

New York Women's Agenda & Coalition of Organizations
Public Hearing on Equal Pay Day
Testimony before the New York City Council

Presented by:

Natatia L. Griffith

Former President, New York Coalition of One Hundred Black Women, Inc.
Commissioner, NYC Commission on Women's Issues

April 17, 2008

Dear City Council Members:

It was in 1970, when a group of women with a vision formally founded the Coalition of One Hundred Black Women in order to focus on the plight of the Black family, integration of Black women into the work force, and to promote political and economic empowerment as they sought to gain acceptance into the Civil and Women's Rights movements.

Sadly, many of those plights remain as prevalent today as they did back then, and in a number of areas have even worsened. This realization can't help but beg the simple question of Why/How Come?

Facing the hard truths of these realities, head-on, is easier said than done. For the needs in the black and Latino communities are many and can, at times, feel like a daunting task. But then one must ask: If not us, who? If not now, when? Whose responsibility is it? Even if we set aside our artificial barriers of class, ethnicity, and race, to unveil the fact that there are far more things we share in common than we do not – we will find that Pay Equity is not among them because people-of-color, and in particular black and Latina women earn 50% and 60% respectively, as compared with white men. Why/How Come?

To assess the dynamics of this issue requires facing some hard facts about government, policymakers, legislators, and corporate America. I've learned over the years that being truthful can come at a high price, but you know what? As difficult as it is, I have learned that it is a price that we have to be willing to pay, for to do anything less, pays tribute to what I consider to be the "real" enemies of humanity and in particular, of people-of-color and more specifically, African Americans and Latinos.

I'm certain you know the enemies I'm referring to and the likes of them. We commute with them, shop with them, work, live and die with them. They are called many things, but are more popularly known as, Denial, Silence and Apathy, rarely seen apart; they exist most everywhere, with devastating effects among races, ethnicities, and genders.

It is the existence of these very close friends, who also go by the nickname of DSA (Denial, Silence and Apathy), that has allowed for significant disparities in the

availability and affordability of housing, health care, child care, and a good education. Pay inequity is a family issue, not just a woman's issue!

Denial, Silence and Apathy are the reasons why the NYS Fair Pay bill passed the Assembly in 2002, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2006, and again in 2007 – **and has never** been voted out of the State Senate Labor Committee to come to a floor vote!

In a recent study highlighted on CNN.com, it was reported that taxpayers pay an estimated \$112 billion for federal, state and local government programs to subsidize households that are headed primarily by divorced and unwed childbearing women. It made me wonder just how much this liability would decrease, if women's compensation were comparable to men's for performing comparable work.

Demonstrated integrity is what your constituents need from this Council today. To that end, we ask that you lead by example by passing a resolution in support of the NYS Fair Pay Act.

With your support and the passage of the NYS Fair Pay Act in the Senate – together, we will enable generations-to-come to reap the benefits of living in a world less limited by race and gender – and where the enemies of humanity are no more. To that end, the NYS Fair Pay Act is worth fighting for...

STAFF

Sherry Leiwant
Executive Director

Nancy Rankin
Senior Fellow

Phoebe Taubman
*Project Attorney/
Equal Justice Works
Fellow*

Yolanda Wu
Co-President

Testimony before the New York City Council Women's Issues Committee

April 17, 2008

Submitted by Dina Bakst and Phoebe Taubman,
A Better Balance: The Work and Family Legal Center

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Good morning, my name is Dina Bakst and I am co-President and co-founder of A Better Balance: The Work and Family Legal Center. ABB is a New York-based legal advocacy organization dedicated to helping families balance the conflicting demands of work and family. Our mission is to promote equality and expand choices for men and women at all income levels so they may care for their families without risking their economic security.

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I want to start by thanking the Women's Issues Committee for convening this hearing to bring attention to the persistent wage gap faced by women in New York State. Over four decades after equal pay became the law, women are still paid less than men, even those with similar education, skills and experience. According to U.S. Census Bureau data from 2006, women are paid only 77 cents for every dollar a man is paid, which, over the course of a lifetime, costs the average full-time working woman between \$700,000 and \$2 million.¹

The wage gap is a multi-faceted problem. Closing the wage gap requires outlawing the discriminatory practice of compensating women and men differently for comparable work. Closing the wage gap also requires addressing other factors that contribute to its persistence, including the undervaluation of caregiving work, typically provided by women, and the lack of essential public policy supports to help men and women balance their work and family responsibilities. The purpose of my testimony this morning is to focus attention on this key component of the gender wage gap.

A Large Part of the Gender Wage Gap is a Motherhood Wage Gap. Motherhood is a critical contributing factor to the gender wage gap. Economists have determined there is a substantial 7.3% wage penalty for mothers compared to non-mothers.² In 1991, non-mothers with an average age of thirty were paid 90 cents for every dollar paid to men, while moms made 73 cents to the dollar, and single moms only 56 to 66 cents.³ Further, the motherhood penalty grows with the addition of more than one child; mothers can experience penalties of 2-10% for their first child and up to 4-16% for their second.⁴

Having children has a substantially different impact on women than on men. According to Professor Joan Williams of the Center for WorkLife Law at UC Hastings, whereas mothers experience a wage penalty of 3-10% per child compared to women without children, fathers can earn up to 9% more per hour than men without children.⁵

Groundbreaking research published in 2005 by Dr. Shelley Correll of Cornell University also documents that blatant discrimination persists against mothers in the job market. Correll's study shows that mothers are 44% less likely than non-mothers to be hired for the same job, even when they have the same education and work experience.⁶ Mothers in the study were also offered \$11,000 less in starting pay than non-mothers.⁷

Families Rely on Mothers to Provide Income and Care, Resulting in Work-Life Conflict.

The motherhood penalty has gained significance in the last few decades as more mothers have entered the paid workforce. Since 1975, the labor force participation of mothers of children under 18 has increased from 47% to 72%; the biggest increase was among mothers with children under the age of three, whose participation rate surged from 34% to 61%.⁸ Many families rely on the income earned by mothers which can amount, on average, to over a third of total family income.⁹

With more mothers in the paid workforce, and with work hours on the rise for both men and women, families are feeling the strain of balancing work and family responsibilities. One out of

three American families with children under the age of six handle child care through “tag teaming,” in which parents work opposite shifts, so that one can care for the children while the other is at work, while one in four families also care for an elderly relative.¹⁰ Low income workers, especially single mothers, are particularly hard hit by the conflicting pressures of work and family, as their jobs often lack benefits, vacation and sick leave and are least likely to provide workplace flexibility.¹¹

Work-Life Conflict Seriously Impacts Women’s Earnings. Women continue to bear the brunt of the work/family time crunch, which has a clear impact on their wages and earnings. Mothers working full-time are often subject to family responsibilities discrimination, i.e. stereotyping and discrimination that costs them wages, promotions and even their jobs.¹² Employers who stereotype working parents will give fathers better or more work and more pay to support their families, while they give women less work and less significant assignments, presuming they want more time with their kids.¹³

Working mothers who try to manage multiple demands with part-time work suffer penalties as well. They are “more likely to be assigned to routine jobs, to receive less training (particularly important for workers without a college education) and fewer promotions, and to be laid off. . . . [they] also tend to have far less job security than full-time workers.”¹⁴ According to Marilyn Gittell’s 2007 report on *The Economic Status of Working Women in New York*, part-time employment pays approximately 10% less in wages and has been found to be a factor in the wage gap between mothers and non-mothers.¹⁵

Lastly, some women leave the paid workforce for periods of time to care for their children. Because of the gender pay gap, women frequently earn less than their husbands and make the economic decision to sacrifice their paychecks, rather than their husbands’, to provide full-time care. When these women re-enter the workforce they find they have suffered huge pay penalties because of their time away. One study estimates that for every two years out of the labor force, a

woman's earnings fall by about 11% and that this "mommy penalty" persists for the rest of a woman's working life.¹⁶

The Motherhood Wage Gap Negatively Impacts Women in the Long-Term. The long-term economic impact of women's primary responsibility for family care is tremendous. According to Heidi Hartman of the Institute for Women's Policy Research, "the more likely a woman is to have dependent children and be married, the more likely she is to be a low earner . . . The opposite holds true for men: marriage and dependent children make it much more likely that he has higher earnings . . . When actual earnings are accumulated over many years for all men and women workers, the losses to women and their families can be devastating. The average woman earned only \$273,592 while the average man earned \$722,693, leaving a gap of 62 percent over the 15-year period."¹⁷

The loss of income over a lifetime affects women across the economic spectrum. Recent statistics show that female attorneys' weekly wages amounted to 70.5% of male lawyers' in 2006, compared with 77.5% in 2005,¹⁸ and that male equity partners earned \$90,000 more than female equity partners in 2007.¹⁹ The wage gap has a particularly deleterious impact on low-income women, especially single mothers, who get stuck in low-wage, dead-end jobs. According to the Institute for Women's Policy Research, "if there wasn't a wage gap, the poverty rates for single moms would be cut in half, and the poverty rates for dual earner families would be cut by 25 percent."²⁰

Ann Crittenden, a former New York Times reporter who has written extensively on this subject, has labeled the reduction of earnings due to women's disproportionate caregiving responsibilities as "the mommy tax." For the average college-educated woman, the "mommy tax" is greater than \$1 million, and for lower income families it will still exceed \$600,000.²¹ Moreover, since government social policies fail to define unpaid care of family dependents as work, mothers at home do not earn Social Security credits, making motherhood the single biggest risk factor for poverty in old age.

Policy Solutions that Support Working Families Can Help Narrow the Pay Gap. The work/family time crunch is a societal problem that has thus far been left to individuals to negotiate on their own, one family at a time. We need public policy solutions to address the work/family dilemma and make the workplace more hospitable to women and mothers so that they can advance in their careers and close the wage gap. We must follow the lead of other countries that have seen a narrowing of the family wage gap as a result of more supportive work/family policies.

Workers with caregiving responsibilities need paid family leave. While the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) provides up to 12 weeks of unpaid leave for the arrival of a new child or the serious illness of a family member, most workers cannot afford to take it. A forthcoming study by Heather Boushey shows that paid family leave significantly increases a woman's chances of returning to work after a child is born, improving her earning potential.²²

Workers also need paid sick days to care for themselves and their children. Many New York City workers and a majority of the working poor lack even a single day of sick leave; 65% of poor New Yorkers and 45% of the near poor have no paid sick days.²³ For these workers, missing work to care for a sick child can mean the difference between just scraping by and tumbling into poverty.

Workplace flexibility can also help women work and care for their families. Low-income workers, single mothers especially, are hardest hit by lack of workplace flexibility. Relatively inexpensive solutions, such as allowing them to set their starting and ending hours, determine when they take a break, or have the ability to leave work for a short period and make up that time later, can make a huge difference.²⁴ New York should explore ways to encourage flexible work arrangements, which have been shown to decrease turnover and improve retention, and protect from retaliation workers who want to request such arrangements. New York should also consider tax credits and other incentives to improve the quality and benefits of part-time work as well as pro-rata pay for part-time workers.

Finally, workers need protection from family responsibilities discrimination. Our city's anti-discrimination laws fail to protect New Yorkers with family responsibilities from job loss and discrimination because of their need to care for loved ones. New York City should pass Int. No 565-A, a local law prohibiting employment discrimination based on an individual's actual or perceived status as caregiver, to protect these workers.

New York should be a leader in closing the pay gap and providing an environment where women can flourish. Passing a resolution in support of Fair Pay legislation would make clear that New York City cares about equal pay for women in the state. At the same time, addressing the factors that contribute to unequal pay for women, particularly mothers, by enacting supportive work/family policies, would be an important complement and would have a significant impact on the long-term economic security of women in New York.

¹ "The Wage Gap Over Time: In Real Dollars, Women See a Continuing Gap," National Committee on Pay Equity, available at <http://www.pay-equity.org/info-time.html>.

² Susan Harkness and Jane Waldfogel, "The Family Gap in Pay: Evidence from Seven Industrialized Counties," Centre for Analysis of Social Exclusion, London School of Economics, November 1999, at 6, available at <http://sticerd.lse.ac.uk/dps/case/cp/CASEpaper30.pdf>.

³ Jane Waldfogel, "Understanding the 'Family Gap' in Pay for Women with Children," *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 12, no. 1 (1998), 137-156.

⁴ Joan Williams, "Wage Gaps in America: The Costs of Gender and Motherhood," June 2005, Center for WorkLife Law, at <http://www.worklifelaw.org>.

⁵ Id.

⁶ JOAN BLADES AND KRISTEN ROWE-FINKBEINER, *THE MOTHERHOOD MANIFESTO: WHAT AMERICA'S MOMS WANT – DND WHAT TO DO ABOUT IT*, 186 (2006).

⁷ Id.

⁸ U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Annual Social and Economic Supplements 1975-2002, Current Population Survey, Table 7: Employment Status of Women by Presence and Age of Youngest Child, 1975-2002, available at <http://www.bls.gov/cps/wlf-tables7.pdf>.

⁹ *Strengthening the Middle Class: Ensuring Equal Pay for Women: Hearing Before the House Comm. on Education and Labor*, 110th Cong. (April 24, 2007) (statement of Heather Boushey, Senior Economist, Center for Economic and Policy Research) at 4.

¹⁰ *Perspectives on Work/Family Balance and the Federal Equal Employment Opportunity Laws: Meeting of the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission*, (April 17, 2007) (remarks of Joan Williams, Professor, Hastings College of Law, University of California) at 2.

¹¹ Id.

¹² Id.

¹³ Id.

¹⁴ Rosalind Barnett, "Reduced Hours Work/Part-time Work," Sloan Work and Family Research Network, Jan. 28, 2003, available at http://wfnetwork.bc.edu/encyclopedia_entry.php?id=252.

¹⁵ Marilyn Gittell and Bill McKinney, "The Economic Status of Working Women in New York," A Report from The Howard Samuels Center, July 2007, at 23.

¹⁶ *Perspectives on Work/Family Balance and the Federal Equal Employment Opportunity Laws: Meeting of the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission*, (April 17, 2007) (remarks of Heather Boushey, Senior Economist, Center for Economic and Policy Research) at 4.

¹⁷ Heidi Hartman, "Still A Man's Labor Market: The Long-Term Earnings Gap," Institute for Women's Policy Research, February 2008, IWPR report, at 1-2.

¹⁸ Harriet Rubin, "Sexism," Condé Nast Portfolio, April 2008, available at <http://www.portfolio.com/executives/features/2008/03/17/Sexism-in-the-Workplace#page1>

¹⁹ National Survey on Retention and Promotion of Women in Law Firms, National Association of Women Lawyers, November 2007, at 8.

²⁰ BLADES AND ROWE-FINKBEINER, THE MOTHERHOOD MANIFESTO 187.

²¹ ANN CRITTENDEN, THE PRICE OF MOTHERHOOD: WHY THE MOST IMPORTANT JOB IN THE WORLD IS STILL THE LEAST VALUED 89 (2001).

²² *Strengthening the Middle Class* (statement of Heather Boushey) at 7.

²³ Nancy Rankin, et. al., "The Unheard Third: Bringing the Voices of Low-Income New Yorkers to the Policy Debate," Community Service Society, June 2007, available at http://www.cssny.org/pdfs/unheard_third_2006.pdf.

²⁴ *Strengthening the Middle Class* (statement of Heather Boushey) at 8.

FOR THE RECORD

**Testimony of Spencer H. Lewis, Jr., Director
U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
New York District Office
Before the Committee on Women's Issues, Council of the City of New York,
Hearing Regarding Resolutions 896-A and 1152
Calling for the Governor and the President to Sign into Law
Acts Requiring Pay Equity for Women
April 17, 2008**

My name is Spencer Lewis and I am the Director of the New York District Office of the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, the federal agency charged with the enforcement of the federal prohibitions against sex discrimination in the work place. I thank you very much for your invitation to testify today.

The proposal that you are asked to support is not new to legislative bodies at any level of government. The concept of pay equity between men and women in the workplace has been researched, analyzed, interpreted, considered, reconsidered, and analyzed again, but still we have no definitive legislation on the books. The statutes enforced by my agency, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, forbidding discrimination on account of sex, including pay, and the Equal Pay Act, requiring that women be paid equally with men when they occupy the same or substantially similar jobs, simply do not address the major reason for the giant wage gap between the sexes in today's workplace.

In addition to discrimination made illegal by our statutes, the gap is caused by the fact that jobs that are predominantly female pay less than jobs that are predominantly male. There is no intrinsic reason or justification for the difference – not qualifications, not experience, not skill, not education, not training, not strength, not speed, not intelligence. More important, wage differences of this type are not addressed by the statutes we enforce and cannot be reached by our investigations because they are not illegal. This proposed legislation would force employers to reconsider their wage-setting practices and equalize compensation between jobs where one sex predominates.

It is a truism that women overwhelmingly are hired in service and care-giving jobs – cleaners, home health aides, waiters, cafeteria workers, and other minimum wage jobs. These same women often are the sole support of their children, sometimes working two jobs at minimum wage, and still live below the poverty line. As the statisticians tell us, this amounts to 77 cents on the dollar

earned by men, including men who also work in entry level, unskilled or semi-skilled jobs.

The EEOC receives some 25,000 sex discrimination charges annually, many of them including compensation claims, plus nearly 1000 specifically addressing wage disparities under the Equal Pay Act. But our statutes and these charges, when they are jurisdictional, do not address the economic situation facing millions of women today, which is that the jobs they have don't pay enough. Their situations are nearly desperate, not only for them but for our society, because they are primary care-givers not only to their children but to their own elderly or ill family members. If their wages were equalized with the wages of men in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs, many of our social ills would begin to be addressed.

Not only in lower job sectors do we find women paid less. Recently, our office found that a reputable university made it a practice to pay female academics less than men – and not just because the men were in disciplines with high market value. Even taking into account the market, the women were still paid less on hire and received lesser increments as they moved up the promotional ladder. Yes, the market determines compensation levels in our economy and, yes, computer scientists and engineers get paid more than anthropologists and linguists. But which is the cause and which is the effect?

The current continuing inequity in workplace income between men and women is a continuation of the historical devaluing of women as of lesser social value. During our few centuries as a nation, we have at various times adopted objectives and enacted laws to equalize our citizens. We have a long way to go. This proposed legislation would be a step along that path.



SUSAN JOHN
Assemblymember 131ST District
Monroe County

THE ASSEMBLY
STATE OF NEW YORK
ALBANY

CHAIR
Committee on Labor

April 17, 2008

Dear Honorable Members of the New York City Council:

When the federal government enacted the "Equal Pay Act," many people thought the legislation had removed the inequity of wages between men and women. Now in 2008 we know this legislation has failed to produce the results that justice demands. The fact is that women continue to earn significantly less than men.

In 2007:

Asian American women earn only 39 cents for every dollar a man earns;

Latinas earn only 52 cents for every dollar a man earns;

African American women earn 64 cents for every dollar a man earns.

Currently, the law does not adequately address the issue of pay equity. The need for state law to prohibit such inequities is clear from the facts set forth above.

Pay equity does not exist in our state. That is why for many years I have, introduced legislation and fought for its passage in the New York State Assembly to remedy discriminatory salary practices by amending state law.

All people, who perform work of comparable skill, effort and responsibility, who possess the same education and acquired skills, but may carry out such work and responsibilities under different job titles, and are female experience different compensation for the same tasks.

Each year the average working woman earns approximately \$13,000 less than the average working man earns. And, if you dig deeper into the pay disparity you will find that women of color are paid even less.

Women, over a working lifetime, lose a great deal of money in lost wages that could go toward her family, utility bills, rent, tuition, and perhaps putting away some savings for a better future and a sound retirement. The disparate wage treatment too often means that our mothers, and many women who will someday be our mothers' age, will live in poverty. These same women will be forced to rely on Medicaid in a nursing home, passing a significant cost on to taxpayers. If only employers compensated women fairly, the average \$300,000 in accumulated

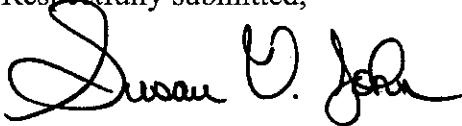
earnings toward savings and pension combined might reduce the Medicaid burden for all, while treating women fairly and equitably.

If, in fact, women earned the same wage as men for doing the same hours of work, having the same education as their male counterparts, living in the same geographic area, it would mean a significant increase in pay in New York State. Statistics show that the average family in New York would see an additional \$5,000 available to them per year if pay was equal. That money represents a considerable difference in income. Particularly during this period of economic hardship, the discrepancy in wages between men and women represents an unjust tax on gender for which families, and particularly the children in those families, suffer.

We like to think that once we have devoted time, effort and legislation to an issue, we can move on to other matters. And yet it continues to be the case that the use of job titles, notwithstanding the actual functions carried out by employees, can and are being used to discriminate against individuals in regard to their pay. The problem of unfair pay continues to exist, and since it continues to exist we must continue to pass legislation to fix the inequity.

I applaud the New York City Council for recognizing the importance of this inequity. Furthermore, I urge the New York State Senate to follow the Assembly's lead in passing the important equal pay legislation.

Respectfully submitted,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Susan V. John". The signature is written in black ink and is positioned above the printed name.

Susan V. John
Member of Assembly

New York City Council Hearing on Equal Pay Legislation
Women's City Issues Committee
Council Member Helen Sears, Chair
Thursday, April 17, 2008

I would like to thank Council Member Helen Sears, Chair of the Women's Issues Committee and her esteemed colleagues for the opportunity to speak in support of resolution # 1152-2007 calling upon the US Congress to pass and the President to sign into law, the Paycheck Fairness Act (H.R.1338 and S.766) and resolution # 0896-2007 calling upon the New York State Legislature to pass the Pay Equity legislative package, submitted by this committee for full Council support.

We are here today because my colleagues and I in the New York Women's Agenda and our extended coalition of professional and community women's organizations need to communicate the urgency for passage of legislation that will end discrimination in the workplace – and for recognition of the concept of comparable worth as a functional solution to ending the salary limitations placed on women in certain job categories that are comparable to those available to men at a significantly higher wage level. We encourage the Council to consider the introduction and subsequent passage of an independent Pay Equity bill that would provide protection for the citizens of New York City while companion bills at the state and federal levels languish in committee.

