

GENDER AND THE WAGE GAP: STILL NOT EQUAL

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Tiffany Franks

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

David Wright, Committee Chair

We have read this thesis and recommend its acceptance:

Ronald Matson, Committee Member

Samuel Yeager, Committee Member

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ABSTRACT

Individual, structural, and gender perspectives were applied to examine the wage gap between men and women. This study uses data from the American Time Use Survey of 2006, a supplement to the Current Population Survey. The results of this study reveal a median wage gap of 71.2%. Net of other factors, being female resulted in a loss of \$71.31 per week. Removing each model segment separately reveals that the structural perspective explains the largest portion of variance in the dependent variable of weekly income. Research limitations and possible policy implications to reduce the wage gap are included in the conclusion section.

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Chapter 1

1. Introduction

The focus of this study is on the wage gap between men and women and the possible explanations as to why the gap exists. Research data has firmly established that women receive lower wages than that of men (Marini, 1997). During the 1980's, the wage gap closed from 59% to 68% (O'neill and Polachek, 1993). In 1993, women earned 71 cents for every dollar men earned (United States Census Bureau, 1993). The closing of the wage gap has slowed, with little improvement over the last decade, the gap is now at 75% (United States Census Bureau, 2004). Legislation such as the Equal Pay Act has not succeeded in closing the gap. The law was put into place in 1963 and the pay gap is still present.

The gender wage gap is most often examined from three different perspectives. The individualist perspective views differences in income as a result in different choices made between men and women (Becker, 1962). Structuralists view the amount of income as a result of the economic position an individual occupies (Reich et al, 1973). Gender perspectives view women as being devalued and sorted into different positions, by way of occupational sex segregation (Jacobs, 1989). The alternative model in this study considers all three perspectives in order to explain the wage gap between men and women. Data from the 2006 Current Population Survey (CPS) is used to examine the wage gap.

Chapter 2

2. Literature Review

2.1 Individualist Perspective

Rational choice theory sees humans as rational beings, goal-oriented, concerned with their own welfare, and trying to maximize their utility (Turner, 1974). Individuals act in order to maximize their interests, while also minimizing their costs (Coleman, 1990). Actions are optimally chosen given the preferences, opportunities, and constraints that an individual faces (Coleman, 1990). It is argued that these choices are different for men and women.

Human capital theory argues that individuals choose to invest in market-based human capital, which increases their productivity and therefore their income. The attainment of human capital increases earned wages (Becker, 1962). Human capital can be defined as “activities that influence future real income through the imbedding of resources in people” (Becker, 1962). Investments in human capital can range from schooling and on-the-job training to vitamin consumption, but all investments increase the mental and physical abilities of an individual and therefore increase real income possibilities (Becker, 1962). Two forms of human capital that most affect income include educational attainment and work experience (Roos, 1985). Human capital theory suggests that positive returns will come from investing in human capital that is attractive to employers (Kilbourne, et. al., 1994 and Mitra, 2002). Accumulation of human capital improves productivity, which is desirable to employers (Duncan, 1996). It is more economical for an employer to hire one highly skilled and productive worker than five unskilled and unproductive workers to perform the same task.

According to comparative advantage theory, differences in human capital investments between men and women are a result of the division of labor within the home (Polachek, 1987). The introduction of new physical facilities in the form of equipment and machinery and the like led to the restructuring of occupational roles (Parsons, 1951). After the Industrial Revolution took place, the proportion of those employed in agriculture declined to below 20%, which obviously meant that family and paid work were being segregated (Parsons, 1951). Women are often expected to be the nurturers and to raise the children, while men are the breadwinners and providers (Polachek, 1987). Family responsibilities affect the types of jobs women choose to enter as well as the amount of time invested in education or on-the-job training and work experience (Roos, 1985). Many women choose to raise families and focus on maintaining marital and familial relationships, and therefore job benefits (such as a flexible schedule) are often more valuable than higher wages (Hessaramiri, 2001). Workers choose their occupations according to their tastes and abilities, and because workers maximize their utility, they tend to choose occupations that cater to their personal strengths (Gould, 2002). Therefore, it is more economically rational for men to invest in market-based human capital, while women tend to select jobs that are easy to reenter after child rearing (Roos, 1985). Research shows a gap will continue as long as people choose to have children (Hessaramiri, 2001).

Much of the closing of the wage gap in the 1980's was due to increases in investment of human capital by women (O'Neill and Polachek, 1993). Women increased their work experience and their education, which increased their wages (O'Neill and Polachek, 1993). However, although women earn half of all bachelors'

degrees and the number of phd's has quadrupled since 1960, there is still a significant pay gap between the median wages of men and women, even within educational subgroups (Hessaramiri, 2001). Furthermore, female jobs generally pay less than do male jobs that involve distinct tasks, but are comparable in the amount of skill, effort, training, and working conditions (England and Dunn, 1988 and Hessaramiri, 2001). These findings suggest that rational choice, human capital, and comparable advantage theories cannot alone explain the wage gap between men and women.

2.2 Structural Perspective

In contrast to the individualist perspective, structuralists view the social structure as the determinant of which positions pay higher wages and who will occupy these positions, rather than human capital. Organizations have hierarchies of economic positions, which determine wages. Individual characteristics do not determine income, but rather the position that the individual occupies. Dual economy and labor market segmentation theories attempt to explain the wage gap between men and women from a structuralist point of view.

Dual economy theory sees the labor market as being split into two sectors, the monopoly sector and the competitive sector (O'Connor, 1973 and Saint-Paul, 1996). The monopoly sector is characterized by large market share, price setting ability, a high capital-to-labor ratio, and international business, all of which lead to higher profits, which can support a higher wage structure. The large amount of capital invested per worker compels management to regulate production and employment to avoid losses through higher wages (O'Connor, 1973). Employees in the monopoly sector earn 1.5 times

more than workers in the competitive sector. The monopoly sector mainly consists of white men (Coverdill, 1988 and Tolbert, Horan, and Beck, 2003).

The competitive sector has a low capital-to-labor ratio, small market share, is price dependent, is restricted to local markets, and accordingly has low profits, which lead to low wage structures. Very little capital is invested per worker, and competitive industries are often unstable (O'Connor, 1973). Technology in the competitive sector is less complex than that of the monopoly sector, and most occupations in the competitive sector are service or distribution positions (O'Connor, 1973). According to dual economy theory, women are more likely than men to occupy positions in the competitive sector (Coverdill, 1988 and Reid and Rubin, 2003). Studies attempting to explain structural inequality have found that being female decreases the chance of occupying a position in the monopoly sector and that white men experience higher returns on education and work experience (Coverdill, 1988, Tolbert, Horan, and Beck, 1980, and Reid and Rubin, 2003).

Labor market segmentation is defined as “the historical process whereby political-economic forces encourage the division of the labor market into separate segments” (Reich, Gordon, and Edwards, 1973). Labor market segmentation arose during the transition from competitive to monopoly capitalism, approximately 1890 (Reich, Gordon, and Edwards, 1973). The primary market consists of stable jobs, high wages, high autonomy, and high-skilled positions, while the secondary market has lower wages, high turnover rates, and low-skilled, dead-end positions. Segmentation is beneficial to capitalists; dividing workers prevents them from uniting against employers and legitimizes inequalities (Reich, Gordon, and Edwards, 1973). White males fill most

of the positions in the primary market, while women and minorities comprise the secondary market. Occupations in the secondary market are often “female” jobs, which encourage a “serving mentality” and provide services to others (Reich, Gordon, and Edwards, 1973). Tolbert, Horan, and Beck (1980) found that females filled 29.32% of the primary market and 53.86% of the secondary market.

