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A comparison of sons and daughters**

Item Type	Thesis
Authors	Hansen, Erin M.
Publisher	Wichita State University
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Link to Item	http://hdl.handle.net/10057/2036

INTERGENERATIONAL SOCIOECONOMIC MOBILITY:
A COMPARISON OF SONS AND DAUGHTERS

A Thesis by

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B.A., Wichita State University, 2006

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 2008

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INTERGENERATIONAL SOCIOECONOMIC MOBILITY:
A COMPARISON OF SONS AND DAUGHTERS

The following faculty members 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 W. Wright, Committee Chair

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DEDICATION

To all the girls who wish they were boys,
to all the women who wish they were men;
you can change your world

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my family and friends for always supporting me and being there when I needed them. Also thanks to my advisor, Dr. David Wright, for giving me a new perspective.

ABSTRACT

Studies agree that fathers influence the socioeconomic statuses of their children. However, not many studies address whether fathers influence their sons and daughters similarly. Four groups of factors - family background, individual, structural, and gender - contribute to the understanding of socioeconomic status and mobility in general by focusing on different aspects of the development of a person's socioeconomic status. This study uses a composite model which includes those four areas to examine the differences in intergenerational socioeconomic mobility for sons and daughters. Secondary data analysis was conducted using the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (1979-2004) data. Bivariate analysis showed that fathers had a relatively equal influence on daughters across the socioeconomic distribution, but fathers have more influence on sons at the top and bottom of the distribution. Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression showed that an increase in fathers' socioeconomic status will raise children's socioeconomic status, net of other factors; but sons benefit from this increase more than daughters, net of other factors. Finally, fathers' socioeconomic status explained more of the variance for sons' socioeconomic status than for daughters'.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Over the last 30 years, the stratification of class and income in the United States has become increasingly polarized: the rich are becoming richer and the poor are becoming poorer. In addition, the stagnating incomes among middle class families over the past 20 years means that parents can no longer assume that their children's economic fortunes will be better than their own. This is a particularly depressing observation given the numerous studies which show that one's socioeconomic status is highly impacted by one's parents. However, only a few studies have examined whether sons and daughters equally benefit from this intergenerational transmission. Given the financial struggles women face in achieving economic advancements, the possibility of a lower rate of return from one's parents would only exasperate the economic situation that women in the future face.

Intergenerational socioeconomic mobility is illuminated by three main areas. These areas consist of individual aspects including family background factors, structural elements, and gender-related components. The individual component focuses on the influences of a person's family background and the choices he or she makes in his or her current situation to change his or her future. The structuralist component focuses on things beyond the control of the individual within the organization of the economy which dictate the range of options available to a person. The gender component focuses on the processes whereby women are devalued in society as they relate to opportunity for socioeconomic attainment. This study incorporates all three of these models – individualist, structuralist, and gender – to examine the intergenerational transmission of SES from fathers to their children, using National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) data.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Most studies of mobility in sociological literature focus only on occupational mobility. Occupation, however cannot be discussed without considering education, which is a key factor in determining the type of occupation one may enter (Blau and Duncan 1965). Likewise, the occupation one holds is intrinsically tied to the amount of income one can generate over his or her lifetime (Beck, Horan and Tolbert 1978). Therefore, it is more appropriate to speak of socioeconomic status (SES) mobility instead of simply occupational mobility. Indeed, SES is most closely reflective of one's social class, which is traditionally measured as a combination of education level, occupational position, and income. Furthermore, the traditional "American Dream" notion of starting with nothing but raising oneself to great heights invokes notions of class, and not merely of occupation (Yankelovich 1994). For all these reasons, this thesis will be concerned with all three components of SES - education, occupation, and income - in its discussion of intergenerational socioeconomic mobility.

Three main models address the issue of socioeconomic status. These models include the individualist, structural, and gender models. All three contribute to the understanding of socioeconomic status and mobility by focusing on different aspects of the development of a person's socioeconomic status.

2.1. Individualist Models

A discussion of individualist models is intrinsic in any discussion of intergenerational mobility. There are two basic components of individualist models: individual factors and family background factors. Individual factors include things such as age, education, personal

aspirations and other factors that are viewed as being under a person's control. Family background factors include parents' education and income, family expectations, and other things that are viewed as being under the control of one's family of origin. Often these two sets of factors are closely linked. For example, one's personal aspirations can be influenced by one's family expectations (Haller and Portes 1973); one's educational level may be influenced by the number of siblings he or she has (Blau and Duncan 1965).

Rational choice theory sees social life as a series of choices between alternatives (Blau 1956). Choices are made rationally by purposeful beings (Friedman and Hechter 1988). By choosing one end, others are sacrificed (Blau 1956). Choices are influenced by our beliefs (Breen 1999), values, preferences, and abilities (Friedman and Hechter 1988). There are also constraints on behavior in the forms of opportunity and institutional constraints (such as laws) (Friedman and Hechter 1988). Rational beings analyze choices based on all these factors, using the information they have available to them at the time, to make their choice (Friedman and Hechter 1988). The consequences of a choice - whether or not the desired outcome was achieved - determines whether or not the same pattern of choices is made again; however, the strength of the values held (and other constraints) also influences whether or not choices are repeated (Breen 1999). Society is a product of the intended and unintended consequences of these rational choices (Friedman and Hechter 1988).

Rational choice theory would view the intergenerational transmission of socioeconomic status as a person's conscious decision of how closely he or she follows in his or her parent's footsteps. A person may decide he or she does not want to work as hard as his or her parents did, or he or she may decide to make a better life for himself or herself than what his or her parents had. This decision is based on various personal attributes. Intergenerational socioeconomic mobility is a

reflection of one's acceptance or rejection of parental values within the framework of individual preference and ability.

Building on rational choice theory, human capital theory considers those investments in human capital (behaviors which impact future income and consumption ability) that improve skills, knowledge, or health (Becker 1964). Such investments include education, training, medical care, and so forth (Becker 1964). These investments in human capital have costs, such as time, effort, equipment, teaching, and other tangible and intangible expenses (Becker 1964). In other words, to invest in human capital is to take away from other areas that could be used towards production in the present in the hope that the effort will increase production in the future (Becker 1964).

Different investments in human capital will yield different results; greater investment now will yield greater results in the future (Becker 1964). Therefore, an individual worker is willing to pay for training in the form of tuition, or lower wages, or enrollment fees because his or her present investment will (hopefully) raise his or her earnings in the future (Becker 1964). Thus, a person can, by his or her choice of investments, dictate his or her future status and position. For example, a person's educational level dictates the types of jobs for which he or she is eligible to apply (Blau and Duncan 1965) and so determines his or her level of entry into an occupation. Likewise, education tends to increase productivity (especially through efficiency), which will make him or her more valuable to his or her employer. The employer, in turn, will be willing to increase his or her wages to retain his or her employment (Becker 1964).

The difference between men and women in socioeconomic status, according to human capital theory, is due to different choices men and women make. Based on social expectations for their sexes, men and women identify as separate groups who hold roles separate from each other

(Parsons 1940). Competition between a husband and a wife for occupational status could be detrimental to the marriage (Parsons 1940). To avoid this potential problem, husbands and wives follow certain sex roles which allow them to complement the other's work and avoid competition with each other. Women give birth, which would prevent them from working outside the home as many hours as men could. Also, through maternal instinct women are better equipped than – at a comparative advantage to - men to care for children. Therefore, it is economically beneficial for women instead of men to work at home. Similarly, since men do not give birth and their wives are taking care of the housework and childcare, husbands are free to join the general workforce. This division of labor through sex roles represents the comparative advantage whereby men and women each engage in work that is the most economically beneficial for their marriage. When both the husband and the wife work outside the home, they tend to work in sex-segregated occupations in order to avoid competition with each other (Parsons 1940). Society ranks people according to various criteria, such as sex (Parsons 1940). Because women have more obligations at home than do men (which will take time and energy away from work outside the home), women's work is ranked lower than men's work. According to human capital theory, women have a lower socioeconomic status than do men because women and men make different choices about the kinds of work they engage in, whether at home or in the general workforce.

