the age of 14 exhibits no statistically significant differences in means for sons and daughters.

Bivariate analysis of structural level variables indicates that sons work more hours per week than daughters (43.7 vs. 34.4). Results also indicate that a higher percentage of daughters work in government positions (20.4% vs. 13.3%) and that more sons work in high-skill industries (39.6% vs. 28.8%). Differences in occupational level are found in three of the four occupation categories; approximately 10% more daughters work in a white collar high skill positions (48.3% vs. 37.9%), 17% more daughters in this sample reported a white collar low skill position (31.3% vs. 14.2%), and 25% more sons reported a blue collar high skill position than daughters (29.5% vs. 4%). No statistically significant difference in means between sons and daughters was found for blue collar low skill positions. Lending support to hypothesis 7, when white and blue high skill positions are combined, sons are more likely to be in a high skilled position than daughters (67.4% vs. 52.3%).

Bivariate analyses of gender level variables indicate that daughters are more likely to be in an occupation with an overrepresentation of women (1.37 vs. 0.59). Results indicate that daughters are more likely to have been married (90.1% vs. 86.9%) and sons are more likely to have never been married (13.1% vs. 9.9%). No statistical difference was found, though, for being married at the time of response. Sons are also more likely to have children in the home under the age of six (17.8% vs. 11.5%). There is no statistical difference between sons and daughters for the minority variable in this sample.

Table 2 provides matrixes of father and sons/daughters socioeconomic status in quartiles; the left axis is father's socioeconomic status in 1979 and the upper axis the sons/daughters in 2004. These quartiles are used to examine social mobility in three analyses: frequency, outflow (mobility inheritance), and inflow mobility (mobility recruitment). In all three analyses, the diagonal denotes no mobility shift whereas the upper right quadrant identifies downward mobility and the lower left quadrant denotes upward mobility.

For sons, 29.7% experience downward mobility relative to their father's and 32.2% experience upward mobility. Combining those who experience downward mobility and no mobility (excluding the top quartile), 67.8% are in the same social position as their fathers or lower. For daughters, 33.1% experience downward mobility relative to their father's and 31.9% experience upward mobility. Similar to sons, 68.1% of daughters are in the same or lower social position as their fathers.

The aggregate trends, however, mask the diversity in mobility patterns for sons and daughters. The outflow mobility table shows that sons have a greater propensity to concentrate at the tail ends of the socioeconomic status distribution (top and bottom 25%) than daughters. For the upper 25%, 45.8% of sons match their father's status whereas only 36.3% of daughters do the same. On the other hand, among the bottom socioeconomic status quartile, sons are more likely at 50.2% to stay on the bottom versus daughters at 43.3%. The inflow mobility table shows that daughters are more mobile, both upward and downward, than their male counterparts in all quadrants except the third (S 29.4%, D 30.6%). These differences can be more clearly visualized by Figure 1's surface maps for sons and daughters comparing fathers to sons/daughters socioeconomic mobility. The surface map for sons shows higher concentration levels in the top and

bottom socioeconomic groups compared to the map for daughters which displays a more evenly distributed pattern of mobility.

4.2 Multivariate Analysis

Table 3 provides results from the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression analysis regressing socioeconomic status onto the three model segments of the conceptual model. The adjusted R-squared is 0.288 (significant at the .000 level), suggesting that the model explains approximately 29% of the variance in socioeconomic status. The separate analysis by sex also reports statistically significant R-squared values of 0.347 (35%) and 0.234 (23%) for sons and daughters respectively. As shown in the full sample results, net of other factors, being female results in a reduction of .245 in socioeconomic status. This finding lends support to hypothesis 8, being female results in lower socioeconomic status, net of other factors.

Among the individual level model factors, living in an urban area results in an increase of .369 in socioeconomic status. This remains true for both sons and daughters and there is no statistical difference between the two. For every one increase in father's socioeconomic status the respondents' socioeconomic status increases by 0.326, thus supporting hypothesis 1, net of other factors. Both sons and daughters receive an increase from each one increase in father's socioeconomic status, but there is no statistical difference between the two, thus not supporting hypothesis 9. Age in years and living in poverty at the age of fourteen are found to have no independent effect on socioeconomic status, thus not supporting hypothesis 2 and 3. Living in an urban area at the age of 14 was also found not significant and to have no independent effect on socioeconomic status.