The structuralist perspective does explain more of the variance in the wage gap, but still does not explain differences that exist between men and women in the same economic position. For example, men receive higher wages in the primary market and also experience higher returns on individual attributes, such as education (Coverdill, 1988). This finding suggests that even when women have a position in the primary labor market and the same amount of education as men, they still receive lower wages than men in the same position, arguing that economic position is not the only determinant of income.

2.3 Gender Perspective

While individual and structural theories consider gender to be a variable, feminists argue that it is a lifelong process of devaluation and sorting. The sexual division of labor is a social construct and reflects the cultural definition of sex roles (Jacobs, 1989). Sex segregation is maintained by a lifelong system of different socialization of boys and girls, sex-typed tracking in the education system, and sex-linked social control in the workplace (Jacobs, 1989).

The gender of a worker determines how the work is rewarded, through a devaluation and sorting process. Traditionally, “women’s” jobs have been both lower paid and lessvalued than “men’s” jobs (Reskin and Roos, 1980). Cultural ideas devalue work

done by women and cultural beliefs lead to an inadequate estimate of female workers abilities (England, 2005).

Women still perform at least two-thirds of housework and are usually responsible for childcare, while men are usually responsible for supplying income. The division of household labor affects individual income, with most research showing a positive relationship for the earnings of men and a negative relationship for earnings of women (Marini, 1997). Traditionally, education for women was geared towards improving domestic and family skills, rather than skills that would increase income (Jacobs, 1989). Skills typically associated with women's work, such as care or nurture, are often undervalued and underpaid (Cohen and Huffman, 2003).

Women who enter male-dominated occupations face discrimination during hiring and while on the job, which leads to a high turnover and attrition rate of these women. Patriarchy and discrimination in the labor market lead to a large pool of women workers. Crowding theory argues that "women's" occupations pay less because labor is easy to find and replace (Bergmann, 1986). If discrimination against female workers were not present, crowding of the secondary market would not exist.

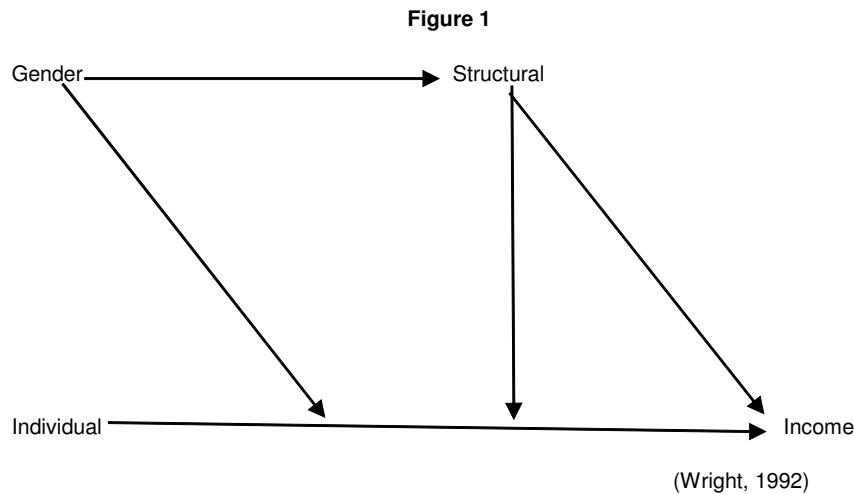
The revolving door, or social control perspective, views socialization as a lifelong process with the reinforcement of male and female roles. Sex roles are taught at an early age, continue in education through "gender tracking", and carry on to the workplace through various discriminatory practices (Jacobs, 1989). The flow of women into and out of male dominated occupations is greater than the changes in the overall labor market.

Women may have a chance of moving into a male dominated occupation, but women that enter these fields continue to face impediments and the attrition rate of women in predominantly male occupations is high (Jacobs, 1989). There has been a gain in representation of women in male dominated occupations, but it is small compared to the amount of flows in and out of these positions (Jacobs, 1989). Less attrition would result in more integration of men and women in the workplace (Jacobs, 1989).

Occupational sex segregation in the United States dates back to the turn of the century (Reskin and Roos, 1990). Many occupations became feminized because opportunities for mobility, earnings, and job autonomy decreased and white men sought better opportunities elsewhere (Reskin and Roos, 1990). Females took these jobs because they were open and were better than their previous positions. By the early 1980's an increase of women was found in more traditional "men's" jobs, however occupational sex segregation has been resistant to change despite legislation deeming it illegal (Reskin and Roos, 1990). Job queues, a worker's ranking of a job's attractiveness, have been found to be similar between men and women (Reskin and Roos, 1990). However, society grants men first choice of occupations and men choose the most attractive ones. Labor queues, an employer's ranking of a potential worker, are transformed into gender queues by expectations, stereotypes, and prejudice against females (Reskin and Roos, 1990). The group employers prefer, white males, will fill the best positions and other groups will be designated to the less desirable jobs.

Clearly, discrimination and occupational sex segregation against females is still a problem in the United States labor force. Crowding of "female" occupations,

socialization of the sexes, and job queues and gender queues all result in lower pay for women (Bergmann, 1986, Jacobs, 1989, and Reskin and Roos, 1990.). Several studies have found that higher levels of occupational sex segregation are associated with gender based devaluation of women's work roles (Cohen and Huffman, 2003, England, 2005, and Marini, 1997).



2.4 Alternative Model

The dependent variable in this study is income. The income determination model consists of three perspectives: individualist, structural, and gender. The individualist perspective argues that accumulation of human capital determines the amount of income an individual earns. Human capital such as education and work experience is valuable in the labor market and employers pay higher wages for people with the desired skills. The structuralist perspective posits that income is derived from the position that an individual occupies and that the structure of the economy dictates who will occupy which positions. Different positions offer different rates of return on individual attributes. In the hierarchy of positions, individuals that occupy higher-ranking positions receive higher wages than those lower in the hierarchy. Finally, the gender

perspective views an individual's gender as the determinant of income. Women are devalued and sorted into lower economic positions, which pay lower wages. Even when women occupy higher positions in the hierarchy, they receive less compensation than white males. Finally, women still perform the majority of housework and childcare, which has a negative effect on wages.

Chapter 3

3.1 Data and Methodology

The data for this study comes from the 2004 American Time Use Survey (ATUS) (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006). The survey is sponsored by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and is conducted by the Census Bureau. The universe includes "all residents living in households in the United States that are at least 15 years old with the exception of military personnel and people in formal institutions, such as prisons or nursing homes" (ATUS, 2006). The total universe consists of 105 million households. The sample is drawn from the Current Population Survey (CPS), which conducts monthly interviews to 60,000 households. The sample is selected by using a stratified random sample of respondents by region, race/ethnicity, and presence of children. The CPS collects data on employment status, income, and demographic information.

