

The Economic Status of Working Women in New York

**A Report from
The Howard Samuels Center**

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I. The Economic Status of Working Women in New York

A. Introduction

There appears to be a popular view that the disparity in economic status between men and women is no longer significant. This suggests that equity has almost been achieved in regards to wages, and employment status. The findings in this report, in contrast, verify a continuing gap between men and women and more importantly conclude that White men are significantly advantaged in comparison to White women as well as to women and men of other racial and ethnic groups. Within our findings it is also evident that the differences between men and women are not uniform across different racial/ethnic groups, and this fact needs to be considered in any analysis of gender based economic inequities. Historic analyses show that the earnings ratio between women and men in the United States from the late 1950s to 1999 has narrowed somewhat, however, a significant disparity still exists today. From the late 1950s to late 1970s, the gender earnings ratio of approximately 60% varied little. Beginning in the late 1970s, full-time women's weekly earnings ratio increased, reaching 76.5% of men's earnings in 1999 (Blau and Kahn 2000). Some of the gender-specific factors that have contributed to the earnings disparity between women and men have been differences in education, labor-market skills and qualifications, workforce participation and experience, occupational and industrial segregation, wage inequality, gender specific treatment, and discrimination (Blau and Kahn 1994, 2000). Women's unequal economic status differs regionally as well as from state to state (Institute for Women's Policy Research 2004). Moreover, this is not an exclusively U.S. phenomenon; research from a cross-national perspective also demonstrates that while there is variation across national labor markets, women are economically disadvantaged in all countries (Mandel and Semyonov 2005).

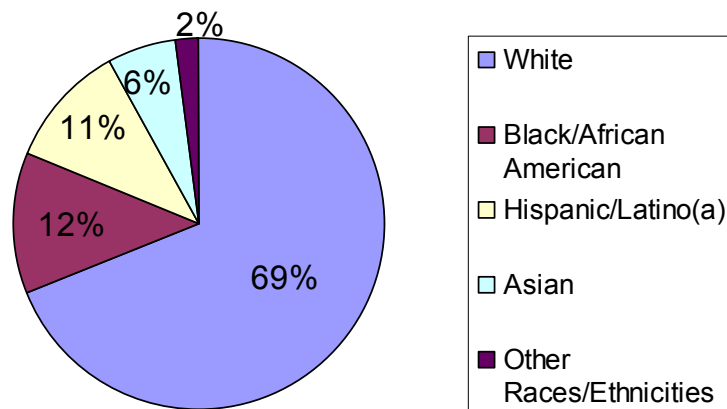
In an effort to gain an understanding of some of the factors associated with women's economic disparity in New York State, The Howard Samuels Center of the City University of New York (HSC) undertook a study of United States Census labor force statistics. This report is a product of our analysis of United States Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS) derived from the 2000 Census. The aim of this report is to document labor market inequities in New York State as they relate to the intersection of gender and race/ethnicity. The study was influenced by the research conducted by Ross Gittel et. al.,¹ for the New Hampshire Women's Policy Institute. We believed that the New Hampshire model would not only make an excellent foundation for a similar study of women in New York, but could be expanded to encompass all of the United States. The HSC has a long history of conducting research and producing reports on a range of topics related to the status of women including welfare reform, community colleges, and access to higher education. Several HSC research projects have specifically focused on the social and political implications of gender disparities including: *Women Creating Social Capital and Social Change: A Study of Women-led Community Development Organizations*, *The Difference Gender Makes: Women in Neighborhood Development Organizations*, and *Community Colleges Addressing Student's Needs: A Case Study of LaGuardia Community College*.

The HSC used the New Hampshire study as an analytical model, adopting its protocol and methodology while adding some elements specific to New York. While the New Hampshire study yielded important findings on women's unequal economic status, because of the racial homogeneity of the state, differences across race/ethnicity were not closely examined. The HSC study of New York's diverse population warranted an additional perspective, thus a further motivation for this research was the consideration of race and ethnicity in an analysis of women's economic status within the state.

¹Ross Gittel, Allison Churilla, and Ann McAdam Griffin, *The Economic Status of Working Women in New Hampshire* (Concord: The New Hampshire Women's Policy Institute, May 2005) available at <http://www.nhwpi.org/report05.pdf>

Approximately a third of the state's population is comprised of minorities. The diversity of New York serves to validate our emphasis on race and ethnicity as important components in this economic gender analysis (see Figure 1, New York State Demographic Profile by Race/Ethnicity).

Figure 1: New York State Demographic Profile by Race/Ethnicity



Unless otherwise specified, the analysis utilized Five Percent 2000 Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS) from the United States Bureau of Census. PUMS are data files containing records of a five percent sample of the housing units in the U.S. and the persons living in them. The PUMS files supply records for states at disparate geographic levels. This data includes the full-range of population and housing information collected in the Census; numerous personal and housing variables are included. (Refer to the Appendix for further explanation of PUMS and definition of terms used in this report.)

In the state of New York, this dataset contains an unweighted sample of 512,407 individuals between the ages of 24 and 64 (284,001 full-time workers) and a weighted sample of 10,338,992 individuals (5,682,797 full-time workers). The population of New York State according to the 2000 Census was close to 19 million people (48.2% men and 51.8% women); approximately 55 percent of New York adults between the ages of 24 and 64 were employed full-time in 1999.

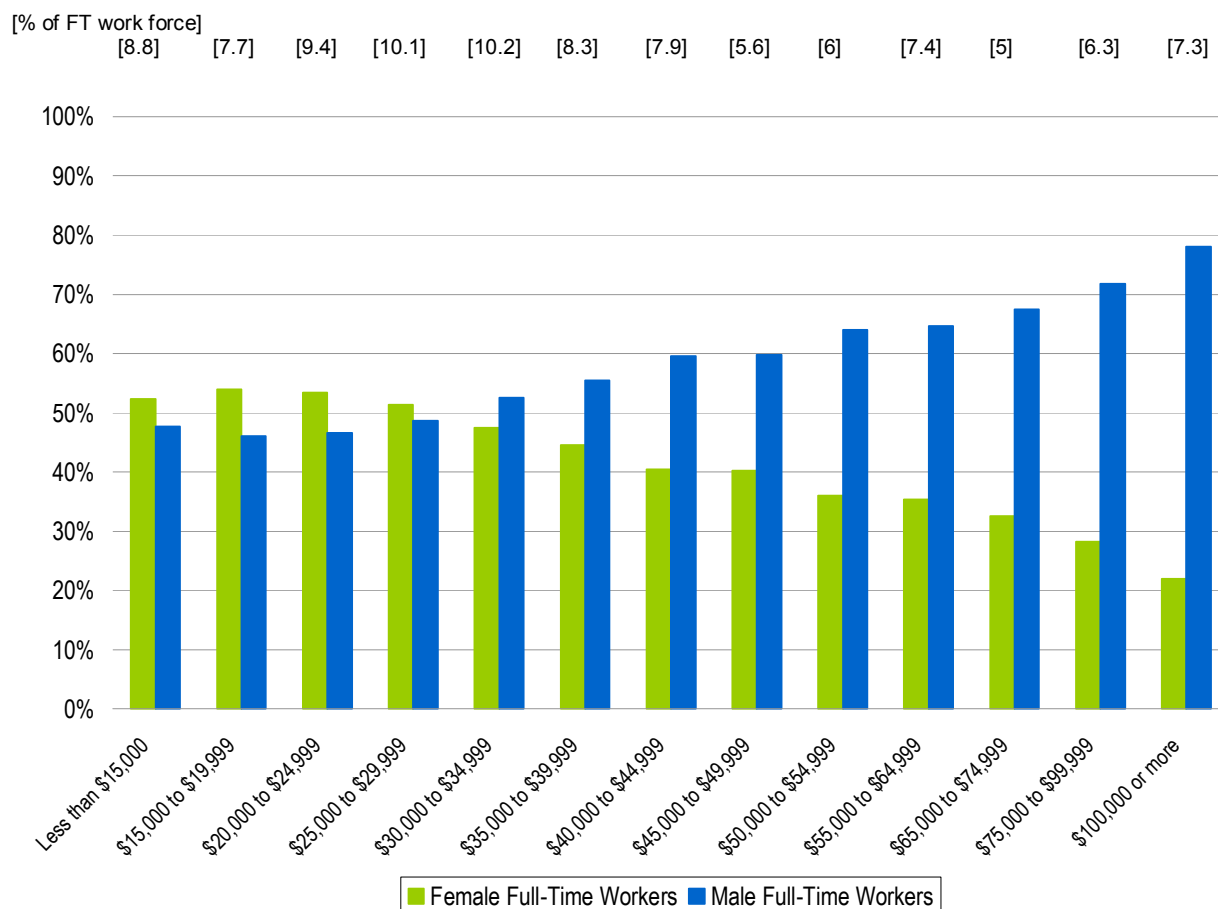
Utilizing the PUMS data, we have found numerous labor force disparities, which are discussed throughout this report. One such instance is our analysis of the earnings of full-time New York workers. An analysis of full-time workers' earnings measured in \$5,000 increments (see Figure 2, Earnings of Full-Time Workers), shows that women form a larger share of full-time workers in the lower earnings categories. At earnings levels above \$30,000 women comprise a minority of full-time workers. In fact, of the 7.3% of the New York full-time workers who earn \$100,000 or more, women comprise approximately 20%. Why are women who work full-time overrepresented in the lowest earnings categories and underrepresented in the top earnings ranges? This report explores some of the factors that may account for such disparities.

B. Organization of Report

The HSC report on the economic status of working women in New York State is presented in three main sections. Each section is divided into subsections. Each section begins with a bulleted list of the major findings for the entire section. Each subsection ends with a narrative summary.

The analysis is organized along four dimensions in which we found disparities in earnings and labor

Figure 2: Earnings of Full-Time Workers



force participation among and between women and men in New York State’s four largest racial and ethnic groups—Whites, Blacks, Latinos and Asians.² The four dimensions appeared to be family organization, geography, education and labor market segregation. The family organization section focuses on the relationship between marriage and the presence of children on earnings, earnings ratios, and employment status. The geography section compares women’s earnings and employment status geographically within New York State’s metropolitan, mixed metropolitan and non-metropolitan, and non-metropolitan areas. In the education and labor market section we explore the intersection of education and labor market segregation. Women’s economic status is analyzed in relation to educational attainment. We then compare women and men’s employment distribution in the private and public sectors and the industries and occupations where over two-thirds of workers are one sex. The conclusion section summarizes the findings in all sections.

In all four dimensions we examine women’s and men’s earnings and employment status in the aggregate while also disaggregating by race and ethnicity. Women’s and men’s earnings as full-time workers is presented in various formats that include variables related to each dimension. For example, an examination of family organization includes data dichotomously comparing earnings by married and unmarried variables.

²Race/ethnicity was collapsed into four categories that represent the largest racial/ethnic identifications in New York State. The categories are derived from two variables in the PUMS dataset: race and Hispanic/Latino(a) origin. If an individual indicated Hispanic/Latino(a) descent (regardless of racial identification), the individual was categorized as Hispanic/Latino(a). All other workers that were not of Hispanic or Latino(a) descent were coded according to their racial identification: White, Black, or Asian.

We use several levels of comparison to assess disparity. When the data is presented in the aggregate, we compare women to men. When data is disaggregated by race/ethnicity, we compare women to men within the same race/ethnicity as well as women in each racial/ethnic category to White men. We also compare women across races and ethnicities to illustrate that there are disparities among women. Occasionally we compare the minority men to White men. These different levels reveal earnings and employment status disparities based on gender and race/ethnicity. In all dimensions we illustrate disparity among workers by means of an earnings ratio, that is, the percentage of one set of earnings in relation to another. When earnings are presented in each dimension, White men's earnings are generally the highest, which is why in several instances throughout this report we use these earnings figures as a baseline for comparison. While we are cognizant of the disparity between White men and minority men, this report limits its analysis to women.

C. Highlights of Findings

Our research looked at the relationships between earnings disparities and several dimensions, such as family organization, geographic location, and level of education. Several of our findings apply to earnings disparities across all these dimensions.

White men's earnings are generally higher than that of all women and all minority men. Much of the comparative disparity (between White men and White women, as well as between White men and all other men) described throughout this report can be attributed to the significantly higher earnings of White men. Race/ethnicity is clearly significant when looking at earnings disparity. While we have found that an earnings disparity exists between women and men in almost all segments of the population we studied, the disparities between White women and White men are very different than those between women of color and men of color.

We find that part-time work is compensated at a lower rate than full-time work. The positive correlation between women's having children and/or being married and increased part-time employment status is an important component of earnings disparities between women and men.

Family Organization – Marriage and Presence of Children

There is greater earnings parity between men and women who are unmarried, regardless of whether they have children. The gender earnings gap widens for workers who are married, and in most instances, is even wider for married workers with children. The relationship between marital status and earnings varies among races/ethnicities; Black, Latina, and Asian unmarried women without children earn as much or even slightly more than their male counterparts. There is an apparent relationship between marriage, the presence of children and labor force participation. Compared to unmarried or childless women, a larger share of women in families tend to work part-time instead of full-time. Among men, a larger share of men in families work full-time.

Geography

The greatest earnings parity between men and women exists within metropolitan areas. Regardless of location, there is a smaller disparity between minority women and minority men than between White women and White men. Across all geographic areas our research found that men's full-time employment rate is higher than women's and that White women and White men have the lowest unemployment rates.

Education and Labor Market Segregation

While median annual earnings increase for both women and men as education increases, the earnings gap between women and men remains fairly consistent. The exception to this is within the category of professional degrees, where the gap is much larger. Women have higher concentrations of employment within fewer industries than men. Looking at specific employer types and industries, the greatest earnings disparities exist among the self-employed and within local government. The greatest gender earnings parity is found within the federal government. These conclusions suggest strongly that where requirements for parity are institutional, they do reduce the gender gap. Where no requirements are mandated, the requirement is significantly greater.

II. Family Organization - Marriage and Presence of Children

In the past several decades women's labor force participation has increased steadily. In 1978, 33% of women 16 to 64 years old worked full-time. By 1998, half of the women in the prime working ages, i.e. 25 to 54, were year-round full-time workers; 46% of married women and 35% of married mothers of young children were employed full-time (Cohen, et al. 1999). Family organization has a significant impact on women's economic status, thus we analyzed earnings and employment status data by two familial characteristics—marital status and the presence of children in the household.

- A comparison of the median annual earnings for full-time workers by marital status reveals that, in the aggregate, there is little difference between married and unmarried women's median annual earnings, whereas married men's median annual earnings is approximately \$10,000 higher than unmarried men's. The relationship between marital status and earnings varies among races/ethnicities.
- There are differences in full-time workers' earnings depending on whether children live in their household. The relationship between presence of children and earnings is slightly different by workers' gender and by race/ethnicity. When children are present in the household, women's earnings are slightly lower; men's earnings are flat or moderately higher. White and Asian women with only young children have slightly higher earnings than their racial counterparts without children.
- Looking at these two family characteristics together, it appears that the earnings gap is more closely related to marriage than the presence of children. There is greater earnings parity between men and women who are unmarried, regardless of whether they have children. The gender earnings gap widens for workers who are married, and in most instances, is even wider for married workers with children.
 - The earnings of unmarried women without children is 94% of their male counterpart's earnings.
 - The earnings of unmarried women with children is 91% of their male counterpart's earnings.
 - The earnings of married women without children is 74% of their male counterpart's earnings.
 - The earnings of married women with children is 69% of their male counterpart's earnings.
- There is an obvious relationship between marriage, the presence of children, and the extent to which women and men engage in the paid labor force. Married women have a slightly higher share of the overall labor force than unmarried women, but engage in less full-time employment and more part-time employment. Women with children in the household engage in less full-time employment than women with no children. Compared to unmarried men, married men have a higher labor force participation rate, engage in more full-time and less part-time employment, and have the lowest unemployment rate. Men with children present in the household engage in more full-time employment than men with no children.

A. Marriage and Earnings³

A comparison of the median annual earnings for full-time workers by marital status reveals that, in the aggregate, there is little difference between married and unmarried women’s median annual earnings, whereas married men’s median annual earnings are approximately \$10,000 higher than unmarried men’s. However, the relationship between marital status and earnings varies among races/ethnicities.

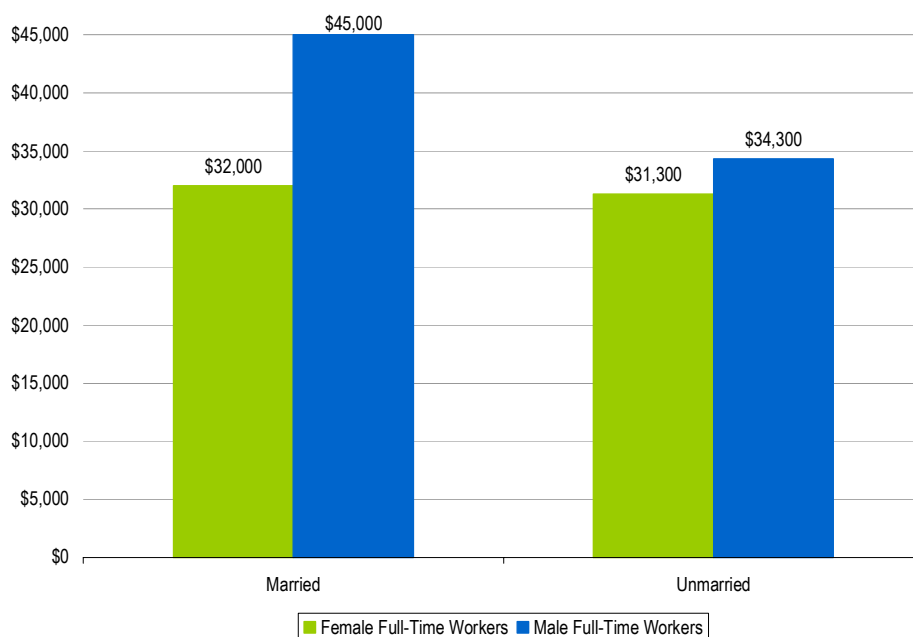
A salient finding related to earnings disparity emerges when we compare the median annual earnings for full-time workers in New York by marital status (Figure 3, Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time Workers by Marital Status).⁴ In the aggregate, married women and men earn more than unmarried women and men. For women the increase is \$700, married men’s median annual earnings are \$10,700 higher than unmarried men’s.

When we disaggregate by race/ethnicity, we find that Blacks are the only racial/ethnic group in which married women realize higher earnings than unmarried women. There is a negligible difference for White and Latina women, however unmarried Asian women earn considerably more than married Asian women. Among men, White married men have the highest earnings among all races/ethnicities. Their median annual earnings are considerably higher than their married and unmarried male counterparts in the other three racial/ethnic groups (Figure 4, Median Annual Earnings for Full Time Workers by Marital Status – Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity).

A partial explanation for the phenomenon—married men’s higher earnings—may be attributed to the so-called “marriage premium.” Several causes have been

proposed by researchers. One is the positive effect that marriage has on the men’s productivity; their higher wages are a result of the gendered division and specialization of labor within the marriage unit. Another explanation posits that more productive men are selected for marriage. Although the marriage premium has varied through time, there are indications that it is

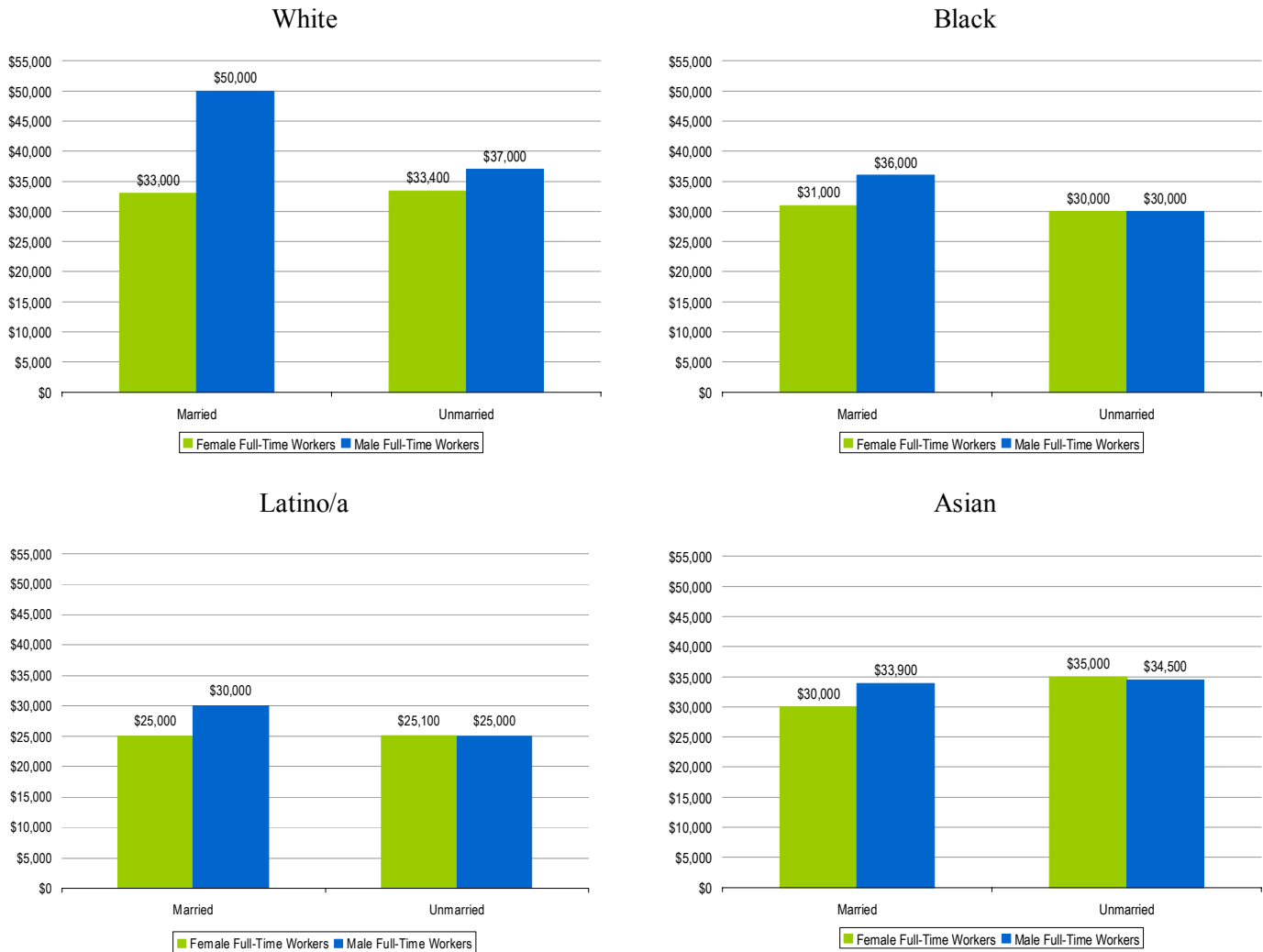
Figure 3: Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time Workers by Marital Status



³Of the population of full-time workers between the ages of 24 and 64, 1.3 million women (53 percent) and 2.2 million men (67 percent) were married in 1999. The remaining full-time working population in New York State was composed of workers that were never married, divorced, separated, or widowed.

⁴Our comparison of earnings and employment status disparity used conventional measures of comparing married and unmarried employees in the New York labor force. We recognize that this dichotomy limits our analysis, precluding an examination of how various domestic partnerships affect women’s economic status.