Legislation impacts dramatically on the culture of the marketplace whether or not it is universally accepted. Absent a consensus within the New York State or Federal Legislatures for passage of the Fair Pay Act, municipalities and states across the country have taken independent action that creates new levels of awareness and demystifies misconceptions, for example - that equal pay legislation will cost employers more. In Minnesota, 30,000 state employees enjoyed raises at a cost of only 3.7 % of the state's payroll budget over a four year period – less than one percent of the budget each year. In Washington State, pay equity was achieved at a cost of 2.8 % of the state personnel costs and was implemented over an eight year period. Pay Equity experts point out that voluntary implementation of pay equity adjustments is cost effective, compared to court ordered adjustments that can lead to exhaustive costs.

Another frequent misconception is that the wages of white men will be reduced if pay equity is implemented. Federal law actually prohibits reducing pay for any employees to remedy discrimination. Pay equity is in fact, a strategy to force employers to hire and establish wages on the basis of skill, effort, responsibility and working conditions. Often overlooked is the advantage that pay equity represents as an effective anti-poverty strategy - it helps workers become self-sufficient and reduces their reliance on government assistance programs. A recent study found that nearly 40% of poor working women could leave welfare programs if they were to receive pay equity wage increases. Pay equity can bring great savings to tax payers at a minimal cost to business, create

greater advantages for single parent households and have a positive influence on the educational outcome for children within those families.

The concept of pay equity has far ranging implications beyond established job categories and impacts dramatically on equality of opportunity. Gender inequality in athletics and collegiate sports creates a great disparity between male and female athletes and determines future professional opportunities. Competition is more often gender or ethnic motivated than is excellence in performance. In the field of arts, media and journalism women are woefully underrepresented. Martha Richards, creator of the Fund for Women Artists reminds us that women are creating some of the most exciting and challenging art in the United States today. And yet, despite great strides in other fields and a few high visibility success stories, women continue to face enormous employment discrimination in the arts and media.

The Fund for Women Artists, a national organization, was designed to overcome barriers by raising funds and providing other resources to help women do their art. It has a dual mission of educating the public about the continuing problems of gender bias and pressure institutions to change. Ms Richards reminds us that “not only do women suffer by being shut out, but the culture as a whole is poorer when it is deprived of the vision and creativity of women artists”.

With more talented trained women entering the field of film, theatre, dance and music and where the number of annual productions and performances increase, there is a

decline in the number of women in major positions and salaries below that of their male counterparts. And women fare no better in major communications companies where they comprise 15% of executive positions and 12% of board membership.

As we appeal for assistance in gaining passage of legislation, we have identified basic cultural attitudes that demand multiple approaches to effect change.

We have profited enormously from the shared experiences of the community of women from different educational, professional, political, ethnic, and religious backgrounds and their ability to articulate meaningful and essential goals. That collaboration has strengthened our resolve and enhanced our expectations.

Respectfully submitted,

Joan D. Firestone
Co-Chair Government Affairs
New York Women's Agenda

New York
W O M E N ' S
A g e n d a
"A Voice for Women"

**Testimony of Beverly Cooper Neufeld
prepared for the
New York City Council Hearing on Pay Equity
April 17, 2008**

Contact information:
bneufeld@optonline.net
914.329.4046

Thank you for inviting me to speak today on the issue of Pay Equity legislation. I am Beverly Cooper Neufeld, Co-Chair of the Gov't Affairs Committee for the NYWA – New York Women's Agenda. I am the former Executive Director of The White House Project, a national organization that promotes women's leadership in all sectors. Current, I am President of BCN Consulting and I advise nonprofits on organizational, programming and advocacy efforts, specializing in issues important to women and children.

Last year NYWA coordinated the first Equal Pay Day Rally in NYC. Councilwoman Helen Sears sponsored that gathering, as well as this year's rally and this hearing on Pay Equity. We are appreciative of her efforts, and especially families and all New Yorkers.

This year we are back at City Hall, not only outside on the steps, but hear inside talking to you, the City Council, about what you can do to change the lives of your constituents. The Equal Pay Coalition NYC is a growing alliance of over 25 NYC organizations joined by advocates and leaders but you are seeing a small part of an enormous group of citizens – coalitions large and small all around the country - who strongly believe that women and people of color are not being paid for the work they are doing everyday.

Since we have heard much of the data from other speakers, I will submit key statistics for your later review to talk about the Pay Equity more generally.

Why and how women's work has been underpaid and undervalued is the topic of books. But, one telling story is those prior to the Civil War, Secretaries were highly paid and trusted advisors. With the shortage of men, women were found to fill the same positions. The job was the same; the pay was two thirds, \$1200. It was assumed that women had husbands to lean on, and they had fewer options. The women did excellent work, so more were hired. That was the beginning of the gender dominance – and the systematic undervaluing – of that particular job title. Same skills but lower pay for only one reason, woman were doing it. The discriminatory rate became the prevailing wage, also called the market rate.

That is different than what we usually talk about. When one worker sits next to another and the same title is on their job description, we expect and assume the two will receive the same pay. Not so until 1963 when the Equal Pay Act was passed providing equal pay for women for equal work. And in 1964 with the passage of the Civil Rights Bill and Title VII which banned

employment discrimination against women. Laws were need then and, and laws are needed now, and even with current laws, equal pay for equal work is still not a given.

What we are also addressing today is the prevailing condition for well over half of all women workers - all the workers are the same gender and all are low paid. That is when we need comparable worth laws to legislate a way to even the scales.

Two things do not have to be the same to be compared. We can compare apples and oranges by using any common denominator such as vitamin or juice content, calories, etc. We can also compare jobs by:

- Job knowledge (the education and experience required)
- Accountability (responsibility for people, budgets, resources, reputations)
- Human relationship skills (the communication abilities required)
- Management/Supervision (the responsibility for the work of others)
- Working conditions (the amount of exposure to discomfort and hazards)

The pay equity reform movement proposes that job evaluation systems be used to compare all job using regularly used pay evaluations systems. Pay equity is good personnel policy.

Equal pay can never exist if it is possible to ghettoize women and people of color into traditionally female jobs and, therefore, pay them less than their work is worth. This is a family issue that impacts pensions and social security as well as current household income.

Passage of the NYS Fair Pay Bill (A.2712/S.3936) will:

- Require that job titles where women and/or people of color predominate receive equal pay with comparable job titles. Jobs disproportionately held by women and people of color have traditionally been undervalued in the marketplace and therefore, paid less than comparable jobs with the same level of skill and responsibility.
- Allow employees to voluntarily share salary information without fear of being fired or reprimanded for disclosing information or asking about pay. *The vast majority of workers are employed in the private sector where salaries can be kept secret and employees can be fired for sharing salary information. Without salary information, it is impossible for employees to know whether they are being paid fairly*

Some examples of Job Titles with similar Job Evaluation Points with Different Pay:

Minnesota:

Registered Nurse (F)	275 Points	Monthly difference in favor of male
Vocational Teacher (M)	275 Points	\$537

San Jose, CA:

Legal Secretary (F)	226 Point	\$375
Carpenter (M)	226 Points	

Washington State:

Food Service worker (F)	93 Points	\$332
Truck Driver (M)	94 Points	

What does a \$4000 dollar a year adjustment mean to a woman who is earning \$30,000. N Y women's median income in 2006 was \$33,300, 78.4% of men's and ranked the state 15th in the country. How far does that salary go in paying the bills in the Big Apple? A fascinating study, the Self-Sufficiency Standard, calculates that for one Adult and 1 preschooler to maintain a decent standard of living the family unit needed \$37,000 to live in Brooklyn and up to \$60,000 to live in South Manhattan in 2000. This leaves a substantial gap between earned income and real costs. This means difficult choices between good childcare and necessary healthcare or healthy food. Too, although working hard fulltime, these mothers do not gain the personal satisfaction and pride of "making it."

The world is a different place for the American woman now, recent census data counts 53 million+ woman are single, separated, divorced or widowed smashing the myth that they have someone to lean on. This group is growing twice the rate of married women. They represent almost half of American women. 44% have household income under \$30,000; they are making it own their own and 20% have children under 18 living in their home.

No surprise, for these women Pay Equity a top priority. That's a lot of voters. But studies indicate that not only women rate Equal Pay as an important issue. Author and expert Linda Tarr-Whelan shared this information. "Women's Voices bi-partisan polling with Celinda Lake and Linda DiVall was done in three election cycles by the Center for Policy Alternatives to be sure that the issues women were concerned about were part of the political debate. As might be expected, equal pay was a big issue for women from the beginning and was always at the top of the list of women's concerns. More surprising, however, was that by 1996 men felt that equal pay for women was even more important than women did themselves! The findings were re-affirmed in the 2000 study. Equal pay is a family pocketbook issue, not a woman's issue!"

I will close with a quote from the National Committee for Pay Equity: "This struggle for pay equity is part of America's evolving sense of what is fair and just. After all, slavery was once an accepted part of this democratic nation; union demands were an illegal restraint of trade; married women had no property rights; women workers had no right to their earnings; child labor was common; unequal pay for women was an accepted practice. Society took no notice when job rates dropped as women, instead of men, were hired to do them (librarians and secretaries, for example). Today, most Americans support equal pay for work of comparable value. It is past time to ensure it is achieved."

I thank you for listening and taking strong action to call for the passage of the NYS Fair Pay Act and similar federal pay equity legislation.

FACT SHEET ON PAY EQUITY – Business Professional Women/USA

- According to the 2006 Census Bureau on average full-time workingwomen earned 77 cents to every dollar earned by men. African American women earned 66 cents and Hispanic women earned 54 cents to every dollar earned by men.
- In 2003, median income for full-time workingwomen, 15 and older, was \$30,724 compared to \$40,668 by men. The median earnings for African American women were \$26,989 and the median income for Hispanic women was \$22,363.
- In 2002 the Government Accountability Office (GAO) found that women managers consistently made less than their male counterparts and in seven of the 10 management positions in different industries, the pay gap had increased between 1995 and 2000.
- Wage disparity persists across all educational levels:
 - Among workers 18 and older with some high school education, women's median annual earnings were \$11,650 compared to \$18,043 for men.
 - Among workers who graduated from high school, women received \$19,175 of the \$28,827 in the median annual income earned by men.
 - With a two year associate's degree, women's median annual earnings were \$26,049 compared to \$40,453 earned by men.
 - Among workers with a bachelor's degree, women's median annual income level was \$32,394 to the men's \$50,527.
- Wage disparity persists across all states. Washington, DC has the smallest wage gap with women earning 92% of what men earn, while Wyoming represents the greatest disparity with the average woman making only 66% of what was earned by the average male.
- The wage disparity also grows as women get older. From ages 19 to 24, women earn 94% of what their male counterparts earned, but full-time workingwomen ages 46 to 64 make only 68% of what men earn. Ultimately, women in the workforce will receive \$8,000 less annually in retirement income than their male counterparts.
- If the wage gap was eliminated, annual family incomes would increase by \$4,000 and cut the poverty rate in half.
- Working families lose \$200 billion of income annually to the wage gap – an average loss of more than \$4,000 each annually for the families of workingwomen because of unequal pay.

Good Morning, My name is Gina Bolden-Rivera and I am a past President of the New York Women's Agenda (NYWA). NYWA was established by Ellie Guggenheimer in 1992 in order together diverse women's organizations in New York City under one umbrella to create one voice, one forceful voice that would come together on important issues to women and families and ensure that the issues are heard. The issue of Equal pay, Fair pay and Pay equity is such an issue.

The disparity in pay creates a life cycle of economic hardship for women. It starts out with women earning less than men. This impacts the life that they can provide for their families. It becomes a bigger issue because of the significant number of women in NYC that are living without a spouse. The high cost of living in NYC makes it impossible to survive without public support. The quality of life for these women and families are significantly impacted making it impossible to achieve the "American Dream". The pay inequity continues throughout an entire work life cycle resulting in lower wages to calculate pensions and social security benefits.

Equal Pay. Fair Pay and Equitable Pay is necessary and we ask the Council to help get legislation Passed to end this cycle which we have seen cause economic hardships for women and families.

Albany Office:
604 Legislative Office Building
Albany, NY 12247
518-455-2622
518-426-6894 – fax

District Office:
151 Herricks Road, Suite 202
Garden City Park, NY 11040
516-746-5923
516-746-5926 - fax



SENATOR CRAIG M.
JOHNSON
7TH DISTRICT

Committees:

Local Governments
Ranking Member

Insurance
Consumer Protection
Racing, Gaming &
Wagering

Testimony from Senator Craig M. Johnson

As I said before and say again, there is no excuse why, forty years after the Equal Pay Act, equal pay is not being paid for equal work in this state.

According to a US Department of Labor study issued in September 2007, women earned 81cents for every dollar earned by their male counterparts in 2006.

Study, after study, after study, after study, undeniably and unequivocally establish this point.

More than a dozen other studies clearly prove that a gender and minority pay gap has become a fixture throughout the workforce and is so common that many view it as business as usual.

This wage gap reflects a sex and racial discrimination that pervades our economy.

The losses to women, minorities and their families due to this wage gap are large and can be devastating, not only financial, but emotional.

It is unacceptable in NY or anywhere else, for pay equity to exist.

I am proud to sponsor the Fair Pay Act (S.3966) in the New York State Senate, and fully support efforts to pass pay equity in the New York City Council, or any other municipal body.

Present law clearly has not and does not adequately address the issue of pay equity, and the need for state enforcement of a prohibition of such inequities is right now.

Under my Fair Pay legislation, it will be an unlawful practice for an employer to discriminate between employees on the basis of sex, race and/or national origin by paying employees at a rate less than the rate paid to employees of the opposite sex or a different race or national origin for work in equivalent jobs.

The Act also protects employees by prohibiting an employer from taking adverse action against an employee who seeks to protect his or her rights under this law. Critically, the Act also requires employers to establish records that document wages paid to employees and that document and support methods, systems and calculations used to establish and adjust wage rates. This enables persons and the department of labor to ensure that employees are paid fairly and equitably.

The continuing pay disparity is due chiefly to the lack of salary information that employers are required to keep.

This is a good bill, a sound bill, a bill that has a Same As in the Assembly, sponsored by Assemblywoman Susan John.

Unfortunately, my bill is being held hostage by the current Senate Majority, which gives lip service to pay equity, but refuses to take any real action to rectify the situation.

Pay equity is needed across the state. Enacting it in New York City would be a good first step toward this.

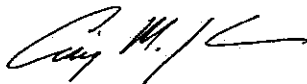
Pass this bill for the thousands of women, people of color, and families whose lives are made more difficult by this institutionalized and systemic pay disparity.

Pass this bill to send a message to Albany that they can no longer hold back pay equality for all.

And pass this bill because it is the right thing to do.

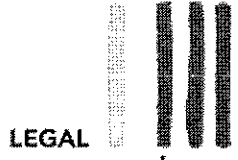
Thank you.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Craig M. Johnson". The signature is fluid and cursive, with a long horizontal stroke at the end.

Craig M. Johnson
State Senator, 7th District

FOR THE RECORD

 <p>LEGAL momentum Advancing Women's Rights</p>	<p>NEW CENSUS DATA: YOUNG WOMEN ARE MORE EDUCATED THAN YOUNG MEN BUT EARN LESS</p>
<p>395 Hudson Street New York, NY 10014-3684 t: 212.925.6635 f: 212.226.1066 www.legalmomentum.org</p>	

New Census Bureau data show that young women continue to earn substantially less than young men even though they have higher levels of educational attainment than young men.

In 2007, 45% of women age 25 to 34 had a college degree (11% an Associate Degree and 34% a Bachelor's Degree or more) compared to 36% of men in this age group (8% an Associate Degree and 28% a Bachelor's Degree or more). However, among full-time, year round workers in this age group, women's median earnings were 14% lower than men's -- \$31,584 compared to \$36,623.

The gender pay gap is even higher when education is taken into account. As the table shows, young women earn 20% to 25% less than men at the same education level, and only about as much as the men at the education level below them. Young women's greater investment in education is clearly paying off in higher earnings – but still not enough to close the gender pay gap. These data suggest that the pay gap favoring men is robust and deeply entrenched in the job market, and that vigorous enforcement of anti-discrimination laws remains essential.

Young Women's Earnings Compared to Young Men's Earnings							
Female Median Earnings as % of Male Median Earnings at Same Education Level and at Next Lowest Level (Full-time, Year-Round Earners Age 25 to 34)							
All Women (\$31,584)	HS Graduate Women (\$23,628)		Associate Degree Women (\$30,171)		BA Degree Women (\$40,231)		
All Men (\$36,623)	HS Grad Men (\$31,550)	HS Dropout Men (\$24,663)	Associate Degree Men (\$38,430)	HS Grad Men (\$31,550)	BA Degree Men (\$50,033)	Associate Degree Men (\$38,430)	
86%	75%	96%	79%	96%	80%	105%	

All the figures herein were taken or derived from the Census Bureau's Current Population Survey ("CPS") for 2007. The CPS is a periodic survey of a nationally representative sample of U.S. households. The CPS data are available on the Census Bureau web site, <http://www.census.gov/>. CPS "earnings" are the amount earned in the prior year, in this case 2006.

(For further information, contact the author, Timothy Casey, Senior Staff Attorney: (212) 413-7556 or tcasey@legalmomentum.org.)

We represent Bottomless Closet whose mission it is to promote economic self-sufficiency by providing interview skills, business clothing, and ongoing career development and support programs to economically disadvantaged New York City women. We are pleased to testify today in support of Resolution No. 896-A and Resolution No. 1152.

Since our founding in 1999, Bottomless Closet has assisted more than 10,000 women as they seek to find and retain employment and overcome the challenges of poverty. Each year we provide support to more than 1,200 women from the five boroughs of New York. Bottomless Closet provides personalized resume counseling and interview coaching as well as a wide range of career and personal development training opportunities to strengthen each woman's ability to find employment, succeed on the job, and positively change her life. By offering support programs to women who are both seeking employment and who have become part of the workforce, Bottomless Closet represents a vital network and resource for women at work. In this economic environment our programming and support become even more essential to our clients.

Statistically almost 90% of the women with whom we work are persons of color, 80% have high school or equivalency diplomas or some college, 77% are single, 65% have children and 70% have been on some form of public assistance. They are young and more mature, married and single, single mothers with the responsibility for their families, second and even third generation welfare recipients. Many of them have been incarcerated or part of drug rehabilitation programs; others have come to us from shelters because they have lost their homes or are victims of domestic violence.

We work with these women every day to help them deal with the challenges of poverty and make better lives for themselves and their families. However, despite their very real success in entering the workforce, there remain issues and barriers that make it difficult for many to leave poverty behind and lead successful lives. Today there are almost 37 million people living in poverty in the United States, more than 12% of our population. According to the Community Service Society of New York

more than one in five people in New York City, approximately 1.8 million are living below the poverty line and another 1.6 million hover just above it. (In New York City the poverty line is defined as \$30,000 for a family of three.) Poverty rates for persons of color are more than twice that of whites; nearly one third of New York City children live in poverty and that number increases to 54% for families with single mothers. And while New York City's unemployment rate fell to 4.6% in 2006 and the job market has been expanding since 2003, in fact, wages of the city's poorest, many of whom are our clients, have declined 3.3% in 2006 and 14.3% since the end of the 1990's.

While we do not have specific statistical information regarding pay inequity between our clients and their male counterparts, we can say the following:

- A large number of our clients earn minimum wage, which puts their earning capacity far below the poverty line in New York City. Their struggle is exacerbated by the fact that they often lack childcare, healthcare and adequate housing;
- According to The National Committee on Pay Equity and the Cornell University Institute for Women and Work, women earn 77% of men's earnings and African American and Latina women earn 71% and 56% respectively. Since all of our clients are women and 90% are either African American or Latina, we can extrapolate that our clients also consistently earn less than their male counterparts.

We agree with the position of the National Organization for Women that if women earned wages comparable to men, their annual income would increase and poverty rates would decline. In particular we believe that our clients, who are attempting to lift themselves out of poverty, would benefit greatly from the passing of such legislation, and we wholeheartedly endorse the passage of Resolution 896 A by the New York State Legislature and Resolution 1152 by the United States Congress.

Speaker: Linda C. Hartley, Vice President
New York Women's Agenda (718) 432-1441 Lhartley@hartley
also former President consulting.com
Women in Development, New York

Statement on Pay Equity for New York Equal Pay Day

Ellen Bravo (see last page)

8118 W Lynmar Terrace

Milwaukee, WI 53222-1935

414-536-8665 (h), 414-916-7078 (cell)

bravo@uwm.edu

www.ellenbravo.com

I applaud all those in New York City who are rallying in support of Equal Pay Day. I'd like to help clarify the real reasons women make so much less money than men – and what we need to do about it.

According to the media, the problem is mainly women's fault: we just don't ask. If we learned to speak up in salary negotiations, pay equity would be a hard cold fact.

An ABC News segment called the negotiation process "something that each of us has the ability to control." Women must take responsibility for themselves. "No employer has an obligation to whisper in the woman's ear, 'Hey, you know, you just lost out on more money because you didn't speak up.'"

This observation leaves out an important reality: The majority of women work in jobs where they have no right whatsoever to negotiate for pay. What's more, many are like Donna, a software developer whose employment agreement lists "discussing salary with colleagues" among a number of "fire-able offenses." Hard to know you're making less than others if you're not allowed to know what the others are earning.

Yes, women need to learn the art of negotiation (and the facts about labor law, which already prohibit salary secrecy, according to the National Labor Relations Board). But blaming the wage gap on women's lack of assertiveness is like blaming sexual harassment on women's lack of snappy comebacks. The real problem isn't that women don't ask for more – it's that *employers pay women so much less than they deserve.*

Why do employers pay women so little money? Because they can, and often because they think they have to in order to compete.

A key problem is that society undervalues the work women do. Many jobs that are now female-dominated, such as clerical work, once excluded females. When men were in short supply during the Civil War, women were hired into these positions at half to two-thirds the wages of men. Women performed well, employers hired more and more of them -- and that discriminatory wage eventually became the market rate. Similarly, the lack of regard for women's work as caregivers in the home set low values for that same work in the marketplace. That's why those who care for our young children earn less than those who care for our cars, our pets, our lawns.