This study is interested in people working in the paid labor force, therefore several sample restrictions were applied in order to more accurately target the desired population. Restrictions were made to select only those who are employed full time and are working for pay. Workers under the age of 18 and those over 64 were restricted from the sample in order to control for the effects of part time/temporary employment or retirement. Weekly earnings were restricted to a minimum of \$10.00 a week to

\$3000.00 a week to control for outliers. The final sample size is 6,745 with 3,489 women (51.7%) and 3,256 men (48.3%).

A population weight is provided by ATUS, which is designed to counteract oversampling of weekend days. Saturdays and Sundays account for 50% of the data collected, while the other five weekdays comprise the other 50%. However, standard weights are not compatible with multivariate analyses because they may alter the original sample size, force the collapse of standard errors in variables, and make insignificant statistics appear significant. Therefore, a relative weight was used to generalize to the larger population. Applying the relative weight maintains the sample size while also keeping the same distribution of the targeted population. The relative weight was obtained by dividing the standard weight by its mean.

3.2 Variables

3.2.1 Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this study is weekly earnings, which is an interval level variable measured in raw dollars. Since income is often highly skewed, many researchers use a logarithm to report earnings. However, due to the sample restrictions in this study, outliers have been reduced so earnings may be reported in dollars, which is easier to understand when interpreting the results of this study. More importantly, the standardized residuals from the regression analysis with dollars are normally distributed. Income is measured in dollars and is reported as weekly earnings, with a range of \$10.00 to \$3000.00. A centile was created from the income variable in order to rank wages from lowest to highest.

3.2.2 Independent Variables

Variables from the individual model segment include age, education, and residential location. Age is an interval level variable measured in years, with a range of 18 to 65 years. It is expected that income will increase with age due to gaining work experience. Education is a 5 level ordinal variable with values of not having a high school degree, having a high school degree, some college but no degree, a college degree, and a graduate degree. A series of dummy variables was created for each level of education and then a binary variable was created for those with a college degree and higher. It is expected that income will increase as educational attainment increases.

Location includes geographical region as well as the type of residential location, such as rural, urban, or suburban. Both are nominal variables, with region having 4 categories of northeast, midwest, south, and west. A binary variable was created for workers living in the south, as it has been shown people living in the southern region are more likely to receive lower wages. A binary variable was also created for those living in a non-metropolitan area. It is expected that workers living in the south or non-metropolitan areas will report less income.

Structural level variables consist of number of hours worked weekly, union status, government employee, industry level, and occupational level and prestige. Hours worked is an interval level variable and is measured weekly. Due to child rearing responsibilities, women often work fewer hours than men, which affects income. It is expected that men will have more opportunities for full-time positions and access to overtime than women. Union membership is an interval level binary variable. Net of all other factors, it is expected that union members will earn more income than non-union

members. Government employee status is an interval level binary variable. Net of all other factors, it is expected that government employees will earn higher wages than non-government employees.

Industry level was recoded from a nominal variable into a dummy binary variable, denoting the goods producing sector (i.e. mining, construction, and manufacturing). It is expected that workers employed in the goods producing industry will earn higher wages than those working in the service industry.

Occupational level was recoded into four binary dummy variables, including white-collar high-skill (managers, professionals, education, and health workers), white-collar low-skill (sales and clerical workers) blue-collar high-skill (precision craft, protection, transportation, and high paid production workers), and blue-collar low-skill (laborers, assemblers, and farm workers). It is expected that those employed in white-collar high-skill positions will earn higher wages. Occupational prestige is an interval level variable that measures prestige on a scale from zero to 100, with higher numbers corresponding to higher levels of prestige. It is expected that occupations with a higher prestige score will pay higher wages than lower prestige occupations.

Gender level variables include sex, occupational sex segregation, marital status, the presence of children under 6, engaging in direct household labor, and minority status.

Sex is a binary variable in which 0=male and 1=female. The literature strongly supports findings that, net of all other factors, women still earn less than men.

Occupational sex segregation is an interval level variable with scores obtained by taking the percentage of females in specific occupations and dividing this figure by the

total percent in the labor force. Occupational sex segregation scores range from 0 (indicating an over-representation of men) to above 1 (indicating female over-representation). A score of exactly 1 indicates that both genders are equally represented.

Marital status was recoded into a 3 level nominal variable with categories of married, ever married, and never married, and then finally was recoded into a set of three binary variables for each of the 3 categories. Respondents in the ever-married category include those who are separated, divorced, or widowed. Income is expected to increase for married males.

The presence of children under age 6 is an interval level binary variable. The literature suggests that wages decline for those with young children. It is expected that individuals with young children will earn lower wages than those with children over age six.

Direct household labor is a series of 5 dummy variables consisting of cooking, cleaning, laundry, childcare, and travel associated with childcare. Two binary variables were then created, one to denote whether each gender engages in a certain activity, and if so, the second to denote how much time is spent on each activity. Net of all other factors, it is expected that more women will engage in household labor and spend more time on household labor, which will have a negative effect on income.

Race and ethnicity are both nominal level variables and were combined to create a race/ethnicity variable. A series of 5 dummy variables were then created including White non-Hispanic, Black non-Hispanic, Hispanic, Asian non-Hispanic, and other. A binary variable was then created for minority and non-minority workers. Non-minority

workers include both White non-Hispanics and Asian non-Hispanics, as the literature shows these groups tend to earn higher wages than others. Net of all other factors, it is expected that income will be higher for non-minority workers than for minority workers.

3.3 Hypotheses

- 1) Net of other factors, as age increases income will increase.
- 2) Net of other factors, higher levels of educational attainment will result in increases in earned income.
- 3) Net of other factors, workers in the goods producing sector will earn more income than workers in the service industry.
- 4) Net of other factors, managers will receive greater returns for education than service workers.
- 5) Net of other factors, females will be concentrated in lower paying economic positions.
- 6) Net of other factors, being female will decrease income.
- 7) Net of other factors, more females will engage in household labor and females will spend more time on household labor activities than men.
- 8) Net of other factors, engaging in household labor will have a negative effect on women's incomes.

Chapter 4

4.0 Results

4.1 Univariate and Bivariate Results

Table 1 offers univariate and bivariate results for the full sample as well as by gender. The median weekly earnings, the dependent variable, for men is \$674, while for

women it is \$480, with a pay gap of 71.2%. Among the individual level factors, women were more likely to be older at 39.4 years, compared to 38.6 years for men and women were likely to have more education (13.65 years) than men (13.29). Men were more likely to have a high school diploma or less (12.3%) when compared to women (9%). A statistically significant difference was found between men and women concerning some college, with men more likely to have some college credit (32.8%) and only (28.6%) of women. Holding a college degree, living in a rural area, and living in the southern region of the United States were all found to have no statistical difference between the means of the genders.

Among structural-level factors, men were more likely to work more hours per week than women, 43.5 compared to 36.9 and men had a much better chance of working in the goods-producing industry (32%), compared to 10% of women. However, women were more likely to hold both white-collar high-skill, for example an executive, (45%) and white-collar low-skill, for example a secretary (33%) positions than men, 32% and 16% respectively. Men comprised more of the blue-collar positions, with 29% being blue-collar high-skill, for example a mechanic, and 24% blue-collar low-skill, for example a hairstylist, with women at 4% and 18% respectively. However, the percentage of men in high-skill positions is 61%, compared to 49% for women, which offers support to hypothesis 5, that women will be concentrated in lower paying economic positions. Union membership and working in a government position had no statistical difference between the means of men and women.