Figure 4: Median Annual Earnings for Full Time Workers by Marital Status — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



declining based on changing family forms, changes in the household, and women’s increased labor force participation (Cohen 2002).

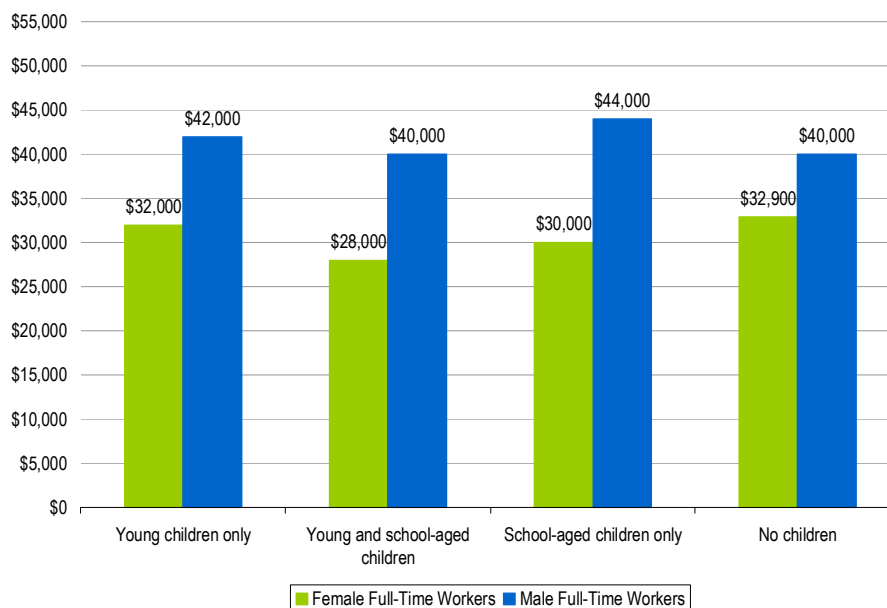
B. The Presence of Children in the Household and Earnings

In this subsection we examine the presence of children in the household and the median annual earnings of full-time workers. Since the late 1970s, there has been a narrowing of the ratio of women’s earnings to men’s. Yet, the “family gap” has been widening. The family gap has been defined as the earnings difference between women with children and women without children. Research has found that in the United States married and unmarried women with children earn less than women without children, however, men do not experience a family penalty (Waldfogel 1998). In the aggregate the HSC analysis is in agreement with these findings. One hypothesis for the cause of the family gap has been attributed

to differences in education and work experience between women and men.

Another hypothesis is that women with children might be less motivated to engage in or bring less effort to the labor market. A third hypothesis attributes the cause to institutional labor market features, for which family support policies have an effect on women’s wages. Research also found that women who had maternity leave that allowed them to return to their original employer had subsequent higher pay compared to working women who did not have such coverage, assuming all else equal (Waldfogel 1998).

Figure 5: Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time Workers by the Presence of Children in the Household



Our analysis of the New York State PUMS data focused on a comparison of women’s and men’s annual median earnings by the presence of children within specific age ranges in the household.

Figure 5 (Median Annual Earnings for Full-time Workers by the Presence of Children in the Household) presents the median annual earnings of women and men with no children and with children in three specific categories: 1) young children only, 2) young and school-aged children and 3) school-aged children only. Comparing women in these categories, their earnings are lower with the presence of children; \$900 (3%) less, \$4,900 (9%) less and \$2,900 (15%) less, respectively. Women’s median annual earnings are lowest when both young and school-aged children are in the household. The earnings of men in households with children are similar to or higher than (up to \$4,000) the earnings of men with no children.

When disaggregated by race/ethnicity (Figure 6, Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time Workers by Presence of Children in Household – Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity), in general women’s earnings are lower with the presence of children in the household. However, this pattern is somewhat different for White and Asian women with young children only in the household. Their earnings are somewhat higher than their counterparts with no children.

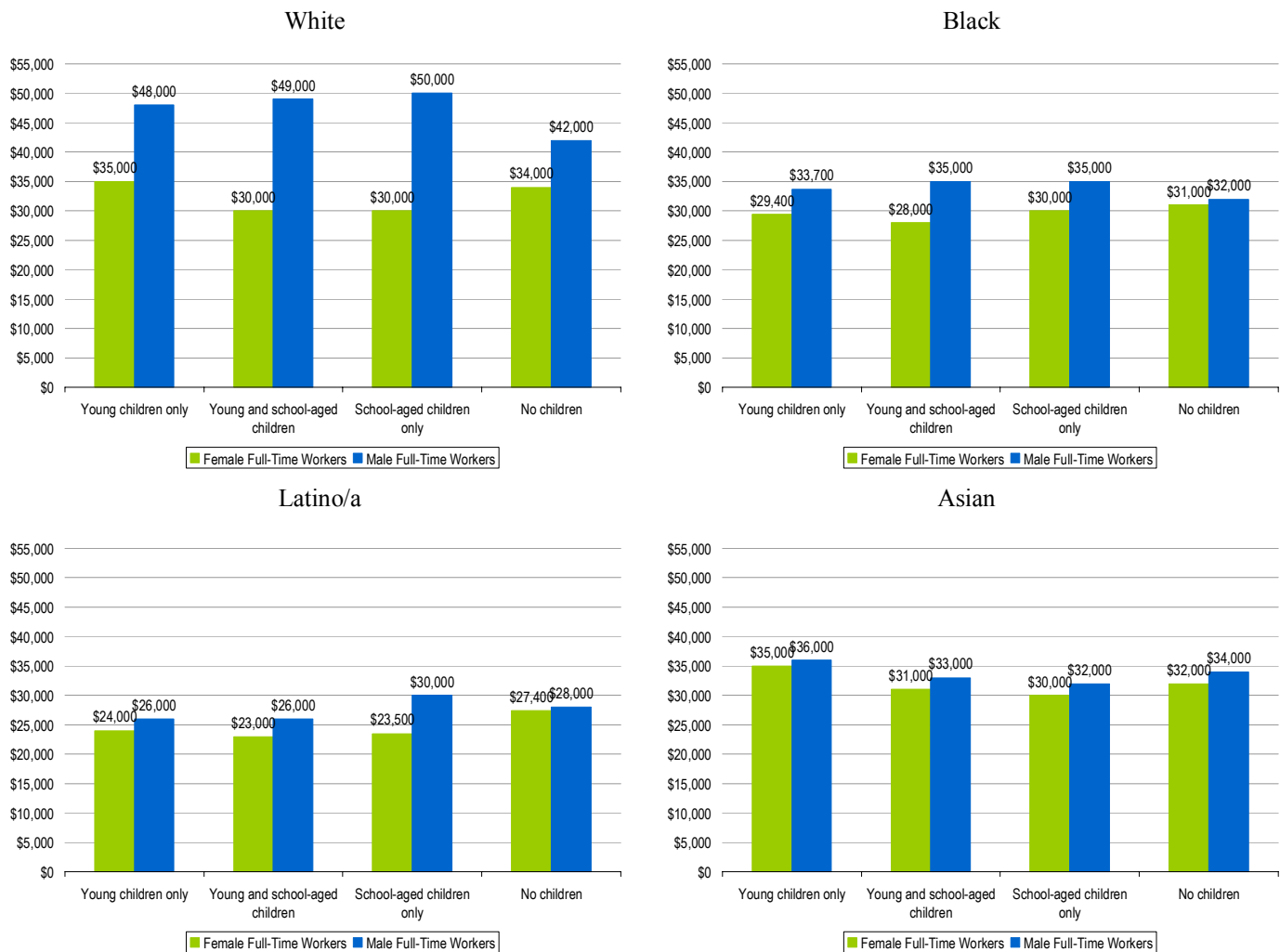
In the aggregate data, we saw that the annual earnings of men either remained flat or were higher with the presence of children. However, when the data is disaggregated by race/ethnicity, this finding pertains to only White and Black men. The median annual earnings of Latino men without children in the household are lower when children are present. In Asian households, the median earnings are lower when young and school-aged children and school aged children only are present.

For Latino and Asian workers, children tend to have the same impact on women’s and men’s wages. On

average, *both* male and female Asian workers gain (in their median earnings) when they have young children, but *both* groups of workers tend to lose when school-aged children are present. *Both* male and female Latino workers lose (in their median earnings) when young children are present (although the pattern diverges for school-aged children). In contrast, men’s and women’s median earnings diverge with the presence of children for Whites and Blacks; for the most part, women’s wages go down and men’s wages go up.

In summary, there are differences in full-time workers’ earnings depending on whether children live in their household. When children are present in the household, women’s earnings are moderately lower; men’s earnings are flat or slightly higher. Comparing women, across races/ethnicities this pattern holds except in the case of White and Asian women with young children only. (Obviously for a fuller analysis the age and professional experience of women in all of these categories needs to be taken into account.)

Figure 6: Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time Workers by Presence of Children in Household – Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



C. Earnings Gap or the Ratio of Women's Full-Time Earnings to Men's Earnings

In this subsection we examine marriage, the presence of children and earnings from a slightly different perspective, that is, the ratio of women's earnings to men's earnings. We analyze women's full-time earnings as a proportion of men's full-time earnings by marital status and the presence of children. This is represented graphically in Figure 7 (Full-Time Women's Earnings as a Proportion of Men's Earnings: Marriage and the Presence of Children).

In the aggregate, our analysis indicates that gender earnings inequity is more closely related to marriage than to the presence of children. That is, *unmarried* women experience greater earnings equity with men than married women regardless of the presence of children. The earnings of unmarried women are approximately 93% of unmarried men's earnings. Married women's earnings ratio with and without children is approximately twenty percentage points lower. This finding suggests a stronger relationship between the status of being married and gender earnings disparity because men's earnings increase so substantially inside of marriage. The presence of children has a slight negative impact on earnings equity for both married and unmarried women as indicated by a four to five percentage point differential.

When the data is disaggregated by race/ethnicity, a comparison of married and unmarried women both with and without children shows that the earnings differential between the unmarried and married categories is substantial. We find that generally unmarried women have greater earnings equity than married women. Comparing women, the earnings ratio varies widely between married and unmarried women (for married women the ratio is 10 to 43 percentage points higher than for unmarried women). Of note, Black, Latina, and Asian unmarried women without children earn as much or even slightly more than their male counterparts.

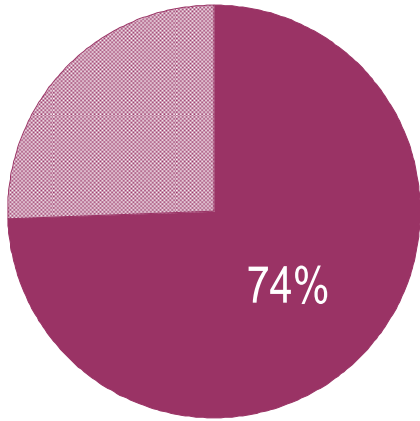
Among women who have children, unmarried women of all races and ethnicities have greater earnings parity with their male counterparts than do married women. The most striking finding is that the earnings ratio of unmarried Asian women with children is 29 percentage points higher than their male counterparts, and 43 percentage points higher than their married female counterparts.

White married women with children exhibit the greatest earnings disparity (earnings gap) among women of all races/ethnicities married and unmarried, with or without children. One explanation for this finding relates back to the marriage premium, married White men's earnings are the highest across all groups.

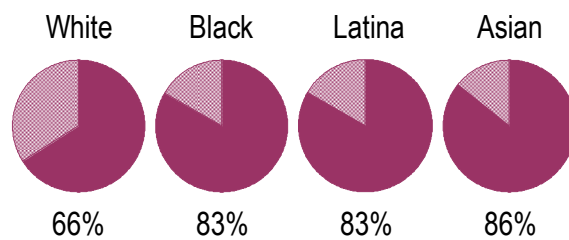
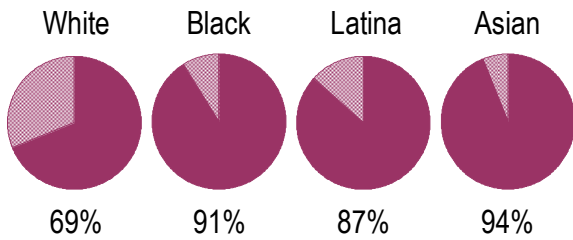
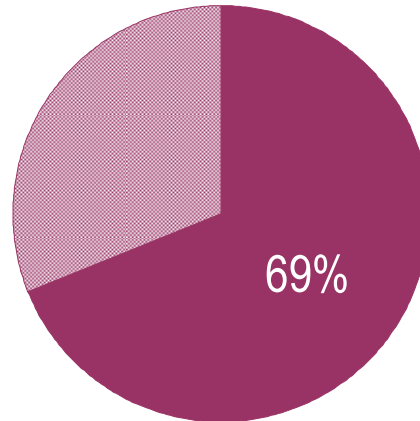
In sum, when the relationship of marriage and the presence of children is measured in this way, that is, women's full-time median annual earnings as a proportion of men's, the earnings gap is more closely related to marriage than to the presence of children.

**Figure 7: Full-Time Women’s Earnings as a Proportion of Men’s Earnings:
Marital Status and the Presence of Children**

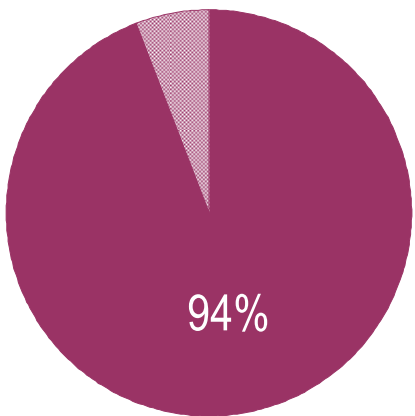
Married without Children



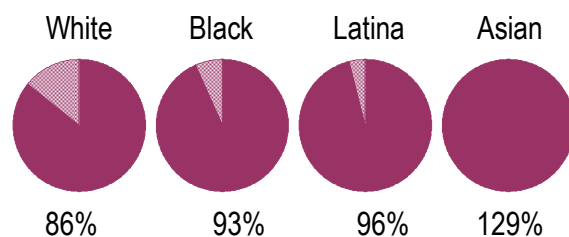
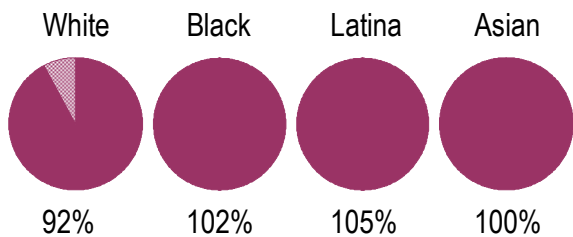
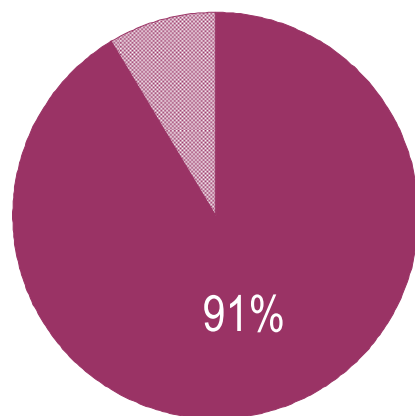
Married with Children



Unmarried without Children



Unmarried with Children



D. Marriage, the Presence of Children, and Employment Status

In this subsection we examine the relationship between marriage and presence of children and women’s and men’s employment status as defined by participation in the labor force. This is an effort to uncover additional factors that could account for gender disparities in the labor force.

Our analysis of the New York State PUMS data shows that in the aggregate, (Figure 8, Women and Men’s Employment Status by Marital Status) married women work more part-time and less full-time than unmarried women. Conversely, married men work more full-time and less part-time employment than unmarried men. Married men have the lowest unemployment rate, whereas unmarried men have the highest unemployment rate among married and unmarried men and women. Married and unmarried men have a higher rate of full-time employment than their women counterparts.

As Figure 9 shows (Women’s and Men’s Employment Status by Marital Status — Disaggregated by

Figure 8: Women and Men’s Employment Status by Marital Status

[Share of overall labor force]

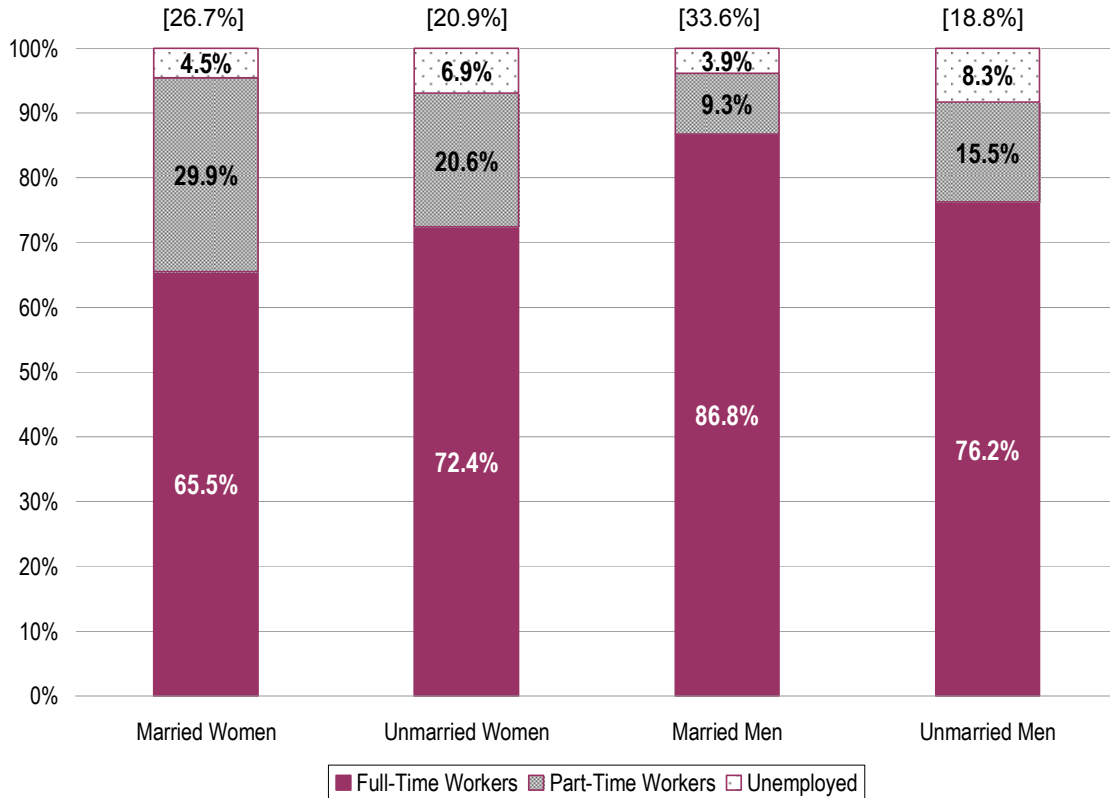
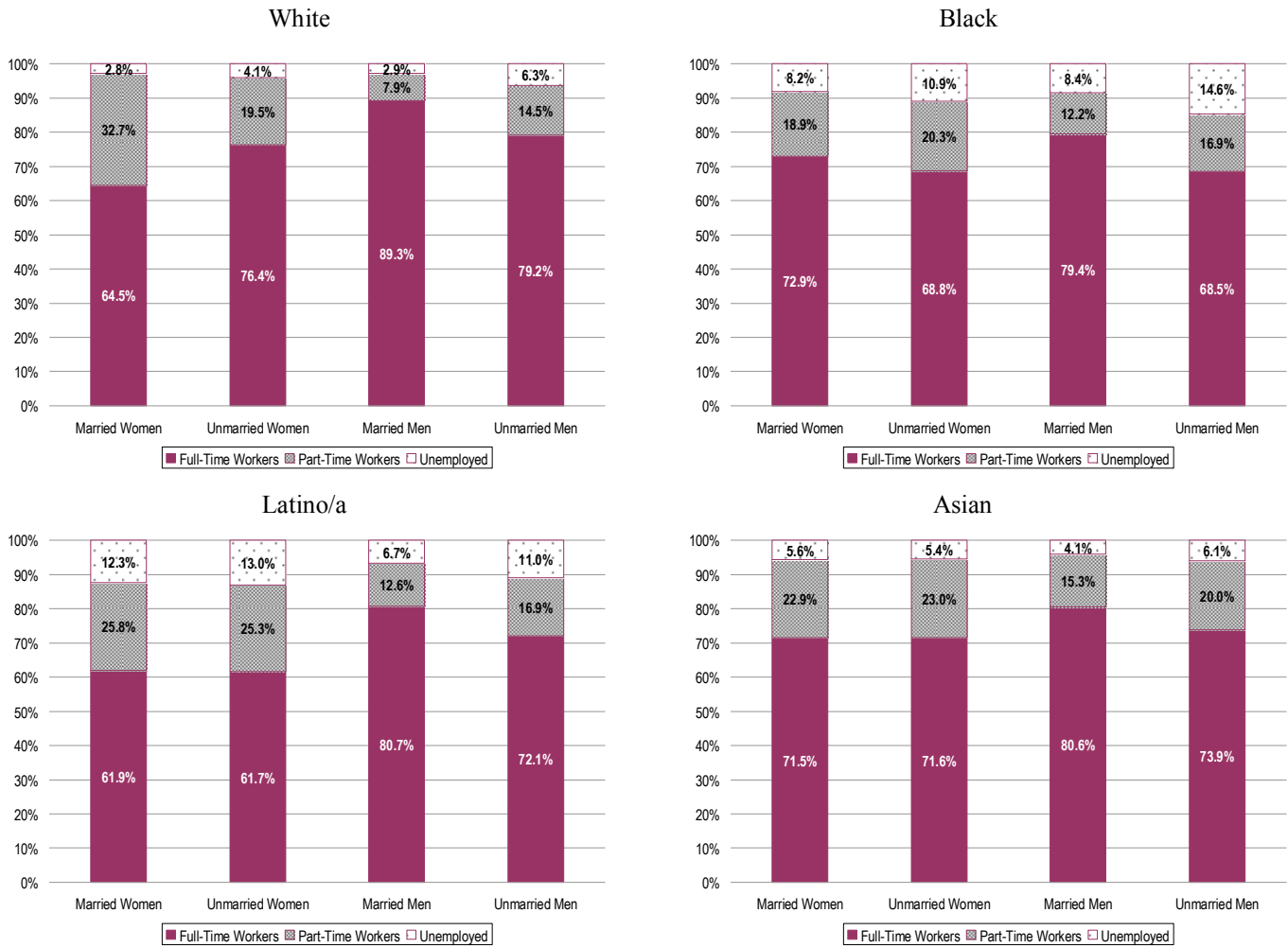


Figure 9: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status by Marital Status — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



Race/Ethnicity), like the aggregate data, women of all races/ethnicities work more part-time than men. Married White women work more part-time than all other women and men across the racial/ethnic categories. However, unmarried White women have the highest full-time employment rate among women. Marital status has little influence on full-time and part-time employment rates for Black, Latina, and Asian women.

We also examined the relationship between labor force participation and the presence of children in the

household (See Figure 10, Women and Men’s Employment Status and the Presence of Children). Comparing women, women with children in the household work less full-time and more part-time than women with no children present. Comparing men, men with children present work more full-time and less part-time than men with no children present.