Human capital theory focuses on individual achievement and ability. In contrast, status attainment theory considers the influence of individuals' socioeconomic origins and other attributes on their potential for socioeconomic success (Blau 1992). These origins and attributes determine the range of possible socioeconomic outcomes an individual can access (Blau 1992).

Much of the transmission of status from one generation to the next is due to educational opportunities (Blau and Duncan 1965). Parents who have a higher status level can provide better

opportunities through a higher quality of education (by means of better school quality, providing tutors, and having more time to help their children with their education) (Blau and Duncan 1965; Duncan, Yeung, Brooks-Gunn and Smith 1998). Quality of education, then, influences the realistic spectrum of occupational choices available (Blau and Duncan 1965). As a result of comparative advantage, fathers will provide different opportunities for sons and daughters since they can assume their sons and daughters will follow different occupational trajectories. Therefore, gender is an important determinant of occupational choice (Saltiel 1988). Also, those living in mid-to-large-size cities or in the suburbs of large cities generally have the highest socioeconomic family backgrounds and therefore the best educational opportunities (Blau and Duncan 1965). Finally, race (Blau and Duncan 1965), family size (Blau and Duncan 1965) and the influence of family and friends (Saltiel 1988) all have an impact on occupational choice.

One widely-used variation of status attainment theory is the Wisconsin model, which builds on Blau and Duncan (1965). This model views social-psychological mechanisms as a link between socioeconomic background and status attainment (Saltiel 1988). Specifically, a person's background dictates the type of influences, such as the aspirations of significant others, that will predispose them to certain opportunities (Saltiel 1988). Any influence parents' education level, occupational position, or income level may have on a person's future socioeconomic status is received in the form of expectations (Haller and Portes 1973). That is, the expectations of significant others is translated into personal aspirations. Different expectations will be projected onto sons and daughters due to comparative advantage (Parsons 1940). Further, parents' status influences the types of contacts a person may encounter (other persons with expectations similar to those of the parents') including potential friends (Haller and Portes 1973). This social capital – who you know – influences one's ability to achieve a higher

socioeconomic status (Lin 1999). In these ways, parents' positions do have an effect on future attainment, but only indirectly (Haller and Portes 1973).

Status attainment theory acknowledges the role of family background on a person's future socioeconomic status. The emphasis is on how quality and level of education, as determined by various family factors, dictate a person's occupational opportunities and ultimate socioeconomic status. The Wisconsin model, while still acknowledging the role of a person's family background, believes this role is an indirect one. Family background is an influence only in the form of expectations (Haller and Portes 1973; Saltiel 1988), and the influence of one's family pales in comparison to other individual factors (Haller and Portes 1988).

The focus in individualist models regarding socioeconomic status is on the individual and how individual choices and actions dictate a person's place in society. The models center on the individual as the main determinant of success: if there is failure, it is a failure of the individual and not a reflection of society. Status attainment theory expands to include past influences on a person's present situation. It takes into account both individual attributes and abilities as well as influences from significant others. However, several factors influence one's socioeconomic success or failure that are outside an individual's control. These influences - social, institutional, and governmental - are the focus of structural theories.

2.2. Structuralist Models

The structuralist sees one's socioeconomic status as a reflection of one's position in society, rather than as a result of individual effort and ability. The larger societal forces that exist within each of the three SES realms - education, occupation, and income - dictate what opportunities are available to a person; and, therefore, influence what choices he or she can make. A person's

socioeconomic position is usually located within some kind of hierarchy: managers, supervisors, workers; graduate, undergraduate, high school. One's position determines his or her placement in the occupational hierarchy, based on where he or she enters his or her field. This placement determines income level: a higher position earns higher income (Reid and Rubin 2003).

There are two main theories that seek to explain socioeconomic status from position. Dual economy theory and segmented labor market theory both view the labor market as divided into separate sections with unique characteristics. These theories are important in a discussion of socioeconomic mobility because they delineate the structural forces that may either impede or facilitate a worker's occupational, and therefore socioeconomic, success.

In dual economy theory, the industrial sector is composed of two component sectors: core and periphery (Beck et al. 1978). Several key differences between the two sectors affect the workers in each sector. These differences are inherently located within the structure and organization of each sector (Tolbert, Horan and Beck 1980). The core sector has a monopolistic organization, while the periphery sector is characterized by competition (O'Connor 1973; Tolbert et al. 1980). The core sector is composed of large-scale corporations that in effect have a monopoly over the market with much capital-producing ability (O'Connor 1973). In the periphery sector, much competition exists between small businesses to provide the same product or service (O'Connor 1973). Since they have a much higher potential for profit-making, the monopolistic companies can set their price unchecked by competition and afford to pay higher wages to attract better workers (O'Connor 1973). In contrast, companies in the periphery must keep prices and wages (and therefore profit) low to remain competitive and survive (O'Connor 1973). The opportunities available to workers within each sector vary and determine, in part, the workers' chances for socioeconomic success.

These factors characteristic of the core sector - a large economy of scale, high capital-to-labor ratios, regional, national and global markets, a high market share, and price setting ability - describe the technical relations of production in these markets. These technical relations of production help explain the potential for earning high profit margins and contribute to a higher wage structure (Hodson and Kaufman 1982). The core sector, since its occupations make higher profits than the periphery sector occupations, can afford to hire workers that will increase its efficiency and productivity (often because of higher education levels). To attract these workers, it will offer higher wages. Better pay translates into more prestige and income. Therefore, the core sector provides its workers with higher prestige and higher income levels (both equated with socioeconomic success) than the periphery sector does for its workers (Beck et al. 1978). Indeed, workers in the core sector tend to have more schooling overall and better education in general than those in the periphery sector (Beck et al. 1978). Their parents tend to also be better educated and have higher occupational status than their periphery counterparts (Beck et al. 1978).

Interestingly, males and white workers are more often located within the core sector than in the periphery sector, where there is more potential to earn higher income (Beck et al. 1978). Workers in the core sector tend to work full-time with a regular schedule; whereas workers in the periphery sector more often work part-time with irregular hours per week (Beck et al. 1978). The persistent differences in the composition and income variation between sectors cannot be explained by mere labor force quality (Beck et al. 1978). This disparity reflects both the varying demand for labor in the periphery sector (which is more constant in the core sector), as well as its greater availability of part-time jobs (Beck et al. 1978). All these factors amount to workers in the periphery sector being unable to advance in both position and income (Gordon 1972).

Dual economy theory differentiates between the core and the periphery of the industrial sector. Similarly, the labor force is also divided into two segments in a segmented labor market: primary and secondary (Gittleman and Howell 1995). The primary labor market can be subdivided into independent and subordinate markets (Gittleman and Howell 1995; Waddoups and Assane 1993).

Segmented labor market theory highlights the existence of both industrial and occupational differences between markets (Waddoups and Assane 1993). The independent primary market includes jobs which carry potential for better pay and benefits, higher returns on education and work experience, better working conditions, more job security, and fewer rules (more worker autonomy) than the other markets (Fichtenbaum 2006; Gittleman and Howell 1995; Waddoups and Assane 1993). The secondary labor market is characterized by instability, poor pay, few chances for advancement, poor working conditions, and trivial rules with little employee input or recourse (Waddoups and Assane 1993). The subordinate primary market falls somewhere between these two extremes (Waddoups and Assane 1993). A key difference between the markets is potential for job mobility, especially upward mobility, which is linked to earnings and prestige (Waddoups and Assane 1993).