Among gender-level factors, on occupational sex segregation males received a score of .54 and females 1.53, showing an over-representation of females and an

under-representation of males in female dominated positions. Women were more likely to be ever married (divorced or widowed) at 17.5% than men at 8.8%. Men were more likely to be married (61.2%) than women (55.6%) and were found to be more likely to have never married (30%) than women (26.9%). Women were found to be more likely to have young children (27.7%) than men (23.7) and engage in household labor, 79.2% compared to 52.1% of men. Hypothesis seven is supported, showing more females engaging in household labor than men. Minority status (non-White or non-Asian) had no statistical difference present between the means of men and women.

Table 2 shows results for full-time workers only, for males and females as well as the full sample. Men still earn more than women, with the median earnings for men at \$720 and women's median earnings at \$596, with a pay gap at 82.8%. Among the individual level factors, women had more education at 13.83 years, compared to 13.38 years for men. Women were more likely to have some college (28.5% for women, 26% for men), hold a college degree (22.7% of women, 20.5% of men), and live in rural areas (35.8%) in comparison to men (32.6%). However, men were more likely to have a high school diploma (32.1%) compared to women (29.4%).

Among structural-level factors, men were likely to work more hours at 45.7 hours, while women worked 43 hours and men were more likely to be employed in the goods producing industry (34%) compared to women (13%). Women were more likely to be employed in white-collar high and low-skill positions (48% and 32%) than men (33% and 15%, respectively) and men were more likely to be employed in blue collar high and low-skill positions (30% and 22%) than women at 5% and 15%, respectively. However, overall men are more likely to be employed in high-skill positions, which supports

hypothesis 5 that women will be concentrated in lower paying economic positions.

Union membership and government employment had no statistical difference among the means of men and women.

Among gender level factors, women are more likely to experience occupational sex segregation and are segregated into female dominated occupations. Women are more likely to be ever-married (19.4%) than men (9.1%), have children under the age of six (28.3%) compared to men (23.9%) and are more likely to engage in household labor than men, (79.5% for women and 52.9% for men). Hypothesis seven is again supported, with more women engaging in household labor. Men were more likely to be married (64.8%) than women (57.1%). Minority status was not statistically different for men and women.

Figure one offers results for those employed in management positions compared to that of service workers in terms of levels of education and weekly earnings. This figure supports hypothesis 4, showing that managers receive greater returns on invested education than that of service workers. Some college experience substantially increases wages for managers, but actually pays less than having some high school or a high school diploma for service workers. A post-graduate degree is not required for service workers and therefore will not generate high returns in that position.

Table 3 gives results for the percent of males and females that participate in direct household labor within six subgroups and the hours each gender engages in household labor. Women are more likely to participate in household labor (79.2%) than men (52.1%) and spend more time engaged in household labor, 16.9 hours per week compared to 10 hours for men. Among all six subgroups (employment status, spouse's

employment status, age cohort, earning quintile, education, and job status) more women report engaging in household labor than men. Among those who participated in household labor, women spent more time involved in housework in all six subgroups than men. Meaningful differences exist between males and females on all six subgroups involving participation in household labor as well as time spent engaged in household labor. These results support hypothesis 7, which states that more females will engage in household labor and females will spend more time on household labor activities than men.

4.2 Multivariate Results

Table 4 gives results for the disaggregated model of ordinary least square regression. The adjusted r-square for the full sample is .548, explaining 54% of the variance in weekly income. Separate analysis were also performed for women and men, resulting in statistically significant R-square values of .528 (52%) for men and .538 (53%) for women. Net of other factors, being female led to a decrease of \$71.31 per week in earned wages. This finding supports hypothesis 5 that being female will decrease income, net of other factors.

Among the individual level factors, age, educational attainment, and living in southern or rural areas were statistically significant but only age had a meaningful difference between men and women. While the full sample reports an increase of \$5.40 for each yearly increase in age, men earn \$5.99 more per week with each yearly increase in age, while women earn \$4.30, which supports hypothesis 1, as age increases so will income. Reports of increased income for attaining higher levels of education support hypothesis two, but no statistical difference was found between the

means of men and women. Among structural level factors, all factors were found to be statistically significant for the full sample. For each additional hour worked, the full sample earned \$13.29. Union members earned \$97.69 more per week and government employees earned \$67.93. Workers employed in the goods-producing sector earned \$72.68 more per week than workers employed in the service sector, which supports hypothesis 3, but no statistical difference was found between the means of men and women. Meaningful differences were found between the sexes on white-collar high and low-skill positions and blue-collar high-skill, all in comparison to blue-collar low-skill. The full sample earned \$278.90 more per week if employed in a white-collar high-skill position; men earned \$356.40 and women earned \$199.17. The full sample earned \$140.79 if employed in a white-collar low-skill position; men earned \$177.78 and women earned \$89.61. Finally, the full sample earned \$41.89 if employed in a blue-collar high skill position; men earned \$69.59 and women lost \$4.53.

Among gender level factors, those employed in female dominated positions lost \$100.64 for the full sample and a meaningful difference is present, with men losing \$140.96 and women losing \$74.29. Being married was statistically significant for the full sample showing a weekly increase of \$26.60, but is statistically significant only for men when the sample is divided by gender. Laundry was statistically significant, showing a loss of \$23.71 per week, but no difference exists between men and women. Food preparation was statistically significant for the full sample, with a loss of \$35.82 per week. Food preparation was also statistically significant for both sexes, but no meaningful difference exists. The full sample reported a loss of \$56.63 per week for traveling with a child, but men lost \$100.58 while women only lost \$2.53. Caring for

children had a positive effect on income, showing a weekly increase of \$65.56. These findings only partially support hypothesis eight, which states that engaging in household labor will have a negative effect on women's income. Women's income is most adversely affected by food preparation, but the other household factors were not statistically significant for women. However, men earn \$97.76 more per week, while women earn \$8.60. Finally, the full sample lost \$63.26 per week for being a minority, with men losing \$85.09 and women \$39.48.

Table 5 provides the disaggregate results for the effect of engaging in household labor for married persons only, net of other factors. The adjusted r-square for the full sample is .509, which explains 50% of the variance in weekly income. Slightly more of the variance is explained for women than it is for men. The r-square for women is .495 (49%) and for men it is .456 (45%). Married females lose \$77.70, which is more than the full sample containing women of all marital status'. This finding supports hypothesis six that being female will decrease income.

Among the individual level factors, all were statistically significant for the full sample and for men and women separately, with the exception of having a high school diploma for men and living in the south or Midwest for women. Hypothesis two is supported, showing an increase in wages for as educational attainment increases. However, only age had a meaningful difference between the sexes, which again supports hypothesis one. For each additional year aged, men earn \$6.84 more per week, while women earn \$4.28. These findings support hypothesis one.