When the data is disaggregated by race/ethnicity (See Figure 11, Women’s and Men’s Employment

Figure 10: Women and Men’s Employment Status and the Presence of Children

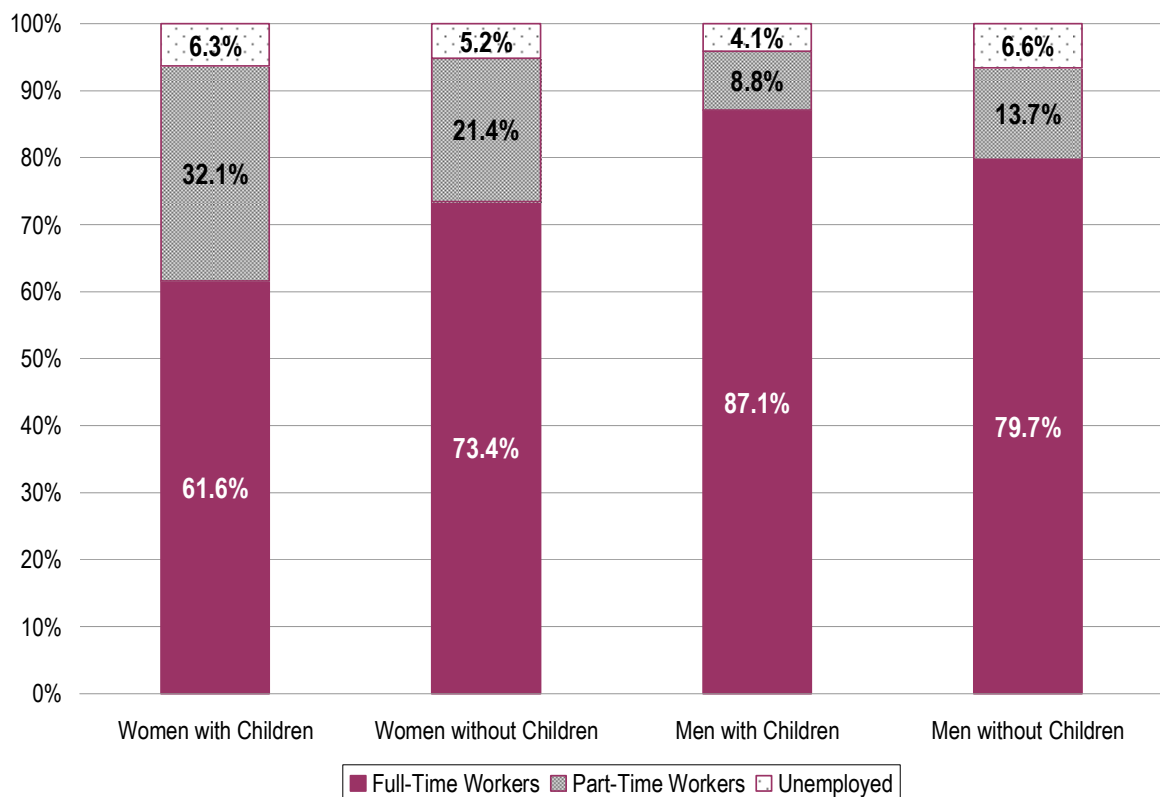
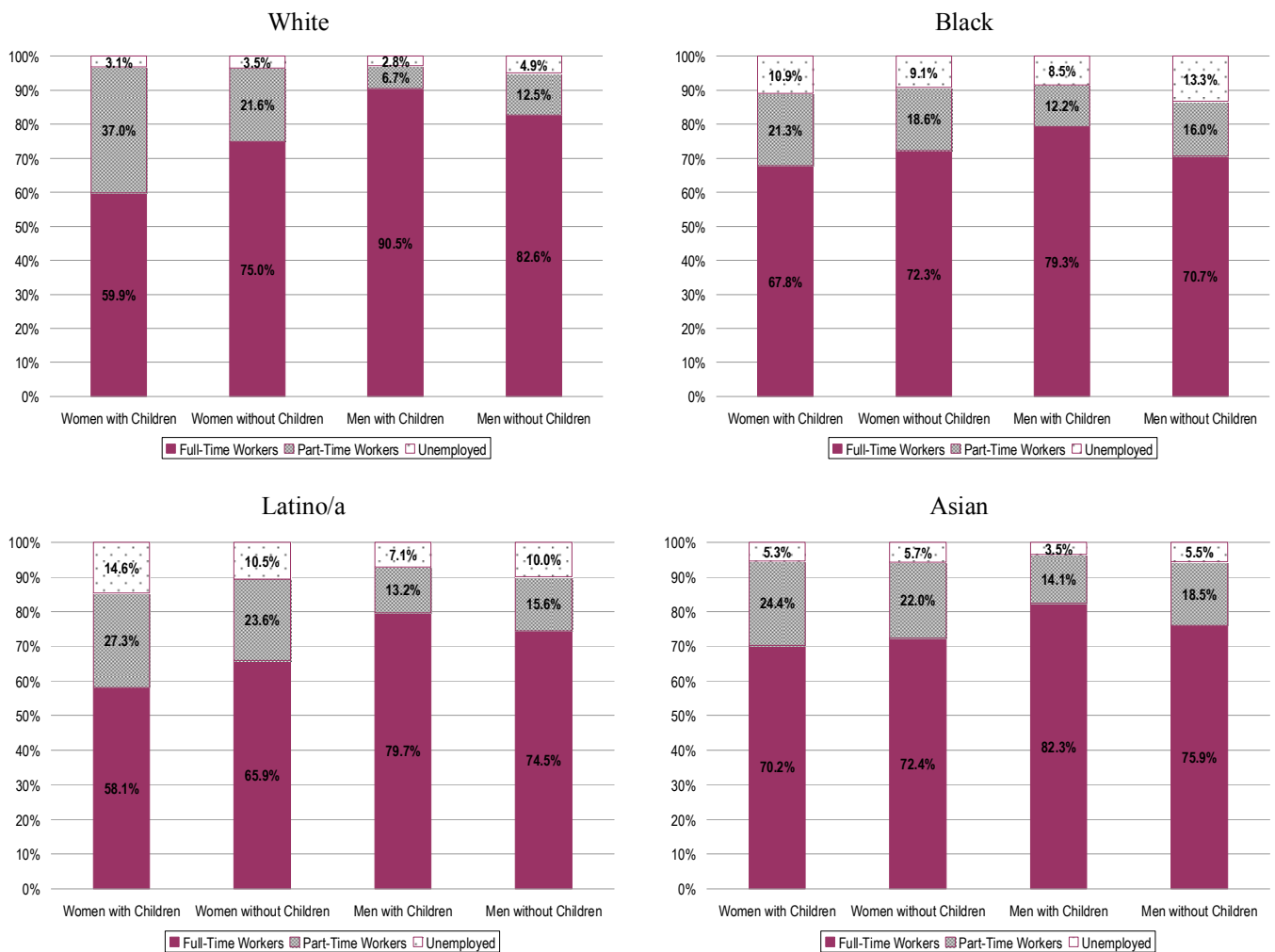


Figure 11: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status and the Presence of Children — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



Status and the Presence of Children — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity), here too we find that women with children work less full-time than men with children. This suggests that women experience a family penalty that men do not.

In the aggregate, we see that married women as well as women with children work more part-time and less full-time. When disaggregated by race/ethnicity, this pattern holds for women with children, but for married and unmarried minority women there is little difference in the part-time and full-time employment rates.

That women engage in more part-time work than men is significant for several reasons. Part-time jobs are associated with lower earnings, fixed hours and a shorter work week (Hakim 2006). Research has shown U.S. part-time employees earn less than full-time employees, even after controlling for demographic and other relevant variables (Ferber and Waldfogel 1998). Elsewhere it has been shown that part-time employment pays approximately 10% less in wages and has been found to be a factor in the “family gap.” That is, women with children earn lower hourly wages than women without children (Waldfogel 1997). It is unclear from the data how much part-time employment is “voluntary,” versus “involuntary.” Voluntary part-timers are those workers who

prefer part-time and “involuntary” workers would prefer full-time employment, but for various reasons engage in part-time work. Involuntary part-time work has been on the rise since 1970 and constitutes about 25% of part-time employees (Kalleberg 2000).

III. Geography

This section highlights the link between geographic residency and women's economic status. The study examines this variable of residence along three different geographic measures provided by the PUMS data: 1) metropolitan, mixed metropolitan and non-metropolitan⁵ 2) thirteen metropolitan statistical areas and 3) New York City versus the rest of New York State.

The analysis starts with a comprehensive geographical overview of New York State as represented by the metropolitan, mixed metropolitan/non-metropolitan and non-metropolitan categories. Next we evaluate thirteen metro areas in New York State. Lastly we compare data about New York City with the rest of the state.⁶

Each geographical grouping was analyzed separately, however, when looking at all the geographical categories in relation to each other some interesting findings emerge.

- At the aggregate level, while a gender earnings disparity is prevalent in all three geographical categories, women have the greatest gender earnings parity in metropolitan areas compared to those residing in the mixed and non-metropolitan areas; the gap is smallest in the New York City metro compared to the other metro areas, and in New York City compared to the rest of the state.
- An earnings comparison between women and men in the same racial/ethnic groups in the metropolitan, mixed and non-metropolitan areas shows that minority women have less of an earnings disparity with their male counterparts than White women. This pattern is similar in a comparison between New York City and the rest of the state. For example, the earnings of Asian women residing in the metropolitan areas and in New York City equal that of Asian men. The greatest earnings disparities appear between White women and White men. However, White women often have higher median earnings than the women of other races/ethnicities in some geographic areas. An exception is in the mixed area as well as the rest of the state category where Asian women earn more than White women.
- Across races/ethnicities, in all the geographic categories examined we found that men's full-time employment is higher than women's; women work more part-time employment than men. White women and men have the lowest unemployment rates.

A. Metropolitan, Mixed Metropolitan/Non-metropolitan, and Non-metropolitan Areas—Earnings and Employment Status

In this section we compare earnings and employment status data on women and men using three residential categories: 1) metropolitan, 2) mixed metropolitan and non-metropolitan (hereinafter called mixed area) and 3) non-metropolitan.

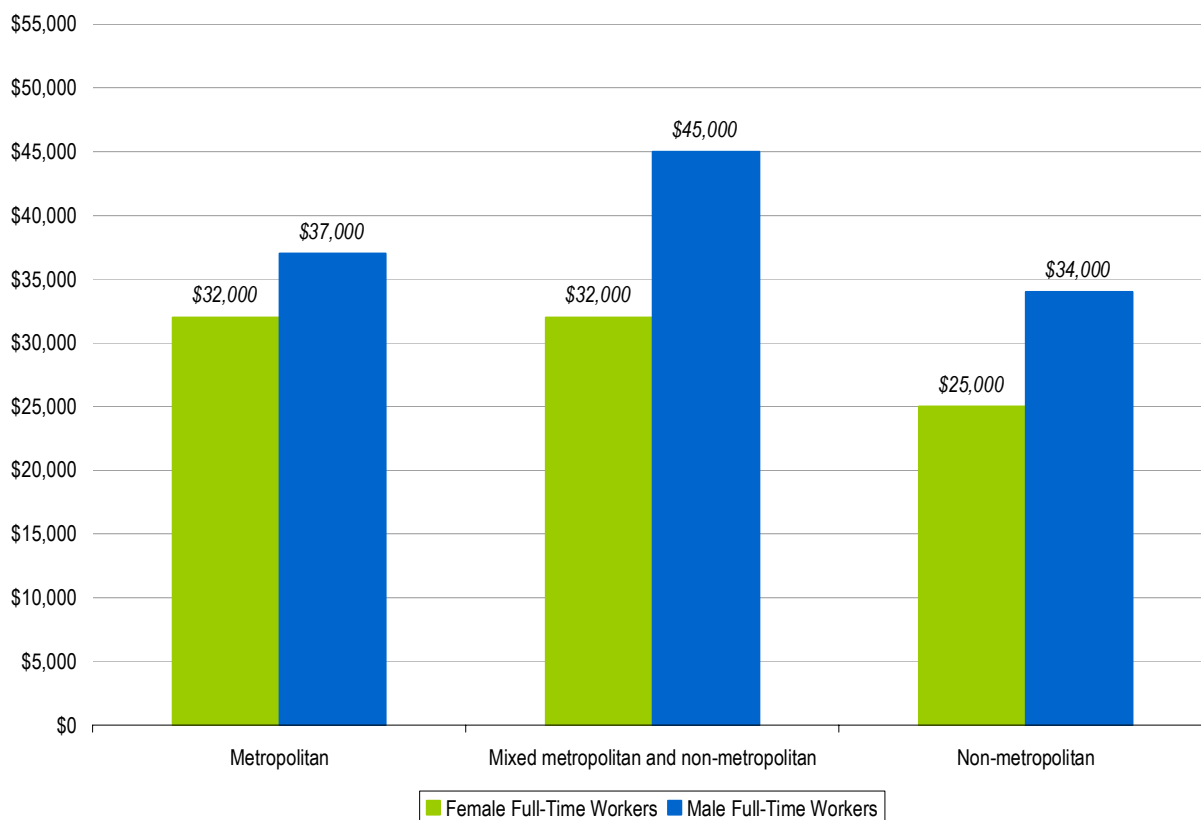
⁵See appendix for an explanation of how these geographic areas are defined.

⁶ It is important to bear in mind that compared to Whites, smaller shares of workers in other racial/ethnic groups live in mixed and non-metropolitan areas (see appendix for population distribution table).

Figure 12, Women’s and Men’s Median Annual Earnings in Metropolitan, Mixed Metropolitan/Non-metropolitan, and Non-metropolitan Areas depicts the median annual earnings for women and men residing in the three distinct geographic areas. This aggregate data shows that women earn the same in the metropolitan and mixed areas and earn less in the non-metropolitan areas. Men in the mixed area earn the highest. Women’s earnings as a proportion of men’s earnings are 86% in the metropolitan areas, 71% in the mixed area, and 73% in the non-metropolitan area.⁷

When the data is disaggregated by race/ethnicity, we see that White women residing in the metropolitan statistical category have higher median earnings than women of any of the other races/ethnicities; this is closely followed by Asian women residing in the mixed area (Figure 13, Women’s and Men’s Median Earnings Metropolitan, Mixed metropolitan/Non-metropolitan and Non-metropolitan Areas— Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity). With the exception of Whites, women and men in the other three racial/ethnic groups residing in the mixed area have higher median annual earnings than those who reside in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas.

Figure 12: Women’s and Men’s Median Annual Earnings in Metropolitan, Mixed Metropolitan/Non-Metropolitan and Non-Metropolitan Areas



⁷ n.b. People who reside in a particular geographic region do not necessarily earn their incomes within that region.

When comparing the earnings of women with men in the same racial/ethnic category, Asian women in the non-metropolitan area experience the greatest earnings disparity (in this PUMS sample of full-time workers, a relatively small number of Asians live in the non-metropolitan geographic area). With this one exception, White women have the greatest earnings disparity in all three geographical categories. Their earnings as a proportion of White men’s earnings are 83% in the metropolitan areas, 70% in the mixed area, and 74% in the non-metropolitan area. However, the disparity in earnings among women across racial/ethnic categories is not as dramatic. Asian women in the metropolitan area have the greatest earnings parity; their median earnings are 100% of Asian men’s. In the metropolitan area Black women’s median earnings are 94% of Black men; in the non-metropolitan area, Black women earn 91% of their male counterpart’s earnings. Latino men and women earn the least in all three geographic areas. Although Latinas experience fairly high earnings ratios, this is influenced by the low earnings of Latino men in the metropolitan and mixed areas.

Figure 13: Women’s and Men’s Median Annual Earnings in Metropolitan, Mixed Metropolitan/ Non-Metropolitan and Non-Metropolitan Areas—Disaggregated by Race and Ethnicity

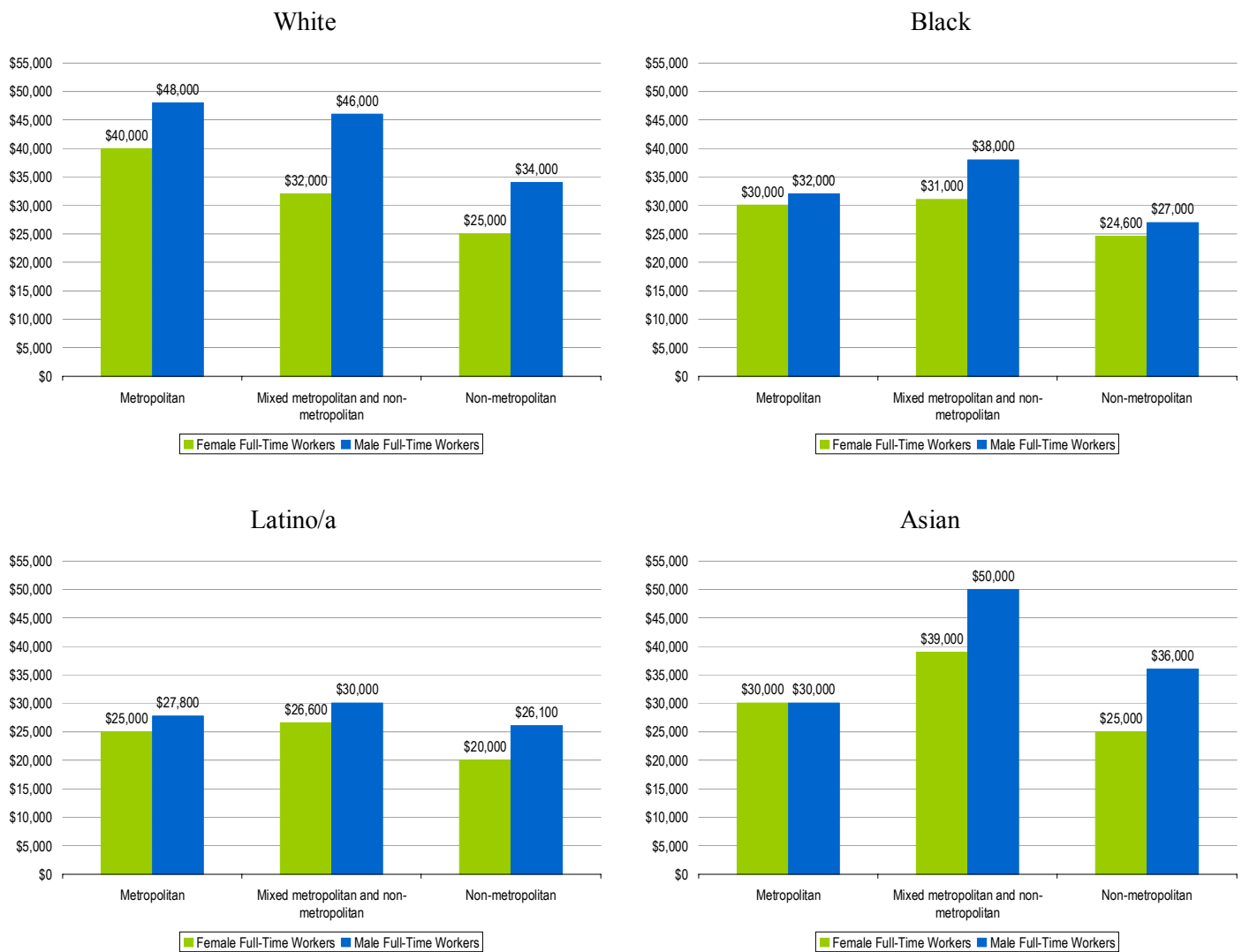
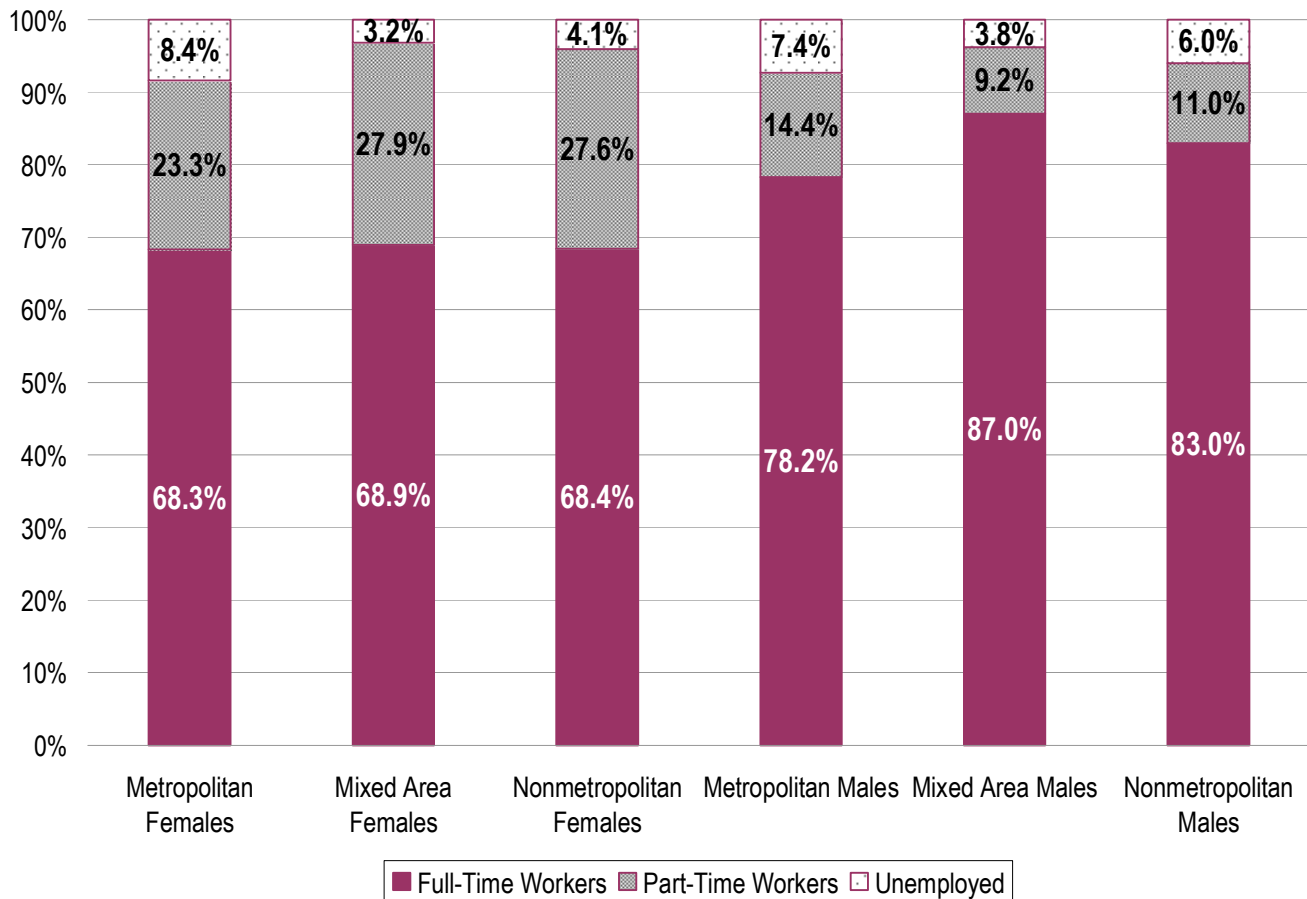


Figure 14: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status in Metropolitan, Mixed Metropolitan/Non-Metropolitan and Non-Metropolitan Areas



It is important to stress that White men’s salaries are used as the baseline, because they have the highest earnings in most cases. A finding that emerges as a pattern in this report is that, in general, White men’s median annual earnings are considerably higher than the earnings of women and men in other racial/ethnic groups. Women’s median earnings don’t vary much by race and geography, the exception being that white women far “outperform” women of other racial/ethnic groups in metropolitan areas. The earnings disparity in metro areas increases when minority women’s median earnings are compared to White men’s earnings. For example, in the metropolitan area Asian and Black women’s earnings as a proportion of White men’s is only 63%, and Latina’s are 52%.