Lack of collective bargaining rights also undermines women's wages. The Big Boys -- those who control wealth and power in this country -- like to say pay corresponds to risk. Yet the *Washington Post* found that one of the poorest paid occupations, nurse's aide, faces a risk of serious injury higher than that of a coal miner or steel worker. Some of the lowest-wage jobs -- often performed by non-white immigrant workers of both genders -- are those with grueling physical labor and the highest exposure to dangerous substances.

Power, not risk, is what determines pay rates.

Also high on the list of reasons for women's low pay is the motherhood penalty. Studies agree that women with children are paid less across the board than women without kids or men of any family situation. The research varies only on how great that penalty is.

It's true that in professional jobs, women *are* less likely than men to initiate salary negotiations. But more important, they're less like to get leads, training, mentoring, opportunities, promotions, and other rewards that lead to higher pay.

Women's pay is also hurt by the way inflation keeps pushing down the value of the minimum wage, since women are disproportionately clustered in minimum-wage jobs, and by the lack of laws requiring equal treatment for part-time and temporary workers, another area dominated by women.

The wage gap between men and women has been stuck at 77 cents on the dollar -- 72 cents for African-American women, 60 cents for Latinas. The Big Boys like to remind women that the gap has narrowed. What they forget to mention is that half the narrowing comes from a *loss of pay for men*, especially men of color -- not what we had in mind by equality. The gap is greatest for women with the most education and longest hours. And the mommy wage gap -- the difference in pay between women with kids and everyone else -- has in fact increased.

We need to change the way pay is determined -- not according to what you earned on your last job, or on how slick you are at promoting yourself, but rather on objective, transparent criteria. Do you have significantly more experience and skill than others in your cohort? Then you should be in a higher job category and earn more money. Your daddy plays golf with the CEO? Sorry, that won't get you a fatter pay envelope.

A number of public policies will also help, starting with The Fair Pay Restoration Act. This bill would reverse the Supreme Court ruling in *Ledbetter vs. Goodyear* that discrimination claims must be made within 180 days after the pay is set -- rather than any time a person is paid at a discriminatory rate.

That's just a start. Here are several other bills pending in Congress that need passing: The Fair Pay Act would require employers to use objective job evaluations and remove gender and race as criteria in compensation. To end salary secrecy and strengthen enforcement of existing equal pay measures, we need the Paycheck Fairness Act. The Employee Free Choice Act would ease the negotiating that matters most, collective bargaining, by removing barriers to union representation. To end the motherhood penalty, we need to ensure that family responsibility is

added to the list of categories protected under anti-discrimination law. And we need to raise the wage floor and guarantee equity for those in non-standard jobs.

Women, do learn the art of negotiation. Groups like WAGE (Women Are Getting Even) offer terrific workshops and information on the web about how to do this.

But above all, learn the necessity of organizing. The best way to get what you need for yourself is to work with others on behalf of everyone for changes in workplace and public policy.

Ellen Bravo is former director of 9to5, National Association of Working Women. This article is adapted from her book, *Taking on the Big Boys, or Why Feminism is Good for Families, Business and the Nation* (The Feminist Press at CUNY).

She is also a professor of women's studies
Univ of Wisconsin, Milwaukee

Center for the Women of New York

Queens Borough Hall, Room 325
120-55 Queens Blvd., Kew Gardens, NY 11424
(718) 793-0672 · Fax: (718) 793-0020
WWW.CWNY.ORG E-mail: centerwny@yahoo.com

Hearing on the Equal Pay Act –New York City Council - April 17th, 2008

STATEMENT FROM THE CENTER FOR THE WOMEN OF NEW YORK IN SUPPORT OF PASSAGE OF THE EQUAL PAY ACT.

You will hear many statements today about pay equity. It has been a matter of record for many years that among women and men of equal background and ability, women earn less than men do. From the time that the U.S. Women's Bureau began to publicize the inequities in earnings among men and women doing equal or comparable work, women were only earning 69 cents for every dollar men earned. In the latest statistics, women still only 77% of what men earn.

This is extremely disturbing when we consider all the publicity that this information has received. Some of the obvious sources of overt discrimination have been removed which explains the decrease in discrepancies. However, the basic causes of sex discrimination in the clustering of women and men in earnings and occupations which limit earning potential lies in some deep attitudes of sex stereotyping that must be examined

In the interest of time, I want to speak to one area in which I became aware and sparked my work in studies of sex discrimination in employment. As a specialist in career guidance and human resources, I worked with the U.S. Dictionary of Occupational Titles. This publication, popularly referred to as the DOT manual was published yearly by the U.S. Dept. of Labor Statistics. Many jobs were studied and given a rating. Taken into consideration were many factors, strength, coordination, training and education and responsibility needed to do the job. This was supposed to be a basic and objective guide for counselors, employers and individuals in choosing professions and determining rates of pay.

However, as we have learned, attitudes of society and culture, influenced many of our educational institutions, testing scores, etc.

I will just mention one area which described the job of the person who worked taking care of small children. Society tells us that the mother or child care taker is one of the noblest and most important profession that any one can do. Going further into my research, I discovered that the child caretaker's job was valued at the same level as a parking lot attendant!

Center for the Women of New York

Queens Borough Hall, Room 325
120-55 Queens Blvd., Kew Gardens, NY 11424
(718) 793-0672 · Fax: (718) 793-0020
WWW.CWNY.ORG E-mail: centerwny@yahoo.com

The Equal Pay Act requires a truly objective study of the jobs in our society and help us to set the tone for government to set the standards for private industry to follow.

I have been shocked to discover that Home Health Aide Workers sent out by Medicare and Medicaid, who can literally influence the health and quality of life for the seriously ill and infirm earn only \$6.75 an hour! The fact that the huge majority who perform this valuable service are women helps perpetuate this inequity. We have seen that when men join a profession, the pay is higher.

The nursing profession was once almost exclusively female. As nurses formed unions and organized for better pay and working conditions, many more men have come into the profession and enjoy more career options..

We urge your support for this legislation.

SUBMITTED BY:

Ann J. Jawin,
Founder and Chair of the Center for the Women of New York

How We Know Comparable Worth is Worth It

Testimony Prepared for the NY City Council Hearing April 17, 2008

by Lois Haignere

Background - I have more than 20 years of experience consulting on pay equity/comparable worth and equal pay in the United States, Canada and New Zealand. I began doing pay equity research as Assistant Director of the New York State Comparable Worth Study completed in 1985. My publications on pay equity include "Tailoring Job Evaluation to Fit Pay Equity" in the *International Encyclopedia of Public Policy and Administration*, "Equitable Compensation: Methodological Criteria for Comparable Worth." (co-authored with R. Steinberg) in *Ingredients for Women's Employment Policy*, edited by C. Bose and G. Spitze.

As a result of a study done in the mid 1980s, comparable worth adjustments (reclassification to higher salary grades based on the gender/race predominance of those in job titles) were made to 239 NYS job titles in 1987. All of the employees in these job titles, over 47,000 of them, received raises.

I recently analyzed the salary gains made by those in traditionally female job titles as the result of these comparable worth adjustments. Here I sight a few characteristic examples.

The 208 people working in the job title Library Clerk 2 and the 813 people working in the Food Service Worker 2 title were raised from salary grade 7 to salary grade 9 increasing their income by over **\$2000** a year. Those who continued to work in these same job titles for the intervening 20 years would have lost over **\$55,000** had these pay equity adjustments not been made.

The 45 people working in the Library Clerk 3 job title were found to have even more salary disparity and were raised from salary grade 11 to 14 for an annual increase of over **\$4000** and a 20 year estimated earnings increase of over **\$109,000**. The Food Service Worker 3 title was raised from a grade 9 to a grade 13 for an annual increase of over **\$5000** and an estimated 20 year increase of over **\$135,000**.

Three 1987 clerical job titles, File Clerk, Typist and Clerk were raised from salary grade 3 to 6, increasing the salaries of over 6000 state employees by more than **\$2400** a year for a 20 year estimated income gain of more then **\$64,000**.

Maybe these pay equity adjustments made it possible for someone to buy their own home or put a child through college.

Those who have been working in job titles traditionally done by women and people of color, approximately 20% of whom are men, who received no comparable worth adjustments 20 years ago, have been and are being cheated daily out of both money and the related feelings of value and self esteem. I am proud to have been a part of what was done 20 years ago. But I know now that we made a big mistake in not passing pay equity/comparable worth legislation as has been done in other states and countries. When there are no legal protections, prejudice and greed will prevail as surely as our bridges and infrastructure will deteriorate and collapse without maintenance.

I'm Jack Tuckner, of Tuckner, Sipser, Weinstock & Sipser, LLP, Women's Rights in the Workplace advocates. We champion the cause of working women who find themselves in some form of diminished state within their own workplaces, simply because of their gender. Women have it tougher than men. As former Presidential Candidate Shirley Chisholm famously said, "*Of my two handicaps, being female put many more obstacles in my path than being black.*" Pregnancy Discrimination cases are on the rise, sexual harassment and sexual abuse cases are holding their own, the glass ceiling has been replaced with steel-strength polymers and the mommy track is running all off-peak local trains to the workplace pink ghetto. *Women have it tougher than men.*

Last year, in *Ledbetter vs. Goodyear Tire Co.*, our mean-spirited majority US Supreme Court *scoffed* at the concept of equal pay for equal work when it showed the door to Ms. Ledbetter because she had the audacity, the sheer, unseemly *discourtesy*, to stand up and speak out for her right to be equal. It had *nothing* to do with missing the statute of limitations period 16 years before when she couldn't have possibly known of the discrimination. And the result actually *encourages* litigation, as every woman who *senses* she may be paid less than men performing equal work must dash off to file a precipitous complaint *just in case* her hunch proves true. The magnitude of unmitigated cynicism and misogynistic leanings that would compel that kind of harmful, tortured logic is truly impressive and hard to comprehend in the absence of malice and avarice.

Our reactionary political environment is hostile to all progressive notions of fairness, equality and equal access to justice and power. Our most esteemed judicial tribunal, the Supreme Court, is openly contemptuous of an individual citizen's right to speak truth to power, to question authority, to hold corporaticians accountable for their excesses, if not their crimes. As a nation, we've morphed from a Democracy into a Corporatocracy, as BBB's (Big Business Behemoths), aided and abetted by our *corporate media*, have redistributed wealth and power upward toward itself and *away from us*. We're all commodities and we're all for sale, even if we're selling *Girls Gone Wild* videos on prime-time network television. And people of color, and the GLBT community, and people with disabilities, and people in prison for using drugs unapproved by the pharmaceutical/medical complex, *all have less value*. And of course, women—women have less value than men. *Women have lower human capital than men. Women.* Our mothers, our daughters, our sisters, our wives, our girlfriends, *our selves*. Women consistently suffer degraded terms and conditions of employment based on sex alone and women regularly experience corporate retaliation when they do finally have their *Rosa Parks moment* and refuse to accept the fate chosen for them by others.

What can we do about it? We can and must insist on legally required equal treatment. We can *insist* that we not be objectified at work. We can insist that our leaders must care about more than profit and loss statements, and we can insist that they appoint judges who actually heed the rule of law with a view toward determining truth and fairness. Judges who would care that the legislative intent of the Equal Pay Act and Title VII was to serve the fundamental purpose of eliminating pay discrimination, as opposed to straining for reasons to deny redress as it may actually require the administration of justice. We must bring a certain *male energy* to the quest for remediation. We must be assertive, if not downright aggressive. To paraphrase Pulitzer winner Laura Thatcher Ulrich, "*well-behaved women (and the men who admire them) rarely make history.*"

In our ongoing struggle for true economic parity between men and women, the laws are our weapons and the courts our battlefields. Without the weaponry of our laws, we lose all the battles and the war by default. We never even get to leave the house. We surrender to the vagaries and whimsy of those who would rule us. The two federal laws offering protection on the basis of sex, The Equal Pay Act of 1963 and The Civil Rights Act of 1964, are famously complicated statutes,

judges let alone the average would-be Plaintiff or juror. In the *Ledbetter* decision, the Supreme Court has effectively eviscerated the law in its entirety, ruling that the Equal Pay Act is only available to those fleet-of-foot women who race to the courthouse door within 180 days of the first violation of the law. Never mind that the Court disingenuously rejected the fact that most women, such as Lilly Ledbetter, could not *possibly* have known of the pay violation when it first occurred, and the injustices not only continued unabated, but of course increased exponentially with each new paycheck violation over the many years. No justice for you, ungrateful, indelicate girl.

So, we need to enact new laws to empower working women replete with full wage disclosure elements as well as an enforcement mechanism with teeth. We need to continue to impolitely insist on our right to be paid equally and we must insist on expanded *Family Responsibility* legal protections so men and women may *share* domestic and familial responsibilities as a team. The *Ledbetter* decision has done considerable damage already. Roughly 175 state and federal courts have already cited the decision in cases that inflict one injustice after another on individual employees and their families, and *Ledbetter* was just decided 11 months ago. More government largess (and corporate welfare) for needy multinational conglomerates.

The Fair Pay Restoration Act (the Senate counterpart to *The Ledbetter Fair Pay Act*, which has already passed the House) clarifies Congress' original intent in Equal Pay Act cases that every unequal paycheck should count as a discriminatory act that supports a lawsuit under Title VII.

The NYS Fair Pay Act would provide workers in NY with a strong, enforceable state law to prohibit companies from paying employees less because of gender and race. The Act provides freedom of speech for all New York state employees regarding their salaries. Employees will be able to share salary information with co-workers without fear of reprisal. It also assures that in positions where women and people of color predominate, equal pay for work of equal value will be the rule of law.

Both bills routinely pass in the federal and state House and Assembly, respectively, but stall or die before the Senate. We don't need another "study" to determine if there's a gender pay gap. Let's continue to use our charms and powers of persuasion to convince those within our circles of influence that it's time for true equality. And in an expanding Corporatocracy, equality is mostly measured by the devalued US Currency that you can command.

Presented by:

Jack Tuckner, Esq.

Tuckner, Sipser, Weinstock & Sipser, LLP

Women's Rights in the Workplace Advocacy

120 Broadway, 18th Floor

New York, NY 10271

212.766.9100

<http://womensrightsny.com>

jtuckner@womensrightsny.com

What happened to me is not only an insult to my dignity, but it had real consequences for my ability to care for my family. Every paycheck I received, I got less than what I was entitled to under the law. The Supreme Court said that this didn't count as illegal discrimination, but it sure feels like discrimination when you are on the receiving end of that smaller paycheck and trying to support your family with less money than the men are getting for doing the same job. And according to the Court, if you don't figure things out right away, the company can treat you like a second-class citizen for the rest of your career. That isn't right. Lilly Ledbetter

The Economic Status of Working Women in New York

**A Report from
The Howard Samuels Center**

July 2007

Marilyn Gittell
and
Bill McKinney

with
Julio Huato
Terese Lawinski
Allison Churilla
Sanjukta Chaudhuri
Effie MacLachlan



Howard Samuels Center
Advancing Democracy in Communities

The Graduate Center, CUNY
365 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10016

www.howardsamuelscenter.org

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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).

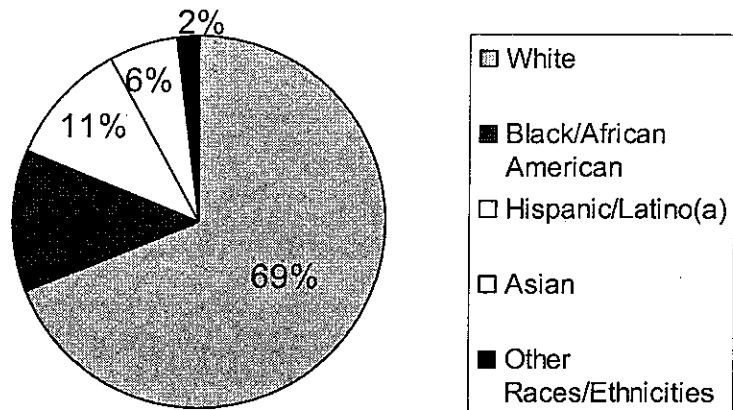
In an effort to gain an understanding of some of the factors associated with women's economic disparity in New York State, The Howard Samuels Center of the City University of New York (HSC) undertook a study of United States Census labor force statistics. This report is a product of our analysis of United 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.

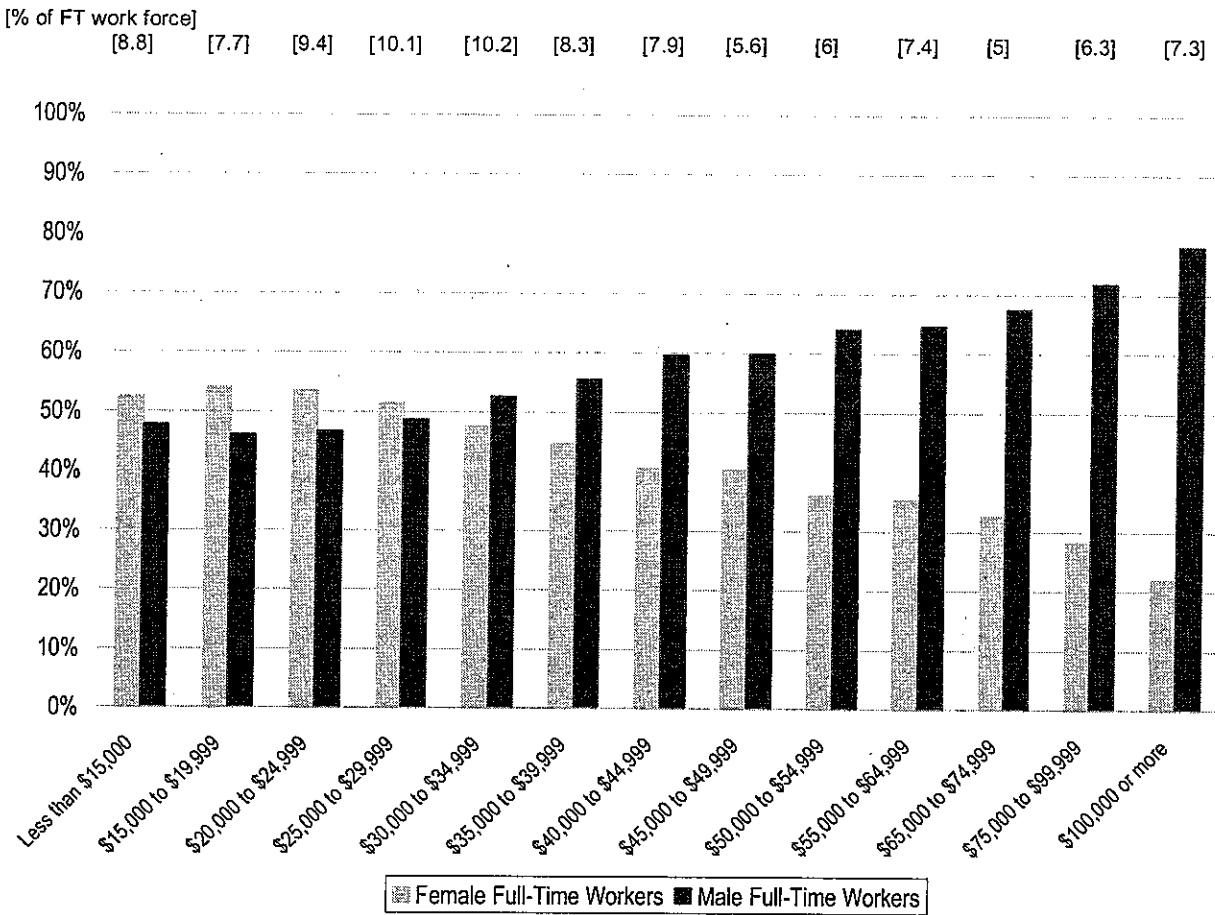
Utilizing the PUMS data, we have found numerous labor force disparities, which are discussed throughout this report. One such instance is our analysis of the earnings of full-time New York workers. An analysis of full-time workers' earnings measured in \$5,000 increments (see Figure 2, Earnings of Full-Time 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

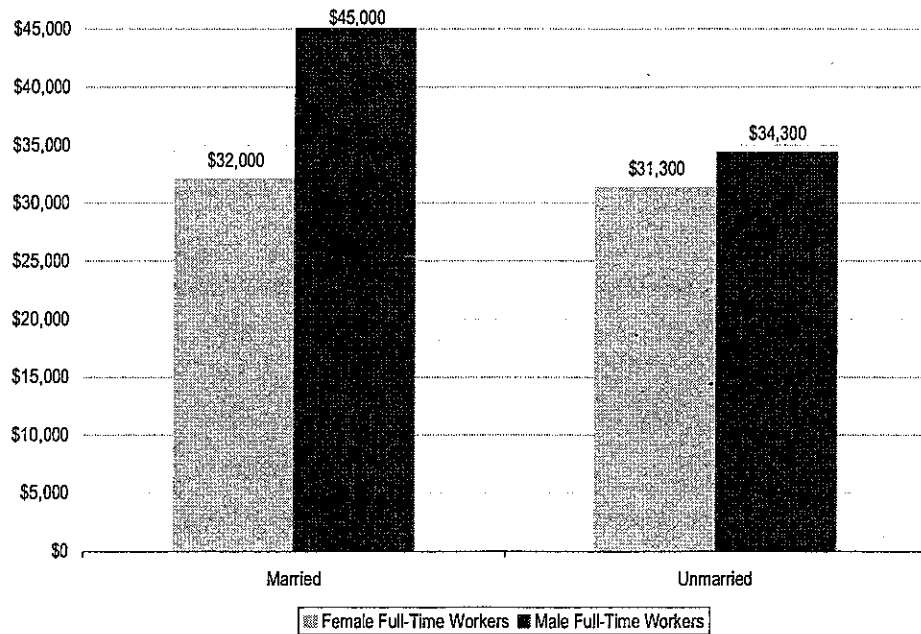
A comparison of the median annual earnings for full-time workers by marital status reveals that, in the aggregate, there is little difference between married and unmarried women's median annual earnings, whereas married men's median annual earnings are approximately \$10,000 higher than unmarried men's.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