One area of difference between the markets is found in union membership. The differences between workers who are members of a union and workers who are not union members are most pronounced in the secondary labor market (Fichtenbaum 2006). That is, a worker in the secondary labor market benefits the most from union membership, followed by workers in the subordinate primary market (Fichtenbaum 2006). Women and minorities tend to be disproportionately clustered in the secondary labor market (Reid and Rubin 2003). However, women tend to have the highest rates of union membership in the independent primary market,

where they will earn the least amount of return on their membership (Fichtenbaum 2006).

Instead, men are more likely to be union members in the subordinate primary market, where their union membership allows them to earn greater benefits than their non-unionized counterparts (Fichtenbaum 2006).

The structures within the labor markets (rather than individual attributes) dictate the amount and direction of mobility for its workers (Ashton and Sung 1992). Certain individual skills and attributes are rewarded differently within each segment (Ashton and Sung 1992). For example, the primary market worker may be rewarded for ingenuity, while the secondary market worker rewarded for conformity. Also, certain jobs (most often in the primary segment) call for specific qualifications that limit entrance. Age, work experience, discrimination, licensing and other individualist requirements may serve to track certain workers into certain types of jobs and therefore limit potential for mobility (and therefore earnings) (Ashton and Sung 1992).

Furthermore, the secondary market often does not provide sufficient income for a worker to live outside of poverty (Waddoups and Assane 1993), and with little chance for mobility the worker has little hope of ever achieving socioeconomic success.

The type of capital one can produce tends to be associated with one's socioeconomic status. Specifically, position in the labor market defines what types of capital can be produced. Consumptive capital is associated with the working class. They usually consume everything they produce. In other words, they spend everything they earn (Wysong, Perrucci and Wright 2002). Distributive capital is associated with the comfort, or credentialed, class. This class does not consume everything they produce. Instead, they are able to save a small amount for future use, but they cannot afford to make large investments which earn greater future returns. Distributive capital refers to specialized knowledge obtained through training or education that

allows a worker to become an expert in her or his field (Wysong, Perrucci and Wright 2002). Generative, or investment capital, is associated with the superclass. It is resources invested in various enterprises which generate more income for its owners (Perrucci and Wysong 1999; Wysong, Perrucci and Wright 2002). As a person moves up the class structure and has more types of capital at his or her disposal, her or her socioeconomic status will also increase. This in turn will generate more capital for the person to use as he or she wishes, and a cycle is perpetuated in which one needs to have capital in order to get capital.

Opposite to individualist models, structuralist accounts describe well the system constraints that give socioeconomic access to some while limiting it for others. The government and large corporate institutions dictate the distribution of resources to workers in the occupational system (Perrucci and Wysong 1999; Wysong et al. 2002). A person's position and the accompanying authority of that position in the occupational structure determine his or her access to rewards, benefits, power and future prospects (Perrucci and Wysong 1999; Wysong et al. 2002). Structuralist models ignore, however, individual preference and choice. These models leave people with no control over their lives. Finally, these models barely touch on characteristics, such as gender, that may encourage discrimination and further limit or promote access to socioeconomic advancement.

2.3. Gender Models

Gender models are helpful in a discussion of intergenerational socioeconomic mobility because they illuminate the differences between men and women regarding socioeconomic status. Women experience a persistent pay lag behind men regardless of occupation type or educational level (Lips 2003). Descriptions of the processes that influence this pay gap will

clarify the ways in which parents influence their sons and daughters differently regarding the transmission of socioeconomic status. Therefore, gender theories shed light on the processes behind men's and women's socioeconomic attainment and intergenerational mobility.

Individualist and structuralist models tend to see biological sex as an attribute which can be more or less overcome through choice or economic position. Conversely, gender models view sex as a basis of devaluation in which women are consistently sorted into inferior economic positions. It should be noted that these processes also apply to race and ethnicity.

Gender theories discuss the process (as opposed to structural forces) whereby women are devalued in the labor market. Women are sorted into certain jobs that provide less wealth and lower prestige than men earn even though they may have the same amount of education and experience as their male counterparts (Jacobs 1989). This devaluation and sorting is due partly to conceptions about the household division of labor and childcare: women are associated with certain jobs but not with others (Bergmann 1986). Therefore, a woman might not be considered for a position in a job that is typically considered a man's domain, like engineering, for example. Instead, they are put into "appropriately" feminine positions, like teachers, which are deemed more "natural" jobs for a woman to perform (Bergmann 1986). This sorting starts early, with gender tracking in schools (Carbonaro 2005). In this line of thinking, employers are not required to provide the same opportunities for socioeconomic status attainment for women as they provide for men, since women are doing jobs they would "naturally" do anyway (Bergmann 1986). In this way, women's jobs and the value of a woman's work, both inside and outside the home, are devalued.

Crowding theory maintains that women are excluded from certain high-paying jobs that are considered "men's work" and concentrated in low-paying occupations associated with "women's

work” (Solberg and Laughlin 1995; Sorensen 1989). Employer discrimination is the main contributor to this crowding (Sorensen 1989). Some men may have a “bad attitude” if asked to work with women, and this discord reduces productivity (Bergmann 1986). Even though it costs employers 60% to 70% more to hire men, they will hire men over women in certain jobs to keep the peace (Bergmann 1986). In this way, women are “crowded” into certain jobs and excluded from others.

Another way to explain this crowding is seen in the revolving door theory. The revolving door theory understands occupational sex segregation as a lifetime process of occupational gender typing (Bergmann 1986; Jacobs 1989). Men and women are socialized from an early age about which careers are appropriate aspirations for someone of their gender (Jacobs 1989). These social values are reinforced within all areas of social life - education, employment, and relationships (Jacobs 1989). The effect is that women (and men) seek to hold sex-appropriate jobs when making employment choices (Jacobs 1989). Women are crowded out of “men’s” jobs due to employers’ conceptions of what women can and cannot do (Bergmann 1986). Employers do not want to see women doing anything “unfeminine” (Bergmann 1986), based on societal definitions of femininity and masculinity. In addition, employers have other individual biases and preconceived notions for both men and women when determining whom to hire for a specific job (Jacobs 1989).

Individual preference may also influence the occupations in which women choose to work (Solberg and Laughlin 1995). Individual preference means that individuals may prefer jobs with certain non-monetary benefits (such as a flexible work schedule) over ones with better pay (Solberg and Laughlin 1995; Sorensen 1989). Non-monetary benefits allow time for the fulfillment of other obligations, like housework or childcare. Women spend more hours per

week on household labor, including child care and housework, than men (Baxter 2005). The unequal household division of labor may also contribute to the decrease in women's individual incomes upon marrying (due partially to the decreased number of hours spent working outside the home after marrying), as opposed to the increase in incomes of married men (who tend to work more hours outside the home after marrying) (Baxter 2005; Light 2004). Furthermore, the concentration of women in certain jobs (such as ones that provide non-monetary benefits) leads to an oversupply of labor for these occupations, and thus reduces the wages of workers in these jobs (Sorensen 1989).