Among structural level model factors, increases in hours worked per week result in an increase in socioeconomic status, 0.026 for every hour worked per week net of other factors, thus supporting hypothesis 6. Daughters receive a slightly greater return on hours worked per week than sons (0.031 vs. 0.019), net of other factors. Lending support to hypothesis 5, for every one increase in number of jobs socioeconomic status decreases by 0.013. Results show a significant change in socioeconomic status for sons, decrease of 0.03 for every one increase in jobs held, but the change in daughter's socioeconomic status was not significant. Lending partial support to hypothesis 4, sons receive an increase of 0.551 in socioeconomic status if they work in a high-skill industry, net of other factors. Employment in a high-skill industry has no significant or independent effect for daughters.

For gender level model factors, as occupational sex segregation increases socioeconomic status increases by 0.492. Sons receive a greater return on increases in occupational sex segregation compared to daughters (0.805 vs. 0.142). Being married also results in an increase of socioeconomic status (0.441): this holds true for both sons and daughters with no statistical difference between the two, net of other factors, thus not supporting hypothesis 10. With every one increase in number of children, socioeconomic status increases by 0.104, net of other factors. Lending support to hypothesis 11, for sons socioeconomic status increases by 0.166 for every one increase in number of children but for daughters there is no independent effect on socioeconomic status. Number of children was used in the OLS, versus binary for children under the age of six in bivariate analysis, in order to gauge the effect per child. Being a minority had no independent effect on socioeconomic status.

5. Discussion

This study examined the intergenerational mobility of socioeconomic status and if there are differences in the transmission of father's socioeconomic status to their sons and daughters. OLS regression analysis for the alternative model yielded support for hypothesis 1, stating that as father's socioeconomic status increases the respondent's socioeconomic status also increases, net of other factors. For the full sample, for every one increase in father's socioeconomic status the respondent's socioeconomic status increases by 0.326. These results support Biblarz et al's (1996) conclusion that children pattern their behavior from their parent's examples and expectations and because the parents' position coincides with economic capital, the parents have varying degrees of resources to invest in the creation of their children's human capital. Living in poverty as a child, though, was found to have no effect on socioeconomic status as an adult. In contrast to Becker (1974), age of respondent was not found to have an effect on socioeconomic status; this result, though, is probably due to the truncation of age within this sample.

Sons working within high-skill positions were found to have a 0.55 increase in socioeconomic status, but working in a high-skill position was found to have no effect on daughter's socioeconomic status. Thus supporting hypothesis 4 and labor market segmentation theorists that it is the position one occupies, independent of individual attributes, that determines one's position, but only if you are a man (Berhardt et al, 2001). For every hour worked per week daughters received a 0.012 higher increase in socioeconomic status than sons. Every one increase in number of jobs a man has held his socioeconomic status decrease, but the same increase for daughters yields no significant effect. This could be due to the instability within the labor market and the need for sons

to take lower positions and the expectation of women to leave the labor force due to motherhood.

Hypothesis 9 was not supported. No statistical difference was found between sons and daughter's socioeconomic status relative to that of their father's, net of other factors. Supporting hypothesis 8, bivariate analysis of socioeconomic status found daughters to have lower socioeconomic status than that of sons, but father's socioeconomic status was also found to be lower for daughters than sons. This supports Stevens' (1986) conclusions that both daughters and sons pattern their behavior from their father's due to increased advantages seen within their occupations. These results are in contrast to gender theorist Heidi Hartmann's ideological perspective which argues that since we live in a patriarchal society, the gender process devalues and sorts women into inferior roles and positions compared to that of men (1979). Daughters may enter similar occupations to their fathers, have similar or even higher education in order to compensate for their lower earnings than their male counterparts.

In contrast to Korenman and Neumark, (1991), although marriage did have an effect on the socioeconomic status of the respondent, there was no statistical difference found between sons and daughters in this sample. The number of children a respondent has a positive effect on an individual's socioeconomic status, if that individual is male. While sons saw an increase of .166 for each child, there was no effect on a daughters's socioeconomic status. This could be due to the assumption of both motherhood inevitability and family responsibilities, she will/is a mother and will/is responsible for childcare therefore actual children are a non-issue (Cohen 2004 and Hartmann, 1979).