Figure 14 (Women’s and Men’s Employments Status in Metropolitan, Mixed Metropolitan/Non-Metropolitan, and Non-Metropolitan Areas) shows the employment status for women and men by metropolitan status. Full-time employment is consistent at 68 percent for women in all three areas. They work less full-time and more part-time than men.

When the data is disaggregated by race/ethnicity (Figure 15, Women and Men’s Employments Status in Metropolitan, Mixed Metropolitan/Non-Metropolitan, and Non-Metropolitan Areas—Disaggregated by Race/

Ethnicity) White women’s full-time employment rates across geographic categories is similar to the aggregate data, whereas, there is slightly more variation among minority women. Most notably, Latinas in non-metropolitan areas have the lowest full-time employment rate. Black and Latina women in the metropolitan areas have the highest unemployment rates among women.

In summary, except for Whites, women and men residing in the mixed areas have higher median annual earnings than those who reside in metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas. When comparing women and men within the same racial/ethnic categories, generally the earnings ratio is slightly more equitable for those residing in metropolitan areas than in mixed and non-metropolitan areas. This does not negate the fact that a significant earnings disparity still exists between women and men in all three geographical areas and the disparity is increased when minority women’s earnings are compared to White men’s earnings.

Figure 15: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status in Metropolitan, Mixed Metropolitan/Non-Metropolitan and Non-Metropolitan Areas—Disaggregated by Race and Ethnicity

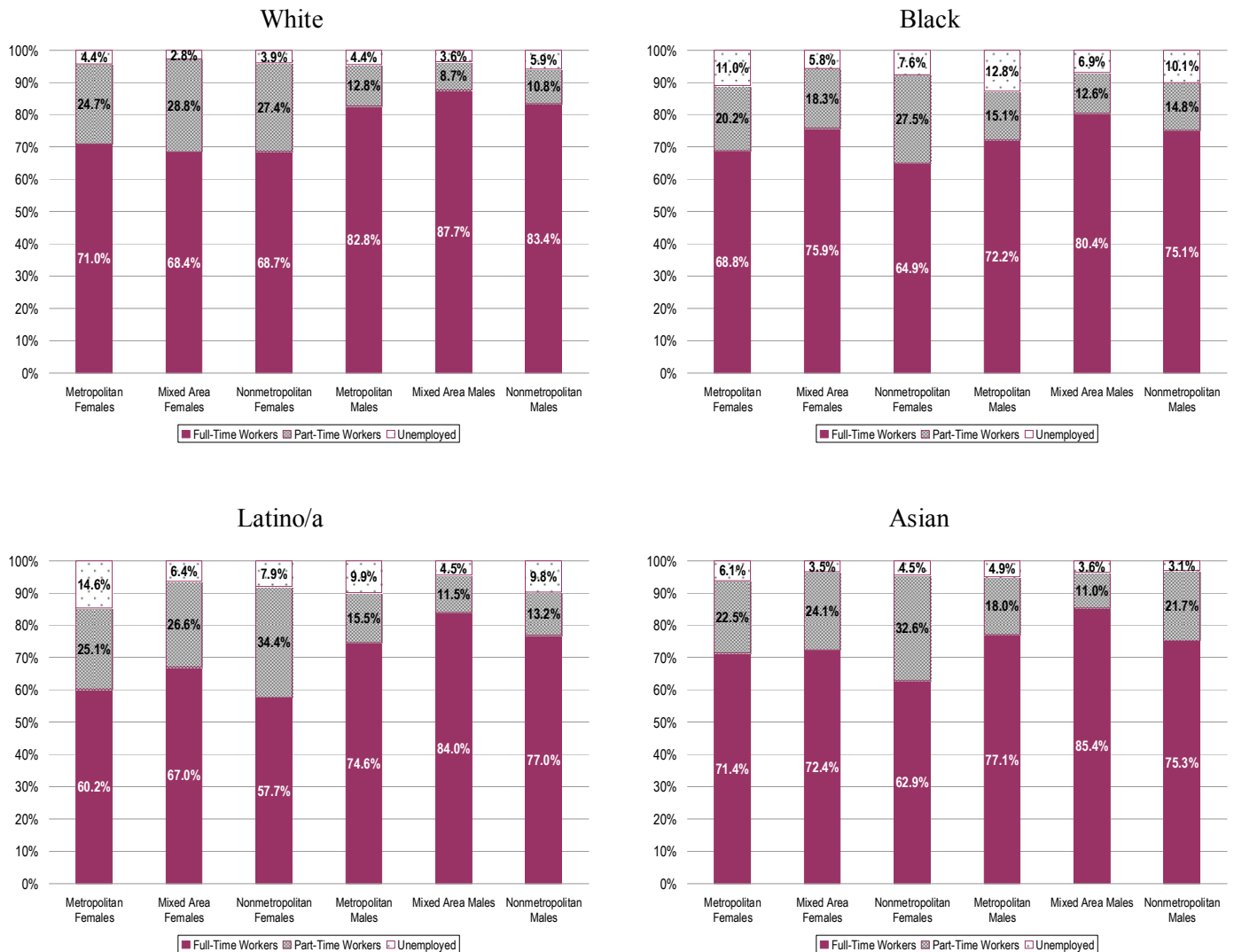
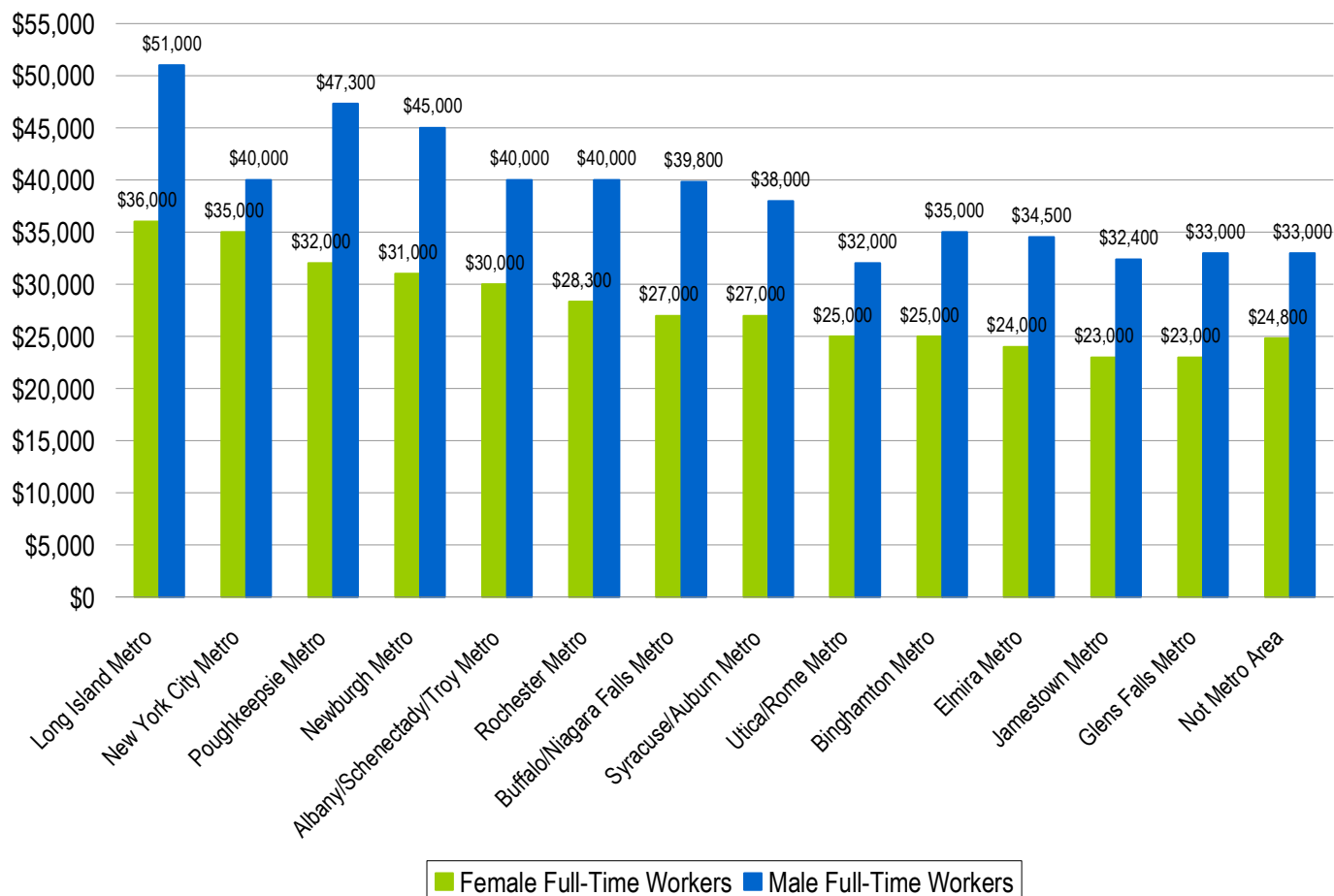


Figure 16: Women’s and Men’s Median Earnings in New York State Metro Areas



B. New York State Metro Areas—Earnings

We also found gender disparity in median annual earnings of full time workers across the state in New York’s metropolitan areas. Figure 16 is a comparison of women’s and men’s earnings in New York. The thirteen metro area in Figure 16 (Women’s and Men’s Median Annual Earnings in New York State Metro Areas) were defined using PUMAs (Public Use Microdata Areas), which are geographic areas comprised of counties, groups of counties, or portions of counties with populations totaling approximately 100,000 individuals. Women’s highest median annual earnings (exceeding \$30,000) are reported in the metro areas of Long Island, New York City, Poughkeepsie and Newburgh. Women’s lowest median earnings are found in the Jamestown and Glens Falls metro areas. Men’s highest median earnings of \$45,000 and above are found in the metro areas of Long Island metro, Poughkeepsie metro, and Newburgh. The lowest men’s median earnings of \$32,000 is reported for the Utica/Rome metro area.

As in previous sections, wage disparities are represented as ratios between women’s and men’s earnings. Comparing women and men’s median annual earnings in all the metro areas, women in the New York City metro area have the greatest wage parity. Their median earnings are 87.5% of men’s earnings. The greatest gender earnings gap is found in the Poughkeepsie metro area where women’s median earnings are 67.7% of men’s earnings.

The higher earnings and greater wage parity for women in New York City metro may be attributed to a larger labor market and a wider range of employment and earnings opportunities in a more competitive arena. As will be discussed further when we delve into the labor market segregation data, public sector employment, such as that found in the state government in the Albany-Schenectady-Troy metro area, can also lead to higher earnings for women. This is not true in local government. Another topic that requires further research is the effect of the local labor market in relation to job opportunities.

In summary, there is evidence of an earnings gap: men have higher earnings than women in the thirteen New York metro areas. Women’s (and men’s) earnings vary statewide for various economic and structural reasons; however, women have the greatest earnings parity with men in the New York City metro area.

C. New York City and the Rest of the State Residency—Earnings and Employment Status

This section examines the earnings and employment status of men and women in New York City as compared to the rest of the state.

Comparing the median annual earnings of women and men in New York City with the rest of the state, (see Figure 17, Women’s and Men’s Full-Time Annual Median Earnings in New York City vs. Rest of New York State), we see that women’s earnings are \$4,000 higher in New York City than in the rest of the state and the situation is reversed for men.

Figure 17: Women’s and Men’s Full-Time Annual Earnings in New York City vs. Rest of New York State

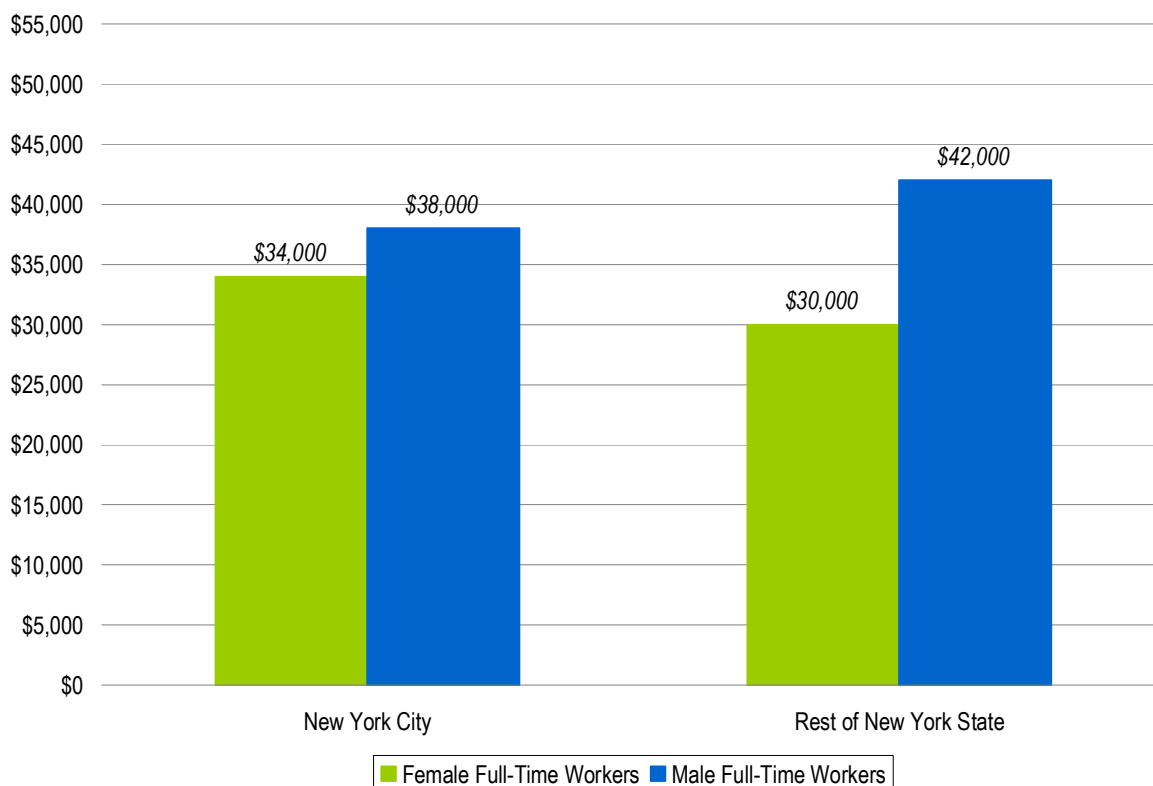
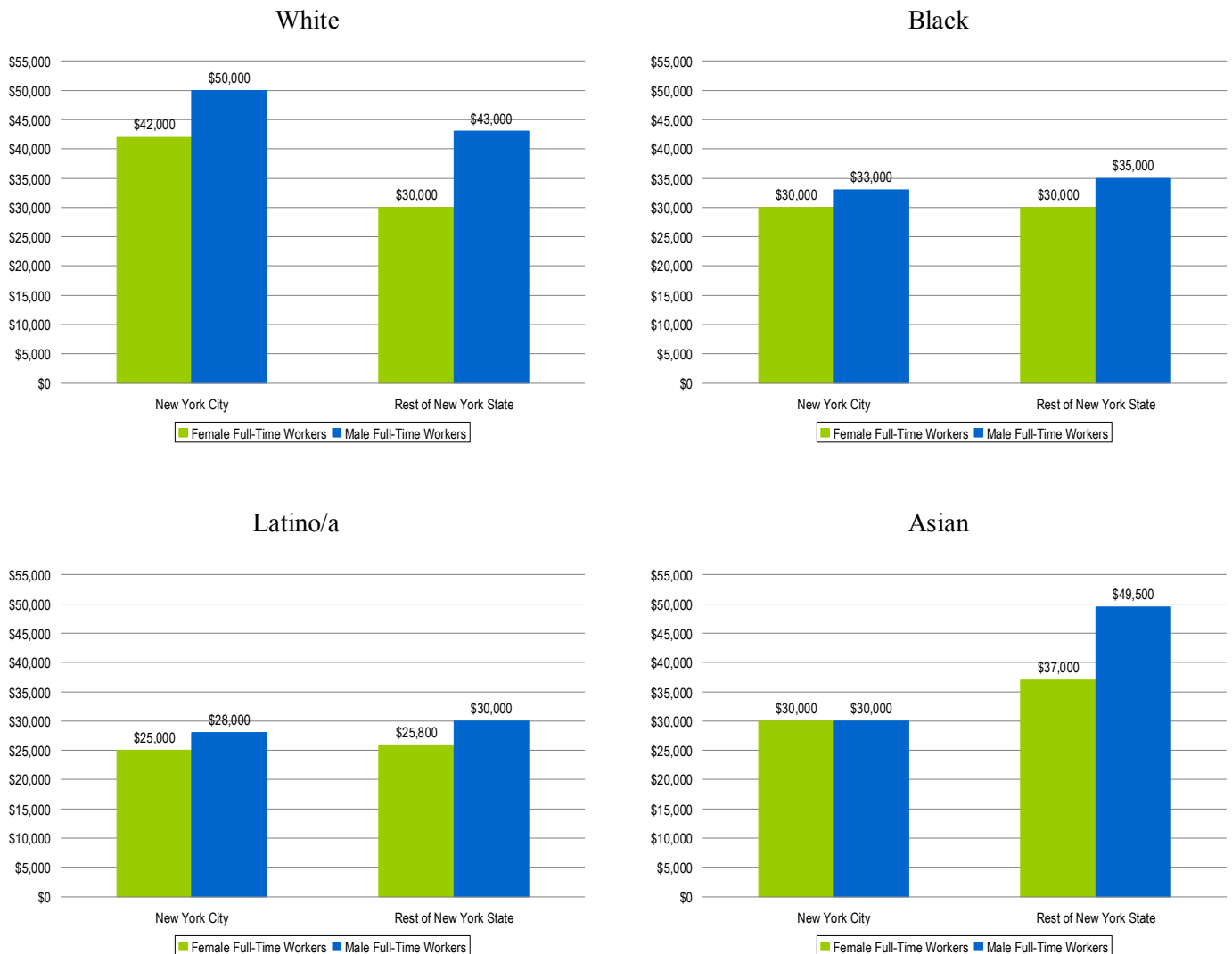


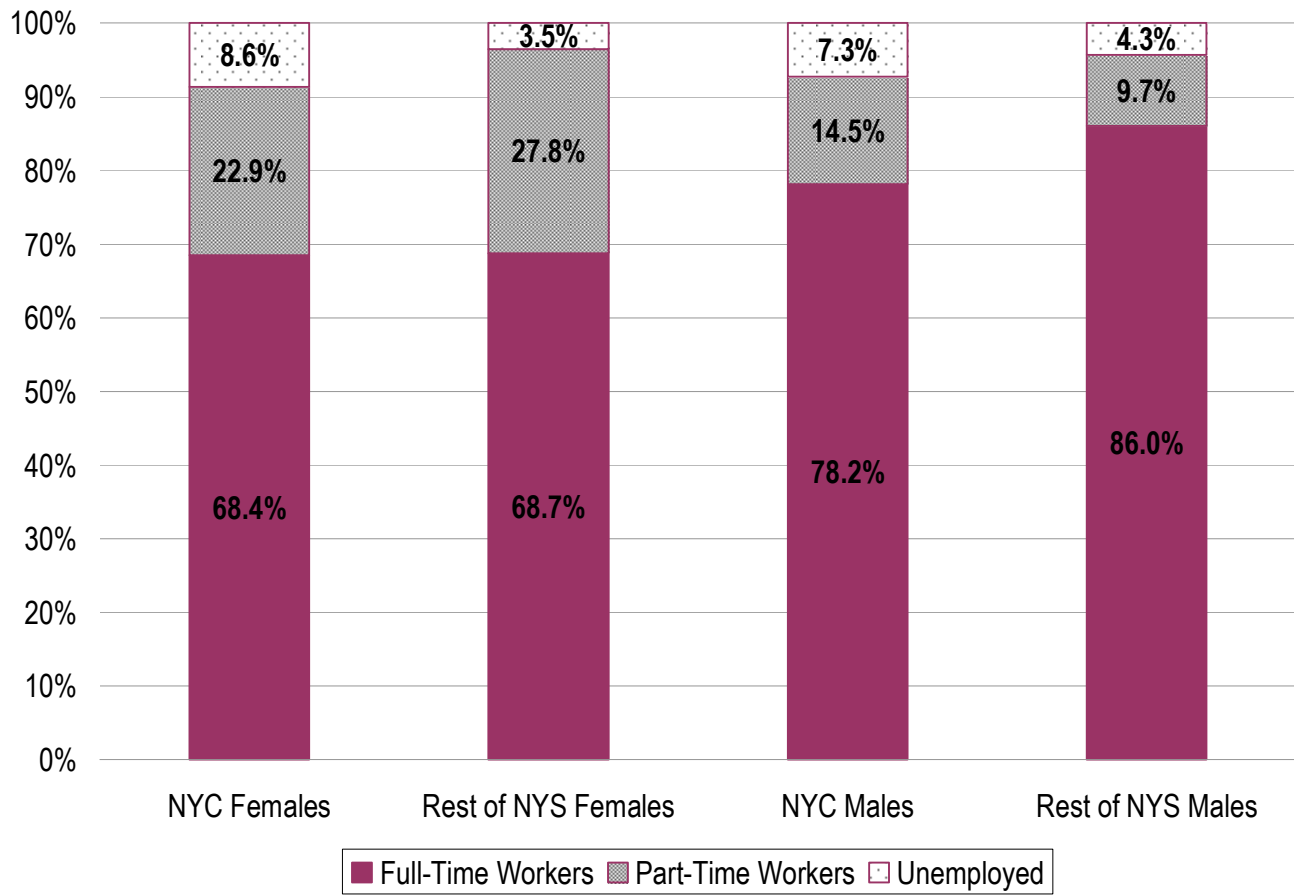
Figure 18: Women’s and Men’s Full-Time Median Annual Earnings, New York City vs. Rest of New York State — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



In the aggregate, the ratio of women’s median annual earnings to men’s is 90% in New York City and 71% in the rest of New York. Although the earnings ratio is considerably higher in New York City than the rest of the state, New York City women’s earnings are only slightly higher than that of women in the rest of the state. Much of this can be attributed to men’s lower earnings in New York City skewing the earnings ratio. In the aggregate, while it appears that residents in New York City have greater gender earnings parity than their counterparts in the rest of the state, it is not until we analyze earnings by race/ethnicity that we see the range of disparity in gender earnings ratios.

Minorities form a greater share of workers living in New York City than the rest of the state. Among women, only White women’s earnings are higher in New York City than the rest of the state (see Figure 18, Women’s and Men’s Median Annual Earnings New York City vs. Rest of New York State – Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity). White women have the highest median earnings (\$42K) in New York City and Latinas have the lowest (\$25K). Black women’s median earnings are the same in New York City and the rest of the state. The median earnings of Asian women are moderately higher in the rest of the state.

Figure 19: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status, New York City vs. Rest of New York State



When comparing the median earnings of women with men in the same racial categories in New York City and the rest of the state, White women in the rest of the state have the greatest earnings disparity; their median earnings (\$30K) is 70% of white men’s (\$43K). In New York City White women’s median earnings (\$42K) are 84% of White men’s earnings. Black women’s median earnings (\$30K) are slightly less than Black men’s median earnings; they have an earnings ratio of 91%. Asian women’s median earnings (\$30K) equal Asian men’s earnings. Latina women’s median earnings (\$25K) is 89% of Latino men’s earnings.