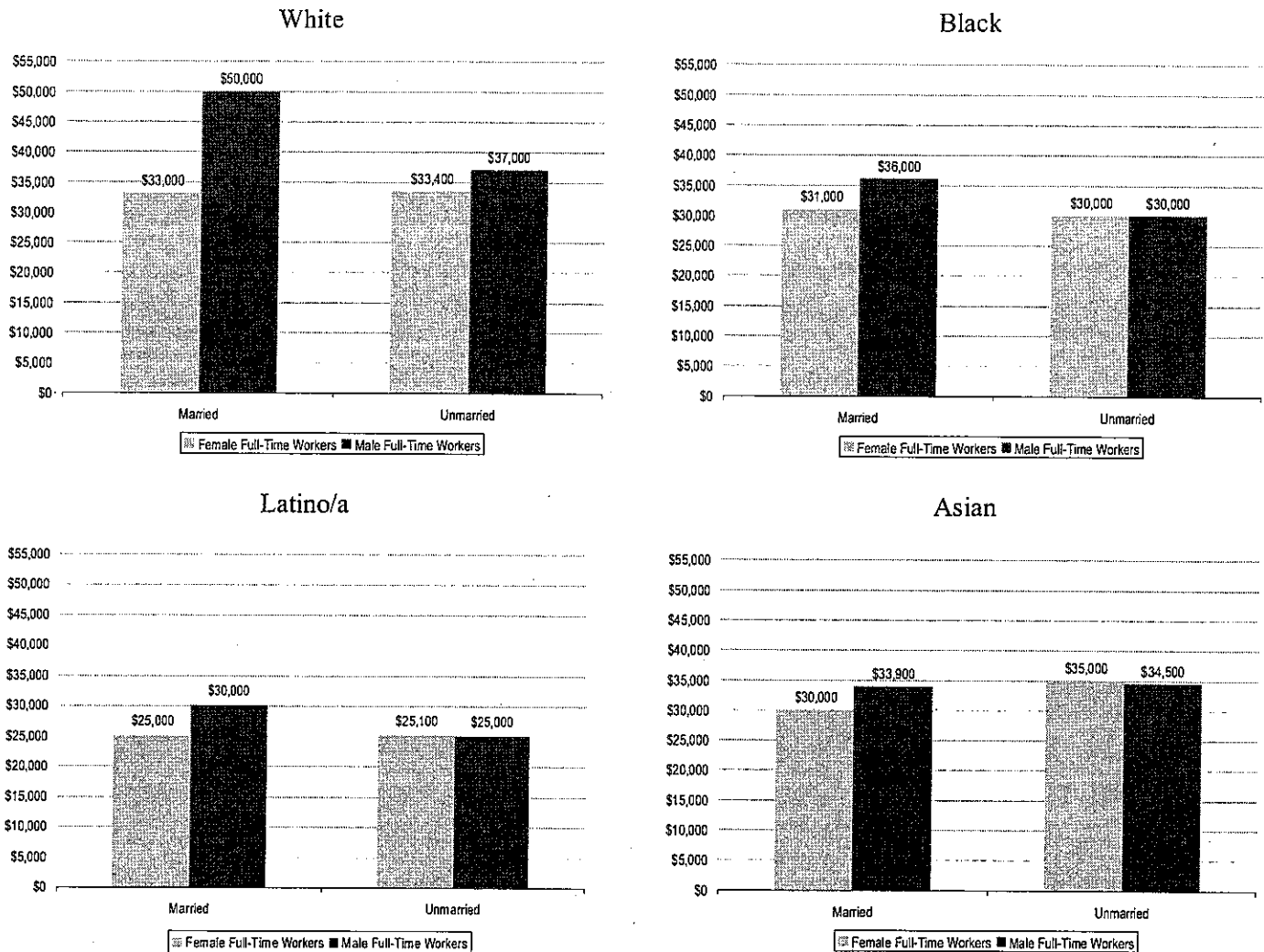
Figure 3: Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time Workers by Marital Status



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



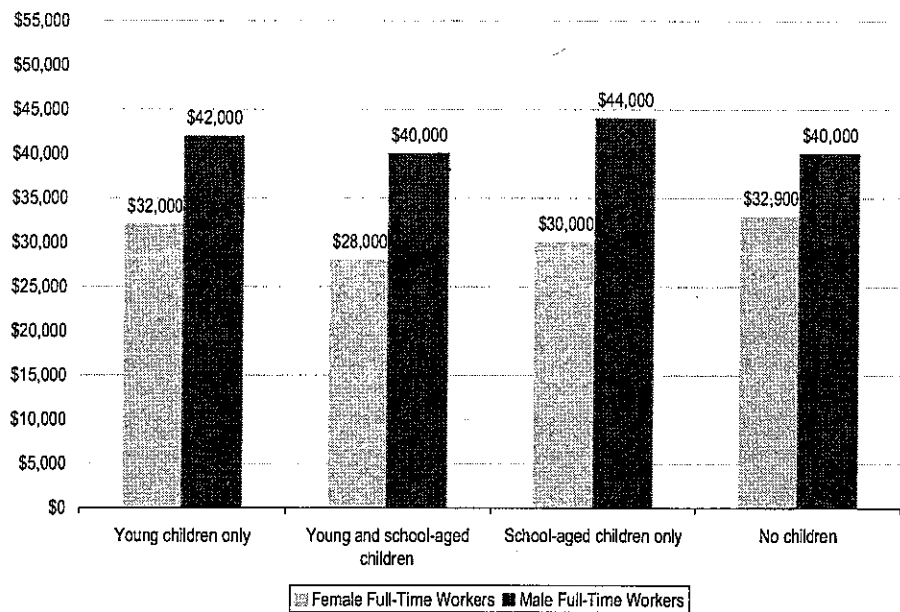
declining based on changing family forms, changes in the household, and women’s increased labor force participation (Cohen 2002).

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.

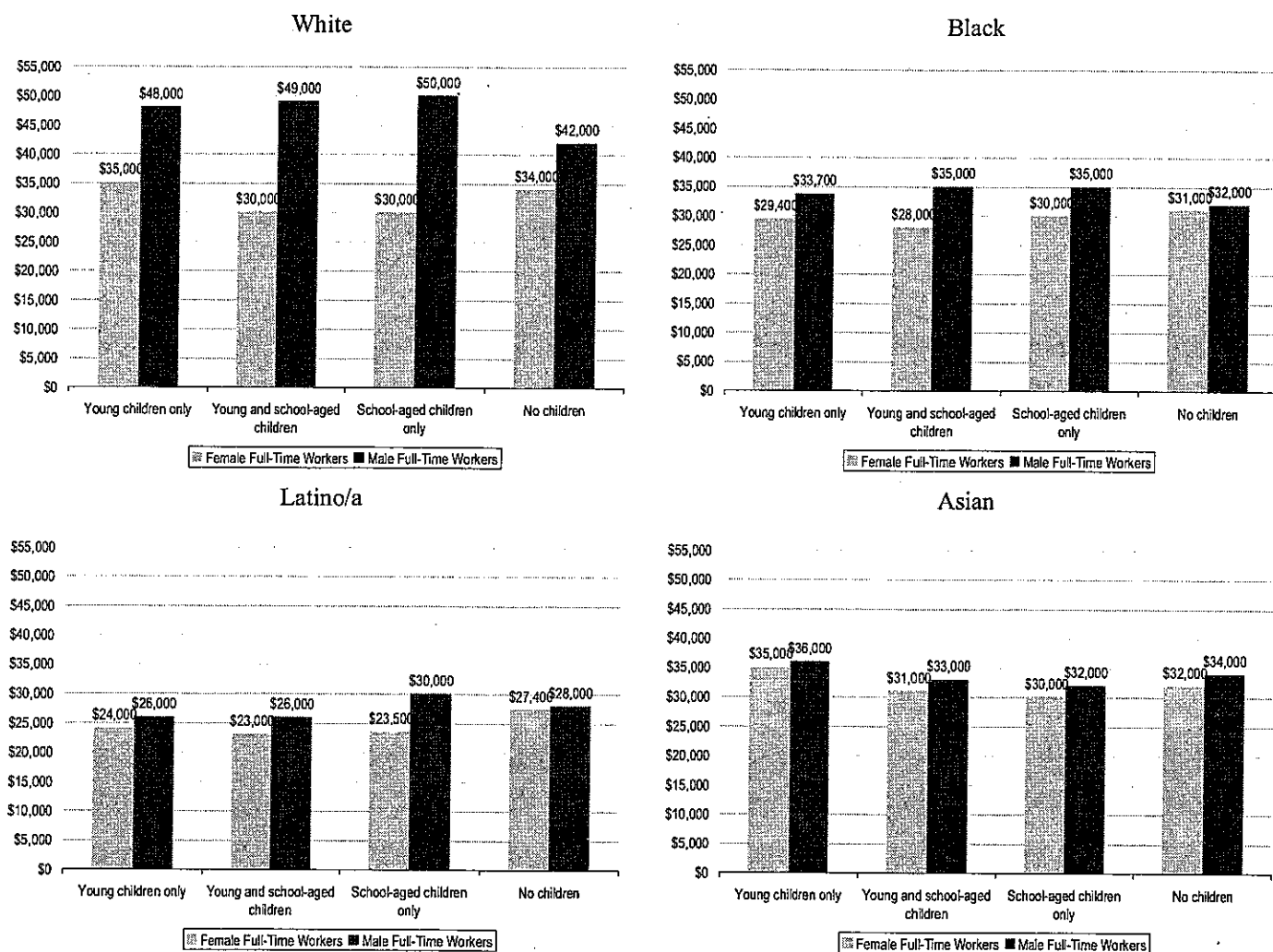
In the aggregate data, we saw that the annual earnings of men either remained flat or were higher with the presence of children. However, when the data is disaggregated by race/ethnicity, this finding pertains to only White and Black men. The median annual earnings of Latino men without children in the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

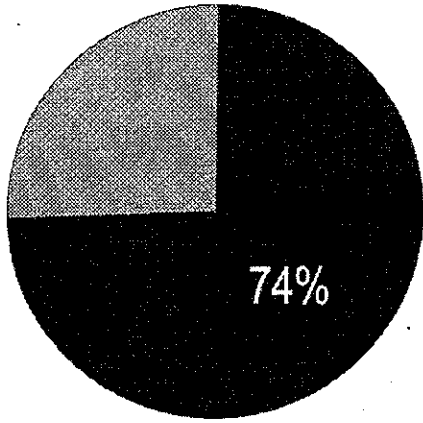
Among women who have children, unmarried women of all races and ethnicities have greater earnings parity with their male counterparts than do married women. The most striking finding is that the earnings ratio of unmarried Asian women with children is 29 percentage points higher than their male counterparts,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

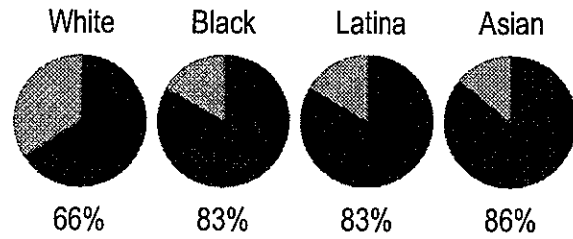
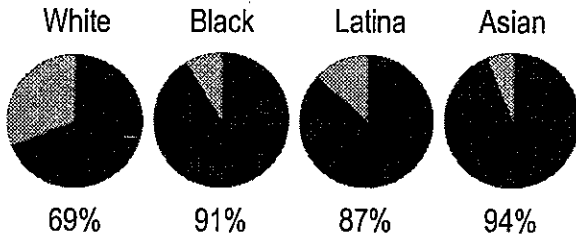
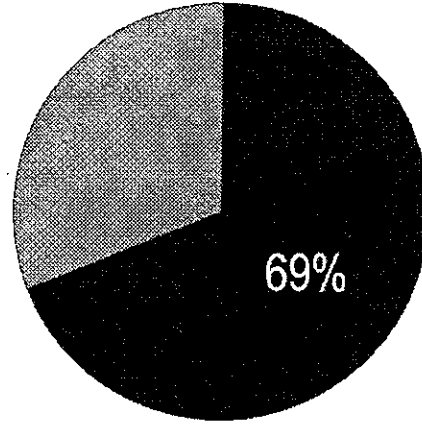
In sum, when the relationship of marriage and the presence of children is measured in this way, that is, women's full-time median annual earnings as a proportion of men's, the earnings gap is more closely related to marriage than to the presence of children.

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

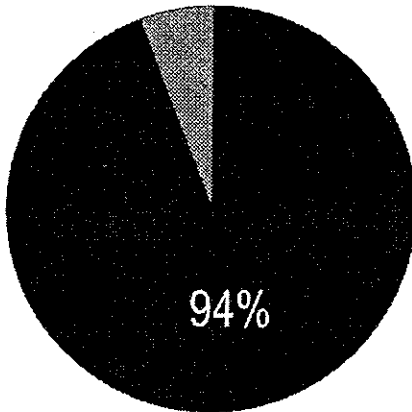
Married without Children



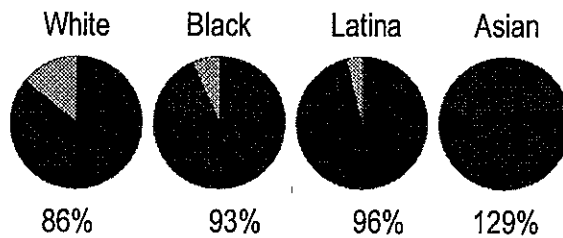
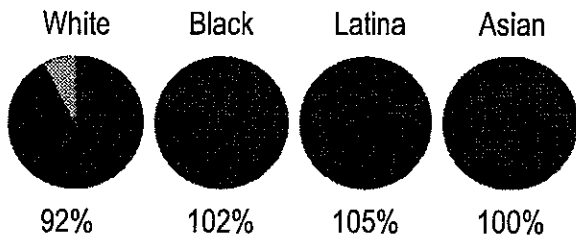
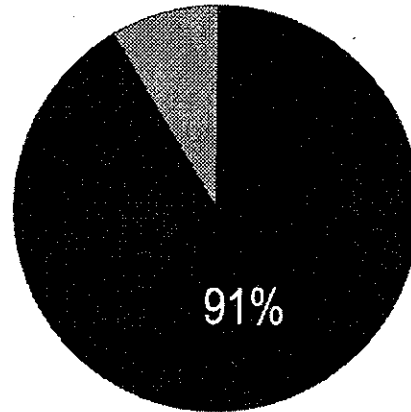
Married with Children



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

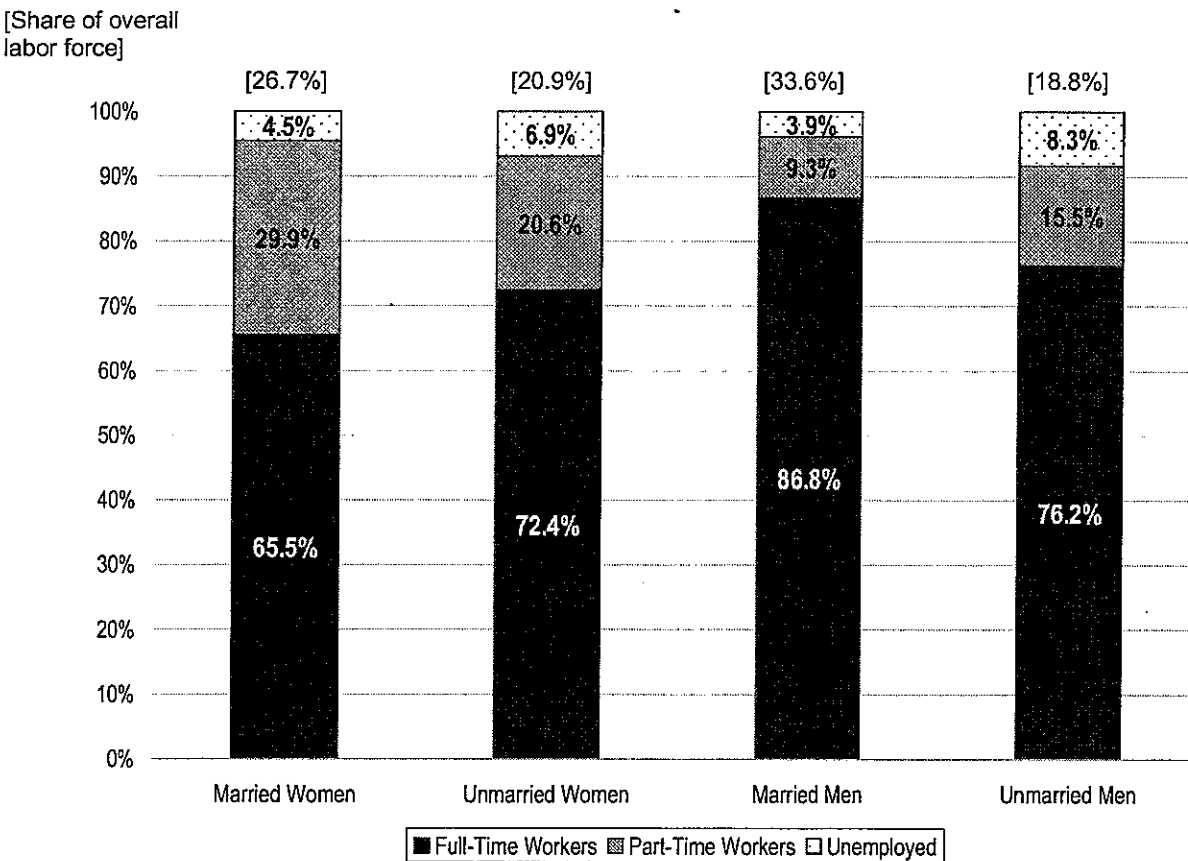
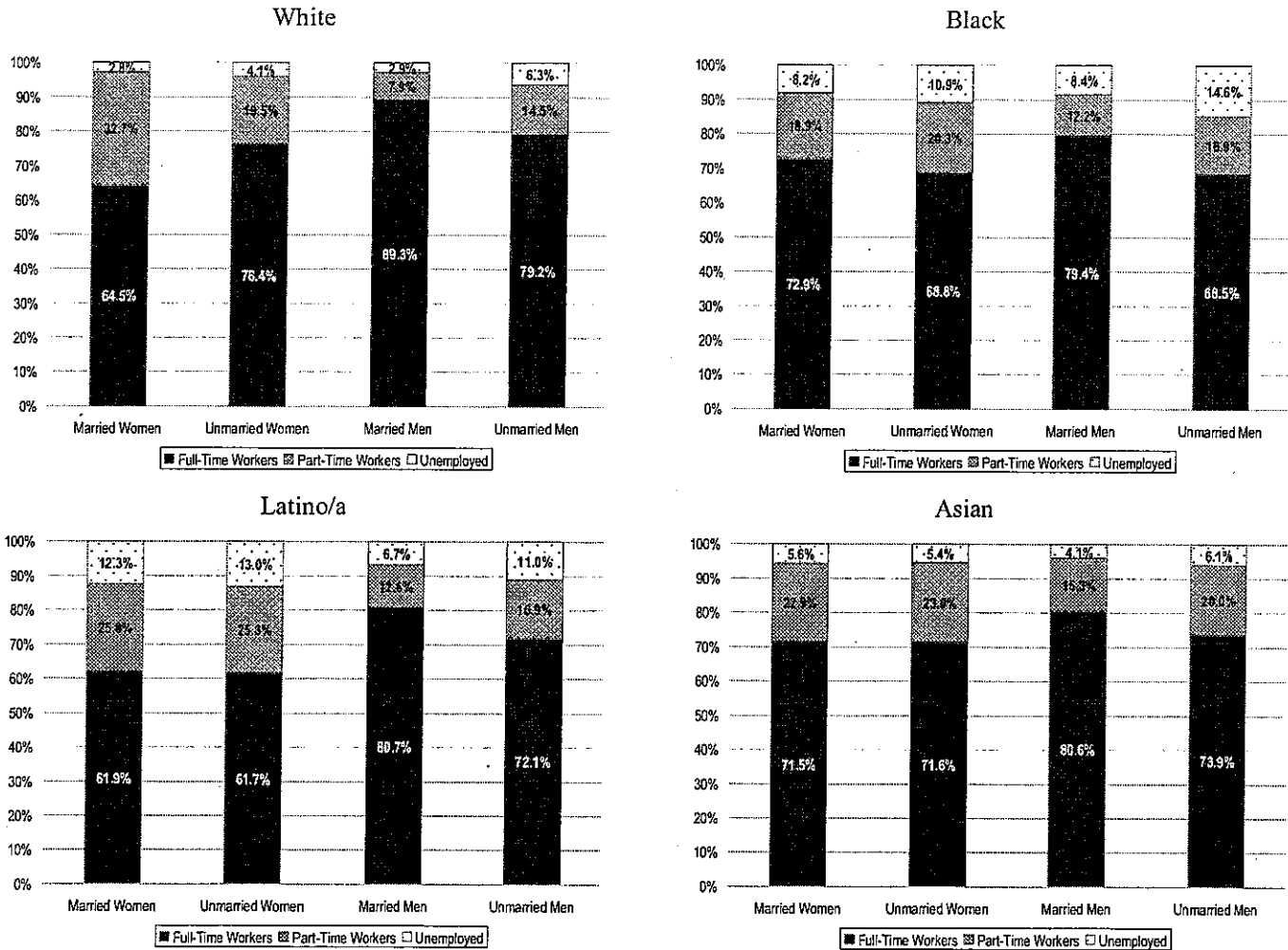


Figure 9: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status by Marital Status — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