5.2 Limitations

Sample restrictions made in order to create the socioeconomic status variable for the respondent could be problematic. Those respondents without responses to the occupation variable were removed thus the sample includes only women that work outside of the home. This was necessary in order to include an individual income and occupation score for each respondent but could possibly skew the overall result of socioeconomic status. Chadwick and Solon (2002) recommend including women working solely within the home and the use of a broader measure of income to include the income of their husband, since socioeconomic status is not determined solely by individual factors when in a marriage.

The NLSY is not without limitations although every effort was taken to minimize any concerns and provide the most accurate data. The lack of father's income data in the NLSY was rectified by the creation of a matrix and inclusion of income information from the CPS. Although necessary, this technique is not ideal. Future research with an all inclusive dataset would improve the validity of findings.

Since the American dream propagates that everyone should be able to do better than their parents the results of the social mobility tables show the American nightmare, 67.8% of sons and 68.1% of daughters are in the same or lower position relative to that of their father. A further examination of this sample accessing the variables used to create socioeconomic status, income, education, and occupation, is necessary to fully understand these results. With the wealth of prior research indicating that women still earn significantly less than men and that women have limited access to certain occupations it is interesting that this research finds no significant difference between son's and daughter's socioeconomic status relative to their father's. By separating the

individual elements used to access the socioeconomic status score, further research may show a significant relationship between fathers and children in one area disproportionately to that of the others, thus indicating a spurious relationship between overall socioeconomic status and father's socioeconomic status. It would be interesting to break down socioeconomic status for the respondent in order to examine with overall socioeconomic status for fathers as well as examining the educational, income, and occupational level of the father separately with overall socioeconomic status for the respondent. This could reveal the interconnectivity of these factors as well as their independent affects.

Bivariate results indicated that the structural factors explain more than the gender or individual and family background factors. OLS regression showed that being female causes a decrease in socioeconomic status, net of other factors. Combined, these results indicate that women still have lower opportunities than do men even after considering such factors as education, number of hours worked, number of children, and occupational position. Therefore, further examination of the policies and practices of employers that allows this discrimination needs to take place.

REFERENCES

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Alexander, Karl L., Bruce K. Eckland, and Larry J. Griffin. 1975. "The Wisconsin Model of Socioeconomic Achievement: A Replication." *The American Journal of Sociology* 81(2): 324-342.
- Averitt, Robert. 1968. "The Dual Economy: The Dynamics of American Industry Structure." Norton & Company: New York.
- Becker, Gary S. 1974. "A Theory of Social Interactions". *NBER working paper* 42: 1-52.
- Becker, Gary S. 1991. "A Treatise on the Family". Harvard University Press: Cambridge.
- Becker, Gary S. and H. Gregg Lewis. 1973. "On the Interaction between the Quantity and Quality of Children." *The Journal of Political Economy* 81(2): S279-S288.
- Becker, Gary S and Nigel Tomes. 1979. "An Equilibrium Theory of the Distribution of Income and Intergenerational Mobility." *The Journal of Political Economy* 87(6): 1153-1189.
- Bergmann, Barbara R. 2005. "The Economic Emergence of Women." Palgrave Macmillan: New York.
- Berhardt, Annette, Martina Morris, Mark S. Handcock, and Marc A. Scott. 2001. "Divergent paths: economic mobility in the New American labor Market." Russell Sage Foundation: New York.
- Biblarz, Timothy J., Vern L. Bengtson and Alexander Bucur. 1996. "Social Mobility across Three Generations." *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 58(1):188-200.
- Biblarz, Timothy J., Adrian E. Raftery and Alexander Bucur. 1997. "Family Structure and Social Mobility." *Social Forces* 75(4):1319-1341.
- Blau, Peter M. and Otis D. Duncan. 1967. "The American Occupational Structure." New York: Wiley.
- Brown, Charles and James Medoff. 1989. "The Employer Size-Wage Effect." *The Journal of Political Economy* 97(5): 1027-1059.
- Chadwick, Laura and Gary Solon. 2002. "Intergenerational Income Mobility among Daughters." *The American Economic Review* 92(1): 335-344.
- Cohen, Philip N. 2004. "The Gender Division of Labor: "Keeping House" and Occupational Segregation in the United States." *Gender & Society* 18(2): 239-252.