Yet, when minority women’s earnings are compared with White men’s earnings in New York City, the disparity is much greater. Latina women’s median earnings are only 50% of White men’s median earnings; for Black and Asian women it is 60%.

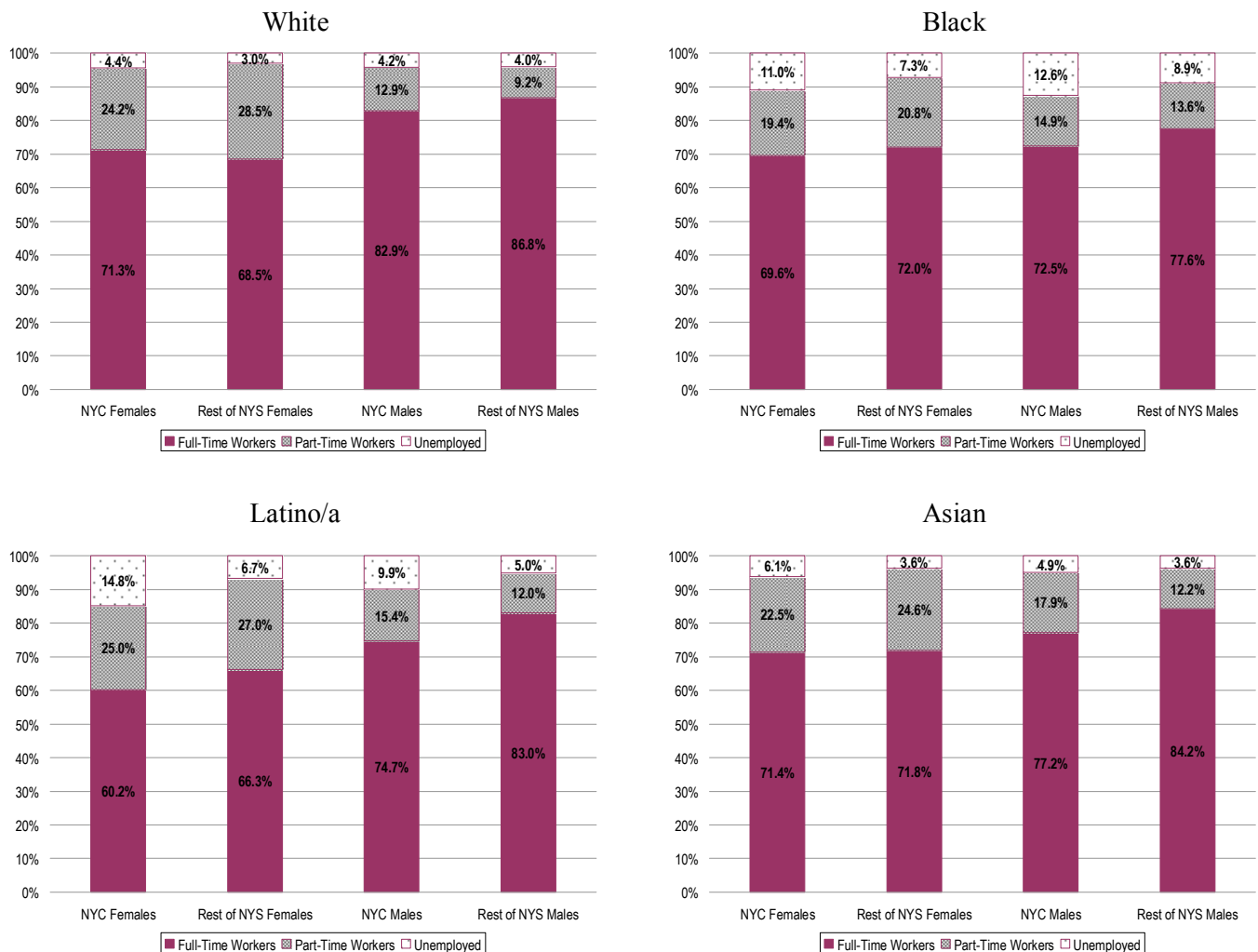
Comparing the employment status of women and men across the state we find that the full-time employment rate for women is comparable in New York City and the rest of the state. (Figure 19, Women’s and Men’s Employment Status in New York City vs. Rest of New York State). However in New York City women’s part-time employment rate is lower and the unemployment rate is considerably higher compared to the rest of the state. Within the state men work more full-time and less part-time than women. This is possibly explained by the fact New York City has a large population of Black and Latina women, who have a high unemployment rate.

Comparing the employment status of women across racial/ethnic lines, their full-time employment ranges from a low of 60.2% for Latinas in New York City to a high of 71.3% for White women also in New York City (Figure 20, Women’s and Men’s Employment Status in New York City vs. Rest of New York State – Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity). For White women only there is slightly more full-time employment in New York City than the rest of the state.

Men’s full-time employment rate is higher than women’s within the state. Women work more part-time employment than men. Women’s part-time employment ranges from a low of 19.4 for Black women in New York City to a high of 24.2% for White women outside New York City. Men’s part-time employment ranges from a low of 9.2% for White men in the rest of the state to a high of 17.9 for Asian men in the rest of the state.

Among women within the state unemployment rates range from a low of 3% for White women outside New York City to a high of 14.8% for Latinas in New York City. Men’s unemployment ranges from a low of 3.6% for Asian men in the rest of the state to a high of 12.6% for Black men in the rest of the state.

Figure 20: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status, New York City vs. Rest of New York State — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



In summary, women have greater earnings parity with men in the metropolitan area compared to the mixed and non-metropolitan areas. Within the thirteen New York State metropolitan areas, the highest gender earnings ratio is reported in the New York City metro area, driven by the increased earnings of White women in New York City. And, women have greater earnings parity in New York City than in the rest of the state. However, minority women's earnings vary only a little between different geographical areas.

A greater number of minorities live in New York City than the rest of the state sample. When comparing the median annual full-time earnings of women with men in the same racial categories in New York City and the rest of the state, White women in the rest of the state have the greatest earnings disparity. In New York City, Asian women's median earnings are equal to men's. Interestingly Asian men residing in the rest of the state earn more than White men residing in the rest of the state which complicates the comparison of women's earnings to White men's in this case. However, among residents of New York City, when minority women's earnings are compared with White men's earnings, the disparity is far greater than it is when their earnings are compared to their racial/ethnic counterparts.

When looking at the employment status of women and men across racial/ethnic lines, men's rate of full-time employment is generally higher than women's. Women engage in more part-time employment than men. White women and men have the lowest unemployment rates.

IV. Education and Labor Market Segregation

Education is essential for enabling women to qualify for more challenging and more highly compensated jobs. According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) figures for 1999, the earnings of women with college degrees increased 30.5% since 1979. Women's representation in jobs associated with higher levels of education and earnings, such as executive, administrative and managerial occupations, grew to 46.7% of all full-time workers in 1999 from 34.2% in 1983. Despite the increased presence of women in managerial and professional occupations, men were still more likely to be employed in some higher paid occupations and women to work in support capacities. The BLS also found that women and men were liable to be concentrated in different occupations, with more women working in professions with lower earnings such as teacher and registered nurse as opposed to men who were more likely than women to be employed as engineers or computer scientists (BLS 2000). The HSC analysis explored the intersection of education and labor market segregation in New York State.

The major findings in this section are:

- In general, men earn more than women, and White men earn more than all women and men of other racial/ethnic categories at all educational levels. The disparity in the gender earnings ratio in the aggregate can largely attributed to the higher earnings of White men because the earnings disparity between Black, Latina and Asian women and men is not as wide, and in several cases White women do not have higher earnings than minority women.
- The median annual earnings for both women and men full-time workers increases with higher levels of educational attainment. However, within each educational category, women earn less than men. The proportion of women's median annual earnings to that of men across educational categories ranges from 67% to 78%.
- The median earnings of workers vary considerably among women and men in the public and private sectors. The greatest earnings disparity is found between self-employed men and women. The greatest gender earnings parity is found in federal government employment.
 - In the *private sector*, the widest gender earnings gap is found among the self-employed.
 - In the *public sector*, the widest gender earning gap is found in local government employment.
- Similar to the aggregate data, self-employed women of all races/ethnicities have the lowest median earnings. Women's highest median earnings figures are found in the public sector; White women's highest earnings are found in local and federal government, Black and Latina women earn the most in the federal government, while Asian women earn more in local and state government than in federal government employment.
- In both the private and public sectors women of all races/ethnicities engage in more part-time employment than men.
- When comparing women's and men's representation in the five industries and occupations in which each gender predominates, women are more concentrated in female-dominated industries and occupations than men are in male-dominated industries and occupations, and in general male-dominated

industries and occupations have higher earnings.

A. Education

The HSC analysis supports other research findings indicating that there is a relationship between the attainment of education and higher wages (see Martinson and Strawn 2002). In the past decades, the rise in women's educational attainment has contributed to narrowing the wage gap (Blau 1998; Waldfogel 1998). However the acquisition of education as a sole independent variable does not create gender wage equity. These findings are aptly illustrated in HCS analysis of the New York PUMS data.

In this subsection we compare the median annual wage/salary as well as the gender ratio for full-time workers by educational attainment first in the aggregate followed by an analysis based on race/ethnicity. The findings demonstrate that although annual earnings for full-time workers rise in New York State with the acquisition of education, education alone does not create gender wage parity.

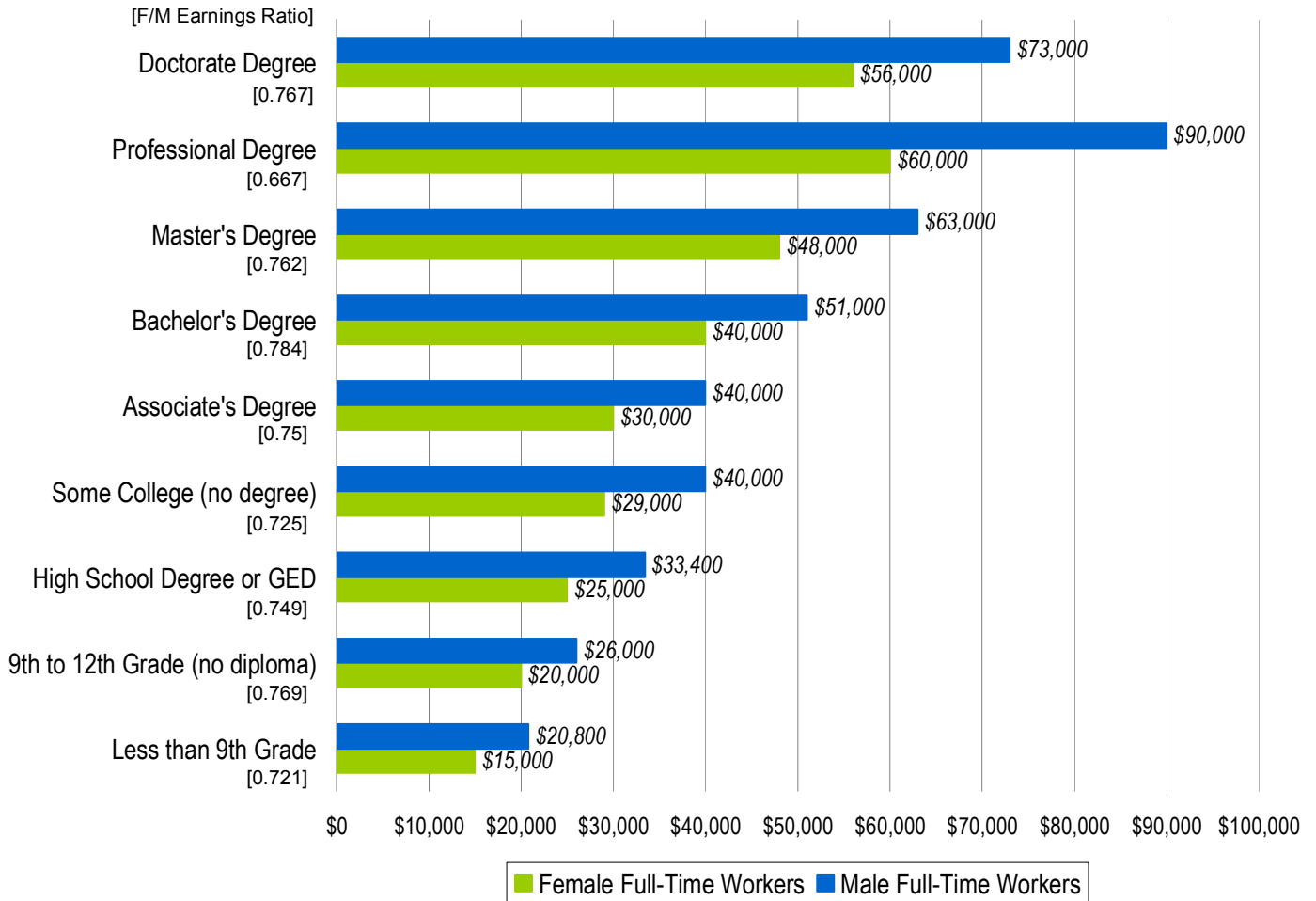
Figure 21 (Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time Workers by Educational Attainment) presents a comparison of median annual earnings of full-time workers according to their educational attainment. In New York State annual earnings steadily increase in relation to the acquisition of education for both women and men. Yet, the ratio of women's earnings to those of men across educational categories ranges from 67% to 78%. Women with less than a ninth grade education earn 72% of men with comparable education. One group of women, women with professional degrees (e.g., MD, DVM, LLB, JD, DDS) is among those earning the highest salaries, however, they earn only 67% of their male counterparts.

An examination of women and men's median earnings disaggregated by race/ethnicity (Figure 22 Women's and Men's Median Earnings by Education Category, NYS – Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity) reveals the nuances among women and men in the four racial ethnic groups. In general, men earn more than women, and White men earn more than all women and men of other racial/ethnic categories at all educational levels.

When looking at the female to male earning ratios within the racial/ethnic categories, the earnings disparity between White women and men is much greater than in any of the other racial/ethnic groups. However, Black women with professional degrees and Asian women with a high school degree or GED earn the same as their racial/ethnic male counterparts and Asian women with Associates degrees earn more than their male counterparts.

The wide earnings disparity between White women and men can largely be accounted for by the much higher earnings of White men; this becomes evident when looking at the differences in women's median annual earnings in each educational category across the racial/ethnic groups. White women consistently earn more than Latinas in all educational categories, however, Black women who hold a Master's degree or lower earn equal to or more than White women in the corresponding educational categories, and Asian women with some college, an Associate's degree, or Bachelor's degree earn more than White women in these same educational categories. Asian women with Master's degrees earn the same median annual earnings as White women with Master's degrees. In addition, in general, the earnings disparity between Black, Latino and Asian women and men is not as wide as that between Whites.

Figure 21: Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time Workers by Educational Attainment

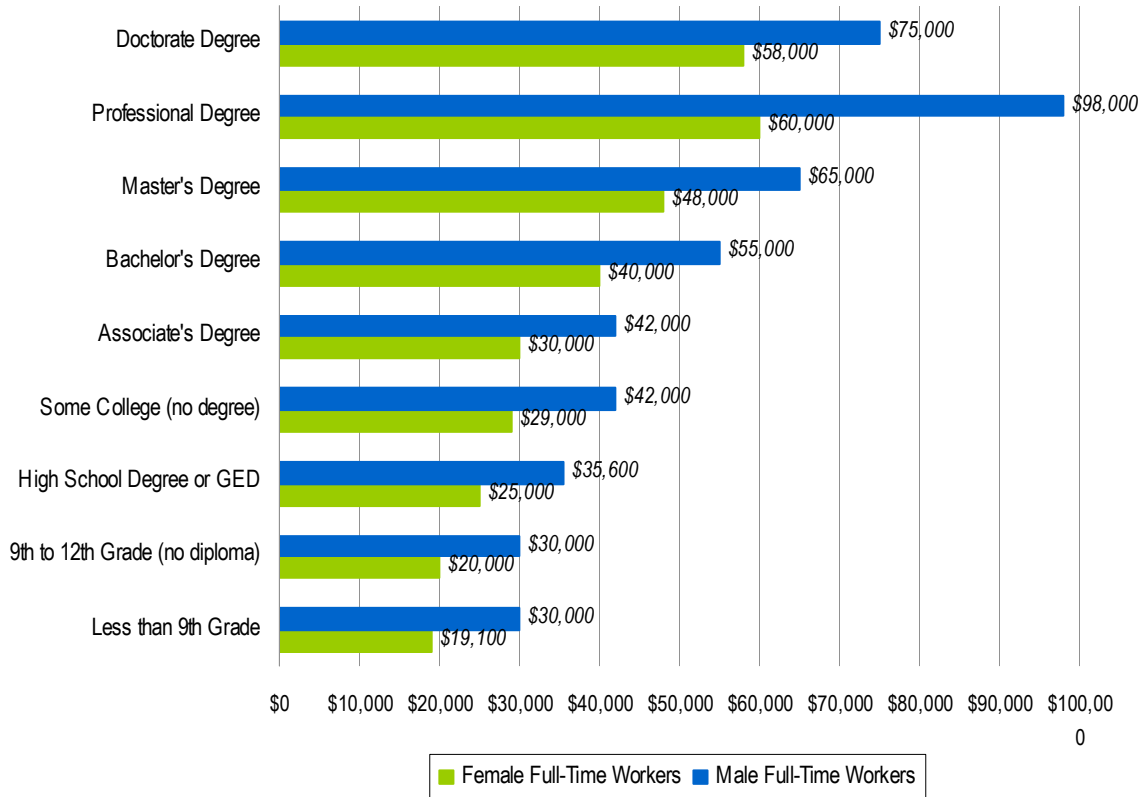


B. Labor Market Segregation – Public, Private, and Self-Employed Sectors

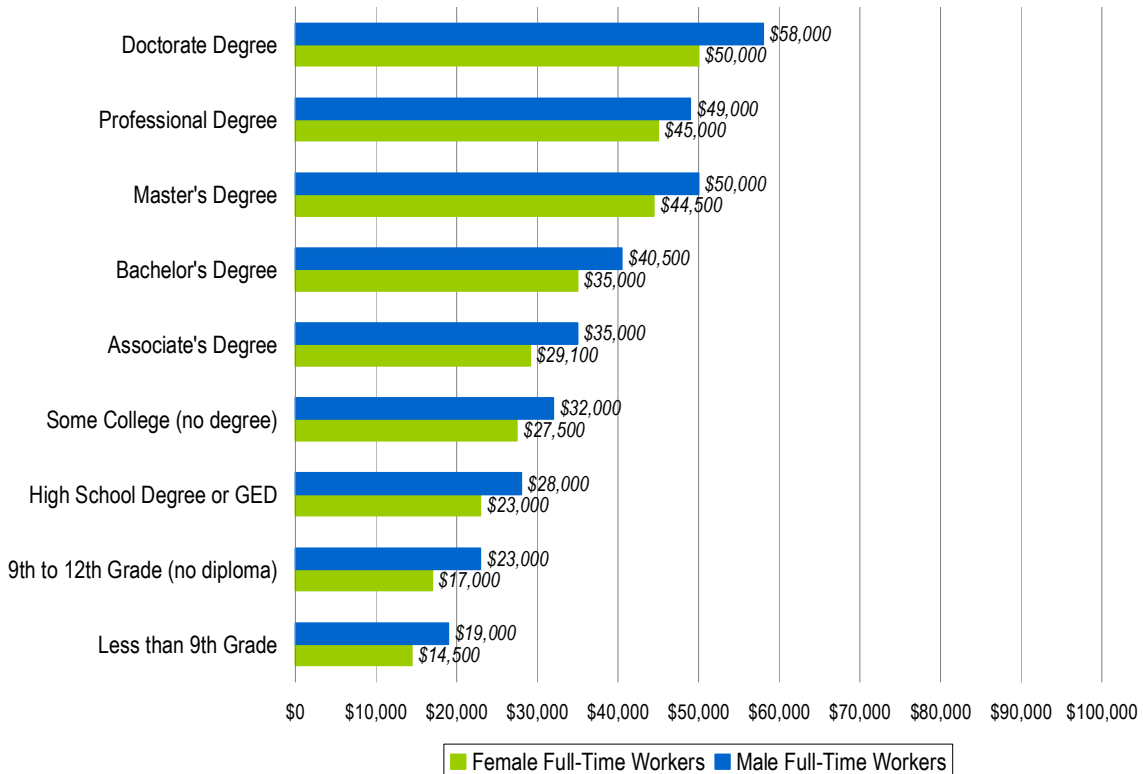
The division of labor by gender has long been the focus of research by social scientists and demographers (See Hartmann 1976). This subsection compares women and men’s earnings and their employment distribution within the public, private, and self-employed sectors at both the aggregate and racially disaggregated levels. At the aggregate level it also examines industrial and occupational labor market segregation by gender illustrating the some economic disparities in the New York labor market.