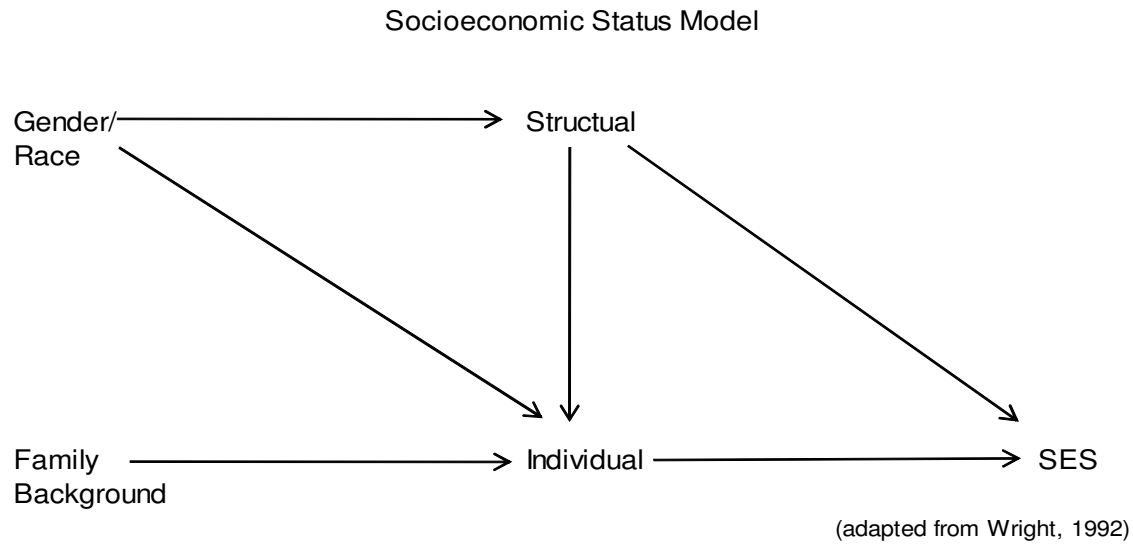
All these factors demonstrate the workings of a social control whereby women are devalued. The end result is that women can be paid less for performing the same job as a man because her efforts are not seen as being worth as much as a male's. This income difference is not due to lack of education or other inequities in qualifications or skills (Jacobs 1989). The simple fact that a woman works in a "women's" job means that she will earn less money than she would if she had the same position in a men's job (Jacobs 1989). Often, for a woman to work in a "men's" job is a temporary state (Jacobs 1989) because she will be pressured into quitting. Despite appearances that women are moving at ever-increasing rates into male-dominated jobs, for every eleven women that move from a "women's" to a "men's" job there are ten women that move from a "men's" to a "women's" job (Jacobs 1989). The influx of women from "men's" to "women's" jobs is due to social pressure, often in the form of subtle disapproval, discrimination, threats or harassment, especially when seeking career advancement (Jacobs 1989). Many women will face one or more barriers to their entry, continuation, or advancement of work in a men's job (Jacobs 1989). When women reach barriers that they cannot overcome, they give up and resort to socially appropriate behavior: in this case, working in a women's job (Jacobs 1989).

In this way, women's occupational mobility is more limited than men's, which prevents them from having the same opportunities for socioeconomic success as men.

This feminization of certain jobs and masculinization of others can be described in terms of labor queues and job queues (Reskin and Roos 1990). Labor queues express a worker's appeal to prospective employers, while job queues depict the attraction of certain jobs to potential employees (Reskin and Roos 1990). Employers will choose the worker highest in their labor queue, while employees will choose the job highest in their job queue (Reskin and Roos 1990). This queuing results in the best jobs having the largest pool of workers to choose from, so employers will choose the supposed best workers. As employers move through the job queues and employees move through the labor queues, the opposite will also be true: the least-desirable jobs will be paired with the least-desirable employees. Gender bias leads employers to rank women lower on the labor queue, so they are ultimately left with less desirable jobs than men can access (Reskin and Roos 1990). When there are not enough available high-ranking men to fill their positions, employers will hire women (Reskin and Roos 1990). This helps explain the presence of women in typically masculine positions, but once the supply of men increases, employers will once again hire men instead of women. By limiting access to better job positions, job queues and labor queues also limit women's access to greater wealth and prestige and prevent women from having the same opportunities for socioeconomic achievement as men.

Gender theories incorporate elements of both the individualist and structuralist models, but they are heavily focused on only certain aspects of them. They ignore the role of family background factors and see everything through the filters of segregation and discrimination. A more inclusive model is needed to fully deal with the issue of intergenerational socioeconomic mobility.

2.4. Alternative Model



Although the family background component is treated as part of the individualist component in the literature, for this model the family background and individual sections will be treated as separate components. Indeed, family background is a status attainment argument that introduces structural barriers from one's past which influence his or her future decisions. It includes such things as father's SES, number of siblings, and expectations of family and friends. For example, an increase in father's SES will lead to an increase in one's own SES. The individual component of this composite model focuses on the rational being who invests in human capital, which leads to an increase in productivity and therefore, to higher wages. It includes such things as age, education, and individual aspirations and abilities as key factors in SES attainment and mobility. For example, an increase in education level will raise skill, productivity, wages, and ultimately socioeconomic status. The structuralist component focuses on the range of positions within the economy, each associated with differing levels of rates of return. It includes such things as industrial location, type of worker, and unemployment rate. For example, a person employed in the monopoly (core) sector will have a higher socioeconomic status than a person employed in

the competitive (periphery) sector. The gender component focuses on the socialization that leads to devaluation of women and segregation that precludes women from holding positions with high status and wages. It includes such things as marital status, number of children and minority race/ethnicity membership. For example, as the number of children increases, socioeconomic status will decrease.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

3.1. Hypotheses

Family Background

1. As father's SES increases, children's SES will increase, net of other factors.
2. As the number of siblings in the family of origin increases, SES will decrease, net of other factors.

Individual

3. Urban residents will have a higher SES than rural residents, net of other factors.

Structural

4. Union membership will lead to higher SES, net of other factors.
5. As unemployment rate increases, SES will decrease, net of other factors.
6. Having a high-industry occupation will raise SES, net of other factors.

Gender

7. SES for daughters will be lower than for sons, net of other factors.
8. Being married will raise SES, net of other factors.
9. Being a member of a minority race/ethnicity will lead to lower SES, net of other factors.

3.2. Data and Sample

This study uses data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) conducted in 1979 with a follow-up survey in 2004. These surveys were administered by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U.S. Department of Labor. The NLSY specifically focuses on labor market

experiences and includes family, community and educational background information. The 1979 survey is a nationally representative sample of men and woman between the ages of 14 and 22.

For this analysis, certain sample restrictions were made to eliminate cases that were not applicable to the research question. First, any cases with missing values on the dependent variable (SES) were eliminated. Second, since the influence of father's SES on children's SES is being studied, only respondents who lived with their father or stepfather were selected. Third, since occupation is one of the key components of SES, anyone with a missing occupation was eliminated. Finally, cases with missing values for father's SES were removed as well, since it is an integral part of the analysis. The final sample size is 3,833.

This survey employs a weight to correct for the effects of oversampling procedures used during data collection. However, using weights during analysis can artificially inflate the sample size in some statistical packages, leading to biased results and increasing the probability of a Type I error. To correct this bias, a relative weight was created by dividing the weight by the mean of the weight. This new weight was applied in order to retain the population distribution of the weighted sample without inflating the sample size.

3.3. Variables

3.3.1. Dependent Variable

The dependent variable for this study is an interval measure of the respondent's SES in 2004. It was created by standardizing respondent's education (in years), occupational prestige, and income. These measures were then summed to get a single SES score. This score was transformed into an index ranging from 0 (low) to 100 (high). In addition, a centile and a quartile were created for this variable for descriptive purposes. The index represents the actual

SES score, while the centile and quartile represent one's socioeconomic position in relation to the positions of others.

3.3.2. Family Background Variables

Family background variables include father's SES, father's educational degree status, residence, poverty status, number of siblings, and presence of father or stepfather.

Father's SES in 1978 is an interval variable that was created using a method similar to that used for respondent's SES. Since the NLSY includes data for occupation and education from 1978 and no income information, the first step in creating a SES measure for fathers was to impute income information for 1978. This was done by using income, education, and occupation information from the Current Population Survey (CPS). First, a 13-level occupation classification and a five-level education classification were developed for both sets of data. These classifications were combined to create 65 different categories for income. Fathers from the NLSY data were matched with the CPS income category corresponding to their position in the education/occupation matrix. This created an income variable for the NLSY sample. The income, education, and occupational prestige variables were then standardized and combined to create the father's SES variable. The final transformation for this variable changed it to an index, with values ranging from 0 to 100. In addition, a centile was created for this variable. It is expected that children whose fathers have a higher SES will have a higher SES than children whose fathers have a lower SES.