All of the structural factors were statistically significant for the full sample as well as for men and women, with the exception of blue-collar low-skill for females. Hypothesis

three is supported again, showing an increase of \$68.47 for workers employed in the goods-producing sector, but no statistical difference is present between the means of men and women. Both white-collar high-skill and white-collar low-skill have meaningful differences between the sexes. Men in white-collar high-skill positions earn \$369.58 while women in the same positions earn \$227.88, and men in white-collar low-skill positions earn \$217.39 while women in those same positions earn \$107.32.

Among the gender level factors, being female, occupational sex segregation, laundry, traveling with child, caring for child, having a spouse employed full-time, and being a minority were all statistically significant for the full sample, but a statistical difference between the means of men and women is found only on occupational sex segregation. Men lost more income per week (\$149.43) when employed in female dominated positions, while women lost \$94.98. Hypothesis 8 was partially supported by table five, with only food preparation being statistically significant for women.

Table 6 gives results for the partitioning of variance for the alternative model. The entire alternative model has an adjusted r-square of .548, explaining 54% of the variance in weekly income among men and women. The adjusted r-square for men is .523 (52%) and for women it is .544 (54%). After eliminating factors from the individual level, the r-square for the full sample changes to .490, now explaining 49% of the wage gap. The r-square change results in .472 (47%) for males and .474 (47%) for females. Elimination of the structural level factors resulted in an adjusted r-square of .367 (36%) for the full sample, .352 (35%) for males, and .324 (32%) for females. The elimination of gender level factors gave an adjusted r-square of .518 (51%) for the full sample, .507 (50%) for males, and .534 (53%) for females. These results suggest that the structural

level factors explain the greatest percentage of the wage gap; without the structural level variables, the adjusted r-square drops almost 20%.

Figure 3 offers results for the partitioning shares of unique variance for each model segment for the full sample as well as by gender. This figure shows a more precise percentage for each model segment. The values in table six can be affected by the number of variables present in each model segment and shared variance among predictors. Figure 3 separates out the unique variance that is not shared with the other model segments. The structural model accounts for the greatest explanation of unique variance for the full sample (61.8%) and for women (64%). Men's unique variance for the structural model is 41.5%, which is almost equal to the unique variance explained in the individual model. The individual model segment explains the next greatest percentage of unique variance, which is 29.8% for the full sample, 41.8% for men and 32.3% for women. The gender model explains the lowest percentage of unique variance, which is 8.4% for the full sample, 16.7% for men, and 3.7% for women.

Chapter 5

5. Discussion

5.1 Conclusion

Theories supporting the individualist perspective, structural perspective, and gender perspective are used to help explain the wage gap. The alternative model used in this study explains 55% of the variance in weekly income for the full sample, 53% for men, and 54% for women. However, the amount of variance explained changes when evaluating data for married people only. The amount of variance explained for the full sample of married people explains 50% of the wage gap, 45% for men, and 49% for

women. Tables 4 and 5 show that men benefit more from marriage and having children than women. Table 4 reports an increase of \$66.48 for married men, while married women lose \$2.96. Men with children under the age of six earned \$23.20 more per week while women lost \$17.19. Table 5 reports married women losing \$77.63, compared to the sample of all women losing \$71.31 per week, and men with children earn \$16.46 more while women with children lose \$40.61. These findings suggest that women are still expected to provide the majority of childcare, whether they are working full time or not working at all, married or single/divorced. Men are allowed to work more hours due to less expectations for child care.

Although more women than men occupy white-collar positions, women still earn less than men in these same positions. As table 4 illustrates, men in white-collar high-skill positions earn \$356.40, while women in these positions earn \$199.17. The same is true for white-collar low-skill, with men earning \$177.78 and women earning \$89.61 and blue-collar high-skill, with men earning \$69.59 and women losing \$4.53, all in comparison to the reference group of blue-collar low-skill. This finding suggests that sexual discrimination is still present. Figure one further supports this finding, illustrating income growth patterns for different economic positions, with lower positions earning less money, where most women are concentrated.

Women are still performing the majority of direct household labor, as table 3 shows. Even women that work full-time still perform more work and spend more time engaged in household labor. However, men experienced greater losses in income than women on the direct household labor variables, with the exception of food preparation. As table 7 shows, men lose more on cleaning (\$18.22) compared to women (\$5.84), men lose

\$29.95 due to laundry while women lose \$3.62, and men lose \$92.14 due to travelling with children, while women only lose \$5.28. These findings suggest that men substitute direct household labor for working full time while women work full time and engage in household labor. The pay gap closes approximately 9% for full-time workers, as shown when comparing table 1 and table 2. However, a pay gap is still present even when women are working full time.

In summary, hypothesis one, two and three are supported by tables four and five, showing an increase in weekly income for increases in age and education, and being employed in the goods producing sector. Hypothesis four is supported by figure 2, which shows that managers earn more than service workers across all educational levels. Hypothesis five is supported by tables one and two, which show that when combining both white-collar high-skill and blue-collar high-skill, women are concentrated in the low-skill positions, which pay less. Hypothesis six is supported by tables 4 and 5, which illustrate that, net of other factors, females lose income simply because they are female. Hypothesis 7 is supported by table 3, which shows that more women engage in household labor and spend more time on household labor than males. Tables four and five partially support hypothesis eight, which shows that out of all the household labor variables, only food preparation was significant for women.

The structural model explains the greatest percentage of the variance of weekly income between men and women, supporting the perspective that economic position is the determinant of earned wages. While the structural model alone does not fully explain the wage gap, it is an advancement over the individual model. These results

suggest perhaps more structural factors should be examined that may affect earned wages.

5.2 Limitations and Policy Implications

As with all research, there are some limitations to this study. It is possible that other variables exist on the individual, structural, and gender levels that were not included in the ATUS data set that may have a significant impact on the wage gap. For example, sexual discrimination is not directly measured and therefore its effects and how much of the wage gap may be associated to acts of discrimination are not known. This study suggests that there are other variables that are affecting the wage gap that were not included in the ATUS data set.

The data are cross-sectional, rather than longitudinal, so time is an issue. For example, lengths of marriage or employment are not accounted for. Longitudinal data would provide a more accurate picture of income determination. There is also no information on the respondent's spouse, in terms of their income or hours spent engaged in household labor.

Possible policy implications that emerge from this study include stiffer penalties for companies or corporations found to be engaging in discriminatory practices, incorporating on-site child care facilities for working parents and more family-friendly policies that benefit men as well as women, and revising the equal pay act to make it relevant and applicable to today's labor force. The results of this study reveal that sexual discrimination is still present in the labor force. While discrimination may be impossible to fully eradicate, measures should be taken to eliminate it as much as possible. Stiffer penalties should be enforced for companies found to be engaging in

discriminatory hiring practices. Perhaps enforcing monetary fines or delegating government agents to investigate possible discrimination would have an effect on reducing discrimination in the labor force. Affirmative action alone has not succeeded in ending gender discrimination; further steps must be taken.

Many countries have policies that benefit working parents, such as maternal and paternal leave, on-site child care, and flexible scheduling. The United States seems it would benefit by emulating some of these practices – workers may be happier and therefore more productive. Women often leave the labor force in order to raise children and then later return to work when the children are grown. This is an unfair disadvantage for women; while men continue to further their career's, women put their career's on hold for the sake of the family. Women on the “mommy track” are often discriminated against because employers fear they will take time off to raise children. Men are often over-burdened with the stress and responsibility of financially supporting a family. Providing family-friendly benefits would benefit women as well as men.