- Coleman, James S. 1988. "Social Capital in the Creation of Human Capital." *The American Journal of Sociology* 94: S95-S120.
- Coleman, James S. 1986. "Social Theory, Social Research, and a Theory of Action." *The American Journal of Sociology* 91(6): 1309-1335.
- Davis, Steve J., John Haltiwanger, Lawrence F. Katz, and Robert Topel. 1991. "Wage Dispersion between and within U.S. Manufacturing Plants, 1963-86." *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity. Microeconomics* 1991:115-200.
- Duncan, Otis D., David L. Featherman, and Beverly Duncan. 1972. "Socioeconomic Background and Achievement." New York: Seminar Press.
- England, Paula and Dana Dunn. 1988. "Evaluating Work and Comparative Work." *Annual Review of Sociology* 14: 227-248.
- Gibbs, Robert. 2004. "Rural Income, Poverty, and Welfare: Rural Poverty." *USDA: Economic Research Service. Briefing Room.*
<http://www.ers.usda.gov/Briefing/IncomePovertyWelfare/ruralpoverty/>.
- Gordon, David M., Edwards, Richard, and Reich, Michael. 1982. "Segmented work, divided workers: the historical transformation of labor in the United States." Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.
- Granovetter, Mark. 1981. "Toward a Sociological Theory of Income Differences." In Ivar Berg, (Ed.) "Sociological Perspectives on the Labor Markets" New York: Academic Press: 11-47.
- Groshen, Emily L. 1991. "The Structure of the Female/Male Wage Differential: Is it Who You Are, What You Do, or Where You Work?" *The Journal of Human Resources* 26(3):457-472.
- Hartmann, Heidi. 1979. "The Unhappy Marriage of Marxism and Feminism: Towards a More Progressive Union." In Lydia Sargent (Ed.) "Women and Revolution" 1981. South End Press: Boston.
- Jacobs, Jerry. 1989. "Revolving Doors: Sex Segregation and Women's Careers." Stanford University Press: Stanford.
- Kanter, Rosabeth M. 1977. "Men and Women of the Corporation." Basic Books: New York.
- Korenman, Sanders and David Neumark. 1991. "Does Marriage Really Make Men More Productive?" *The Journal of Human Resources.* 26(2) Spring:282-307.
- Nam, Yunju. 2004. "Is America becoming more equal for children?: Changes in the intergenerational transmission of low- and high-income status." *Social Science Research* 33(2): 187-205.

- Osterman, Paul. 1975. "An Empirical Study of Labor Market Segmentation." *Industrial and Labor Relations Review* 28(4): 508-523.
- Parsons, Talcott. 1940. "An Analytical Approach to the Theory of Social Stratification." *The American Journal of Sociology* 45(6):841-862.
- Raftery, Adrian E. and Michael Hout. 1993. "Maximally Maintained Inequality: Expansion, Reform, and Opportunity in Irish Education, 1921-1975." *Sociology of Education* 66(1):41-62.
- Reskin, Barbara F. 1993. "Sex Segregation in the Workplace." *Annual Review of Sociology* 19: 241-270.
- Reskin, Barbara F. and Patricia A. Roos. 1990. "Job Queues, Gender Queues: Explaining Women's Inroads into Male Occupations." Temple University Press: Philadelphia.
- Sewell, William H., Archibald O. Haller, and George W. Ohlendorf. 1970. "The Educational and Early Occupational Status Attainment Process: Replication and Revision." *American Sociological Review* 35(6): 1014-1027.
- Shelton, Beth Anne and Daphne John. 1996. "The Division of Household Labor." *Annual Review of Sociology* 22: 299-322.
- Sheridan, Jennifer T. 1997. "The Effects of Determinants of the Women's Movement Into and Out of Male Dominated Occupations on Occupational Sex Segregation." *Center for Demography and Ecology Working Papers* :97-07.
- Stevens, Gillian. 1986. "Sex-Differentiated Patterns of Intergeneration Occupational Mobility." *Journal of Marriage and Family* 48(1): 153-163.
- Tolbert, Charles, Patrick Horan and E.M. Beck. 1980. "The Structure of Economic Segmentation: A Dual Economy Approach." *American Journal of Sociology* 85 (September):1095-1116.
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. 2005. "Employed Persons by Detailed Occupation and Sex, 2004 annual averages." Published 2005, <http://stats.bls.gov/cps/wlf-table11-2005.pdf>.
- Wright, David W. 1992. "Class, Gender and Income: A Structural/Feminist-Marxist Analysis of Income Determination and Income Gap" PhD. Dissertation. Purdue University.
- Wysong, Earl, Robert Perrucci, and David W. Wright. 2002. "Organizations, Resources, and Class Analysis: The Distributional Model and The U.S. Class Structure." Seminar in Sociological Theory. Spring 2005. Wichita State University.