Father's level of education is a nominal variable with categories of less than high school, high school degree, some college, college degree, and graduate degree. A binary variable (0,1) was created for college degree or higher ("1") and less than college degree ("0").

Residence at age 14 is a nominal variable with three categories: living in a town or city, living in the country but not on a farm, and living on a farm or ranch. Binary variables (0,1) were created using each of these categories.

Family poverty status at age 14 is a binary variable (0,1) with “1” designating “in poverty” and “0” designating “not in poverty”.

Number of siblings at age 14 is an interval variable ranging from 0 to 17 siblings. It is expected that having more siblings at age 14 will decrease SES.

The variable describing whether the respondent lived with their biological father or with their stepfather at age 14 is nominal. It contains 8 categories including “father-mother”, “father-stepmother”, “father-other woman relative”, “father-other woman”, “father-no woman”, “father-missing woman”, “stepfather-mother”, and “stepfather-stepmother”. From this variable, a binary variable (0,1) was created to differentiate between living with a father (“0”) and a stepfather (“1”).

3.3.3. Individual-Level Variables

Individual-level variables include age, education, residence, and poverty status.

Age is an interval variable measuring the respondent’s age in years in 2004. Respondent’s age represents his or her labor market exposure proxy, since SES generally tends to increase as age increases. It ranges from 27 to 48 years old (median age is 43 years).

Education is an ordinal variable designating respondent’s educational attainment. Categories include less than high school education, high school diploma, some college, college degree, and graduate degree. Binary variables (0,1) were created for each of these five categories. Another binary variable (0,1) for degree status was created by combining college degree and graduate

degree into the “1” category, and less than high school, high school diploma, and some college into the “0” category.

Residence in 2004 is a binary variable (0,1) indicating urban (“1”) or rural (“0”) residence. Urban areas tend to have more job market opportunities due to higher population density and business concentration. It is expected that respondents living in an urban setting will have a higher SES than respondents living in rural areas.

Poverty status is a binary variable (0,1) where “1” indicates that the respondent is in poverty and “0” indicates not in poverty.

3.3.4. Structural-Level Variables

Structural-level variables include number of hours worked per year, government worker status, union membership status, number of jobs ever held, unemployment rate, and industry status.

The number of hours a respondent worked per year is an interval variable, ranging from 0 to 8,736 hours.

Whether a respondent is a government worker or not is a binary variable (0,1) where “1” indicates working in a government job and “0” indicates not working in a government job.

Respondent’s union status is a binary variable (0,1) where “1” indicates union membership and “0” indicates no union membership. It is expected that union membership will increase SES.

The number of jobs a respondent has ever held is an interval variable ranging from 1 job to 55 jobs.

Respondent’s unemployment rate is an interval variable indicating unemployment rate by percentage. It is expected that as respondent’s unemployment rate increases, SES will decrease.

High industry status is a binary variable (0,1) that indicates whether or not the respondent is employed within the high-industry sector (“1”) or the low-industry sector (“0”). The increased asset concentration in finance and business services reflects attributes seen in the monopoly sector, although the service sector itself is associated with the periphery sector. To reflect this changing nature of the service industry, finance and business services were pulled into the core sector, while other services were kept in the competitive sector. Thus, manufacturing, wholesale trade, finance, insurance, real estate, management, and professional services were considered high-industry occupations, while agriculture, mining, construction, retail, transportation utilities, information services, education, health, government, and other service were considered low-industry occupations. It is expected that members of the high-industry sector will have a higher SES than members of the low-industry sector.

3.3.5. Gender-Level Variables

Gender-level variables include sex, occupational sex segregation, marital status, number of children, and minority race or ethnicity membership.

Sex is a binary variable (0,1) where “1” stands for “female” and “0” stands for “male”. It is expected that females will have a lower SES than males.

Occupational sex segregation is an interval variable denoting the representation of women relative to men within occupations. The index is derived by dividing the percentage of women in each 3-digit occupation by the percentage of women in the general labor force. A value of 1 indicates that men and women are equally distributed in the occupation. Values of greater than 1 indicate that women are over-represented, and values of less than 1 indicate that women are under-represented.

The variable for marital status has three categories: never married, married, and ever married (which includes divorced and widowed). This nominal variable was used to create three binary variables (0,1) for each category. It is expected being married will lead to an increase in SES.

Number of children is an interval variable ranging from 0 children to 8 children. From this variable, a binary variable (0,1) was created to distinguish between those who have children (“1”) and those who do not (“0”).

The race and ethnicity variables were combined to produce one nominal variable with four categories: white non-Hispanic, black non-Hispanic, Hispanic, and other non-Hispanic. Binary variables (0,1) were created for each of the four categories. In addition, an ANOVA test was performed which showed that the black non-Hispanic and Hispanic categories could be combined to create a minority binary variable (0,1) where “minority” is coded as “1”. It is expected that members of a minority race/ethnicity will have a lower SES than members of other races/ethnicities.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. Univariate Results

Table 1A shows that the final sample consisted of 3,833 respondents. Of those, 53.6% were male, 46.4% were female. For the full sample, the mean SES score is 30.05. Additionally, the median SES centile score for the entire sample is 49.00, where “0” is low and “100” is high.

For background factors of the independent variables, Table 1A shows that the mean father’s SES centile score for the entire population is 50.06. The percentage of the full sample whose father had a degree is 21%. Within the entire sample, 76% lived in an urban setting in their family of origin, and 7% lived in poverty in their family of origin. The average number of siblings was 3.1. Finally, 6% lived with a stepfather.

Within individual-level factors as shown on Table 1A, the average age of all respondents was 43.3 years. The average number of years of education was 13.7; with 5% having less than a high school diploma, 42% having a high school diploma only, 24% having some college education but no degree, 17% having a bachelor’s degree, and 12% having a graduate degree. Of the entire sample, 68% lived in an urban setting, and 5% were in poverty.

For structural-level factors (Table 1B), the average number of hours worked per year is 2,056. For the entire sample, 17% were employed in a government job, and 15% were union members. The average number of jobs ever held is 11.2, and the average unemployment rate is 5.7. Finally, 34% of respondents were employed in the high industry sector.

Table 1B also gives results for gender-level factors. The average occupational sex segregation score was 0.9. The marriage rate for both sons and daughters is 71%, while 17%

were previously married and 11% were never married. The average number of children is 1.3. Finally, 13% of the full sample was a member of a minority race or ethnicity.

4.2. Bivariate Results

Table 1A shows that daughters tended to have lower SES than sons (29.54 compared with 30.48), which provides partial support for Hypothesis 7. For family background factors, daughters' fathers had lower SES than sons' fathers (48.97 versus 51.00). Daughters and sons were similar regarding the percentage of fathers who had a degree, the percentage who lived in an urban versus a rural setting in their family of origin, the percentage who lived in poverty in their family of origin, number of siblings, or the percentage who lived with their stepfather versus biological father.

For individual-level variables (Table 1A), daughters had more years of education than sons (13.8 years versus 13.6 years); however, daughters were more likely to be in poverty than sons (6% versus 4%). There were no significant differences between daughters and sons regarding age or the percentage who lived in an urban versus rural setting.

For structural-level factors (Table 1B), daughters worked fewer hours per year than sons (1,795 hours compared with 2,283 hours). More daughters tended to work in government jobs than did sons (20% versus 14%). Fewer daughters belonged to a union than sons (13% versus 17%), which shows indirect support for Hypothesis 5. Providing partial support for Hypothesis 6, fewer daughters worked in the high-industry sector than sons (29% versus 38%). Sons and daughters had similar unemployment rates and held a similar number of jobs over their careers.