The Equal Pay Act was passed over 40 years ago and has not achieved what it was designed to do. While the wage gap narrowed substantially in the 1980's, since the early 1990's it has been at a standstill. The Equal Pay Act needs to be re-examined in order to apply to today's labor force and new ways to enforce the act need to be created.

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APPENDICES

Table 1
Values for Full Sample and by Sex

Variables:	Full Sample	Men ¹	Women ²
Dependent Variable:			
Weekly earnings (mean):	\$680	\$782 *** ^	\$571 (pay-gap)
Weekly earnings (median):	\$577	\$674	\$480 (73.0%)
(stddev):	(456)	(481)	(399) (71.2%)
Independent Variables:			
<i>Individual-level factors:</i>			
Age (years)	39.0 (12.10)	38.6 ** (11.82)	39.4 (12.39)
Education in years	13.46 (2.86)	13.29 *** (3.00)	13.65 (2.69)
% HS Dipl or less (0,1)	10.7%	12.3% **	9.0%
% Some college (0,1)	30.9%	32.8% *** ^	28.6%
% BA/BS deg. or higher (0,1)	29.0%	26.8%	31.3%
% Rural (0,1)	18.6% (0.39)	18.7% (0.39)	18.4% (0.39)
% South & Midwest Region (0,1)	34.0% (0.47)	32.9% (0.33)	35.1% (0.35)
<i>Structural-level factors:</i>			
Work hours per week (median)	40.3 (0.12)	43.5 *** ^ (11.32)	36.9 (12.20)
% Union member (0,1)	12.4% (0.33)	13.3% (0.34)	11.4% (0.32)
% Government (0,1)	5.3% (0.22)	5.7% (0.23)	4.8% (0.21)
% Goods-producing industry (0,1)	21.0% (0.41)	32.0% *** ^ (0.47)	10.0% (0.30)
% White-collar High-skill (0,1)	38.0% (0.49)	32.0% *** ^ (0.47)	45.0% (0.50)
% White-collar Low-skill (0,1)	24.0% (0.43)	16.0% *** ^ (0.36)	33.0% (0.47)
% Blue-collar High-skill (0,1)	17.0% (0.37)	29.0% *** ^ (0.45)	4.0% (0.19)
% Blue-collar Low-skill (0,1)	21.0% (0.41)	24.0% *** (0.42)	18.0% (0.39)
% High-skill (0,1)	55.0%	61.0% *** ^	49.0%
<i>Gender:</i>			
Occupational Sex-Segregation	0.94 (0.65)	0.54 *** ^ (0.52)	1.53 (0.52)
% Married (0,1)	58.5% (0.49)	61.2% ***	55.6% (0.50)
% Ever-married (0,1)	13.0% (0.34)	8.8% *** ^	17.5% (0.38)
% Never-married (0,1)	28.5% (0.45)	30.0% *	26.9% (0.44)
% Children under age 6 (0,1)	25.6% (0.44)	23.7% ***	27.7% (0.45)
% Engage in household labor (0,1)	65.2% (0.48)	52.1% *** ^	79.2% (0.41)
% Minority (0,1)	26.1% (0.44)	26.4% (0.44)	25.7% (0.44)
Sample n (weighted):	6,746	3,490	3,256
	100%	51.7%	48.3%

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

² effect size greater = > .20

TABLE 2
Values for Full Time Workers

Variables:	Full Sample	Men ¹	²	Women
Dependent Variable:				
Weekly earnings (mean):	\$775	\$837 ***	^	\$690
Weekly earnings (median):	\$660	\$720		\$596
(stddev):	(441)	(466)		(390)
Independent Variables:				
<i>Individual-level factors:</i>				
Age (years)	40.0	39.6 ***		40.7
	(11.39)	(11.29)		(11.49)
Education in years	13.57	13.38 ***		13.83
	(2.89)	(3.01)		(2.69)
% HS Dipl or less (0,1)	31.0%	32.1% *		29.4%
% Some college (0,1)	27.1%	26.0% *		28.5%
% BA/BS deg. or higher (0,1)	21.4%	20.5% *		22.7%
% Rural (0,1)	18.7%	19.2%		18.1%
	(0.39)	(0.39)		(0.38)
% South & Midwest Region (0,1)	34.0%	32.6% *		35.8%
	(0.47)	(0.47)		(0.48)
<i>Structural-level factors:</i>				
Work hours per week	44.6	45.7 ***	^	43.0
	(8.47)	(9.09)		(7.26)
% Union member (0,1)	13.9%	14.1%		13.7%
	(0.35)	(0.35)		(0.34)
% Government (0,1)	5.9%	6.0%		5.8%
	(0.24)	(0.24)		(0.23)
% Goods-producing industry (0,1)	25.0%	34.0% ***	^	13.0%
	(0.44)	(0.48)		(0.34)
% White-collar High-skill (0,1)	40.0%	33.0% ***	^	48.0%
	(0.49)	(0.47)		(0.50)
% White-collar Low-skill (0,1)	22.0%	15.0% ***	^	32.0%
	(0.42)	(0.36)		(0.47)
% Blue-collar High-skill (0,1)	19.0%	30.0% ***	^	5.0%
	(0.39)	(0.46)		(0.21)
% Blue-collar Low-skill (0,1)	19.0%	22.0% ***		15.0%
	(0.39)	(0.41)		(0.36)
% High-skill (0,1)	59.0%	63.0% ***	^	53.0%
<i>Gender:</i>				
Occupational Sex-Segregation	0.95	0.62 ***	^	1.40
	(0.65)	(0.51)		(0.53)
% Married (0,1)	61.6%	64.8% ***		57.1%
	(0.49)	(0.48)		(0.50)
% Ever-married (0,1)	13.5%	9.1% ***	^	19.4%
	(0.34)	(0.29)		(0.40)
% Never-married (0,1)	25.0%	26.1% *		23.5%
	(0.43)	(0.44)		(0.42)
% Children under age 6 (0,1)	25.8%	23.9% ***		28.3%
	(0.44)	(0.43)		(0.45)
% Engage in household labor (0,1)	64.2%	52.9% ***	^	79.5%
	(0.48)	(0.50)		(0.40)
% Minority (0,1)	26.5%	25.9%		27.2%
	(0.44)	(0.44)		(0.44)
Sample n (weighted):				
	5,487	3,161		2,326
	100%	57.6%		42.4%

(pay-gap)
(82.4%)
(82.8%)

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

Figure 2
Comparison of Income Returns to Education Among Manager and Service Workers