APPENDICES

TABLE 1
Values for Full Sample and by Sex

Variables:		Full Sample	Sons ¹	Daughters ²
Dependent Variable:	Respondent SES centile (mean):	50.39	51.02 **	49.67
	(stddev):	(28.39)	(29.14)	(27.51)
Individual-level factors:	Age (years)	43.3	43.3	43.3
		(2.32)	(2.31)	(2.32)
	Education in years	13.8	13.7 *	13.9
		(2.44)	(2.48)	(2.40)
	% less HS dipl (0,1)	5.5%	6.4% **	4.4%
	% HS Dipl (0,1)	40.8%	42.7% **	38.6%
	% Some college (0,1)	24.0%	21.3% ***	27.0%
	% BA/BS deg. or higher (0,1)	29.8%	29.6%	30.0%
		100%	100%	100%
	% Urban (0,1)	70.2%	70.2%	70.2%
		(0.46)	(0.46)	(0.46)
	% Poverty (0,1)	4.5%	3.6% **	5.4%
		(0.21)	(0.19)	(0.23)
Background factors:	Father's SES centile	50.3	51.5 *	48.9
		(28.83)	(28.90)	(28.70)
	Father's educ in years	12.2	12.3 *	12.0
		(3.44)	(3.46)	(3.41)
	% Father's less HS dipl (0,1)	30.3%	28.8%	31.9%
	% Father's HS Dipl (0,1)	37.6%	36.4%	38.9%
	% Father's Some college (0,1)	11.5%	13.1% ***	9.7%
	% Father's BA/BS or higher (0,1)	20.7%	21.6%	19.6%
		100%	100%	100%
	% Urban @ age 14 (0,1)	76.7%	76.7%	76.6%
		(0.42)	(0.42)	(0.42)
	% Poverty @ age 14 (0,1)	8.6%	7.7%	9.7%
		(0.28)	(0.27)	(0.30)
Structural-level factors:	Work hours per week	39.4	43.7 *** ^	34.4
		(16.19)	(15.55)	(15.48)
	% Government (0,1)	16.6%	13.3% ***	20.4%
		(0.37)	(0.34)	(0.40)
	% High-skill Industry (0,1)	34.5%	39.6% *** ^	28.8%
		(0.48)	(0.49)	(0.45)
	% White-collar High-skill (0,1)	42.8%	37.9% *** ^	48.3%
		(0.49)	(0.49)	(0.50)
	% White-collar Low-skill (0,1)	22.2%	14.2% *** ^	31.3%
		(0.42)	(0.35)	(0.46)
	% Blue-collar High-skill (0,1)	17.6%	29.5% *** ^	4.0%
		(0.38)	(0.46)	(0.20)
	% Blue-collar Low-skill (0,1)	17.5%	18.4%	16.4%
		(0.38)	(0.39)	(0.37)
	% Blue/White High-skill	60.3%	67.4% *** ^	52.3%
Gender:	Occupational Sex Segregation	0.95	0.59 *** ^	1.37
		(0.65)	(0.49)	(0.55)
	% Married (0,1)	68.2%	69.2%	67.0%
		(0.47)	(0.46)	(0.47)
	% Ever-married (0,1)	88.4%	17.7% **	23.1%
		(0.32)	(0.34)	(0.30)
	% Never-married (0,1)	11.6%	13.1% **	9.9%
		(0.32)	(0.34)	(0.30)
	% with children under 6 (0,1)	14.9%	17.8% ***	11.5%
		(0.36)	(0.38)	(0.32)
	% Minority (0,1)	14.3%	14.2%	14.5%
		(0.35)	(0.35)	(0.35)
	Sample n (weighted):	4,685	2,496	2,189
		100%	53.3%	46.7%