For gender factors (Table 1B), daughters experienced higher occupational sex segregation than sons (1.4 compared with 0.6). Daughters were more likely than sons to have ever been

married (19% versus 16%) and less likely than sons to have never been married (10% versus 13%). Daughters tended to have more children than sons (1.4 versus 1.3). Finally, sons and daughters were similar in terms of current marital status, and minority status.

Table 2 presents a bleak picture of intergenerational mobility. For sons, 66.9% experienced either no or downward mobility from their father's positions. For daughters, the percentage who experienced no or downward mobility is nearly the same: 66.6%. Table 2 also shows that daughters tended to have more downward mobility than sons (31.1% versus 28.3%). Sons were more likely to have no mobility (stay in the same SES quartile as their fathers) than daughters (38.6% versus 35.5%). Daughters and sons had similar rates of upward mobility (33.4% and 33.1%, respectively). The true nature of this relationship is illustrated more clearly in Figure 2. Figure 2 shows that father's SES had a relatively equal influence on daughter's SES for all levels of SES. However, father's SES tended to exert more influence on son's SES placement at the top and the bottom (the highest and lowest quartiles) of the SES distribution.

4.3. Multivariate Results

The multivariate analysis described in Table 3 shows a significant adjusted R-square of 0.335 for the full sample. The adjusted R-squares for sons (0.386) and daughters (0.294) are also significant. For family background and individual factors, for every one unit increase in father's SES, the respondent's SES will increase by 0.235. However, sons will receive a greater increase in SES than will daughters (0.252 and 0.209, respectively). For every additional sibling in the family of origin, SES will decrease by 0.450. This is true for both sons and daughters (-0.545 and -0.364, respectively). Being an urban resident increases SES by 1.690 over rural residents' SES. This also is true for both sons and daughters (1.866 and 1.388, respectively).

For structural factors, being a union member will decrease one's SES by 1.139. While this is true for sons, it does not hold true for daughters. Being a union member will decrease sons' SES by 2.092, but union membership is not statistically significant for daughters. Being employed in the high-industry sector will increase SES by 2.261. However, men experience a greater increase from being employed in the high-industry sector than do women (2.793 for men compared with 1.136 for women). Changes in unemployment rate have no significant impact upon SES.

For gender factors, being married will increase one's SES by 1.383 points more than being unmarried. This is true for sons, but being married has no effect on SES for daughters. Sons who are married will experience a 2.066 point increase over sons who are not married. Being female has no significant affect on SES. Also, there are no significant differences in SES regarding minority status.

Figure 3 shows the amount of unique variance each model segment contributes. The family background segment is the largest contributor to SES (63.3% of the unique variance). Structural factors contribute the next largest portion (30.2%), followed by gender/race factors (3.9%) and individual factors (2.6%). Within the family background section, father's SES alone explains 58.7% of the total unique variance. Of particular note is the difference in the structural and gender/race segments between sons and daughters. Structural factors explain 35.7% of the unique variance for daughters but only 25.8% for sons. Gender/race factors explain 4.7% of the unique variance for sons but only 2.5% for daughters. Finally, that father's SES explains 60.6% of the unique variance for sons but only 55.4% for daughters demonstrates that fathers' SES has more of an influence on sons' SES than on daughters' SES.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Discussion

Status attainment theories argue that parents' socioeconomic status has a great influence on the socioeconomic status of sons and daughters (Blau and Duncan 1965; Haller and Portes 1973; Saltiel 1988). Table 3 supports Hypothesis 1, which states that as father's SES increases, children's SES will increase, net of other factors. Status attainment theories posit that having a large number of siblings affects one's choice of occupation (Blau and Duncan 1965).

Occupation is one of the key components of socioeconomic status. In support of Hypothesis 2, Table 3 provides evidence that having a large number of siblings lowers SES. As the number of siblings in the family of origin increases, SES will decrease, net of other factors. Status attainment theories also argue that living in an urban area, as opposed to a rural area, affords more opportunities for socioeconomic attainment (Blau and Duncan 1965). Table 3 supports Hypothesis 3: urban residents will have a higher SES than rural residents, net of other factors.

Structural theories tell us that union membership will increase income, and therefore also increase SES (Fichtenbaum 2006). Table 1 provides partial support for Hypothesis 4 by showing that sons have a higher SES than daughters, and more sons than daughters are union members. In contrast, Table 3 does not offer support for Hypothesis 4. According to Table 3, net of other factors, union membership will decrease SES. Structural theories describe how there are more opportunities for socioeconomic advancement in the high-industry sector of the labor market than in the low-industry sector (Ashton and Sung 1992; Fichtenbaum 2006; Gittleman and Howell 1995; Perrucci and Wysong 1999; Waddoups and Assane 1993). Hypothesis 6 states

that having a high-industry occupation will raise SES, net of other factors. Hypothesis 6 is supported by both Tables 1 and 3.

Gender theories explain the many ways whereby women, and women's work, are devalued compared with men and men's work (Jacobs 1989; Reskin and Roos 1990; Sorensen 1989). Hypothesis 7, SES for daughters is lower than for sons, net of other factors, is supported by Tables 1 and 2. Gender theories detail the process through which women experience a decrease in individual income after marriage, but men experience an increase (Light 2004). Hypothesis 8 states that being married will raise SES, net of other factors. Table 3 supports Hypothesis 8 for men, but not for women.

Structural theories believe that a lower unemployment rate contributes to lower SES (Beck et al. 1978; Waddoups and Assane 1993). Gender theories believe that minorities are devalued in a similar fashion as are women (Reid and Rubin 2003). However, neither of the tables shows significant support for Hypotheses 5 or 9. Neither unemployment rate nor minority race/ethnicity membership significantly affects SES, net of other factors.

5.2. Limitations

One limitation of this study is that the dataset did not include usable information for mothers' SES. In order to use SES information for mothers, only mothers who were employed could be included for analysis. Any respondent whose mother did not work in 1979 would be excluded. Since few mothers worked in 1979, this exclusion would considerably reduce the sample size. Information on mothers' SES would have been particularly helpful in making comparisons with daughters' SES, as it would have eliminated some gender disparities that occur when comparing fathers and daughters. Another limitation is that father's income information for 1978 was not

included in the dataset. While this information could be imputed from a similar dataset, these values are likely not as accurate as they would be had they been included in the original data.

5.3. Policy Implications

Women appear to have fewer chances for improving SES even when they are in similar situations as men. For example, when fathers' SES increases, SES for sons increases more than SES for daughters. This implies that fathers' SES benefits sons more than daughters. Similarly, while working in the high industry sector increases SES, men are much more likely to work in the high industry sector than are women. Furthermore, men experience a much greater increase in SES from working in the high industry sector than the increase women experience. This inequality implies that women have less opportunity to work in an occupation that will raise their SES. Even if women are able to work in an occupation in the high-industry sector, they will experience less of an increase in SES than men would in the same occupation. This disparity is one factor that contributes to the pay gap between men and women. It also suggests that jobs that tend to attract women offer fewer SES advantages.

These findings have a two-fold implication. First, women need to seek jobs in occupations that offer opportunities for SES advancement and upward mobility, or in those traditionally dominated by men. Second, those occupations traditionally dominated by men need to create a more welcoming environment for women; and those occupations traditionally dominated by women need to offer more opportunities for SES advancement.

Closing the wage gap can be accomplished by addressing several issues. Since socialization begins at an early age and one of the primary socialization agents is school, school tracking programs must be done away with. Both girls and boys should be offered the same programs

and taught general job skills instead of gender-based preparation based on “appropriate” sex roles. Harassment and intimidation must be addressed within corporations of all sizes. A harassment-free workplace environment will allow women and men to work in whatever job suits them best, instead of forcing them to work under undesirable circumstances. Finally, the scope of the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) needs to be broadened to include paid, rather than unpaid leave. This will prevent companies from penalizing women simply because they are the bearers of children.