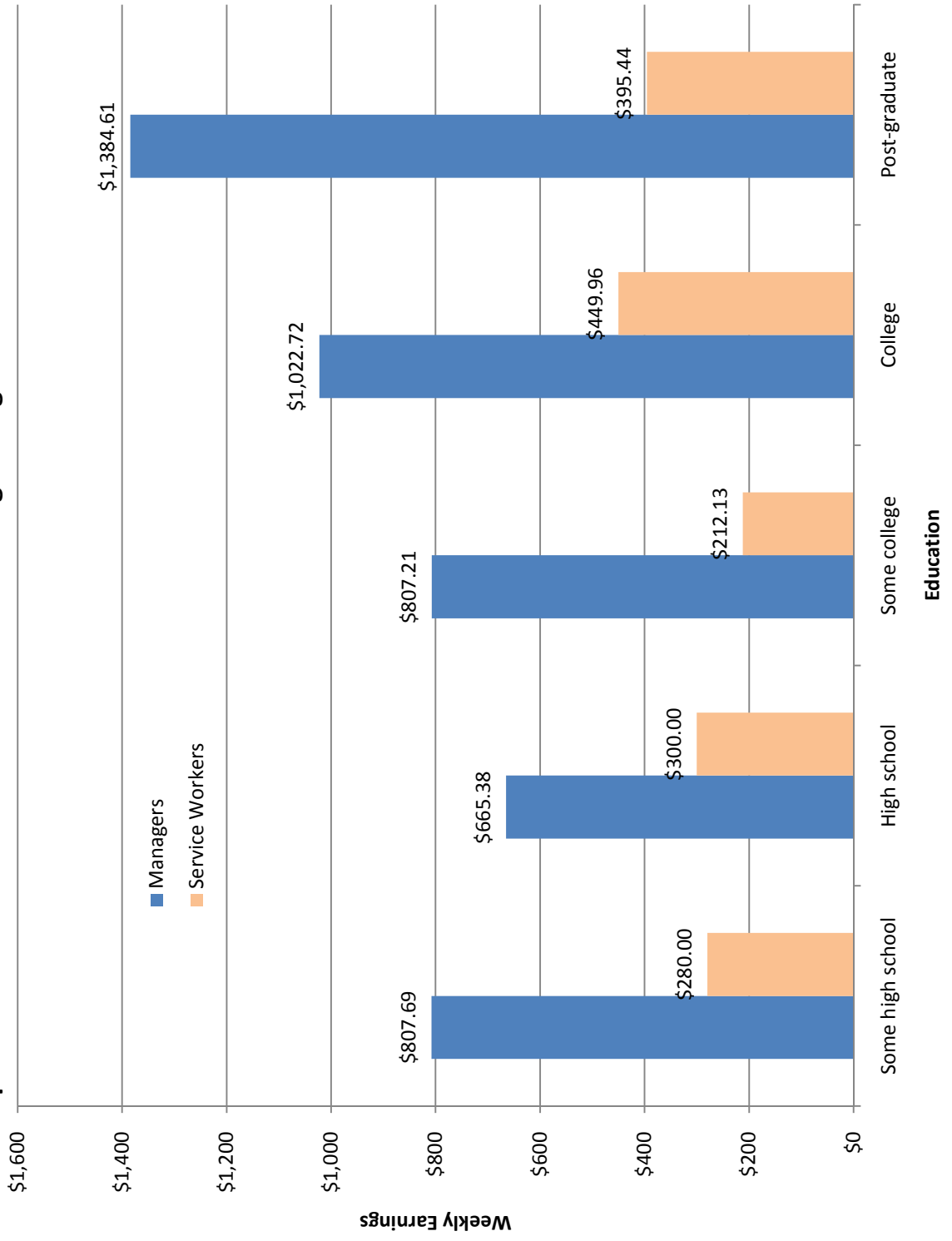


TABLE 3
Direct Household Labor^{1*}

Sub-group:		Pct participate		Weekly hours	
		male	female	male	female
¹ Direct Household Labor		52.1%	79.2%	10.0	16.9
Employment Status:	full-time	52.9%	79.5%	10.2	15.6
	part-time	43.9%	78.3%	8.3	20.3
Spouse Employment Status:	not employed	45.7%	69.1%	8.7	14.3
	part-time	64.0%	84.1%	11.8	17.1
	full-time	57.6%	88.3%	10.9	18.8
Age Cohorts:	25 to 29	46.2%	76.7%	11.7	18.2
	30 to 34	59.1%	82.0%	11.8	22.8
	35 to 39	69.8%	86.1%	10.9	20.3
	40 to 44	58.6%	87.2%	10.7	18.4
	45 to 49	53.5%	84.7%	11.1	15.5
	50 to 54	50.3%	80.3%	8.1	14.8
Earnings Quintiles:	55 to 59	44.3%	82.3%	6.3	12.9
	lowest 20th pct	42.8%	78.0%	9.1	19.0
	second 20th pct	45.2%	78.0%	9.1	16.4
	third 20th pct	50.8%	83.1%	10.4	16.2
	fourth 20th pct	57.1%	79.3%	9.7	15.8
Education:	highest 20th pct	58.8%	76.9%	11.0	15.8
	less than H.S. dipl.	38.8%	77.4%	8.9	17.4
	H.S. diploma	46.5%	82.9%	9.5	16.6
	some college	52.4%	77.2%	9.8	17.0
	College deg (BA,BS)	61.5%	79.3%	11.5	17.1
Graduate or Professional deg	67.7%	76.0%	9.4	16.9	
Job Status:	White-collar High-skill	60.6%	78.7%	10.4	17.1
	White-collar Low-skill	51.9%	80.3%	10.3	15.6
	Blue-collar High-skill	49.3%	69.4%	10.0	17.3
	Blue-collar Low-skill	43.8%	80.3%	9.0	18.9

*all values between males and females are statistically different at the .000 level with effect sizes all greater than .20

¹Direct Household Labor = cooking, cleaning, laundry, childcare, and travel associated with childcare

TABLE 4
OLS Regression Analysis for the Income Determination Model
(Dependent variable = weekly earnings)

Variables:	Full sample			Men			Women			
	unstd.	¹	std.	unstd.	¹	std.	²	unstd.	¹	std.
Individual-level factors:										
Age (years)	\$5.40	***	0.143	\$5.99	***	0.147	<>	\$4.30	***	0.133
Age squared	-\$0.14	***	-0.046	-\$0.16	***	-0.047		-\$0.17	***	-0.063
Post graduate (0,1)	\$333.44	***	0.217	\$328.66	***	0.200		\$331.58	***	0.250
College graduate (0,1)	\$218.17	***	0.192	\$245.21	***	0.201		\$188.36	***	0.193
Some college (0,1)	\$115.18	***	0.115	\$110.33	***	0.101		\$120.07	***	0.139
High school diploma (0,1)	\$33.90	**	0.034	\$22.20		0.022		\$51.68	**	0.058
Some high school (0,1)	ref. group			ref. group				ref. group		
Rural (0,1)	-\$97.43	***	-0.083	-\$78.41	***	-0.064		-\$109.42	***	-0.106
South & Midwest region (0,1)	-\$26.86	**	-0.028	-\$27.88	*	-0.027		-\$22.22	*	-0.027
Structural-level factors:										
Work hours per week	\$13.29	***	0.356	\$13.12	***	0.308		\$13.21	***	0.404
Union member (0,1)	\$97.69	***	0.070	\$103.73	***	0.073		\$103.08	***	0.082
Government (0,1)	\$67.93	***	0.033	\$39.75		0.019		\$92.62	***	0.050
Goods-producing (0,1)	\$72.68	***	0.065	\$66.49	***	0.065		\$55.27	**	0.041
White-collar high-skill (0,1)	\$278.90	***	0.297	\$356.40	***	0.346	<>	\$199.17	***	0.248
White-collar low-skill (0,1)	\$140.79	***	0.132	\$177.78	***	0.134	<>	\$89.61	***	0.106
Blue-collar high skill (0,1)	\$41.89	**	0.034	\$69.59	***	0.065		-\$4.53		-0.002
Blue-collar low-skill (0,1)	ref. group			ref. group				ref. group		
Gender-level factors:										
Female (0,1)	-\$71.31	***	-0.145							
Occ.sex-seg.index	-\$100.64	***	-0.078	-\$140.96	***	-0.152	<>	-\$74.29	***	-0.096
Married (0,1)	\$26.60	*	0.029	\$66.48	**	0.067		-\$2.96		-0.004
With child under age 6 (0,1)	\$5.15		0.005	\$23.20		0.021		-\$17.19		-0.019
Cleaning (0,1)	-\$9.81		-0.008	-\$17.64		-0.011		-\$5.99		-0.007
Laundry (0,1)	-\$23.71	*	-0.019	-\$30.19		-0.015		-\$6.57		-0.007
Food preparation (0,1)	-\$35.82	***	-0.039	-\$26.98	*	-0.027		-\$33.35	**	-0.040
Travel with child (0,1)	-\$56.63	***	-0.039	-\$100.58	***	-0.055		-\$2.53		-0.002
Care for child (0,1)	\$65.56	***	0.063	\$97.76	***	0.082		\$8.60		0.010
Minority (exc asian) (0,1)	-\$63.26	***	-0.061	-\$85.09	***	-0.078	<>	-\$39.48	**	-0.043
(Constant):	-\$170.80	***		-\$208.76	***			-\$108.87	***	
Adjusted R-sq.	0.548	***		0.528	***			0.538	***	
n=	6,746			3,490				3,256		