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

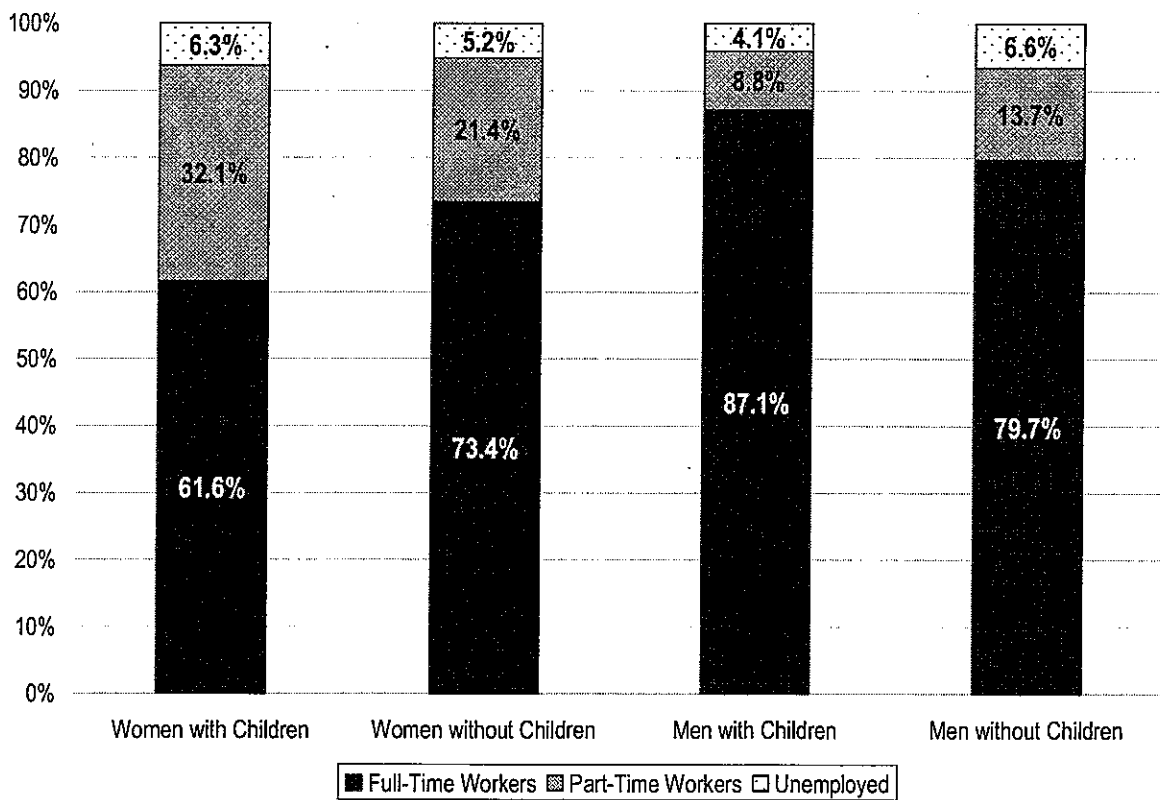
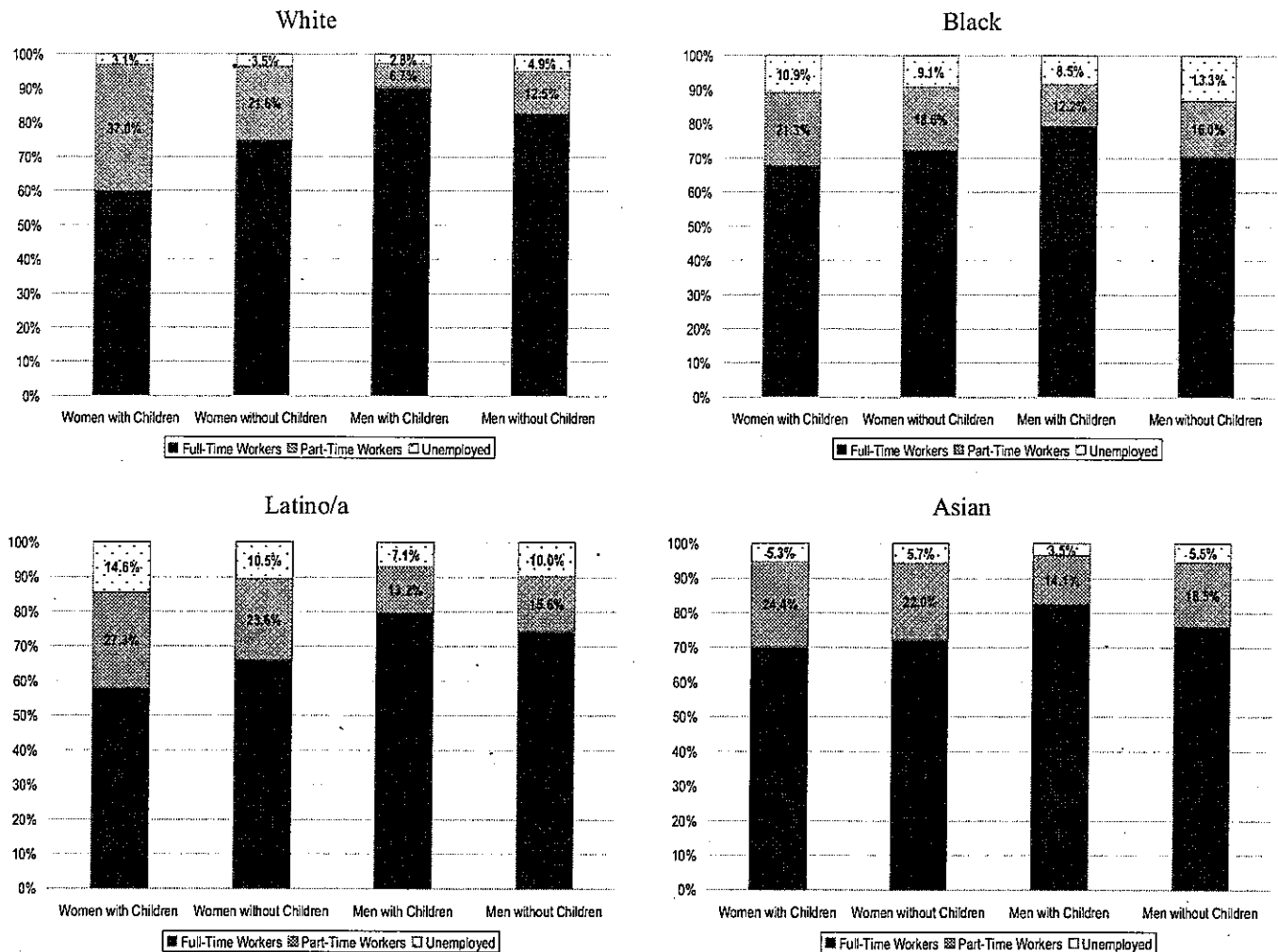


Figure 11: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status and the Presence of Children — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



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.

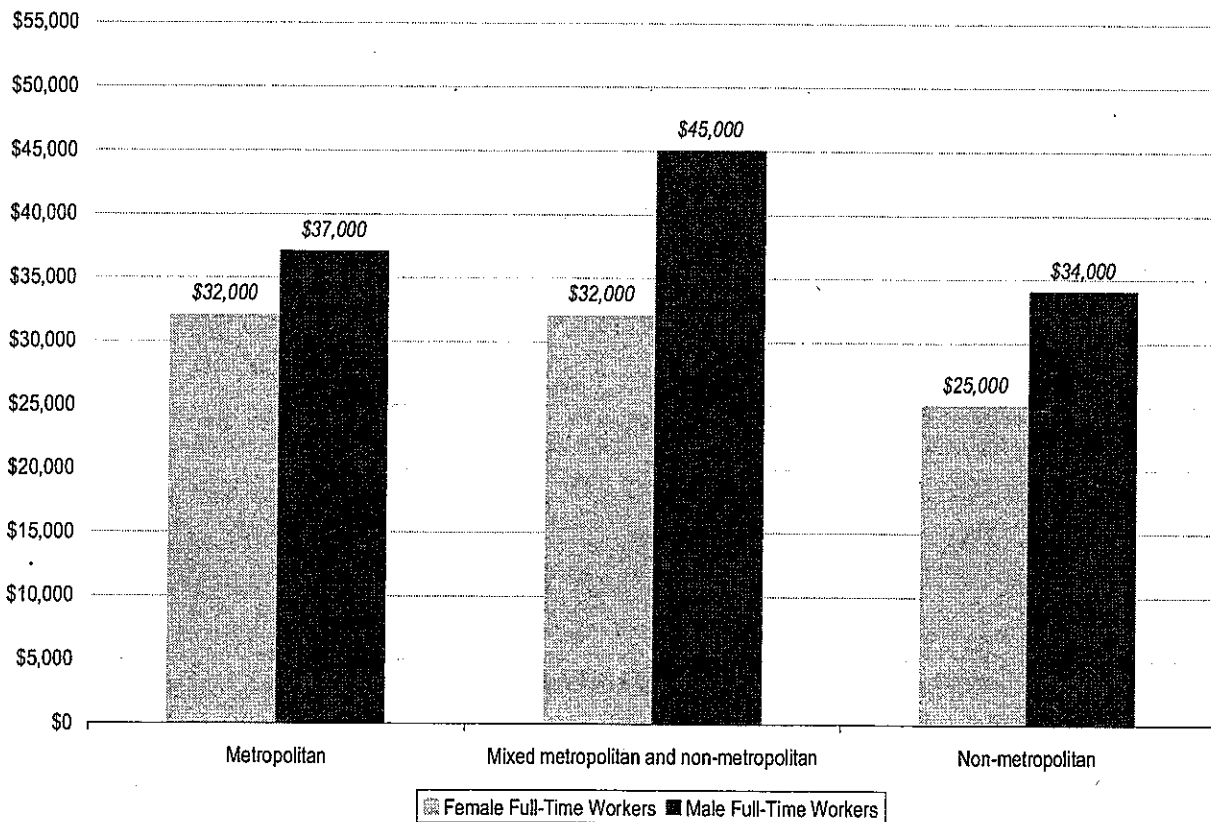
⁵See appendix for an explanation of how these geographic areas are defined.

⁶It 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

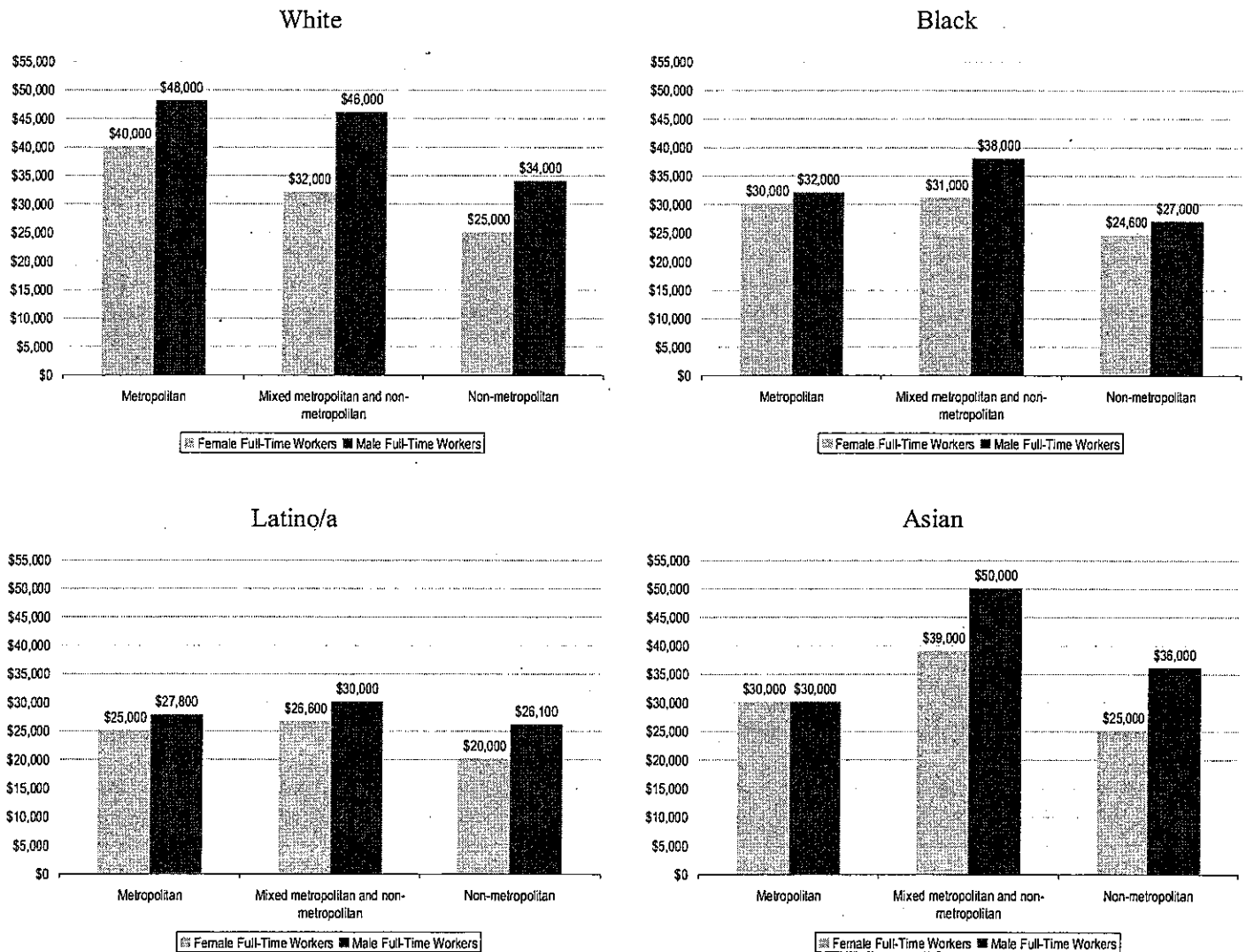
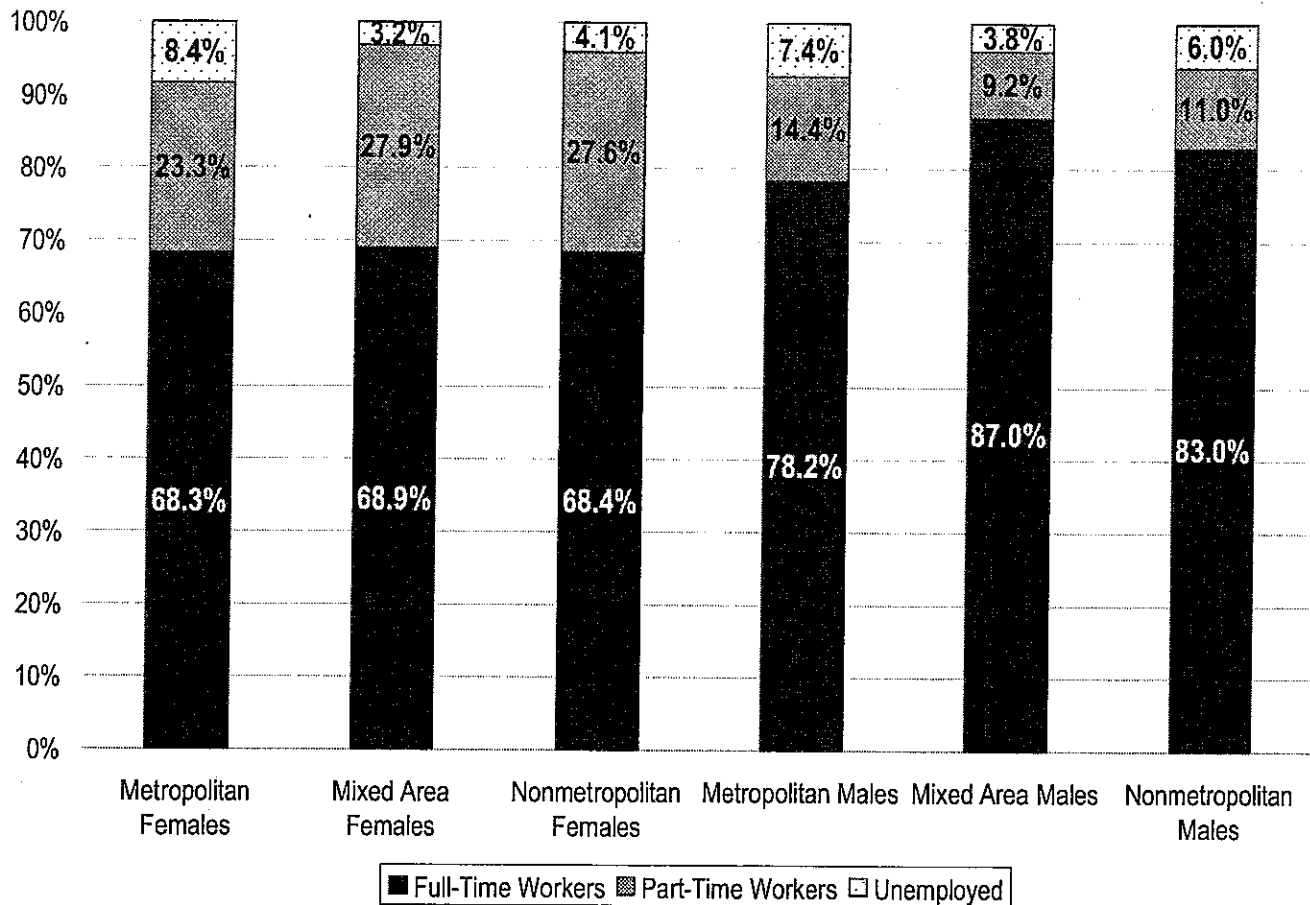


Figure 14: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status in Metropolitan, Mixed Metropolitan/Non-Metropolitan and Non-Metropolitan Areas



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

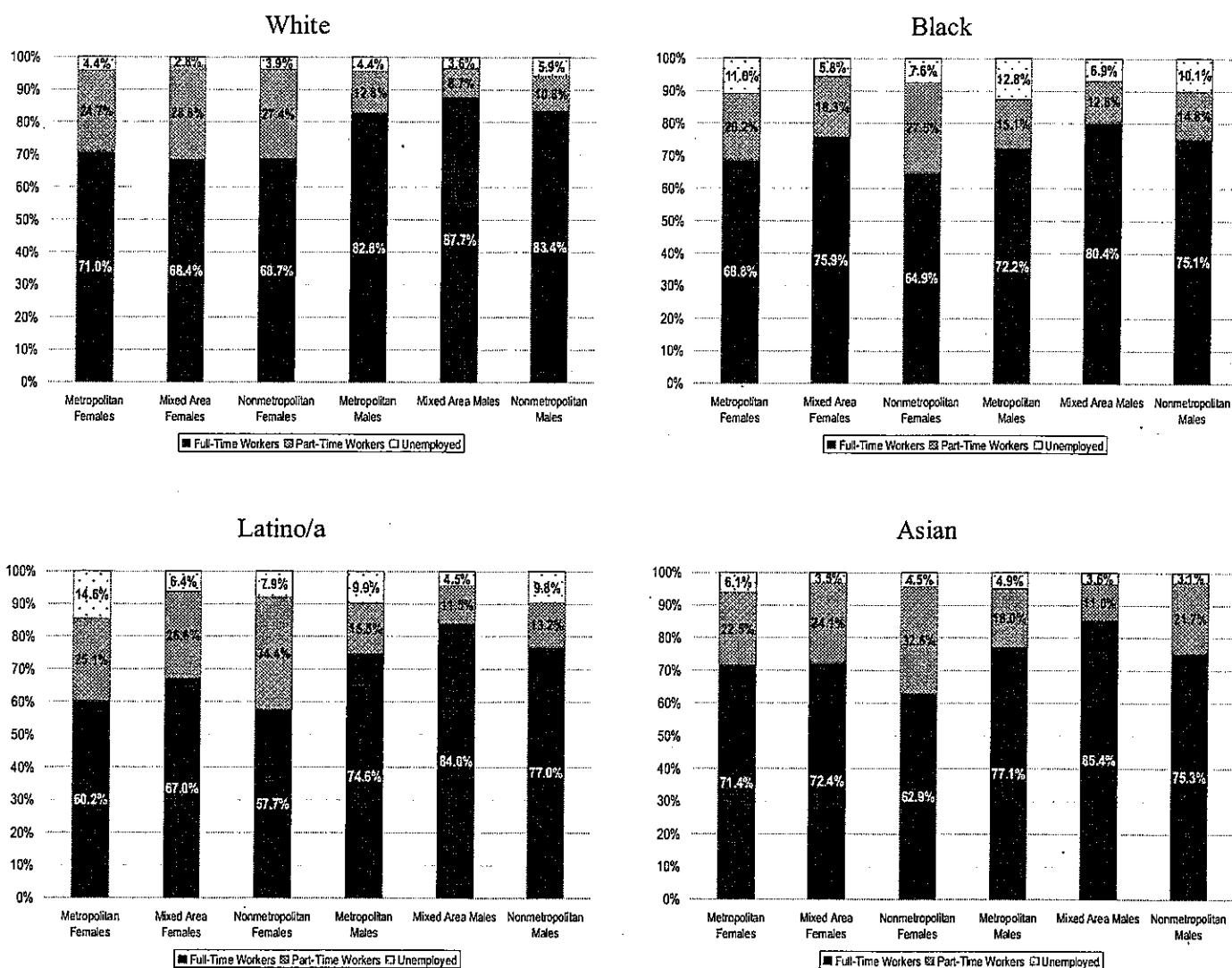
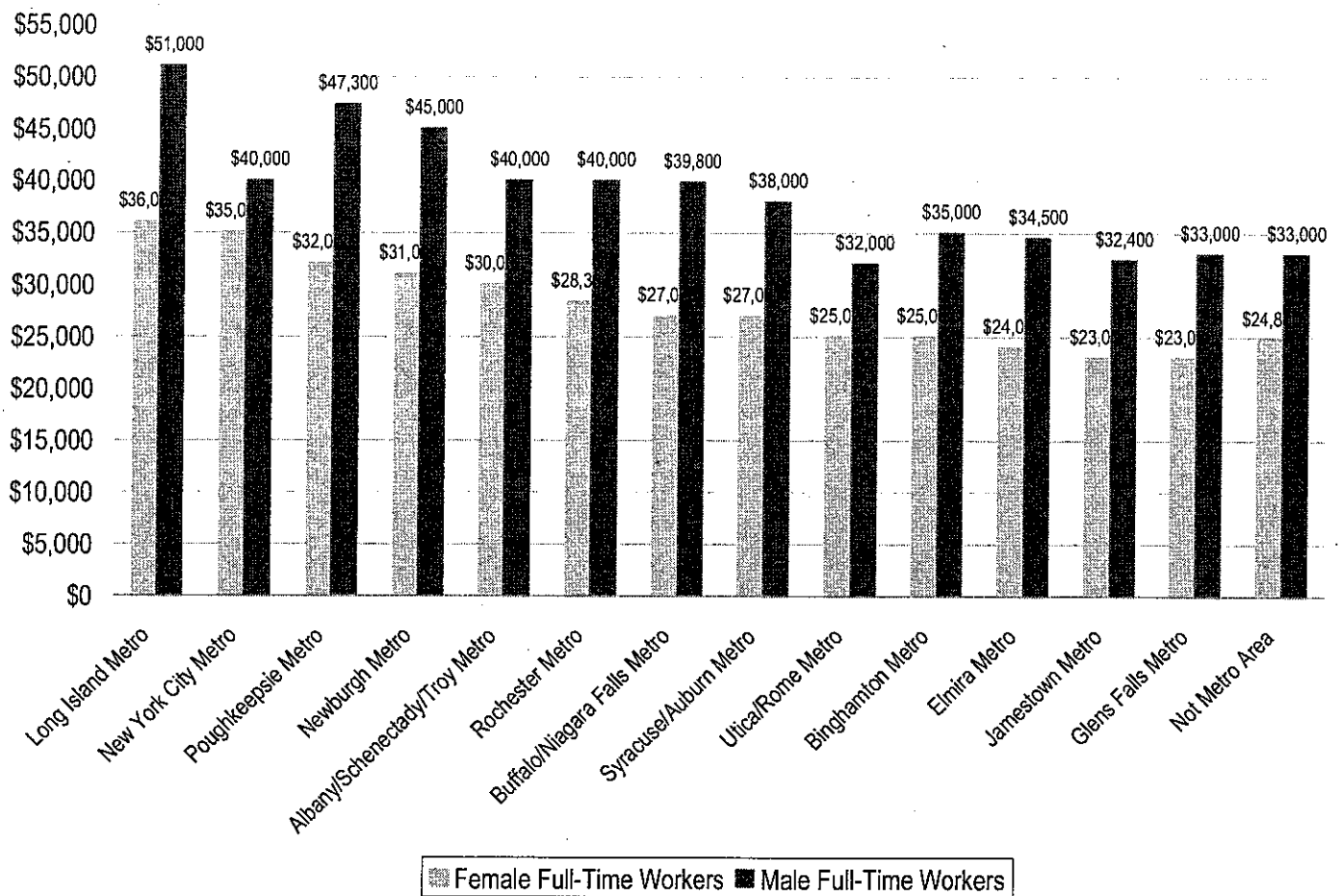