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APPENDIX

TABLE 1A
Values for Full Sample and by Sex

Variables:	Full Sample	Sons ¹	Daughters ²
Dependent Variable:			
SES (mean):	30.05	30.48 **	29.54
SES centile (median):	49.00	50.00	47.00
(stddev):	(9.12)	(9.59)	(8.51)
Independent Variables:			
Background factors:			
Father's SES centile (mean)	50.06 (28.77)	51.00 * (28.8)	48.97 (28.7)
% Father has degree (0,1)	21% (.4)	21% (.41)	20% (.4)
% Urban (family of origin) (0,1)	76% (.43)	76% (.43)	76% (.43)
% Poverty (family of origin) (0,1)	7% (.26)	7% (.25)	8% (.27)
# Siblings (family of origin)	3.1 (2.04)	3.1 (2.02)	3.2 (2.05)
% Lived with stepfather (0,1)	6% (.24)	6% (.23)	7% (.25)
Individual-level-factors:			
Age (years)	43.3 (2.31)	43.3 (2.31)	43.3 (2.31)
Education in years	13.7 (2.37)	13.6 * (2.42)	13.8 (2.31)
% less HS dipl (0,1)	5%	6% **	4%
% HS Dipl (0,1)	42%	44% **	39%
% Some college (0,1)	24%	21% ***	27%
% BA/BS deg. (0,1)	17%	17%	16%
% Graduate deg. (0,1)	12%	12%	13%
% Urban (0,1)	68% (.47)	67% (.47)	68% (.46)
% Poverty (0,1)	5% (.21)	4% ** (.19)	6% (.23)
Sample n (weighted):			
	3,833 100.0%	2,054 53.6%	1,779 46.4%

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

² effect size greater = > .20

TABLE 1B
Values for Full Sample and by Sex

Variables:	Full Sample	Sons ¹	Daughters ²
Structural-level factors			
# Hours worked per year (mean)	2,056	2,283 *** ^	1,795
(median)	2,080	2,156	2,080
	(843)	(798)	(814)
% Government jobs (0,1)	17%	14% ***	20%
	(.37)	(.35)	(.4)
% Union (0,1)	15%	17% **	13%
	(.36)	(.38)	(.34)
# Jobs ever held	11.2	11.2	11.0
	(6.36)	(6.67)	(5.97)
Unemployment rate	5.7	5.6	5.7
	(1.64)	(1.65)	(1.63)
% High Industry (0,1)	34%	38% *** ^	29%
	(.47)	(.49)	(.45)
Gender factors:			
Occupational sex segregation (mean)	0.9	0.6 *** ^	1.4
(median)	0.9	0.5	1.5
	(.65)	(.49)	(.55)
% Married (0,1)	71%	72%	71%
	(.45)	(.45)	(.45)
% Ever-married (0,1)	17%	16% **	19%
	(.38)	(.36)	(.4)
% Never-married (0,1)	11%	13% **	10%
	(.32)	(.33)	(.3)
# Children	1.3	1.3 ***	1.4
	(1.23)	(1.27)	(1.18)
% Minority (0,1)	13%	13%	14%
	(.34)	(.34)	(.34)
Sample n (weighted):	3,833	2,054	1,779
	100.0%	53.6%	46.4%

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		lowest			highest		lowest		
	SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	SES Q4	(totals)	SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	SES Q4	(totals)
SES Q1(highest)	238	131	94	36	499	183	161	89	42	475
SES Q2	173	145	132	53	503	136	160	108	53	457
SES Q3	101	130	150	135	516	97	118	125	100	440
SES Q4(lowest)	34	80	163	260	537	22	78	143	164	407
(totals)	546	486	539	484	2055	438	517	465	359	1779

	Sons	Daughters
Downward Mobility (upper right quadrant)	28.3% (66.9%)	31.1% (66.6%)
No Mobility (diagonal)	38.6%	35.5%
Upward Mobility (lower left quadrant)	33.1%	33.4%
	100.0%	100.0%

SES Outflow Mobility

Father's SES in 1979	Son's SES in 2004					Daughter's SES in 2004				
	highest		lowest			highest		lowest		
	SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	SES Q4	(totals)	SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	SES Q4	(totals)
SES Q1(highest)	47.7%	26.3%	18.8%	7.2%	100%	38.5%	33.9%	18.7%	8.8%	100%
SES Q2	34.4%	28.8%	26.2%	10.5%	100%	29.8%	35.0%	23.6%	11.6%	100%
SES Q3	19.6%	25.2%	29.1%	26.2%	100%	22.0%	26.8%	28.4%	22.7%	100%
SES Q4(lowest)	6.3%	14.9%	30.4%	48.4%	100%	5.4%	19.2%	35.1%	40.3%	100%

SES Inflow Mobility

Father's SES in 1979	Son's SES in 2004					Daughter's SES in 2004				
	highest		lowest			highest		lowest		
	SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	SES Q4	(totals)	SES Q1	SES Q2	SES Q3	SES Q4	(totals)
SES Q1(highest)	43.6%	27.0%	17.4%	7.4%	100%	41.8%	31.1%	19.1%	11.7%	100%
SES Q2	31.7%	29.8%	24.5%	11.0%	100%	31.1%	30.9%	23.2%	14.8%	100%
SES Q3	18.5%	26.7%	27.8%	27.9%	100%	22.1%	22.8%	26.9%	27.9%	100%
SES Q4(lowest)	6.2%	16.5%	30.2%	53.7%	100%	5.0%	15.1%	30.8%	45.7%	100%
(totals)	100%	100%	100%	100%		100%	100%	100%	100%	