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

TABLE 2

SES Quartile Mobility

Father's SES in 1979		Son's SES in 2004				Daughter's SES in 2004				
		highest SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	lowest SES Q4	highest SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	lowest SES Q4	
highest	251	147	98	52	548	198	175	114	59	546
SES Q2	193	163	152	67	575	153	168	125	81	527
SES Q3	103	141	158	173	575	104	131	144	119	498
lowest	43	88	178	312	621	27	83	151	200	461
(totals)	590	539	586	604	2319	482	557	534	459	2032

Sons

Downward Mobility (upper right quadrant) 29.7% (67.8%)
 No Mobility (diagonal) 38.1%
 Upward Mobility (lower left quadrant) 32.2%

100.0%

Daughters

Downward Mobility (upper right quadrant) 33.1% (68.1%)
 No Mobility (diagonal) 34.9%
 Upward Mobility (lower left quadrant) 31.9%

100.0%

SES Outflow Mobility

Father's SES in 1979		Son's SES in 2004				Daughter's SES in 2004				
		highest SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	lowest SES Q4	highest SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	lowest SES Q4	
highest	45.8%	26.8%	17.9%	9.5%	100%	36.3%	32.1%	20.9%	10.8%	100%
SES Q2	33.6%	28.3%	26.4%	11.7%	100%	29.0%	31.9%	23.7%	15.4%	100%
SES Q3	17.9%	24.5%	27.5%	30.1%	100%	20.9%	26.3%	28.9%	23.9%	100%
lowest	6.9%	14.2%	28.7%	50.2%	100%	5.9%	18.0%	32.8%	43.4%	100%

SES Inflow Mobility

Father's SES in 1979		Son's SES in 2004				Daughter's SES in 2004				
		highest SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	lowest SES Q4	highest SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	lowest SES Q4	
highest	42.5%	27.3%	16.7%	8.6%	100%	41.1%	31.4%	21.3%	12.9%	100%
SES Q2	32.7%	30.2%	25.9%	11.1%	100%	31.7%	30.2%	23.4%	17.6%	100%
SES Q3	17.5%	26.2%	27.0%	28.6%	100%	21.6%	23.5%	27.0%	25.9%	100%
lowest	7.3%	16.3%	30.4%	51.7%	100%	5.6%	14.9%	28.3%	43.6%	100%
(totals)	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Figure 1 Surface Maps of Socioeconomic Status Matrix