Figure 16: Women’s and Men’s Median Earnings in New York State Metro Areas



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

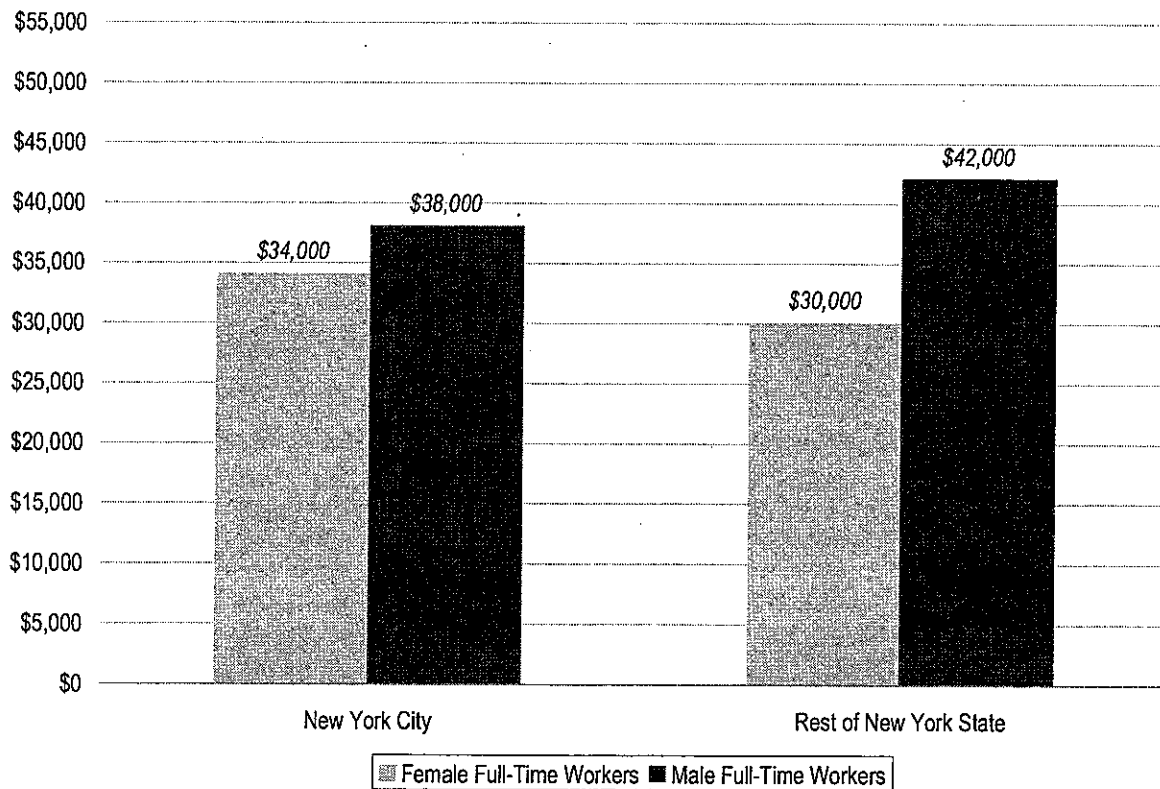
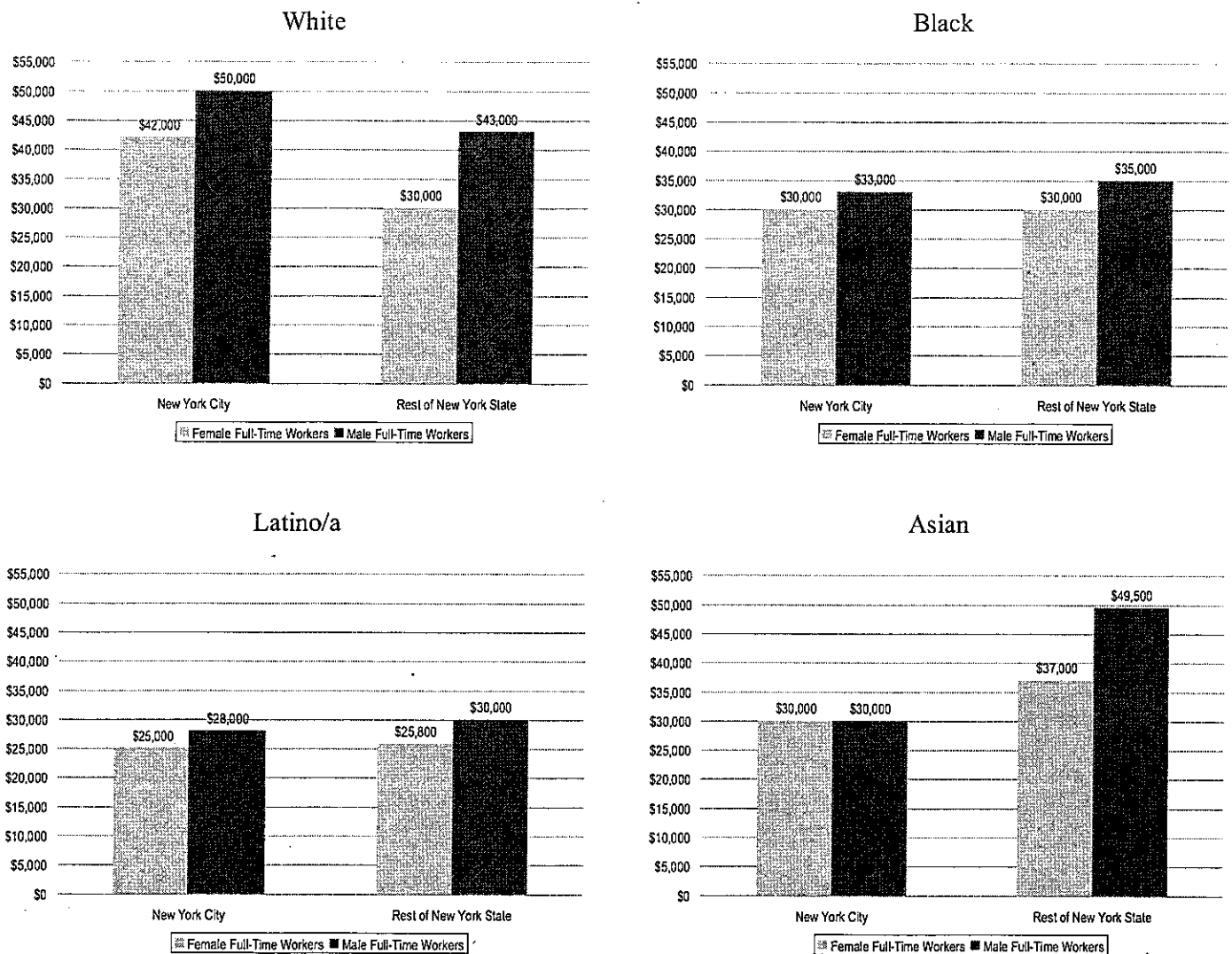


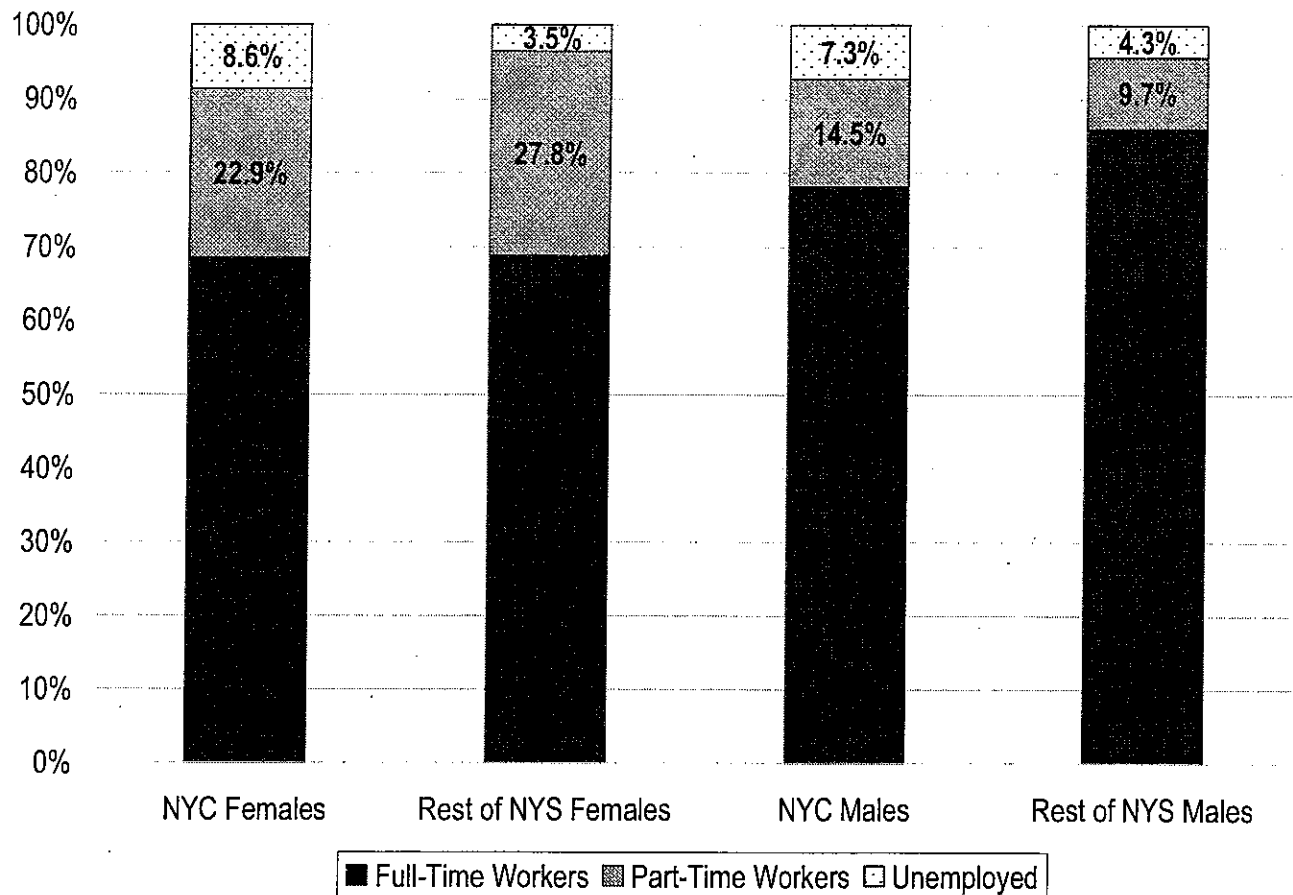
Figure 18: Women’s and Men’s Full-Time Median Annual Earnings, New York City vs. Rest of New York State — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



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%.

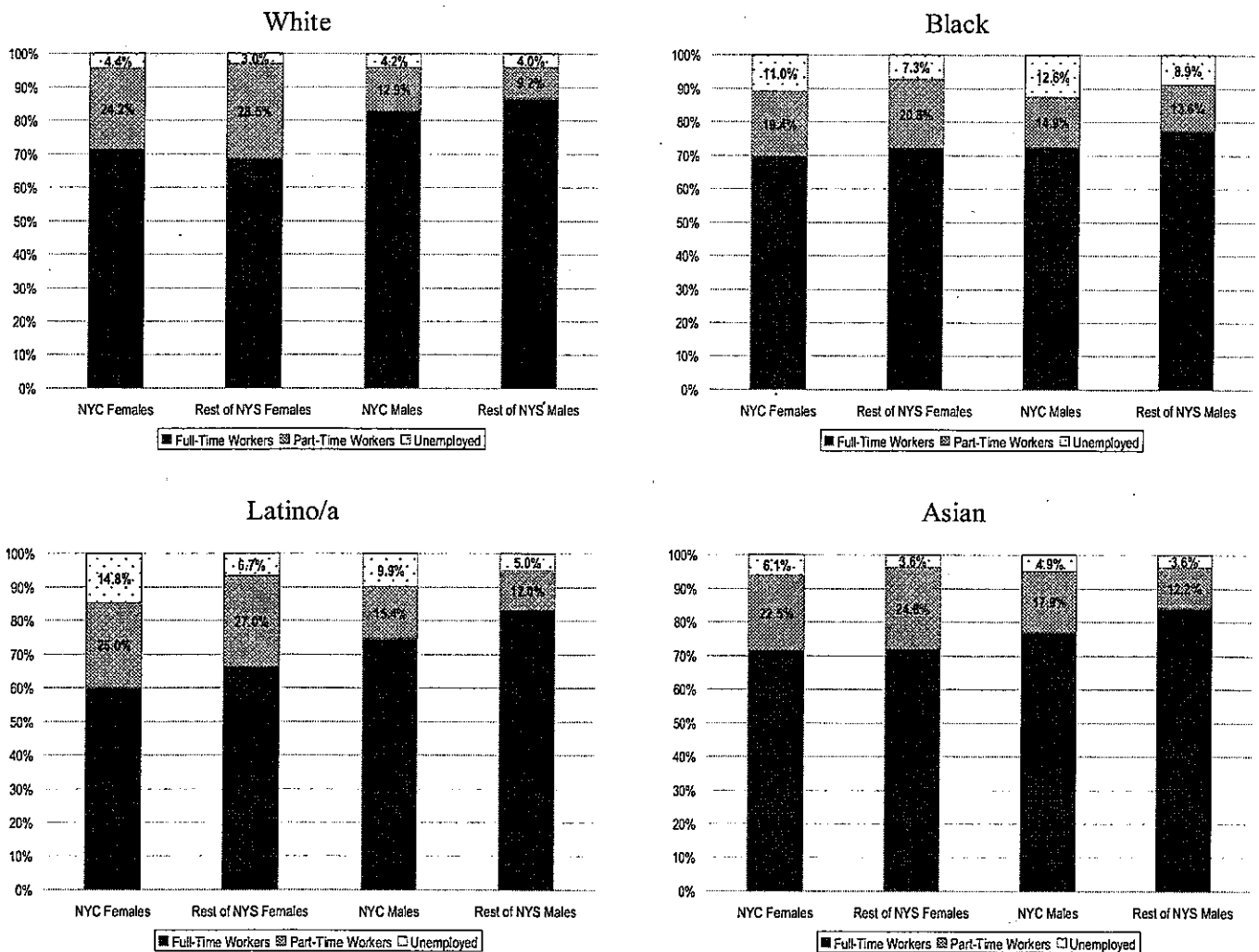
Comparing the employment status of women and men across the state we find that the full-time employment rate for women is comparable in New York City and the rest of the state. (Figure 19, Women’s and Men’s Employment Status in New York City vs. Rest of New York State). However in New York City women’s 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 be 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 earnings 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.

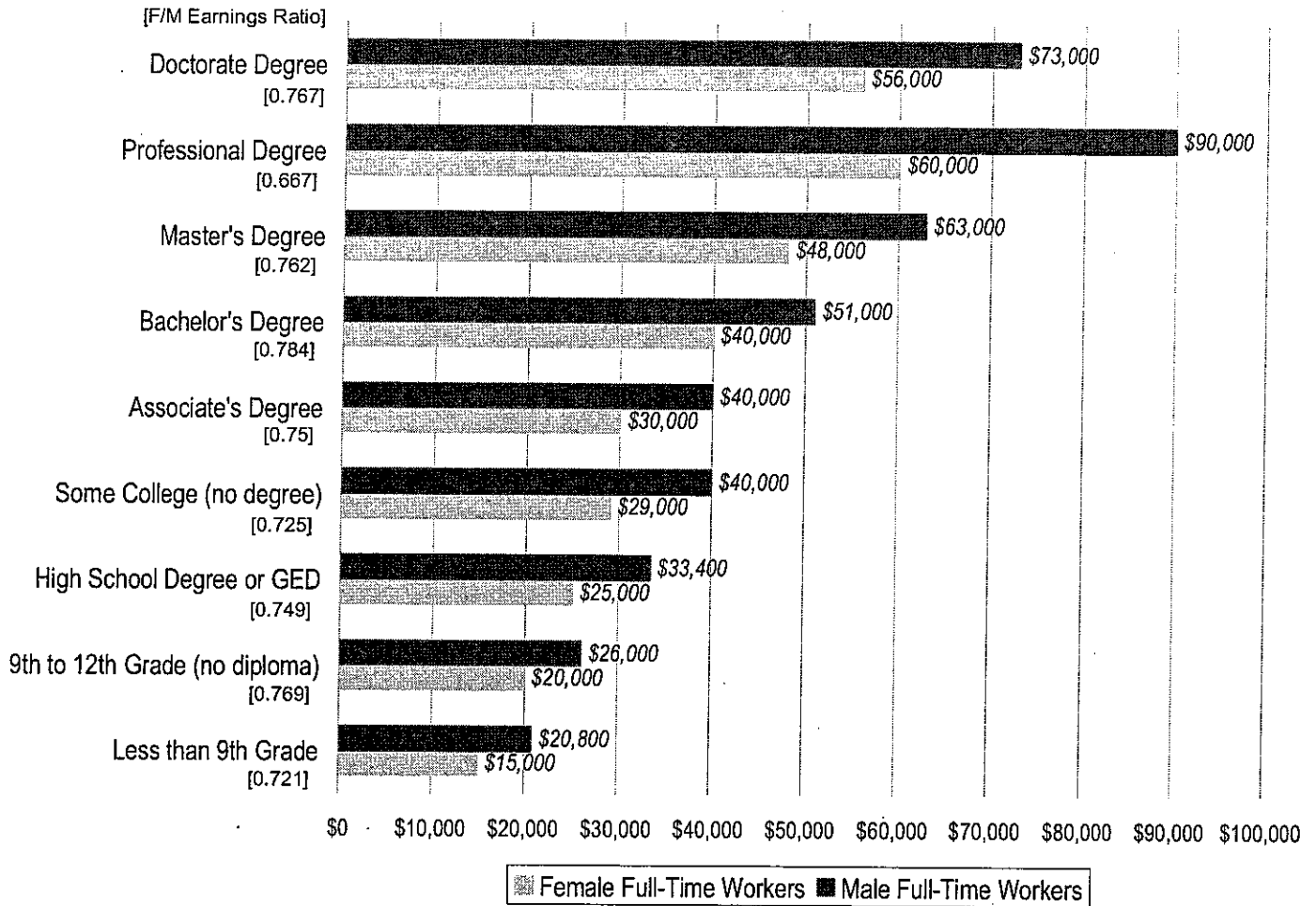
Figure 21 (Median Annual Earnings for Full-Time Workers by Educational Attainment) presents a comparison of median annual earnings of full-time workers according to their educational attainment. In New York State annual earnings steadily increase in relation to the acquisition of education for both women 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