Figure 22: Women’s and Men’s Median Earnings by Education Category — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity

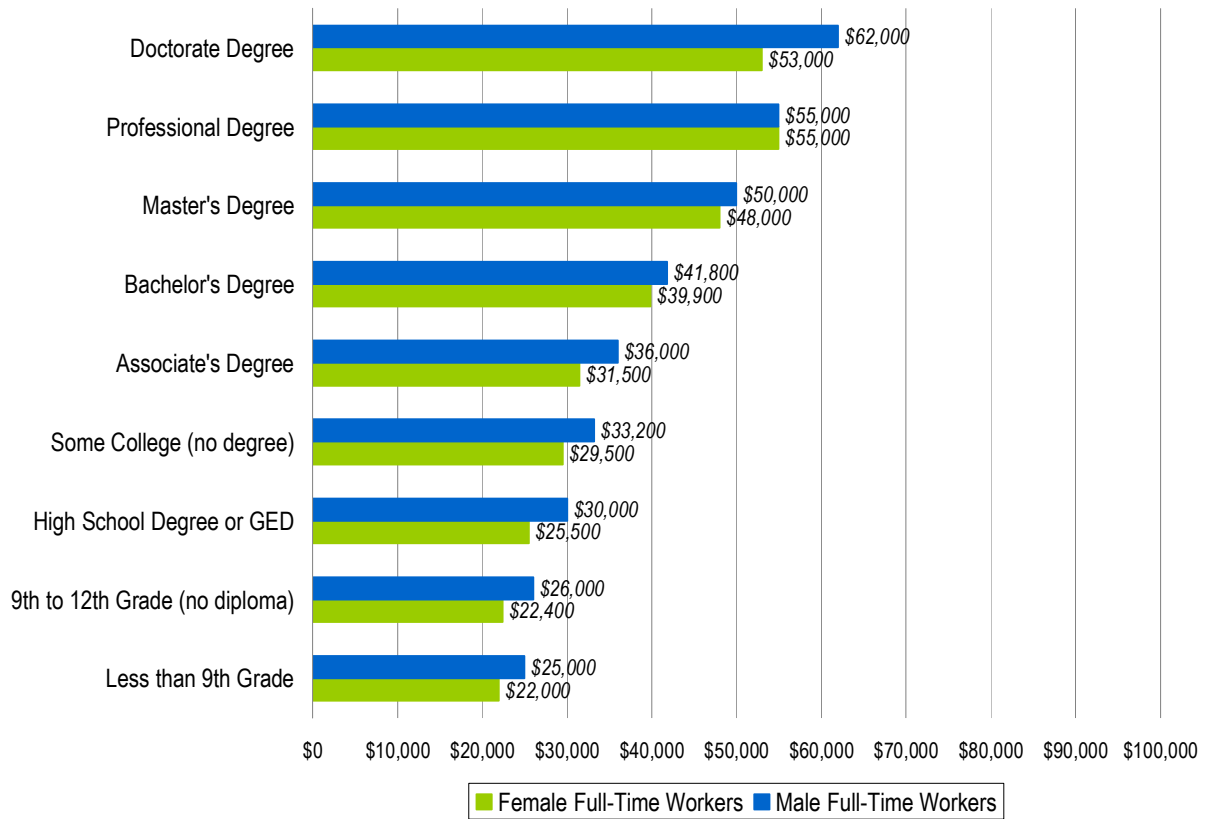
White



Latino/a



**Figure 22: Women’s and Men’s Median Earnings by Education Category —
Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity**
Black



Asian

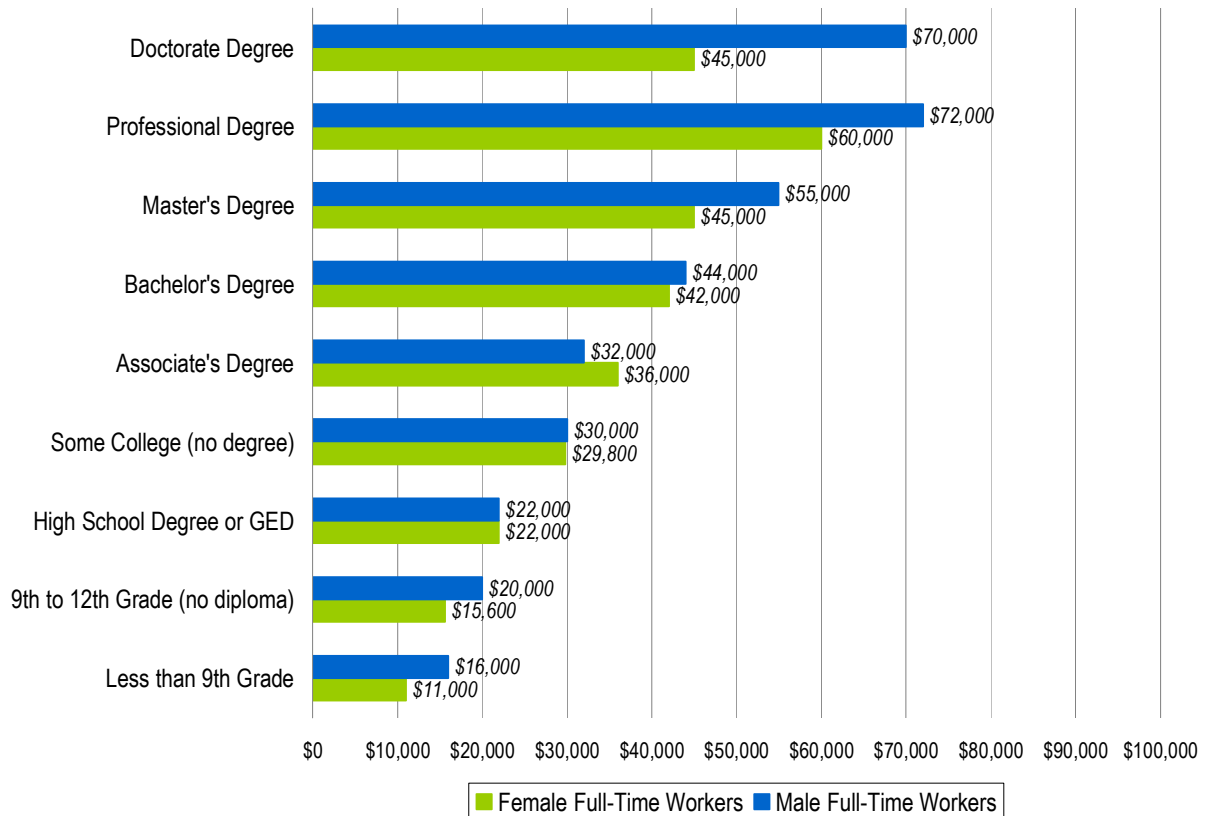
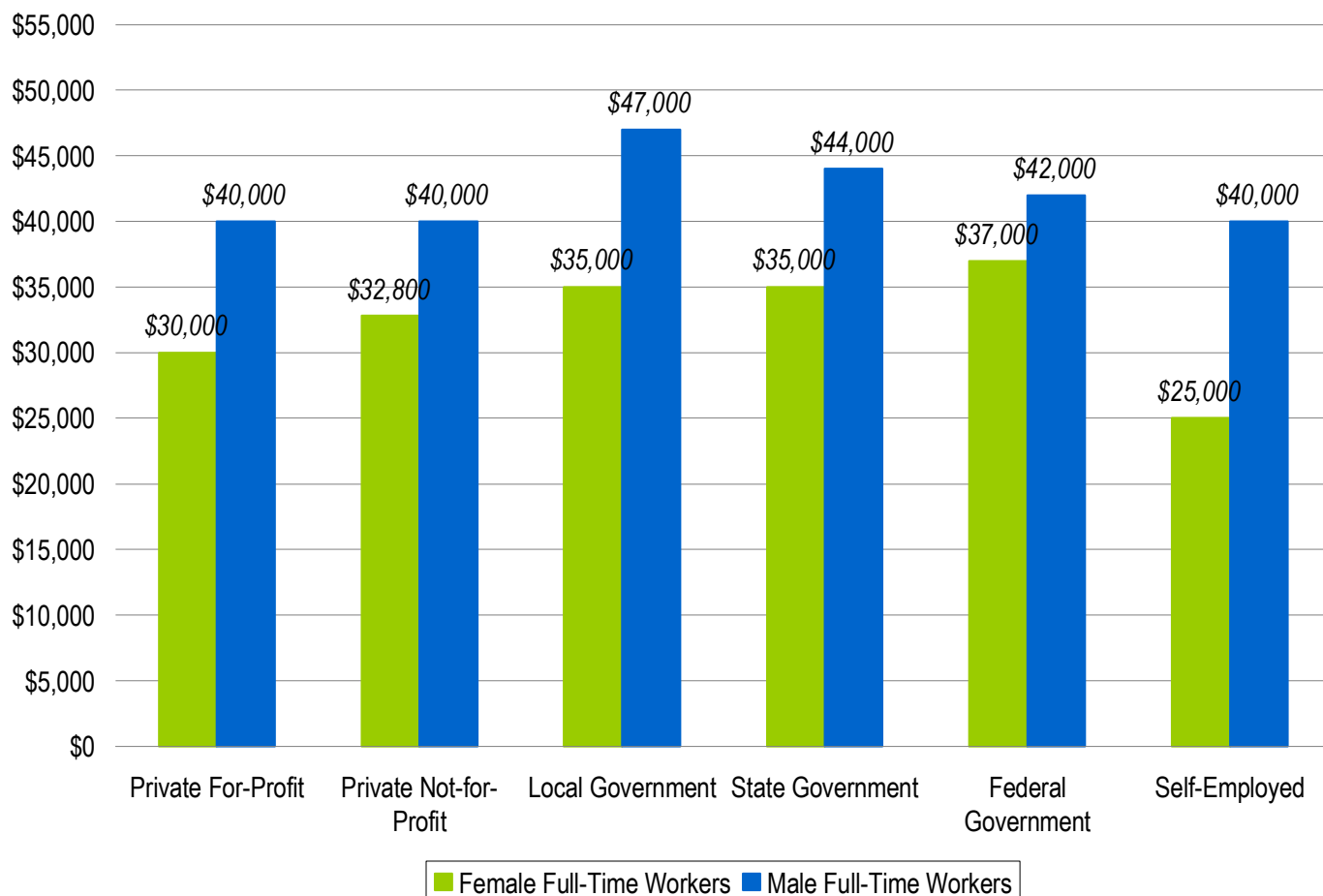


Figure 23: Women’s and Men’s Median Earnings by Employer Type



Our analysis of the New York State PUMS data shows that the median earnings of workers vary considerably among and between women and men in the public and private sectors (Figure 23, Women’s and Men’s Median Earnings by Employer Type). The greatest earnings disparity is found between self-employed men and women; the female-to-male earnings ratio in this category is only 62.5%. The greatest gender earnings parity is found in federal government employment, 88%.

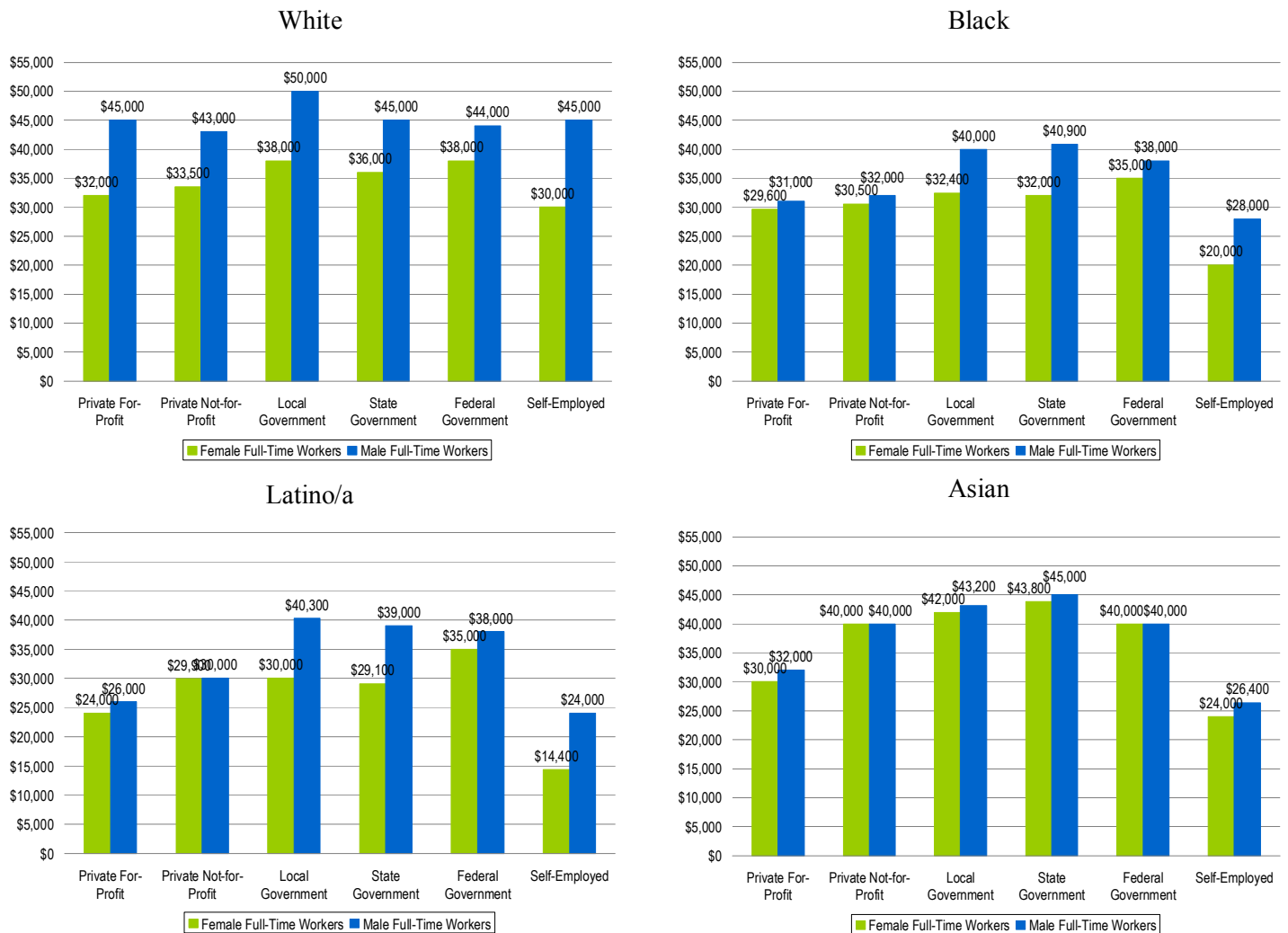
In the *private sector*, the widest gender earnings gap is found in private for-profit companies (75%), which employ by far the largest percentages of women and men across all categories. In the *public sector*, the widest gender earning gap is found in local government employment (74%), which employs the highest numbers of women in the public sector.

Similar to the aggregate data, self-employed women of all races/ethnicities have the lowest median earnings (Figure 24, Women’s and Men’s Median Earnings by Employer Type - Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity). Women’s highest median earnings figures are found in the public sector; White women’s highest earnings are found in local and federal government, Black and Latina women earn the most in the federal government, while Asian women earn more in local and state government than in federal

government employment. Of note is that the highest overall median earnings among women and men across races/ethnicities is found in local government; White men employed in local government earn \$50,000, which is considerably higher than the next highest earnings figures for all women and men of all races/ethnicities.

Also corresponding to the aggregate data, in the private sector, when comparing the earnings ratio between women and men within the same racial/ethnic categories, there is a greater earnings disparity among White, Latino, and Asian employees of for-profit companies than among employees of non-profits (the gender earnings disparity among Blacks in both for-profit and non-profit companies is roughly the same— 95%). Interestingly, the findings for White women account in large part for the wide gender earnings disparity in for-profit employment: White women’s median earnings are 71% of White men’s, whereas Black women earn 96%, Latinas earn 92%, and Asians earn 94% of their respective male counterparts. However, when the median earnings of all women employed in for-profit companies are compared to that of White men’s earnings, Latinas experience the greatest disparity; their median earnings are 53% of White men’s.

Figure 24: Women’s and Men’s Median Earnings by Employer Type — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



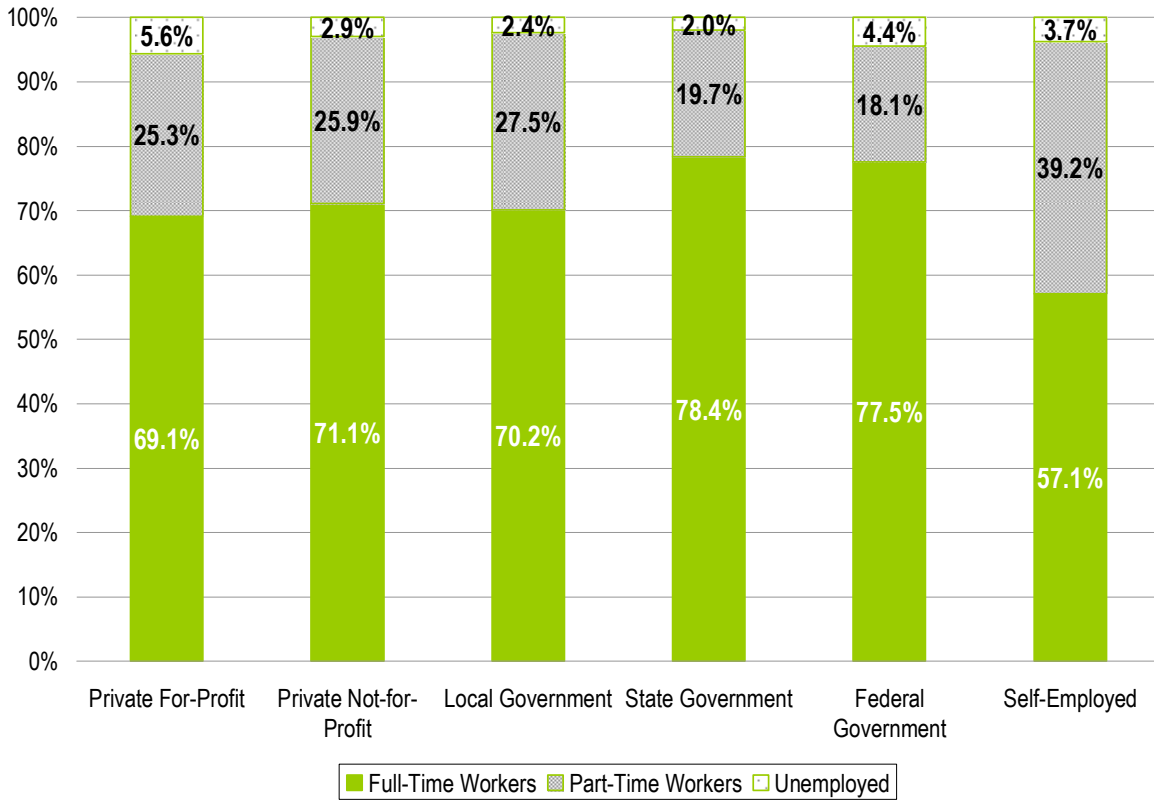
One factor that may contribute to women's lower earnings is their higher employment distribution in part-time work. Figure 25 (Women's and Men's Employment Status by Employer Type) shows that women's participation in part-time employment in all of the employment categories is roughly two times higher than men's.

In keeping with the aggregate data, across race/ethnicities, the lowest rates of full-time employment and the highest rates of part-time employment for women are found in the self-employed sector (see Figure 26, Women's and Men's Employment Status by Employer Type — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity). In general, Black women have the lowest rates of part-time employment.

In the public sector the highest rates of part-time employment for women are found in local government (except for Asian women who have a higher rate of part-time employment in state government).

Figure 25: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status by Employer Type

Women



Men

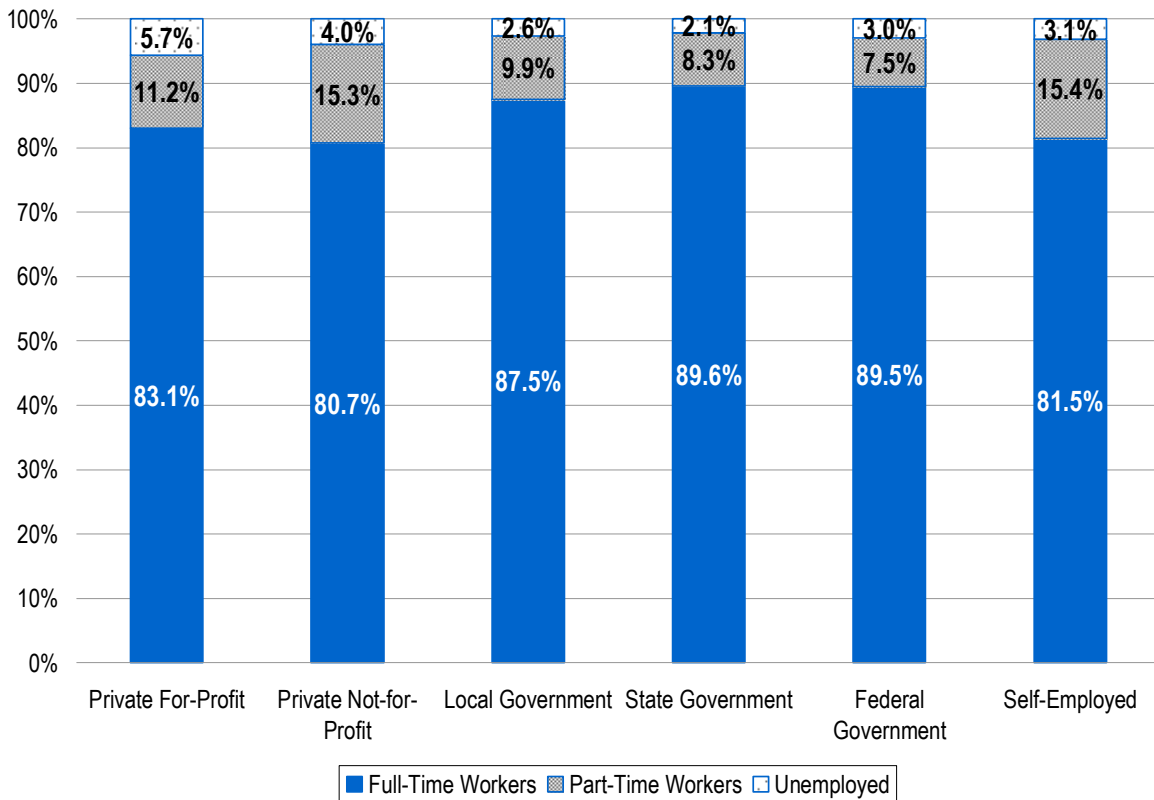


Figure 26: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status by Employer Type — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity

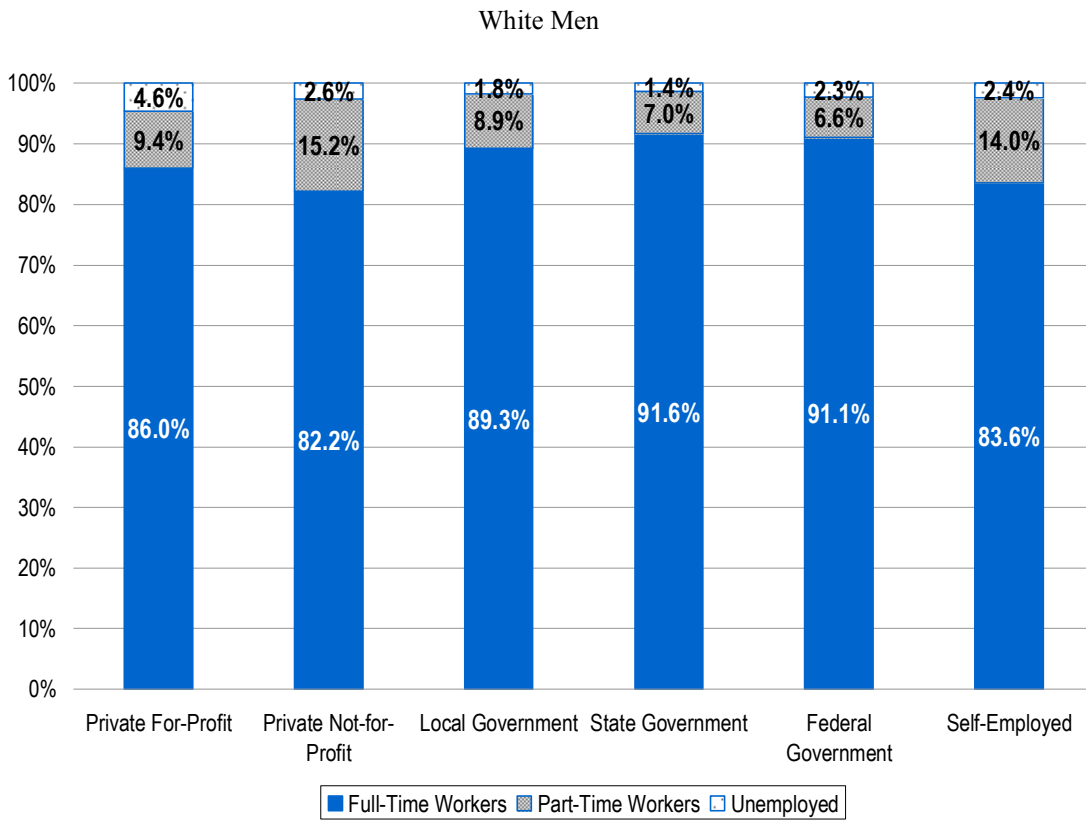
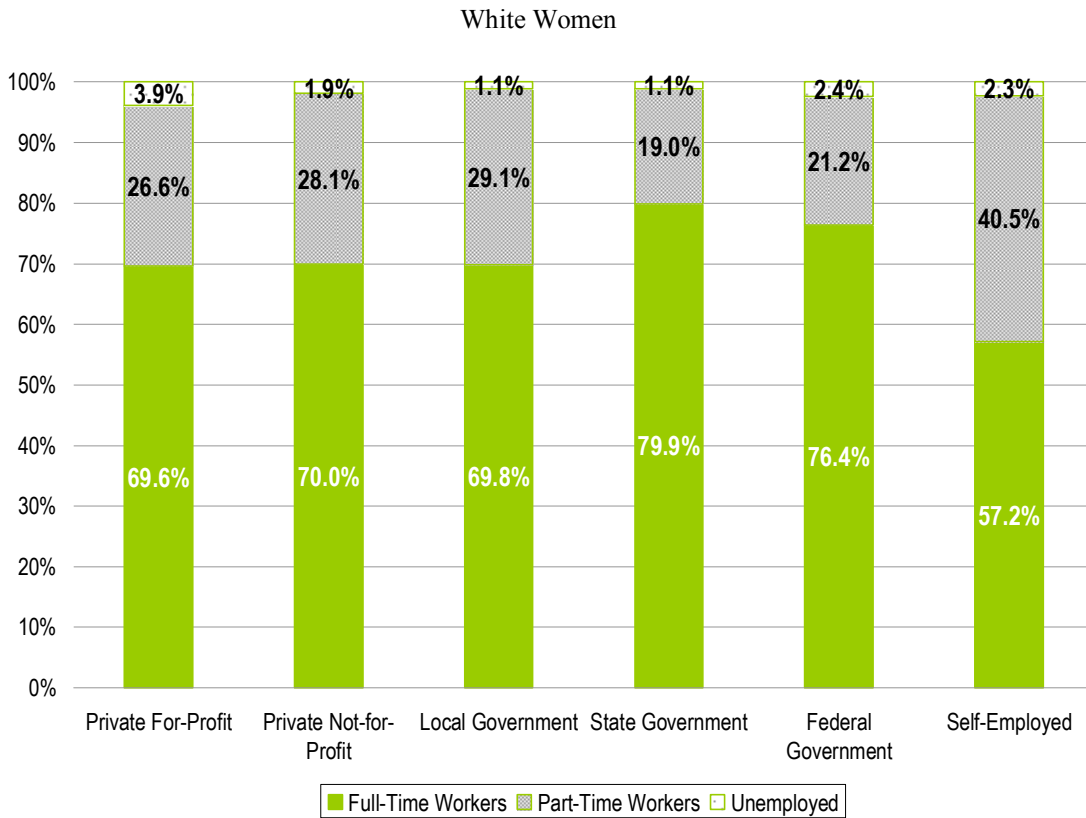
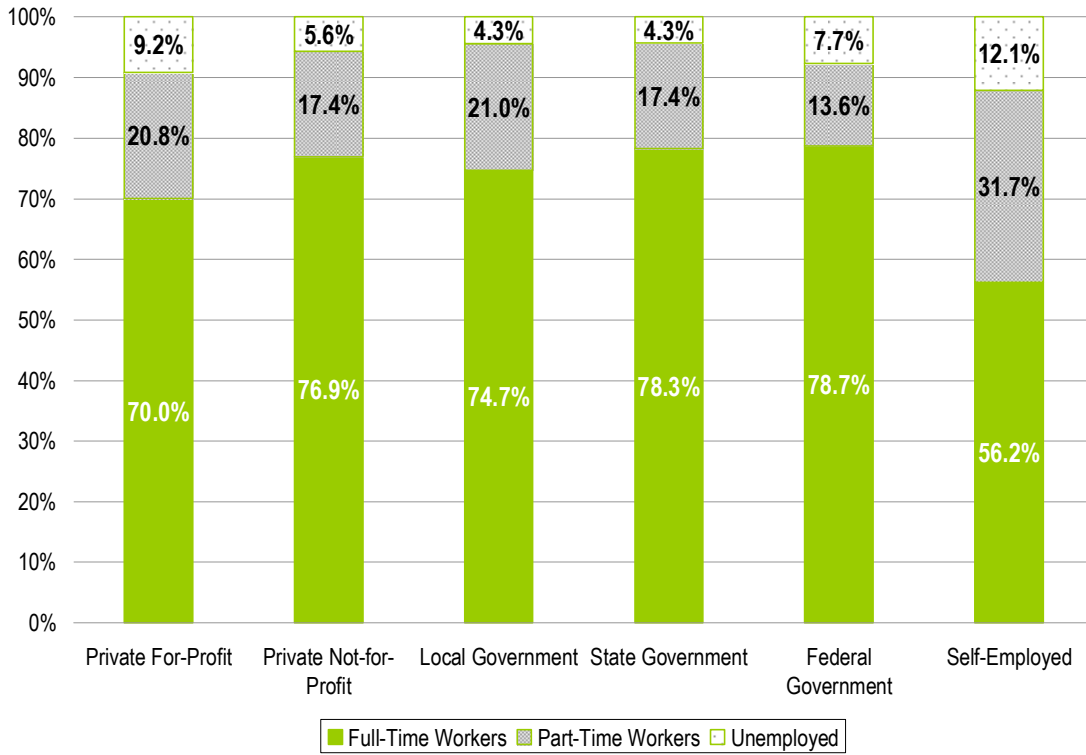


Figure 26: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status by Employer Type — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity

Black Women



Black Men

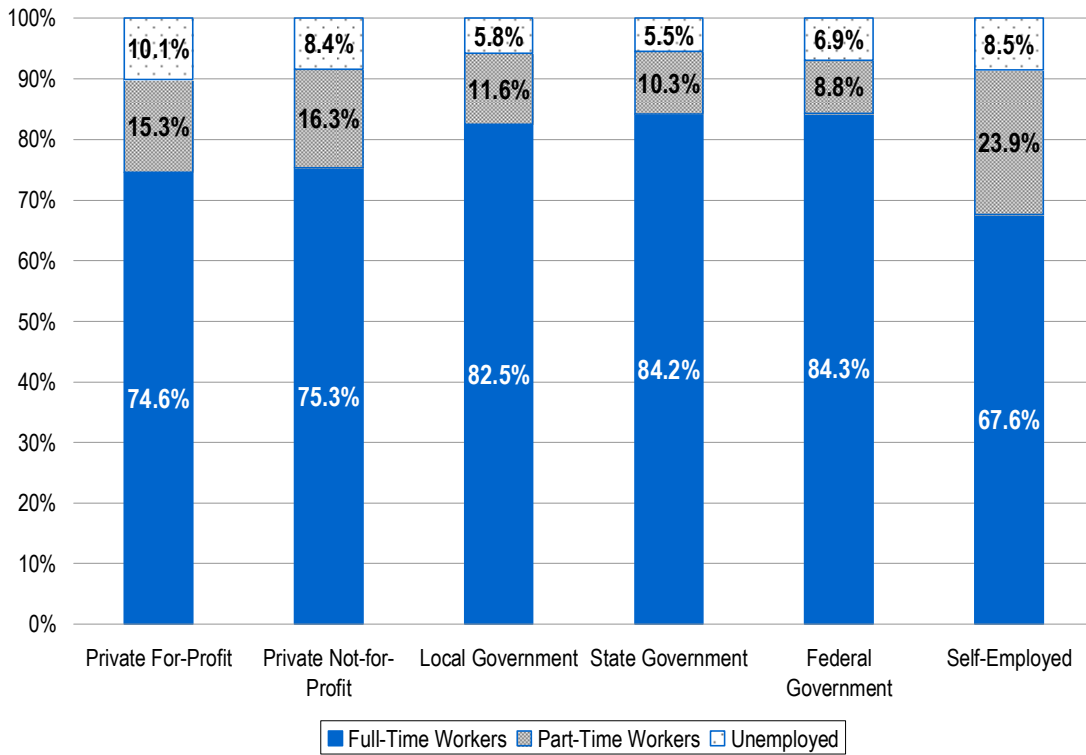
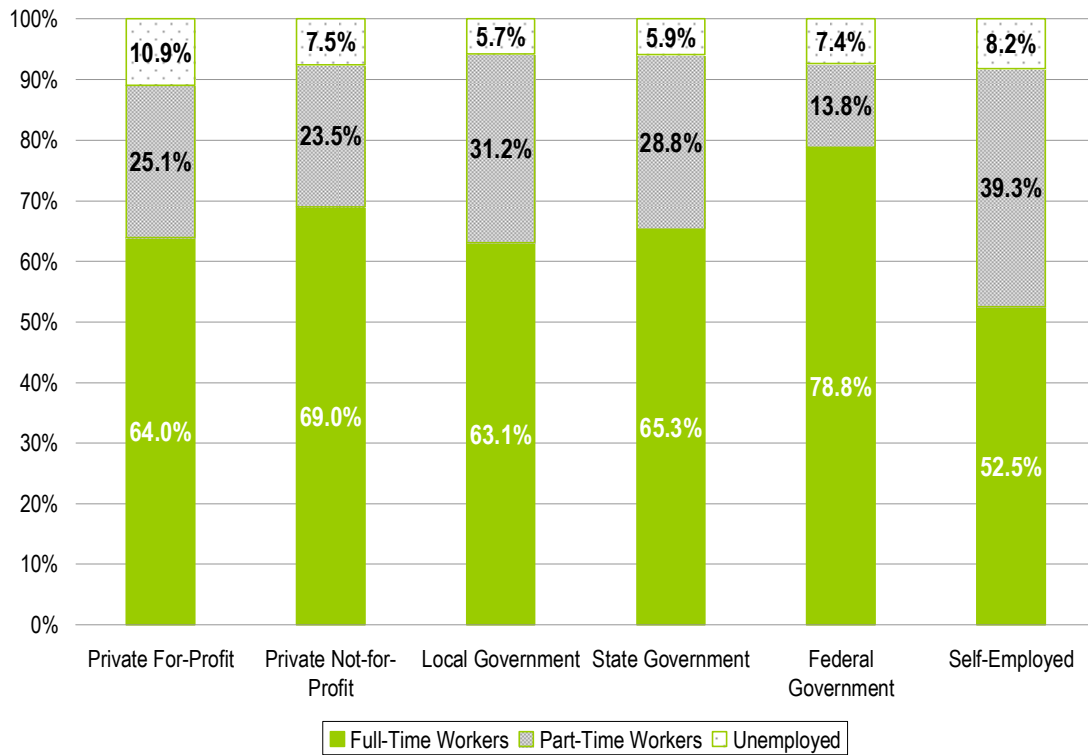


Figure 26: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status by Employer Type — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity

Latina Women



Latino Men

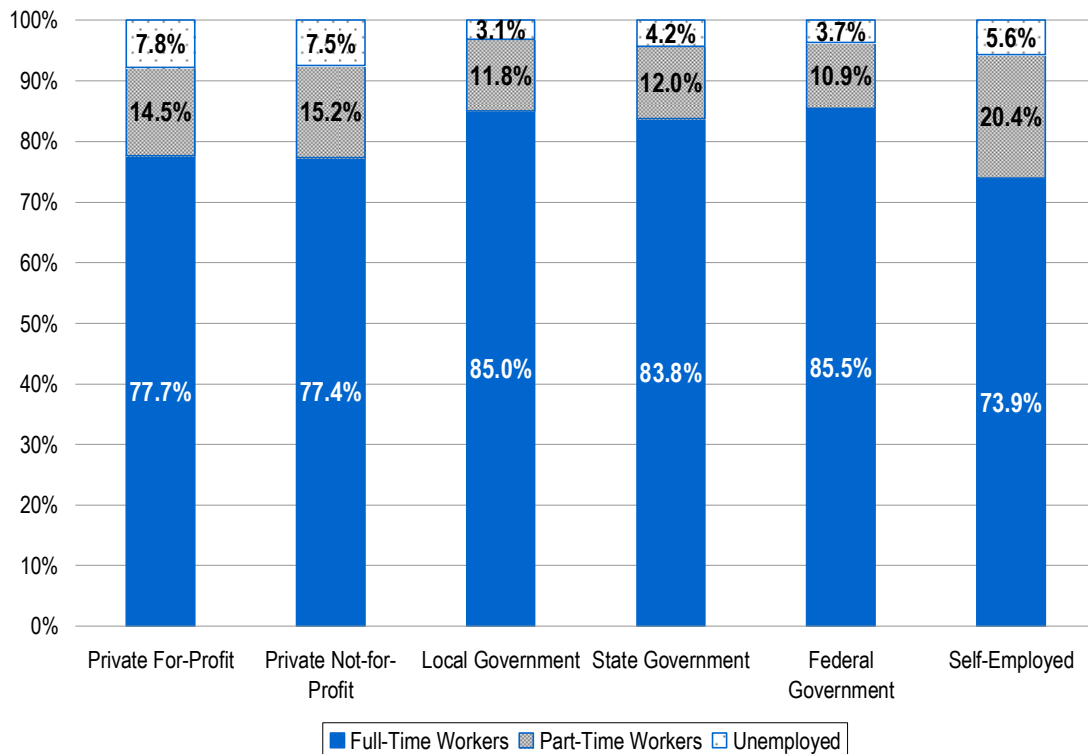
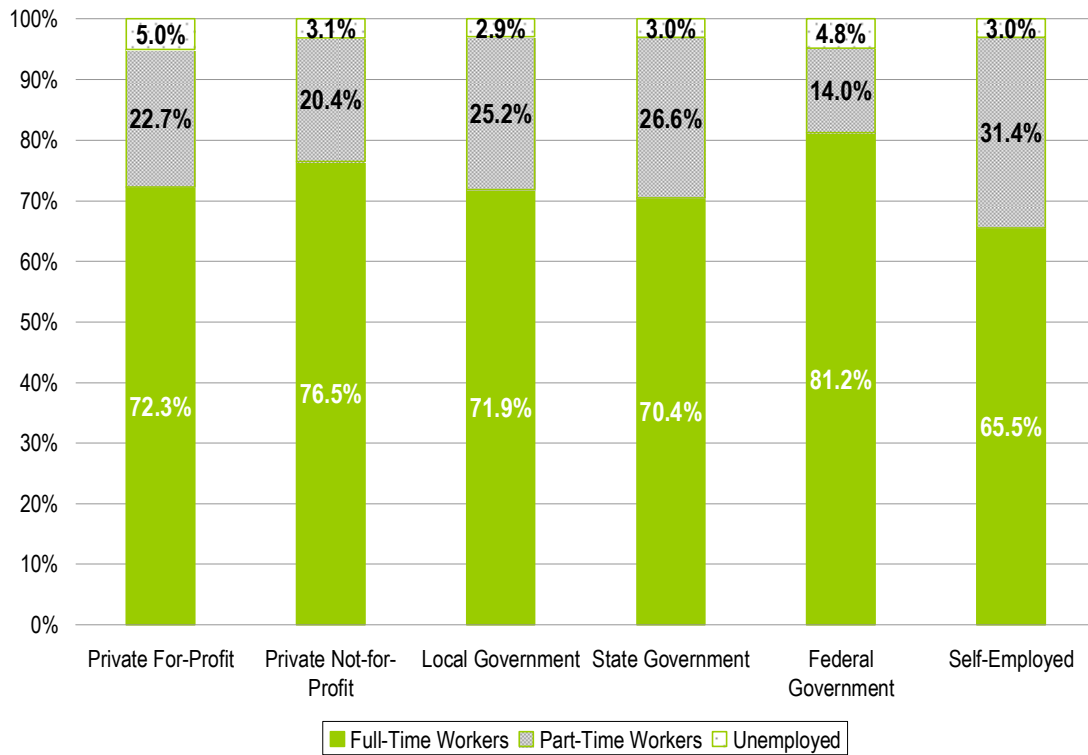
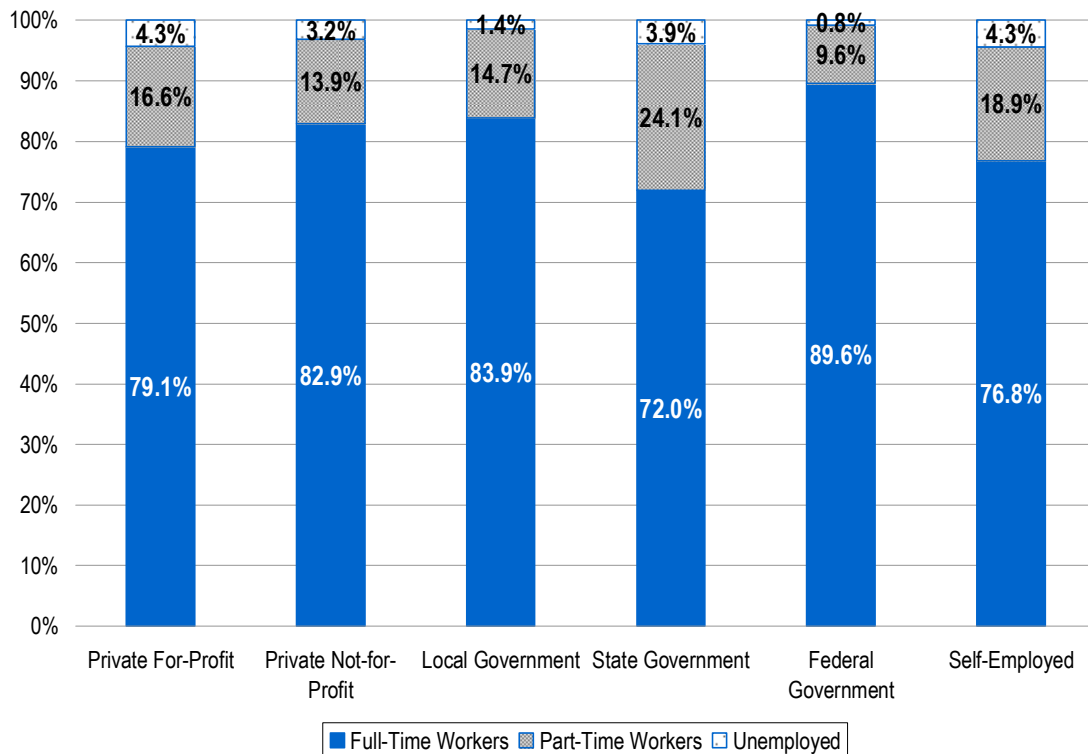


Figure 26: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status by Employer Type — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity

Asian Women



Asian Men



C. Labor Market Segregation – Industries and Occupations

Industries describe the type of work conducted by an employer and occupations describe the specific duties of workers. As an example, hospitals are an industry, whereas registered nurses and physicians/surgeons are occupations. The HSC examined the distribution of women’s and men’s labor within these classifications to illustrate labor market segregation and earnings disparity. We analyzed the distribution of women and men’s labor based on their marital status and education levels in the occupations in which most full-time workers are concentrated by gender.

Industries and occupations are included in analyses if at least one percent of full-time workers in the state were employed in the industry or occupation. Figures 27 (Median Annual Earnings in Industries Disproportionately Composed of Female and Male Full-Time Workers) and 28 (Median Annual Earnings in Occupations Disproportionately Composed of Female and Male Full-Time Workers) outline the industries and occupations employing at least one percent of full-time workers and in which a large share of the industry or occupation is composed of one sex. These are industries and occupations that are heavily dominated by one sex and, by this measure, are highly segregated by sex.

Figure 27: Median Annual Earnings in Female- and Male-Dominated Industries

Five Industries in which Female Full-Time Workers are Most Concentrated

Industry	Percent of Industry that is Female	Percent of Full-Time Females Employed in Industry	Full-Time Females’ Median Annual Earnings
Nursing Care Facilities	81%	3%	\$26,800
Elementary and Secondary Schools	69%	11%	\$38,000
Hospitals	69%	9%	\$36,700
Offices of Physicians	67%	2%	\$30,000
Insurance Carriers and Related Activities	59%	3%	\$34,000

Five Industries in which Male Full-Time Workers are Most Concentrated

Industry	Percent of Industry that is Male	Percent of Full-Time Males Employed in Industry	Full-Time Males’ Median Annual Earnings
Construction	92%	9%	\$36,000
Bus Service and Urban Transit	77%	2%	\$45,000
Computer Systems Design and Related Services	73%	1%	\$60,000
Justice, Public Order, and Safety Activities	72%	4%	\$51,000
Restaurants and Other Food Services	69%	3%	\$21,800

In Figure 27, when comparing women’s and men’s representation in the five industries in which each gender predominates, more than a quarter (28%) of the total female full-time work force is clustered in the five industries that are disproportionately female, whereas 19% of the male full-time workforce participates in the male dominated industries. When comparing women’s and men’s median annual earnings, men consistently earn more than women by a fairly wide margin—with the exception of men employed in the restaurant and the food services industry which has a substantially lower median earnings figure that any other industry listed pertaining to women or men. In addition, there is greater variation in median earnings in the industries dominated by men (ranging from \$22K to \$60K) than in the industries with a disproportionate number of women (\$27K to \$38K).

When comparing the five female- and male-dominated occupations (Figure 28), 20% of the female workforce is represented in these five predominantly female occupations, whereas 10% of men are employed in the five predominantly male occupations. For women, excluding the outlier occupation of registered nurse (\$48.6K), none of the occupations listed exceed \$30,000 in median annual earnings. Whereas, men’s median annual earnings in the predominantly male occupations, with the exception of

Figure 28: Median Annual Earnings in Female- and Male-Dominated Occupations

Five Occupations in which Female Full-Time Workers are Most Concentrated

Occupation	Percent of Occupation that is Female	Percent of Full-Time Females Employed in Occupation	Full-Time Females’ Median Annual Earnings
Secretaries and Administrative Assistants	96%	8%	\$30,000
Registered Nurses	92%	4%	\$48,600
Nursing, Psychiatric, and Home Health Aides	87%	4%	\$22,000
Bookkeeping, Accounting, and Auditing Clerks	84%	2%	\$28,000
Office Clerks (general)	78%	2%	\$25,700

Five Occupations in which Male Full-Time Workers are Most Concentrated

Occupation	Percent of Occupation that is Male	Percent of Full-Time Males Employed in Occupation	Full-Time Males’ Median Annual Earnings
Driver/Sales Workers and Truck Drivers	97%	3%	\$33,000
Janitors and Building Cleaners	82%	2%	\$28,000
Chief Executives	80%	2%	\$96,000
Managers of Production/Operating Workers	79%	1%	\$42,000
Wholesale and Manufacturing Sales Representatives	74%	2%	\$49,000

Figure 29: Occupations with High Concentrations of Male and Female Full-Time Workers — Disaggregated by Marital Status and Level of Education

Occupations with Highest Concentrations of Female Full-Time Workers

Five Occupations Where *Married* Female Full-Time Workers are Most Concentrated

No Four-Year College Degree	%	Earnings (Med)	With a Four-Year College Degree	%	Earnings (Med)
Secretaries and Administrative Assistants	11%	\$28,600	Elementary and Middle School Teachers	15%	\$45,000
Nursing, Psychiatric, and Home Health Aides	6%	\$22,000	Registered Nurses	7%	\$52,000
Registered Nurses	4%	\$42,000	Accountants and Auditors	4%	\$46,000
Bookkeeping, Accounting, and Auditing Clerks	4%	\$27,300	Secondary School Teachers	3%	\$47,000
Managers of Office and Administrative Support	3%	\$32,000	Social Workers	3%	\$36,500

Five Occupations Where *Unmarried* Female Full-Time Workers are Most Concentrated

No Four-Year College Degree	%	Earnings (Med)	With a Four-Year College Degree	%	Earnings (Med)
Secretaries and Administrative Assistants	10%	\$30,000	Elementary and Middle School Teachers	9%	\$40,000
Nursing, Psychiatric, and Home Health Aides	7%	\$22,000	Registered Nurses	5%	\$53,000
Bookkeeping, Accounting, and Auditing Clerks	3%	\$28,000	Social Workers	4%	\$35,000
Office Clerks (general)	3%	\$25,000	Secretaries and Administrative Assistants	3%	\$34,300
Customer Service Representatives	3%	\$26,000	Accountants and Auditors	3%	\$43,000

Occupations with Highest Concentrations of Male Full-Time Workers

Five Occupations Where *Married* Male Full-Time Workers are Most Concentrated

No Four-Year College Degree	%	Earnings (Med)	With a Four-Year College Degree	%	Earnings (Med)
Driver/Sales Workers and Truck Drivers	5%	\$35,000	Lawyers	5%	\$102,000
Janitors and Building Cleaners	3%	\$29,000	Physicians and Surgeons	4%	\$136,000
Managers of Retail Sales Workers	3%	\$36,000	Accountants and Auditors	4%	\$65,000
Carpenters	2%	\$32,500	Chief Executives	4%	\$110,000
Auto Service Technicians and Mechanics	2%	\$30,000	Managers (general)	3%	\$80,000

Five Occupations Where *Unmarried* Male Full-Time Workers are Most Concentrated

No Four-Year College Degree	%	Earnings (Med)	With a Four-Year College Degree	%	Earnings (Med)
Driver/Sales Workers and Truck Drivers	5%	\$29,000	Accountants and Auditors	5%	\$50,000
Janitors and Building Cleaners	4%	\$25,000	Lawyers	4%	\$75,000
Managers of Retail Sales Workers	3%	\$29,000	Elementary and Middle School Teachers	4%	\$44,000
Carpenters	2%	\$28,000	Financial Service Sales Agents	3%	\$75,000
Laborers, Freight, Stock and Material Movers	2%	\$24,000	Managers (general)	3%	\$60,000

janitors/building cleaners (\$28K), do not fall below \$30,000. And again, men experience a much broader range in earnings (\$28K-\$96K) than women (\$22K to \$48.6K).