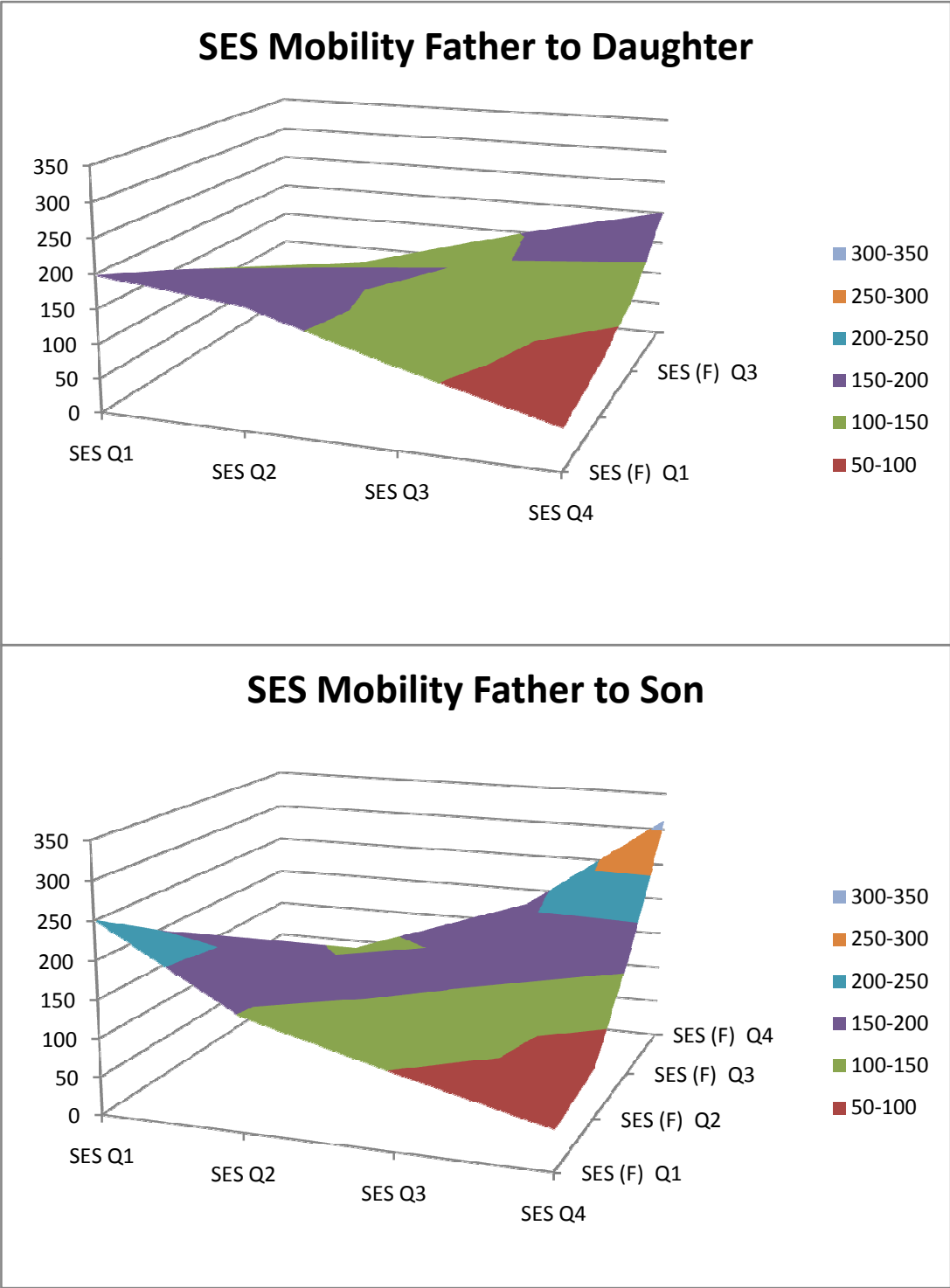


TABLE 3
OLS regression Analysis for Conceptual Model
 (Dependent Variable = SES)

Variables:	Full Sample		Sons		Daughters	
	Unstd.	std.	Unstd.	std.	Unstd.	std.
Independent Variables:						
<i>Individual-level factors:</i>						
Age (years)	-0.001	-0.001	0.011	0.011	-0.018	-0.021
Urban (0,1)	0.369 ***	0.080	0.386 ***	0.079	0.294 **	0.068
Father's SES	0.326 ***	0.409	0.330 ***	0.397	0.297 ***	0.396
Urban @ age 14 (0,1)	0.099	0.020	0.117	0.022	0.086	0.018
Poverty @ age 14 (0,1)	-0.118	-0.016	-0.097	-0.012	-0.150	-0.022
<i>Structural-level factors:</i>						
Work hours per week	0.026 ***	0.198	0.019 ***	0.135	0.031 ***	0.244
Number of jobs	-0.013 ***	-0.040	-0.026 ***	-0.078	0.008	0.024
High-Skill Industry (0,1)	0.408 ***	0.092	0.551 ***	0.121	0.011	0.002
<i>Gender:</i>						
Female	-0.245 **	-0.058	0.805 ***	0.176	0.142 *	0.039
Occupational sex segregation	0.492 ***	0.151	0.506 ***	0.104	0.347 ***	0.083
% Married (0,1)	0.441 ***	0.097	0.166 ***	0.094	0.026	0.015
Number of children	0.104 ***	0.060	-0.191	-0.030	0.077	0.014
% Minority (0,1)	-0.050	-0.008				
(Constant)	-2.143 ***		-2.590 ***		-1.245	
Adjusted R²	0.288 ***		0.347 ***		0.234 ***	
Adjusted R² Without Father's SES:	0.140 ***		0.222 ***		0.085 ***	
% Change in R²	51%		36%		64%	
N=	4352		2320		2032	

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

² significant difference = > 1.96 or < -1.96