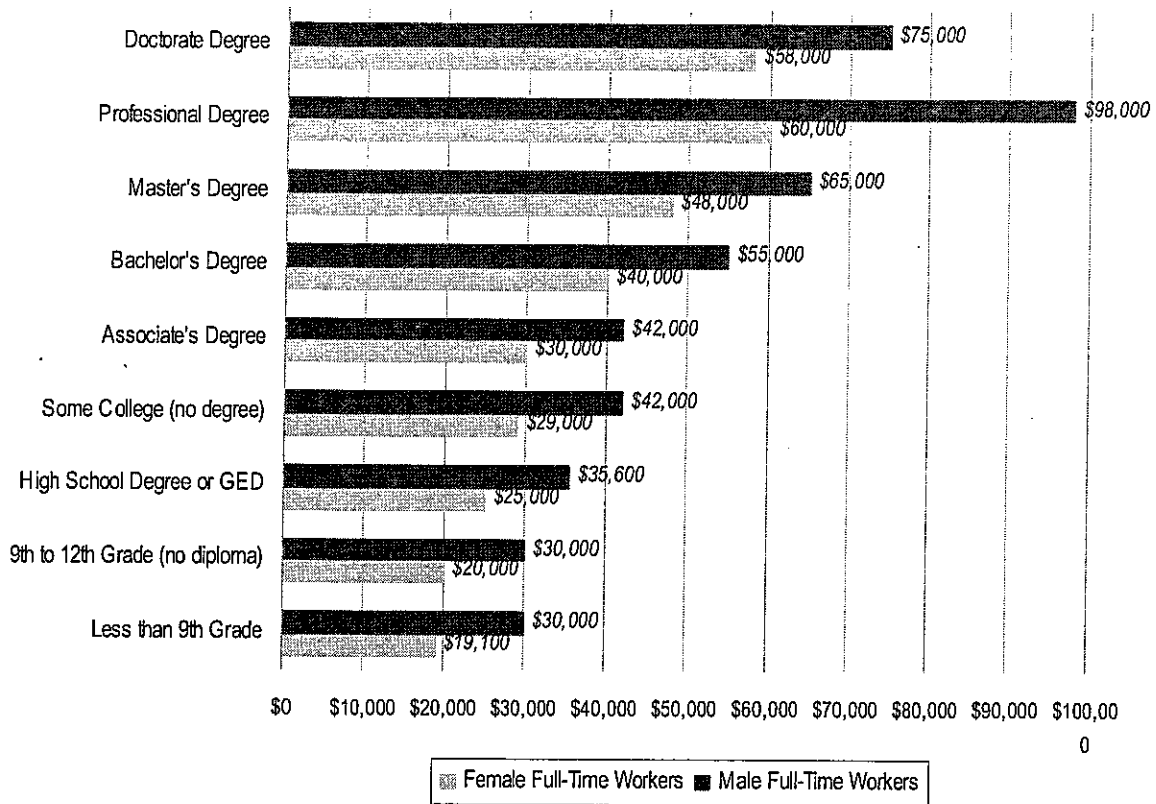


B. Labor Market Segregation – Public, Private, and Self-Employed Sectors

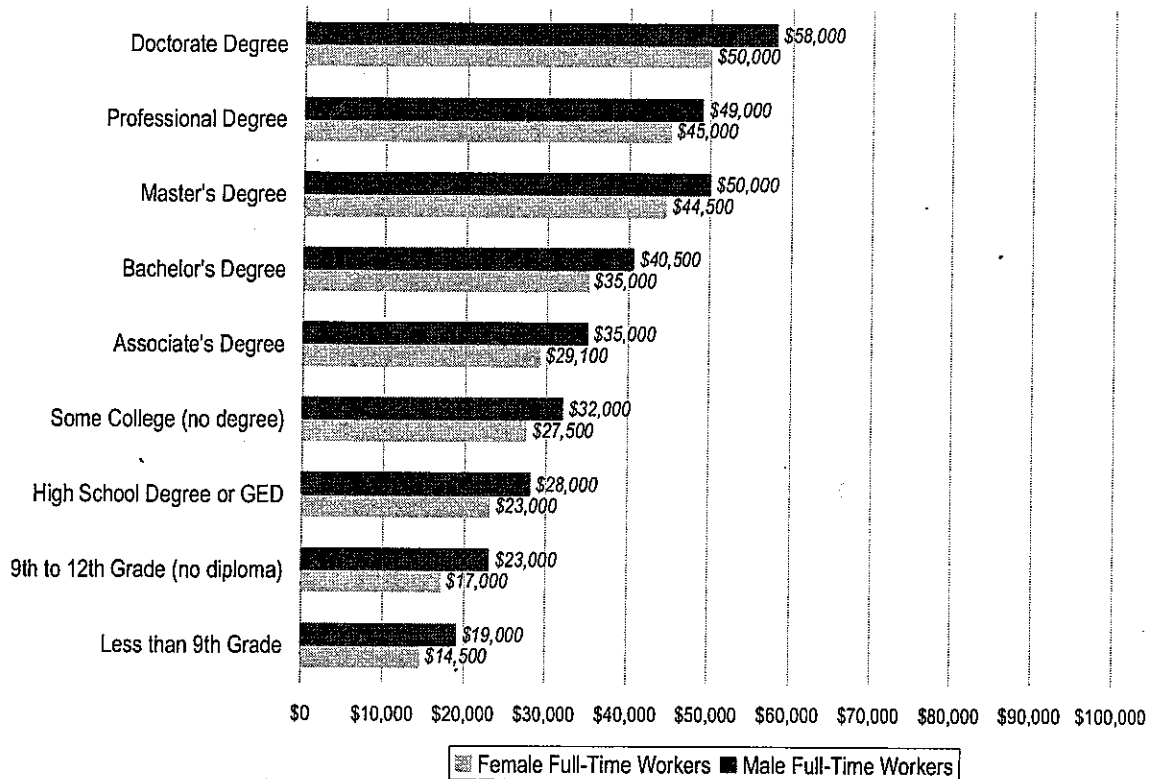
The division of labor by gender has long been the focus of research by social scientists and demographers (See Hartmann 1976). This subsection compares women and men’s earnings and their employment distribution within the public, private, and self-employed sectors at both the aggregate and racially disaggregated 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

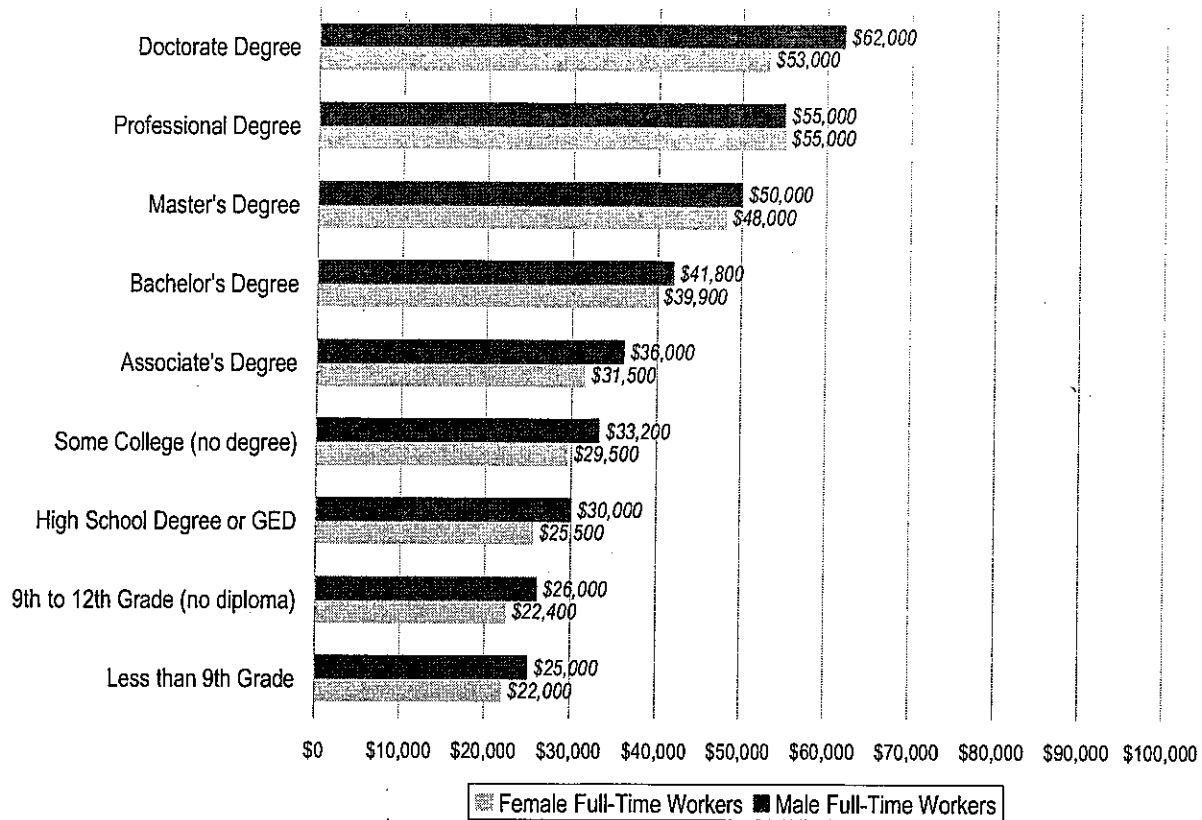


Latino/a



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

Black



Asian

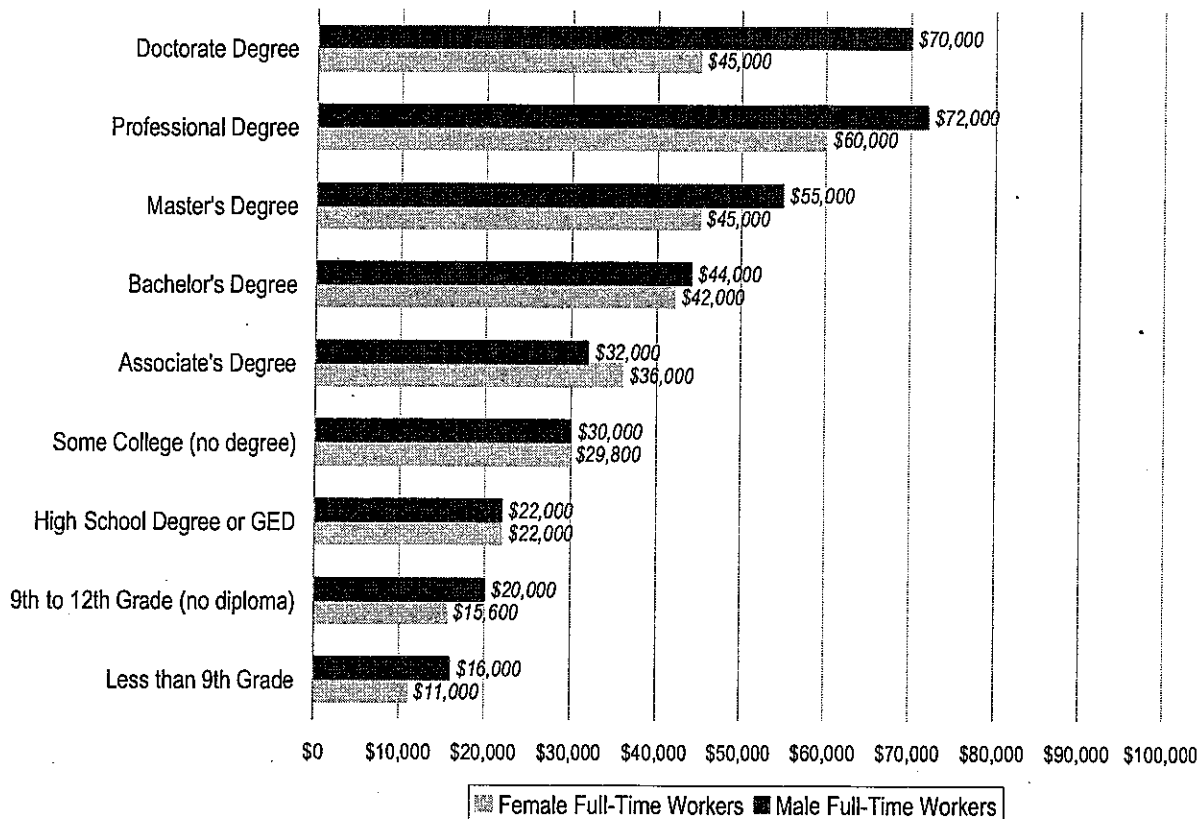
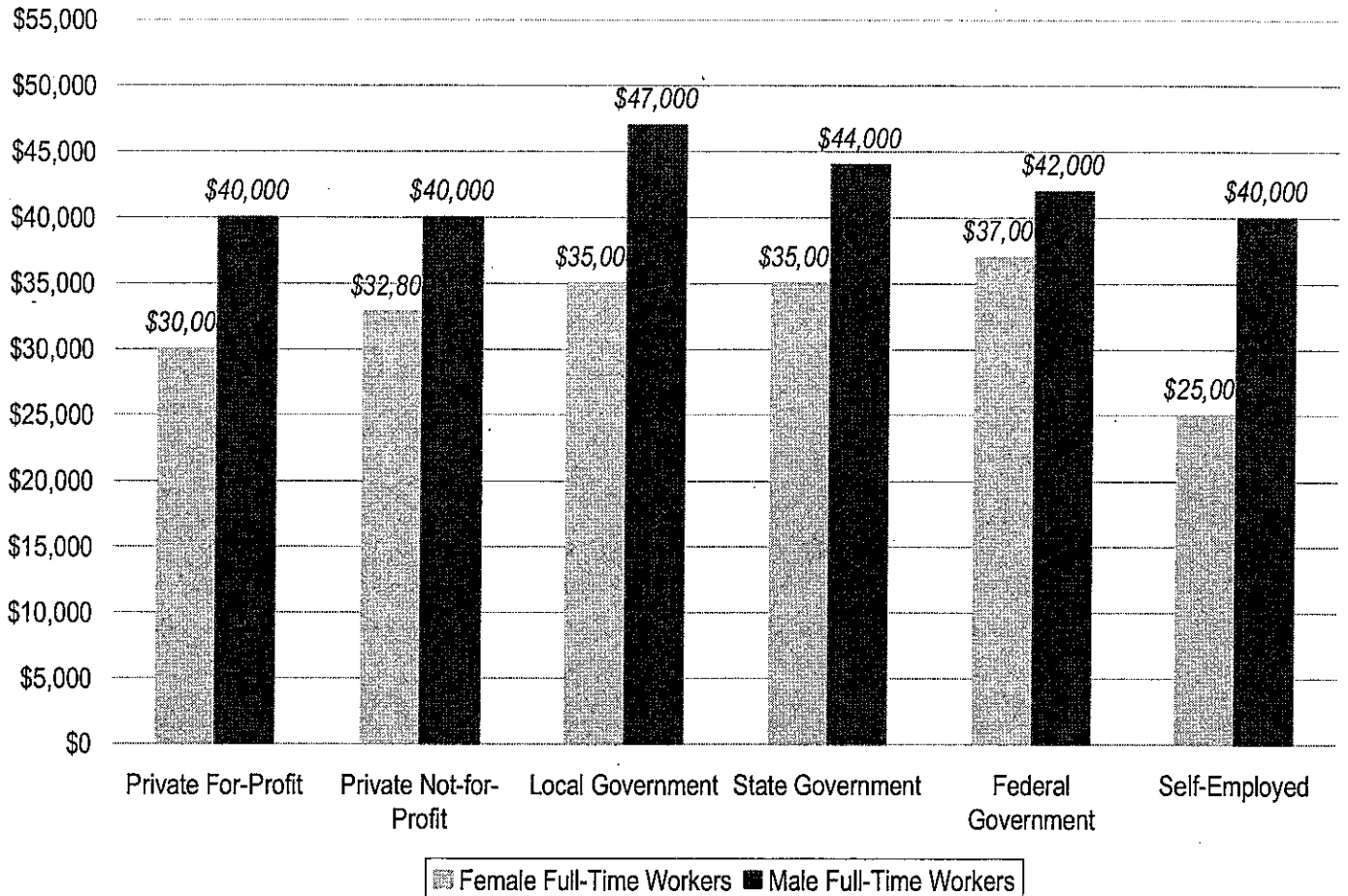


Figure 23: Women’s and Men’s Median Earnings by Employer Type



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%.

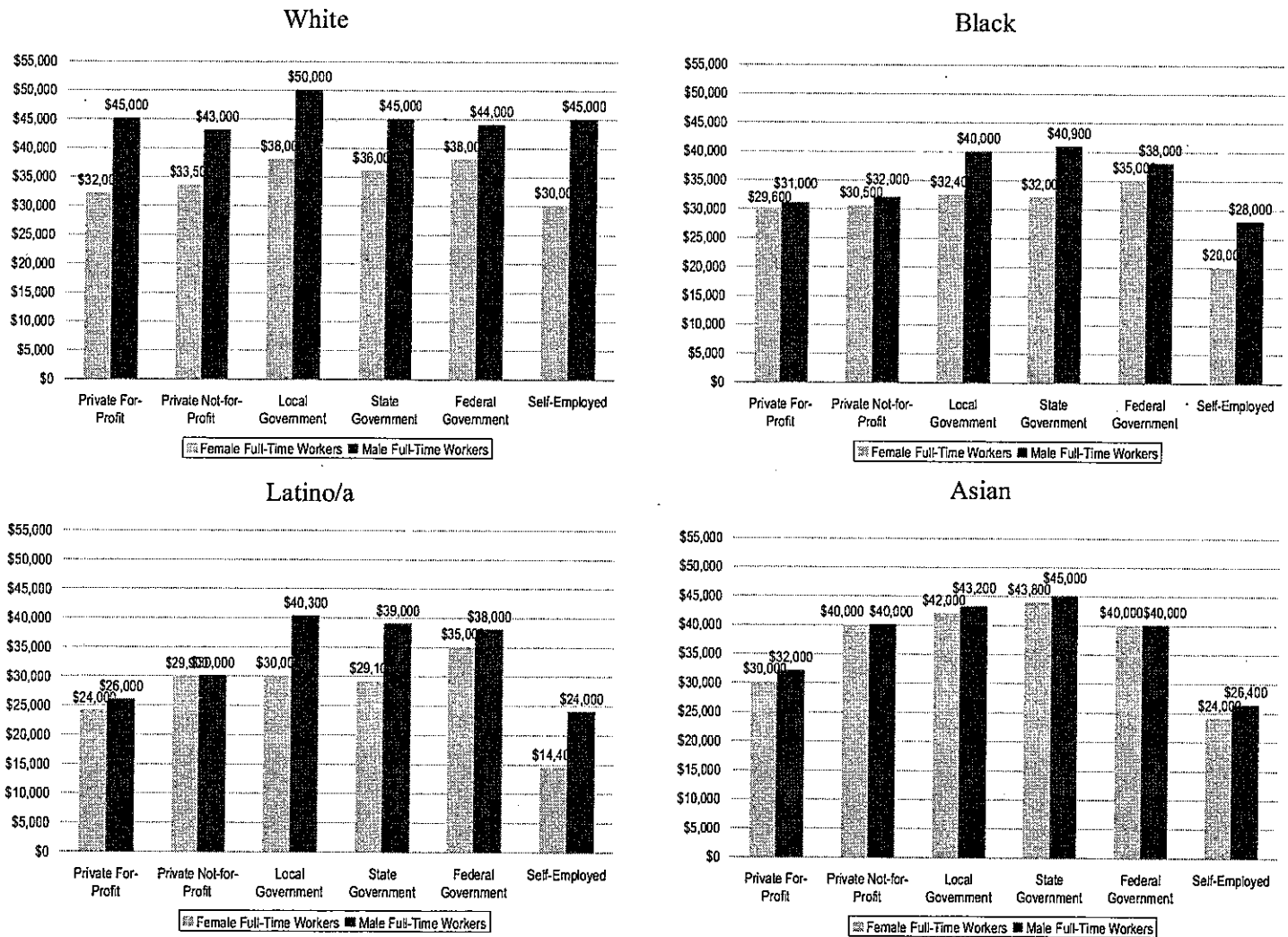
In the *private sector*, the widest gender earnings gap is found in private for-profit companies (75%), which employ by far the largest percentages of women and men across all categories. In the *public sector*, the widest gender earning gap is found in local government employment (74%), which employs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



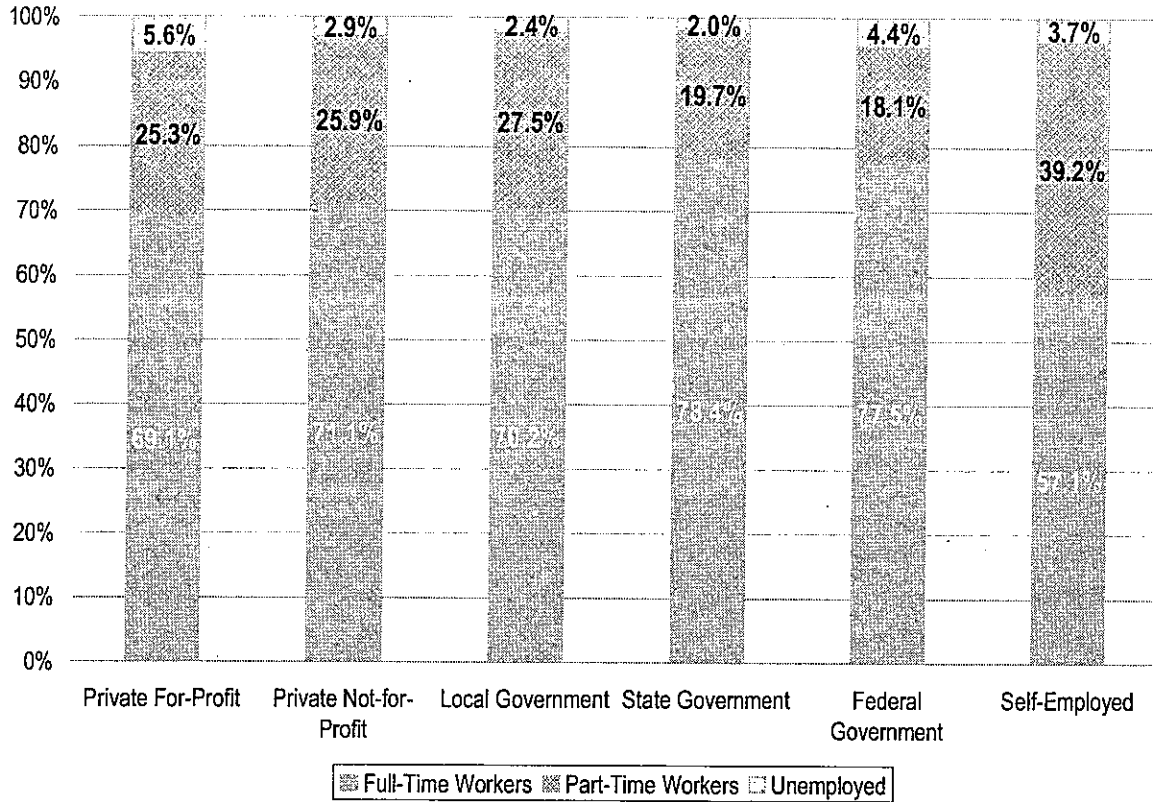
One factor that may contribute to women's lower earnings is their higher employment distribution in part-time work. Figure 25 (Women's and Men's Employment Status by Employer Type) shows that women's participation in part-time employment in all of the employment categories is roughly two times higher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