We also compared women’s and men’s respective top five full-time occupations by education and marital status (Figure 29, Occupations with High Concentrations of Male and Female Full-Time Workers — Disaggregated by Marital Status and Level of Education). We found that women and men with a four year degree are employed in more remunerative occupations than those who do not have four year degrees. For example, for women, the two job categories with the highest concentration of both married and unmarried women who do not have a four-year college degree are secretary/administrative assistant (21%) and nursing/home health aides (13%). Whereas, for married and unmarried women with a four-year college degree, the top two occupations are elementary/middle school teacher (24%) and registered nurse (12%).

For men, the top two job categories with the highest concentration of married and unmarried men who do

not have a four-year college degree are drivers/sales workers and truck drivers (10%) and janitors/building cleaner (7%). For unmarried men with four-year college degrees, the top two occupations are accountant and auditor (5%) and lawyer (4%); for married men the top two occupations are lawyer (5%) and physician and surgeon (4%).

Some overlap in occupations exists between women and men with four-year college degrees, however there is no overlap in occupations between women and men without four-year college degrees. Among the top occupations for workers with four-year college degrees we found that unmarried women and men both work as accountants/auditors and elementary/middle school teachers. Unmarried and married women (7%) and unmarried and married men (9%) work as accountants and auditors.

The earnings gap between married and unmarried women and men without a four-year college degree is much narrower than that between their counterparts with college degrees. In the occupations in which they are most highly represented, both married and unmarried men with college degrees consistently earn more than women. The gendered earnings disparity is particularly evident when we look at the earnings of married men with college degrees; this finding supports our thesis that a marriage premium exists. Even in occupations (e.g. accountant/ auditors) in which there are high concentrations of both men and women, men's earnings outstrip women's by a fairly wide margin. Among the most commonly held occupations of four-year college educated women, the majority are jobs that have come to be viewed as "caring" occupations (e.g. teachers, nurses, social workers) that have been found to offer low pay relative to educational and skill requirements (England and Folbre 1999). Women are not as highly represented in the arguably more prestigious and more lucrative male-dominated occupations such as lawyers, chief executive, physicians and surgeons, and managers in general.

In summary, when comparing women's and men's representation in the five industries and occupations in which each gender predominates, women are more concentrated in female-dominated industries and occupations than men are in male-dominated industries and occupations. In general, men earn more than women across the industries and occupations examined. An analysis of the occupations with high concentrations of women and men disaggregated by education and marital status found that there is a relationship between education level and occupational segregation. Among full-time occupations which have the highest concentration of women and men in New York, four-year college-educated women, and especially men, are employed in higher status occupations compared to workers without a four year education. Here too we found an overlap in a few occupations shared by women and men. However, women are not as highly represented in the more remunerative occupations such as lawyer, chief executive and physicians/surgeon.

V. Conclusion

This report on the economic status of working women in New York State has set out to illuminate some labor market inequities grounded in the intersection between gender and race/ethnicity. In each of the four key dimensions of family organization, geography, education and labor market segregation, we found important differences in median annual earnings and labor force participation among and between women and men in New York State's four largest racial/ethnic groups—Whites, Blacks, Latinos and Asians.

The HSC research found that White males reap the greatest labor market rewards in the New York economy: they have the highest earnings, the highest rates of full-time employment, and the lowest levels of unemployment among all major racial/ethnic groups. This disparity persists even when the variables considered in this study are taken into account, such as marital status, the presence of children in the household, area of residence, level of education, and job type.

A specific aim of our analysis of the PUMS data was to focus on the disparities in the New York State labor market between women and men. Yet, in our analysis of disparate dimensions, we found that race/ethnicity is also an important factor. Disparities exist not merely between women and men but among women and among men. Although we recognized these disparities, it was beyond the scope of this phase of the research to delve into a more nuanced analysis.

The Family Organization section focused on earnings and employment status disparities between women and men. Our analysis of the New York State PUMS data found that married men's median annual earnings are substantially higher than the earnings of unmarried men and married and unmarried women. Married men also comprise the largest share of the total full-time labor force. Among women, the earnings differential by marital status is negligible. However, the relationship between marital status and earnings varies among races/ethnicities.

A partial explanation for the phenomenon of married men's higher earnings may be attributed to the so-called "marriage premium." Several causes have been proposed by other researchers. One is the positive effect that marriage has on the men's productivity; their higher wages are a result of the gendered division and specialization of labor within the marriage unit. Another explanation posits that more productive men are selected for marriage. Although the marriage premium has varied through time, there are indications that it is declining based on changing family forms, changes in the household, and women's increased labor force participation (Cohen 2002).

We examined the earnings levels of full-time workers by the presence of children of varying ages within the household, and differences between men and women emerged. There are some variations among the racial/ethnic groups that could be attributed to cultural differences between ethnic/racial groups. In the aggregate, when children are present as compared to no children in the household, the earnings of men with children is the same or slightly higher than the earnings of men with no children present. Conversely, the earnings of women when children are present are lower than when there are no children present.

When considering the two axes—marriage and the presence of children—simultaneously, what becomes apparent is that there is greater earnings disparity between women and men who are married, with or without children, than there is among those who are unmarried, with or without children. Overall, when the relationship between marriage and the presence of children is represented by women's full-time me-

dian annual earnings as a proportion of men's, the earnings gap is more closely related to marriage than to the presence of children.

One factor that may contribute to women's lower earnings is their higher employment distribution in part-time work. In all four dimensions under examination—family organization, geography, education and labor market segregation—there is a relationship between part-time labor and women's economic status. There is an apparent relationship between both marriage *and* the presence of children and men's greater participation in full-time employment and women's greater participation in part-time employment. In the aggregate, married women as well as women with children work more part-time and less full-time. When disaggregated by race/ethnicity, this pattern holds for women with children, but for married and unmarried minority women there is little difference in the part-time and full-time employment rates. Across races/ethnicities, in all the geographic categories examined we found that men's full-time employment is higher than women's; women are more likely than men to be employed as part-time workers. In addition, in both the private and public sectors women of all races/ethnicities engage in more part-time employment than men.

Our comparison of earnings and employment status disparity used conventional measures of comparing married and unmarried employees in the New York labor force. We recognize that this dichotomy limits our analysis, precluding an examination of how various domestic partnerships affect women's economic status.

In the Geography section we examine the intersection between geographic residency and women's economic status along the three different geographical groupings of metropolitan, mixed metropolitan and non-metropolitan areas; metropolitan statistical areas; and New York City versus the rest of New York State. Given the importance of New York City as a population and economic center, this analysis takes a particular look at urban residency and women's earnings and employment status.

Women have greater earnings parity with men in the metropolitan area compared to the mixed and non-metropolitan areas. Within the thirteen New York State metropolitan areas, the highest gender earnings ratio is reported in New York City metro area, and women have greater earnings parity in New York City than in the rest of the state. However, an earnings disparity does still exist between women and men in all three geographical areas and the disparity is increased when minority women's earnings are compared to White men's earnings. The finding regarding New York City may have little to do with the strength of women's earning power in New York City; women's median earnings do not vary greatly between New York City and the rest of the state. Rather, the important factor may be that *men* earn less in New York City compared to their counterparts in the rest of the state.

In addition, when comparing women and men within the same racial/ethnic categories, the earnings ratio is slightly more equitable for those residing in metropolitan than in mixed and non-metropolitan areas. In the metropolitan areas only Asian women have earnings equal to Asian men. With this exception, earnings disparity between women and men in all three areas is still noteworthy.

In the geographical data, there is evidence of an earnings gap: men have higher earnings than women in the thirteen New York metro areas. Women's (and men's) earnings vary statewide; women have the greatest earnings parity with men in the New York City metro area.

When looking at the employment status of women and men across racial/ethnic lines in both New York City and the rest of the state, men's rate of full-time employment is generally higher than women's. Women engage in more part-time employment than men. White women and men have the lowest unem-

ployment rates.

The reasons for the marginal earnings equity between women and men in urban areas, possibly related infrastructural factors and/or population density, require further exploration. It is possible that there are a greater number of economic opportunities or a more favorable business culture for women in urban areas. The existence of community networks which facilitate finding jobs or establishing businesses (Hanson & Pratt 1991), greater opportunities for public sector employment, and the relative ease of commuting to jobs are a few factors which may contribute to a more amenable economic environment for women.

Consistent with other research, our analysis in the Education and Occupational Segregation section found that in New York State the median annual earnings for full-time working women and men steadily increases as education levels increase. However, the ratio of women's earnings to those of men across educational categories ranges from 72% to 78%.

Although annual earnings for full-time workers rise in New York State with higher levels of education, education alone does not create gender wage parity. The disparity in the gender earnings ratio in the aggregate can largely be attributed to the higher earnings of White men. In general, the earnings disparity between Black, Latino and Asian women and men is not as wide, and in several cases White women have lower earnings than minority women.

Comparing women and men's earnings in New York State's private and public sectors we found that the greatest earnings disparity is found between self-employed men and women. The greatest gender earnings parity is found in federal government employment. Women's highest median earnings figures are found in the public sector: White women's highest earnings are found in local and federal government, Black and Latina women earn the most in the federal government, Asian women have their highest earnings in local and state government. Women's participation in part-time employment in all of the employment categories is roughly two times higher than men's.

Women appear to have less choice in the types of industries and occupations available to them. One in five female full-time workers was employed in the top female-dominated occupations, compared to one in ten male full-time workers in the top male-dominated occupations. In general, men earn more than women across the industries and occupations examined. When looking at the respective industries and occupations in which women and men are in the majority it is apparent that employment is segmented along gender lines (Reich, Gordon and Edwards 1973; Hartman 1976) with a concentration of women employed in occupations defined as "caring labor" involving caring for families, children, the elderly and sick individuals (Folbre 2003). Such "caring work," often associated with occupations in which women are concentrated, includes employment in child care, teaching, therapy and nursing, some of which have financial penalties, that is they offer low pay relative to educational and skill requirements (England and Folbre 1999).

An analysis of the occupations with high concentrations of women and men disaggregated by education and marital status found that there is a relationship between education level and occupational segregation. Among full-time occupations which have the highest concentration of women and men in New York, four-year college-educated women, and especially men, are employed in higher status occupations compared to workers without a four year education. Here too we found an overlap in a few occupations filled by women and men. However, women are not as highly represented in the more remunerative occupations such as lawyer, chief executive and physicians/surgeon. The fact that these occupations are among the main occupations for four-year college educated men may be a contributing factor to men's overall higher earnings and to the inequitable gender wage ratio.

Future Research

In this phase of the project we chose to take a primarily quantitative approach to investigating economic disparities between men and women. This approach brought us to a particular stage in our research; it provided a number of illuminating findings, but it also helped identify key points of interest and questions that merit further investigation. While some of these questions can be answered through additional quantitative analysis, and indeed we have begun the process of employing regression analysis to isolate important variables, many of these topics can only be adequately explored by utilizing qualitative research tools such as ethnographic methods and other interviewing techniques. To enhance the long-term value of this project it would also be useful to expand this project longitudinally as well as geographically for comparative purposes. We could delve further into older Census data and develop models for comparing data on a national, regional, and state-by-state level (as we have already done with New Hampshire). Below is a summary of some topics we found relevant and warrant future research.

Residential Patterns: Metropolitan and Mixed Metropolitan/Non-metropolitan Areas

Our current findings show that geographic residency is a factor in women's economic status. It would be worthwhile to ascertain the further significance of geography, most notably the importance of metropolitan vs. mixed metropolitan/non-metropolitan residency (which loosely corresponds to urban vs. suburban residency). This will require an exploration of women's educational and occupational mix as well as other aspects of the labor market in order to explain, for example: why minority women residing in the mixed area have higher median annual earnings than those who reside in metropolitan areas, and why Latina's earnings are the lowest in all residential categories; what factors create earnings parity between Asian women and men; and what factors account for a greater gender earnings parity in New York City for Black and Asian women?

Additionally, for a fuller understanding of women's economic status, it will be necessary to analyze women's median earnings in context, e.g. geographical cost of living, as well as household, educational, childcare, transportation, employment related, and other expenses.

Union Membership

In our NYS analysis of industrial and occupational segregation, the following findings led us to the decision to investigate women's participation in union jobs and membership to ascertain how union employment might affect their earnings parity.

The more highly paid industrial categories (elementary and secondary schools, hospitals) in which women predominate are more likely to be unionized which may contribute to the higher pay scale. The occupation of registered nurse is the best paid occupation traditionally held predominantly by women and, not insignificantly, this occupation is usually a unionized position.

Sector of Employment

It would be useful to explore further some of the gender discrepancies related to public versus private sector employment. We would investigate differences in private versus public hiring practices and public policy, family leave, child care, after-school programs, flexible work schedules, equal pay and equal opportunity legislation, and access to adequate health insurance. Within both the private and public sectors we will tease out the differences in women's and men's labor force participation in the top occupations, e.g. examine occupational wage structures, employment opportunities, and advancement.

Another research project could investigate women's roles as small business owners to ascertain factors contributing to their economic status.

It is also necessary to further explore how race/ethnicity and class intersect with gender to affect women's economic status, and to understand how racial discrimination affects women's occupational and industrial segregation, wages and benefits.

The causes of occupational segregation and the wage gap are extremely complex however, one study found that "the gendered nature of social life prompts women to value different job attributes from men; women who end up in female-dominated occupations privilege the job's proximity to home and suitable work hours over and above wage considerations" (Hanson & Pratt 1991: 229). Future research can identify the factors that women consider in selecting careers, occupations and jobs.

Immigration Status

Labor disparity exists among women in the four racial/ethnic groups. For example, Latina women have the lowest median annual earnings in New York State. We will investigate issues of immigration status and citizenship on labor force participation, women's earning potential, and labor market segregation.

Contingent Labor

Comparing women across racial/ethnic groups, their employment status varies within discrete industry types. We will analyze by race/ethnicity how personal choices and structural factors (flexible labor practices) are a factor in the differences in men's and women's full-time vs. part-time labor. This will also require us to study the impact of new forms of contingent labor practices affect women's workforce participation, wages, unemployment, and poverty rates.

Appendix. Sources, Data Sample, and Definitions

Unless otherwise indicated, the definitions of terms are from “Public Use Microdata Sample: 2000 Census of Population and Housing Technical Document” issued by the U.S. Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administration and U.S. Census Bureau, December 2005.

Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS)

The data pertaining to our New York State analysis uses the 2000 Five Percent Sample of the Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS) from the U.S. Census Bureau. This PUMS file is comprised of records representing a five percent nationwide sample of the occupied and vacant housing units and the people in the occupied units in 1999.

The HSC report used the Five Percent 2000 Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS). In the state of New York, this dataset contains an unweighted sample of 512,407 individuals between the ages of 24 and 64 (284,001 full-time workers) and a weighted sample of 10,338,992 individuals (5,682,797 full-time workers). In other words, approximately 55 percent of New York adults between the ages of 24 and 64 were employed full-time in 1999.

Race/Ethnicity

Race/ethnicity was collapsed into four categories that represent the largest racial/ethnic identifications in New York State. The categories are derived from two variables in the PUMS dataset: race and Hispanic/Latino(a) origin. If an individual indicated Hispanic/Latino(a) descent (regardless of racial identification), the individual was categorized as Hispanic/Latino(a). All other workers that were not of Hispanic or Latino(a) descent were coded according to their racial identification: White, Black, or Asian.

According to the Current Population Survey (CPS) Definition and Explanations, ethnic origin is defined as follows:

People of Hispanic origin were identified by a question that asked for self-identification of the persons’ origin or descent. Respondents were asked to select their origin (and the origin of other household members) from a “flash card” listing ethnic origins. People of Hispanic origin, in particular, were those who indicated that their origin was Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, or some other Hispanic origin. It should be noted that people of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

People who were Non-Hispanic White origin, were identified by crossing the responses to two self-identification questions: (1) origin or descent and (2) race. Respondents were asked to select their race (and the race of other household members) from a “flash card” listing racial groups. Beginning with March 1989, the population is divided into five groups on the basis of race: White, Black, American Indian, Eskimo or Aleut, Asian or Pacific Islander, and other races. The last category includes any other race except the four mentioned. Respondents who selected their race as White and indicated that their origin was not one of the Hispanic origin subgroups Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, were called Non-Hispanic White origin their race as White and indicated that their origin was not one of the Hispanic origin subgroups Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, were called Non-Hispanic White origin.

Employment Status

Workers are those who were “at work” or “with a job but not at work” during the week the survey was administered. Full-time workers are adults between the ages of 24 and 64 that worked at least 35 hours per week for at least 35 weeks in 1999. Part-time workers are those that worked fewer than 35 hours per week and/or worked fewer than 35 weeks. Unemployed adults are those that were not “at work” or “with a job but not at work” and who were ready to work and had performed at least one job seeking activity in the previous 4 weeks. (see PUMS Technical Documentation page B-10)

Please note that figures exclude individuals 24-64 years of age that were not in the labor force in 1999. Not in the labor force includes adults of working age who indicated that they did not participate in the labor force in 1999, those who reported working zero weeks in 1999, or those who indicated their average hours per week in 1999 were zero.

Family Organization

According to the U.S. Census Bureau the marital status is individuals were asked to report on their status according to discrete marital status categories. Couples living together reported their status as the one considered to be most appropriate. The PUMS questionnaire used the following statuses defined as:

Never married: Never married includes all people who have never been married, including people whose only marriage(s) was annulled.

Now married, except separated: Now married, except separated includes people whose current marriage has not ended through widowhood or divorce; or who are not currently separated. The category also may include people in common-law marriages if they consider this category the most appropriate. In certain tabulations, currently married people are further classified as ‘spouse present’ or ‘spouse absent.’

Separated: Separated includes people with legal separations, people living apart with intentions of obtaining a divorce, and people who permanently or temporarily separated because of marital discord.

Widowed: This category includes widows and widowers who have not remarried.

Population Distribution Table

	White women	White men	Black women	Black men	Hispanic women	Hispanic men	Asian women	Asian men
Metropolitan	481,506	646,090	289,712	236,626	187,796	269,746	105,693	144,440
Mixed metropolitan and non-metropolitan	977,842	1,442,352	83,951	76,991	63,884	102,281	29,438	44,385
Non-metropolitan	147,305	202,038	2,593	3,594	2,274	4,367	1,424	2,071

Divorced: This category includes people who are legally divorced and who have not remarried.

Now married: All people whose current marriage has not ended by widowhood or divorce. This category includes people defined above as 'separated.' (U.S. Census, 2005:B33)

Presence of Children

PUMS respondents were asked to indicate the number and ages of related children in their household. Children under six years of age were considered "young children" and children between six and seventeen years of age were considered "school-aged children." For analyses on the presence of children in the household, households fell into one of four categories: young children only, young and school-aged children, school-aged children only, and no children present.

Geography

Metropolitan, mixed, and nonmetropolitan status were defined according to workers' residence (identified by PUMA) and the relationship of the PUMA to the nearest metropolitan area. If the PUMA was in a metropolitan statistical area, the worker was classified as living in a metropolitan area. If the PUMA was partially in a metropolitan statistical area or in and out of a metropolitan statistical area (overlapped metropolitan and nonmetropolitan), the worker was considered to live in a mixed area. Finally, workers in PUMAs that were entirely nonmetropolitan were classified as nonmetropolitan.

Very loosely, metropolitan areas can also be called 'urban,' mixed areas can be called 'suburban,' and nonmetropolitan areas can be called 'rural.' It should be noted, however, that this loose terminology does not correspond to standard definitions of urban, rural, and suburban provided by the Office of Management and Budget and the Census Bureau.

Metro areas in Figure 16 were defined using PUMAs (Public Use Microdata Areas), which are geographic areas comprised of counties, groups of counties, or portions of counties with populations totaling approximately 100,000 individuals. New York State PUMA maps are available at: http://ftp2.census.gov/geo/maps/puma/puma2k/ny_puma5.pdf.

Metropolitan Area	PUMA codes
Long Island	4201-4212 4301-4312
New York City	3400 3501-3506 3601-3602 3701-3710 3801-3810 3901-3903 4001-4018 4101-4114
Poughkeepsie	3201-3202
Newburgh	3301-3303
Albany/Schenectady/Troy	2100 2201-2202 2300 2401-2402
Rochester	901-902 1001-1005 1100 1200 1300
Buffalo/Niagara Falls	1401-1402 1501-1502 1601-1605
Syracuse/Auburn	600 700 801-804
Binghamton	2601-2602
Utica/Rome	401-402
Elmira	2700
Glen Falls	300
Jamestown	3000

New York City metro area was operationalized as the five boroughs. Again, PUMAs were used to define these boundaries. The PUMAs that comprise the five boroughs are listed in the table below. Anyone living outside of these PUMAs was considered to be living in ‘the rest of New York State.’

Borough	PUMA codes
Bronx	3701-3710
Manhattan	3801-3810
Staten Island	3901-3903
Brooklyn	4001-4018
Queens	4101-4114

Industry and Occupations

An industry describes the kinds of business conducted by an employer. The industry classification system developed by the Census Bureau consists of 265 separate industry categories. An occupation describes the kinds of work a person does on the job at which he or she is employed. The occupation classification system developed by the Census Bureau consists of nearly 500 occupations. Analyses presented in Figures 27-29 depict occupations and industries employing at least one percent of full-time working males or females.

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