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 Married Persons Only
 (Dependent variable = weekly earnings)

Variables:	Full sample			Men			Women			
	unstd.	¹	std.	unstd.	¹	std.	²	unstd.	¹	std.
Individual-level factors:										
Age (years)	\$5.97	***	0.130	\$6.84	***	0.145	<>	\$4.28	***	0.109
Age squared	-\$0.27	***	-0.069	-\$0.27	***	-0.068		-\$0.29	***	-0.085
Post graduate (0,1)	\$399.15	***	0.274	\$396.26	***	0.263		\$411.70	***	0.330
College graduate (0,1)	\$323.00	***	0.286	\$347.13	***	0.290		\$308.09	***	0.328
Some college (0,1)	\$176.93	***	0.167	\$166.15	***	0.150		\$198.72	***	0.222
High school diploma (0,1)	\$77.13	***	0.075	\$44.16		0.042		\$124.62	***	0.140
Some high school (0,1)	ref. group			ref. group				ref. group		
Rural (0,1)	-\$112.07	***	-0.095	-\$95.34	***	-0.077		-\$126.69	***	-0.128
South & Midwest region (0,1)	-\$25.63	*	-0.026	-\$37.16	*	-0.036		-\$8.94		-0.011
Structural-level factors:										
Work hours per week	\$13.95	***	0.344	\$13.78	***	0.288		\$14.35	***	0.420
Union member (0,1)	\$79.66	***	0.058	\$86.63	***	0.063		\$89.23	***	0.074
Government (0,1)	\$50.99	*	0.026	\$23.46		0.012		\$84.05	**	0.047
Goods-producing (0,1)	\$68.47	***	0.062	\$66.48	***	0.065		\$58.02	*	0.044
White-collar high-skill (0,1)	\$307.92	***	0.323	\$369.58	***	0.367	<>	\$227.88	***	0.282
White-collar low-skill (0,1)	\$173.46	***	0.152	\$217.39	***	0.154	<>	\$107.32	***	0.124
Blue-collar high skill (0,1)	\$54.54	**	0.043	\$87.57	***	0.080		\$0.36		0.000
Blue-collar low-skill (0,1)	ref. group			ref. group				ref. group		
Gender-level factors:										
Female (0,1)	-\$77.70	***	-0.082							
Occ.sex-seg.index	-\$115.60	***	-0.160	-\$149.43	***	-0.148	<>	-\$94.98	***	-0.123
With child under age 6 (0,1)	-\$5.14		-0.005	\$16.18		0.015		-\$40.76	*	-0.046
Cleaning (0,1)	-\$12.74		-0.011	-\$32.46		-0.021		\$0.53		0.001
Laundry (0,1)	-\$34.28	**	-0.028	-\$99.76	**	-0.049		-\$2.82		-0.003
Food preparation (0,1)	-\$11.99		-0.013	\$3.82		0.004		-\$30.81		-0.034
Travel with child (0,1)	-\$65.60	**	-0.048	-\$94.86	**	-0.059		-\$24.40		-0.024
Care for child (0,1)	\$49.14	**	0.049	\$61.24	**	0.058		\$22.20		0.027
House hrs per week employed	-\$78.45	***	-0.079	-\$75.30	***	-0.077		-\$80.35	***	-0.077
Minority (exc asian) (0,1)	-\$70.69	***	-0.062	-\$95.06	***	-0.084		-\$23.19		-0.022
(Constant):	\$176.27	***		\$212.39	***			\$182.53	***	
Adjusted R-sq.	0.509	***		0.456	***			0.495	***	
n=	3,946			2,137				1,809		

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 6
Comparison of Structural and Individual-level Models

(Dependent variable = weekly earnings)

(standardized betas shown; all sig. at .001 unless noted ns)

	Full	w/o indiv model	w/o structural	w/o gender
Individual-level factors:				
Age (years)	0.131	x	0.184	0.139
Age squared	-0.046	x	-0.145	-0.057
Education in years	0.208	x	0.399	0.219
% Rural (0,1)	-0.095	x	-0.085	-0.091
% South & Midwest Region (0,1)	-0.037	x	-0.040	-0.045
Structural-level factors:				
Work hours per week	0.355	0.384	x	0.402
% Union member (0,1)	0.059	0.090	x	0.060
% Government (0,1)	0.019	0.024	x	0.035
% Goods-producing industry (0,1)	0.047	0.015	x	0.113
Occupational prestige	0.283	0.411	x	0.260
Gender:				
Female (0,1)	-0.094	-0.097	-0.140	x
Occ. Sex-seg. Index	-0.106	-0.094	-0.145	x
Married (0,1)	0.050	0.104	0.079	x
With children under 6 (0,1)	0.007	0.005	0.013	x
Hours per week household labor	-0.008	-0.005	-0.063	x
Minority (0,1)	-0.047	-0.081	-0.039	x
Adjusted R-sq.*	0.548	0.490	0.367	0.518
Rsq change from full model		-0.058	-0.181	-0.031
% change in Rsq.		-10.6%	-33.0%	-5.5%
Males Only:**				
Adjusted R-sq.*	0.523	0.472	0.352	0.507
Rsq change from full model		-0.051	-0.170	-0.016
% change in Rsq.		-9.8%	-32.7%	-3.1%
Females Only:**				
Adjusted R-sq.*	0.544	0.474	0.324	0.534
Rsq change from full model		-0.070	-0.219	-0.010
% change in Rsq.		-12.9%	-40.4%	-1.8%

*(all Rsq. Changes sig. @ .000)

** standardized betas not shown for male or female equations

Figure 3
Partitioning Shares of Unique Variance by Model Segment