FIGURE 2
Surface Maps of Socioeconomic Status Matrix

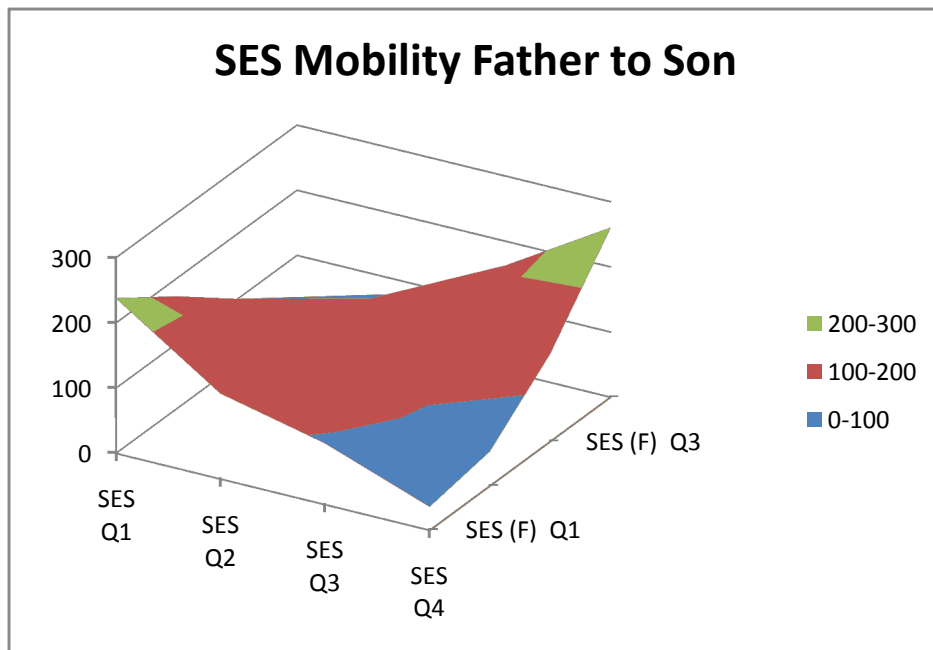
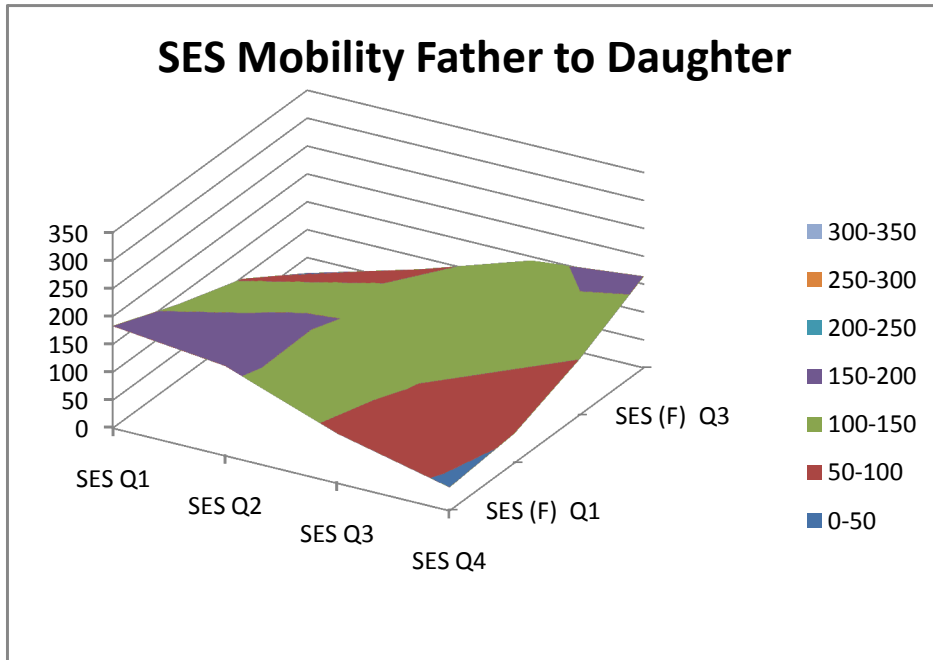


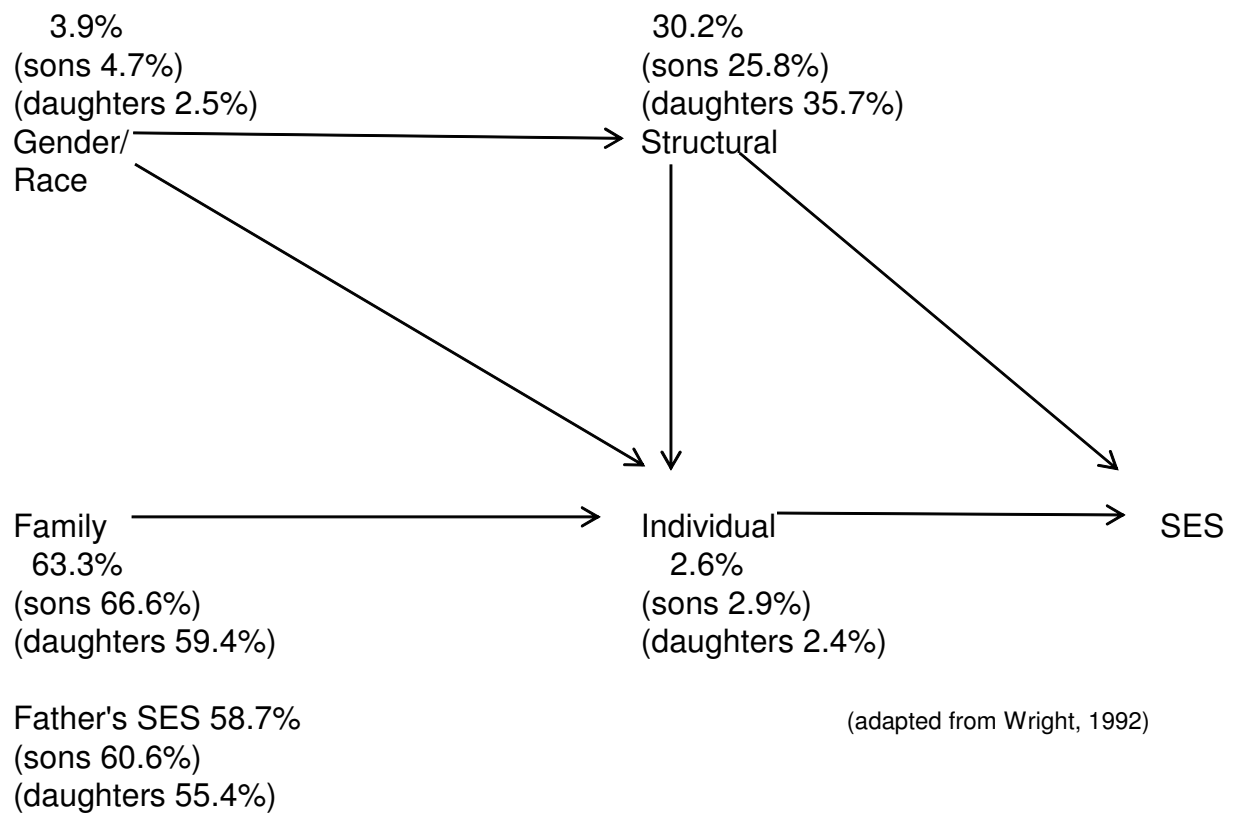
TABLE 3
OLS Regression Analysis
(Dependent Variable = SES)

Predictors:	Full Sample			Sons			Daughters			
	unstd.	¹	std.	unstd.	¹	std.	²	unstd.	¹	std.
Family Background factors:										
Father's SES	0.235	***	0.421	0.252	***	0.432	<>	0.209	***	0.398
Urban (family of origin) (0,1)	0.821	***	0.038	1.274	**	0.057		0.265		0.013
Poverty (family of origin) (0,1)	-0.358		-0.010	-0.087		-0.002		-0.639		-0.021
Siblings (family of origin)	-0.450	***	-0.100	-0.545	***	-0.115		-0.364	***	-0.088
Lived with stepfather (0,1)	-1.373	**	-0.036	-1.359		-0.033		-1.618	*	-0.047
Individual-level factors:										
Age (years)	0.004		0.001	0.079		0.019		-0.108		-0.029
Urban (0,1)	1.690	***	0.087	1.866	***	0.091		1.388	**	0.076
Structural factors:										
Hours worked per year	0.002	***	0.197	0.002	***	0.134		0.003	***	0.242
Government jobs (0,1)	4.389	***	0.180	4.468	***	0.161		3.944	***	0.186
Union (0,1)	-1.139	**	-0.045	-2.092	***	-0.082		0.231		0.009
Jobs ever held	-0.076	***	-0.053	-0.119	***	-0.083		-0.001		0.000
Unemployment rate	-0.062		-0.011	-0.010		-0.002		-0.135		-0.026
High Industry (0,1)	2.261	***	0.118	2.793	***	0.142	<>	1.136	**	0.061
Gender factors:										
Female (0,1)	0.209		0.011							
Married (0,1)	1.383	***	0.069	2.066	***	0.097		0.701		0.037
Children	0.650	***	0.088	0.683	***	0.090		0.497	**	0.069
Minority (0,1)	0.400		0.015	0.001		0.000		0.723		0.029
(Constant):	12.458	***		9.068	**			18.835	***	
Adjusted R-sq.	0.335	***		0.386	***			0.294	***	
n=	3,833			2,054				1,779		

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

² significant difference between men and women at the 0.05 level or higher

FIGURE 3
 Shares of Explained Unique Variance by Model Segment



(adapted from Wright, 1992)