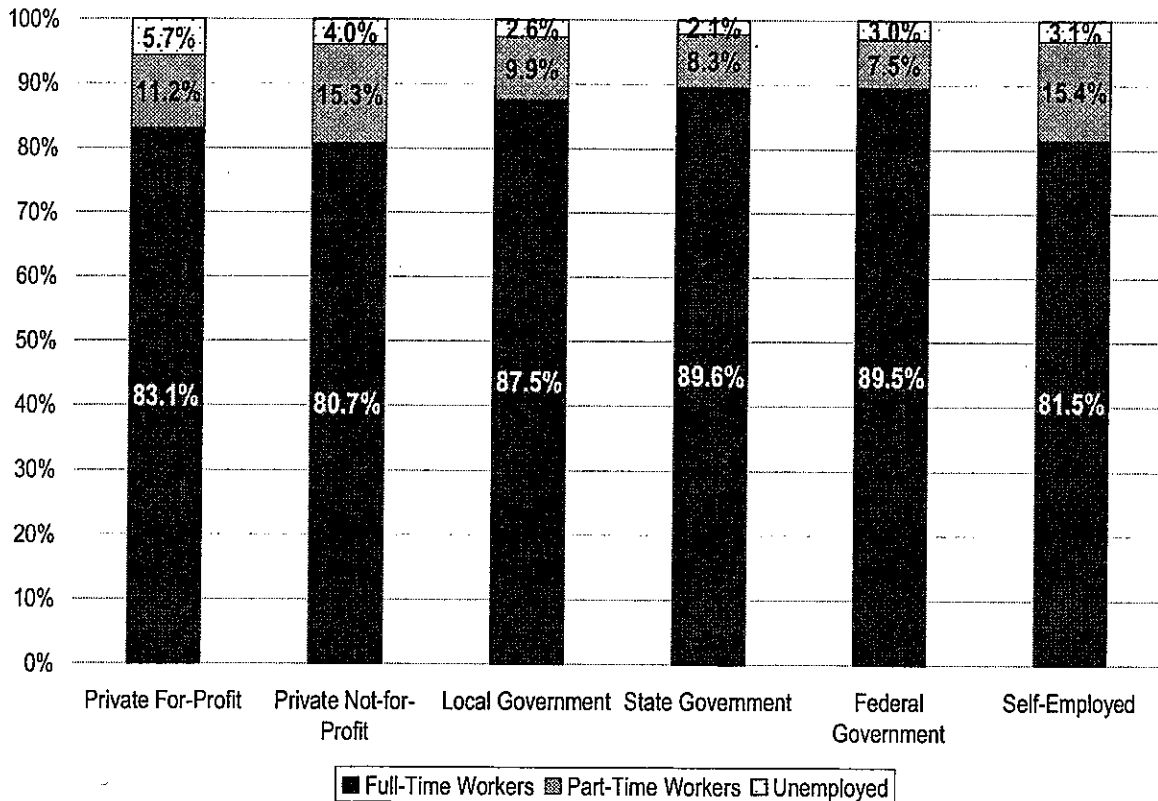


Figure 26: Women’s and Men’s Employment Status by Employer Type — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity

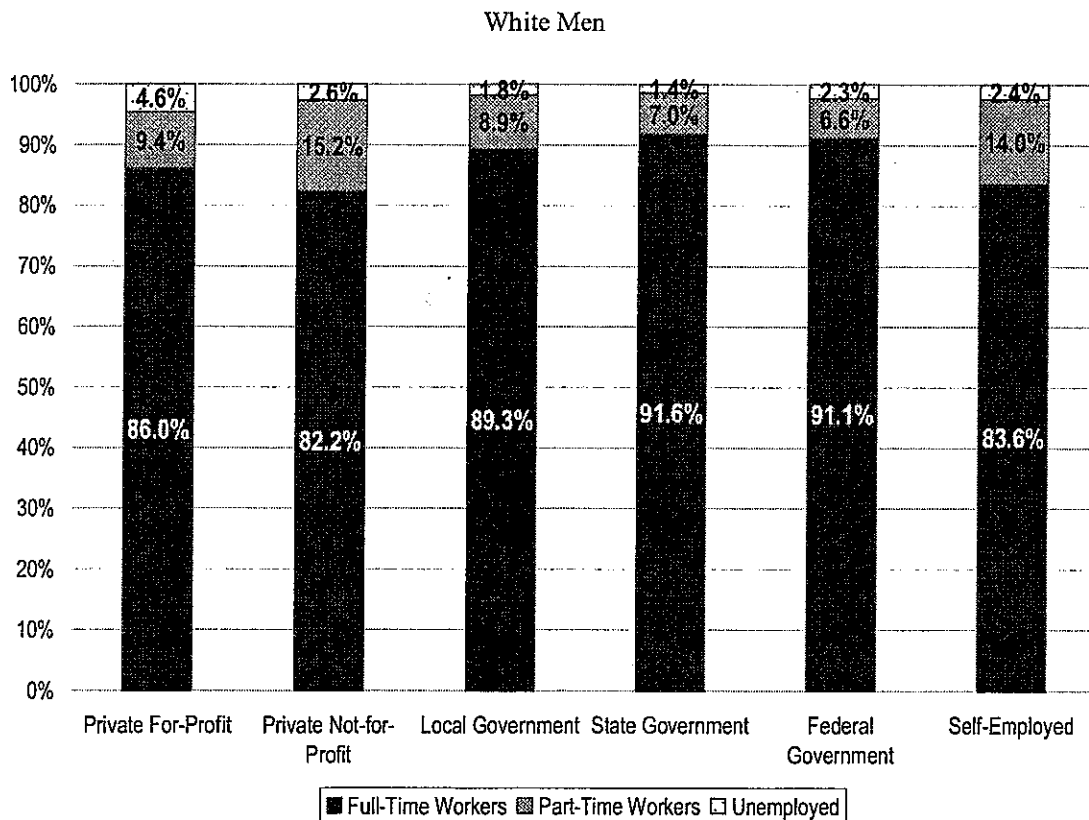
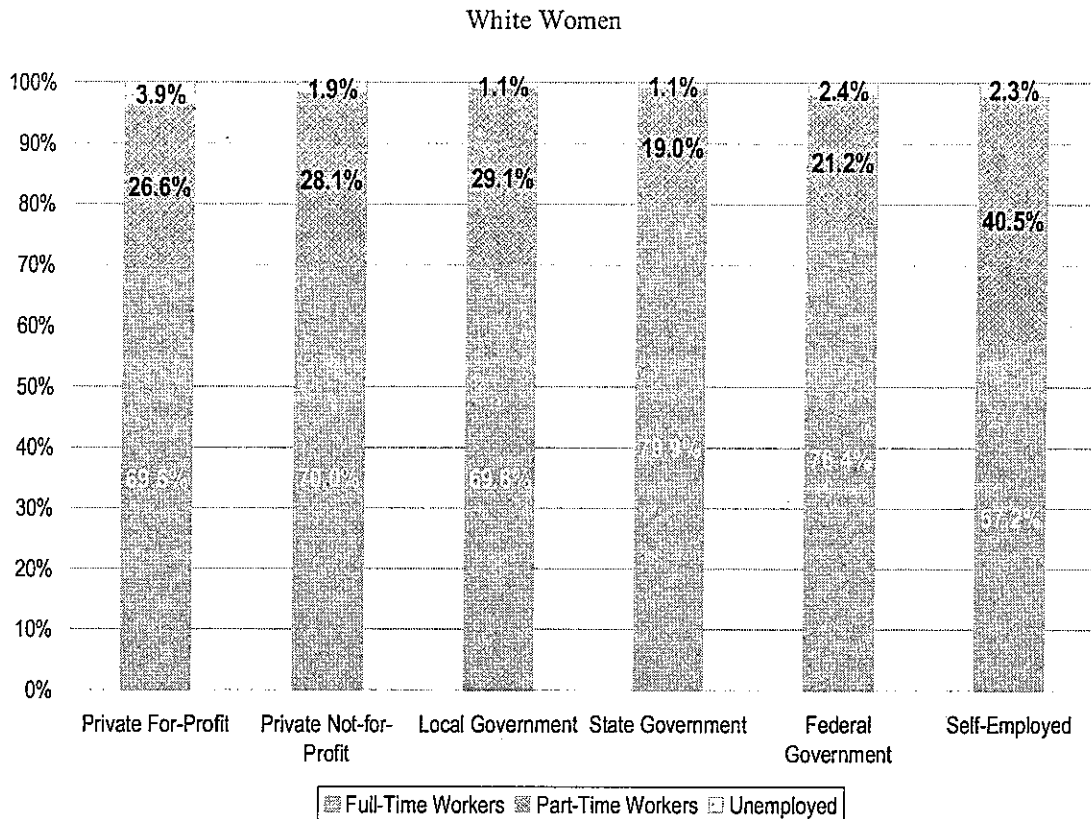
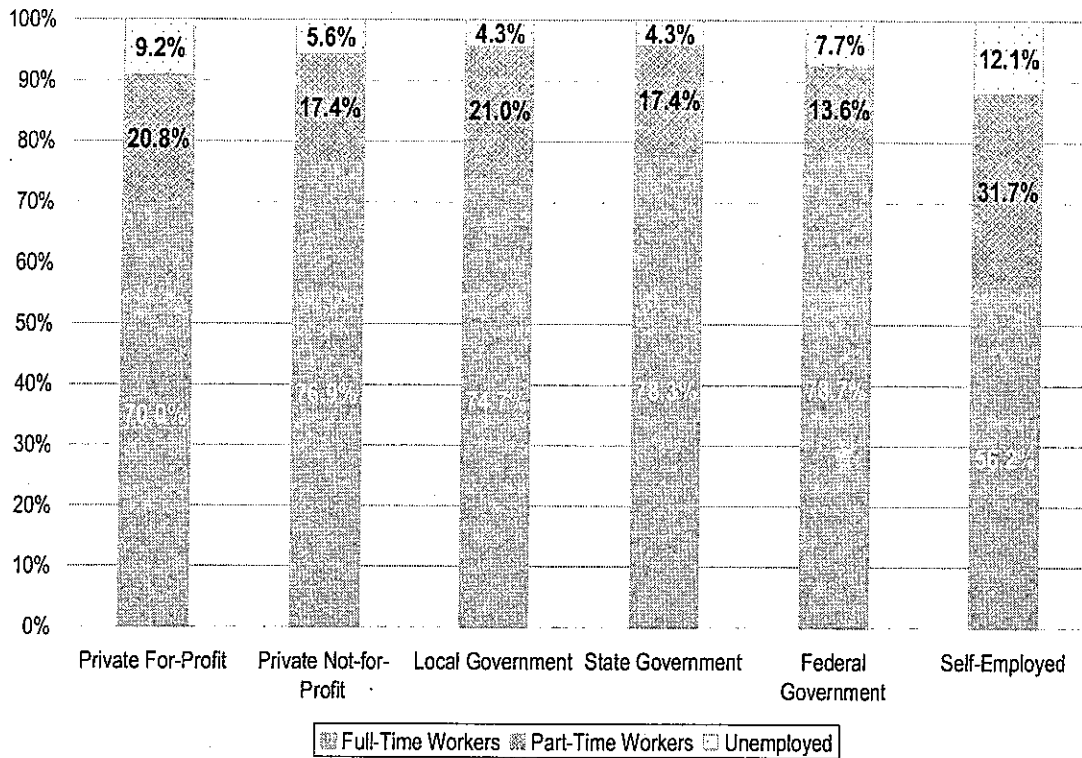


Figure 26: Women's and Men's Employment Status by Employer Type — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity

Black Women



Black Men

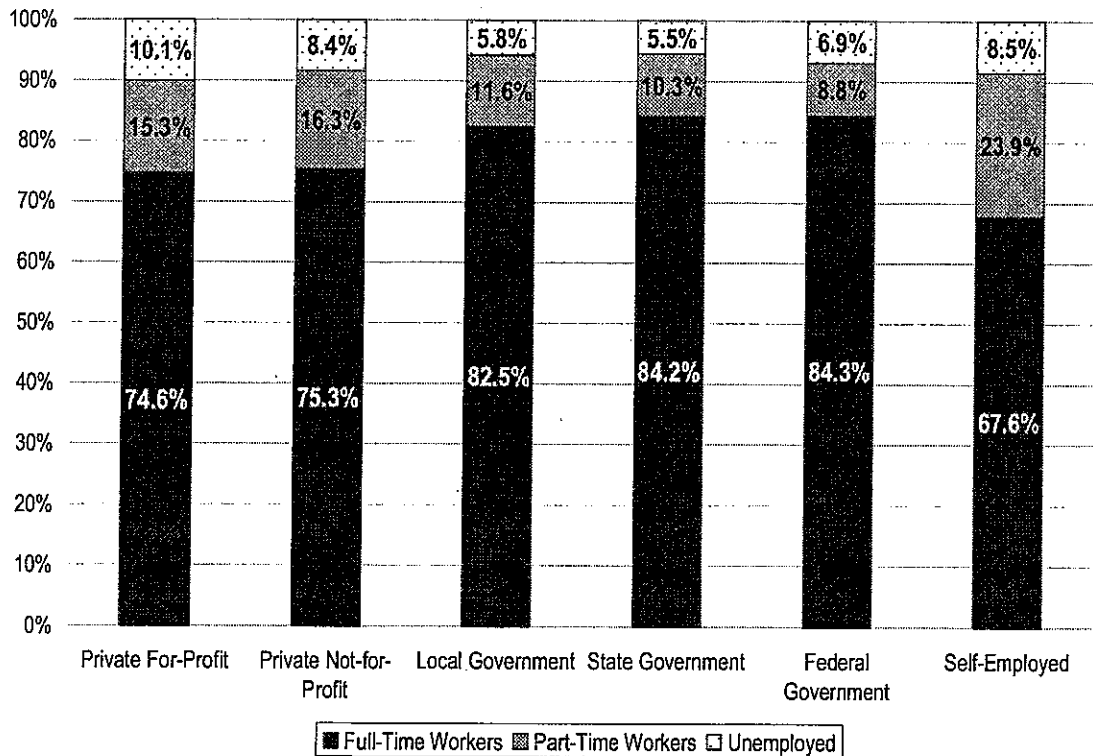


Figure 26: Women's and Men's Employment Status by Employer Type — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity

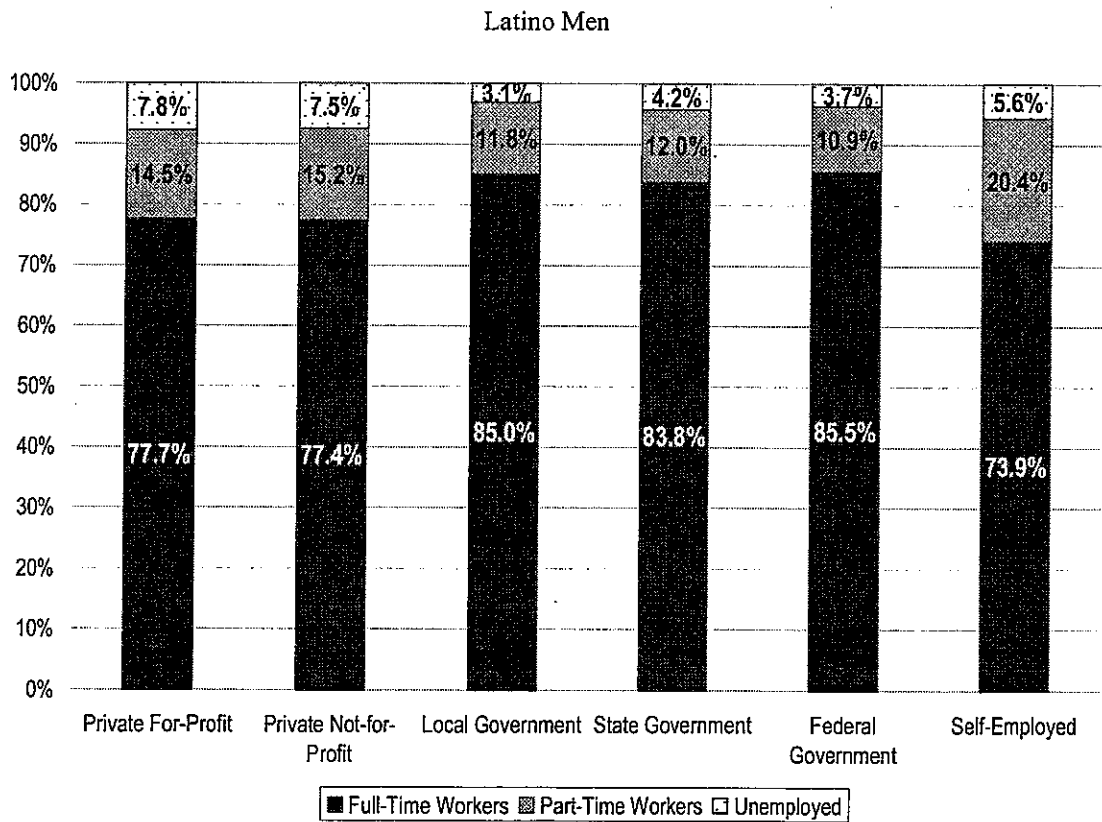
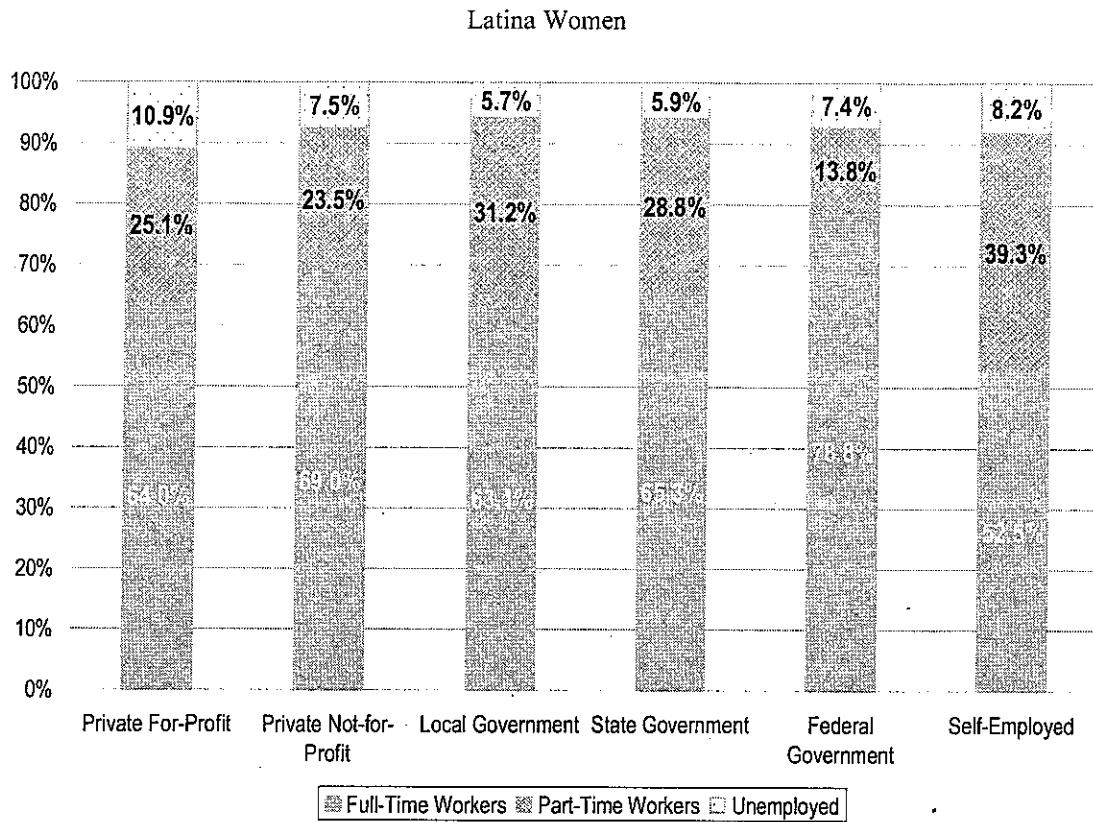
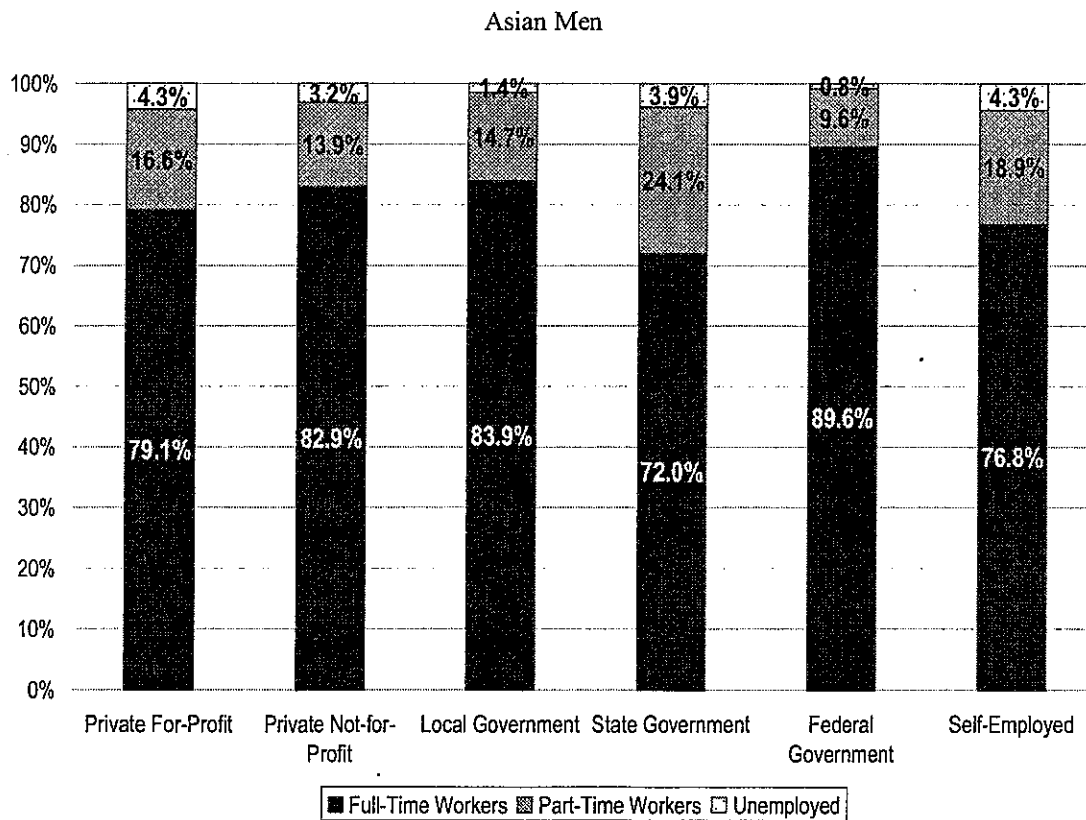
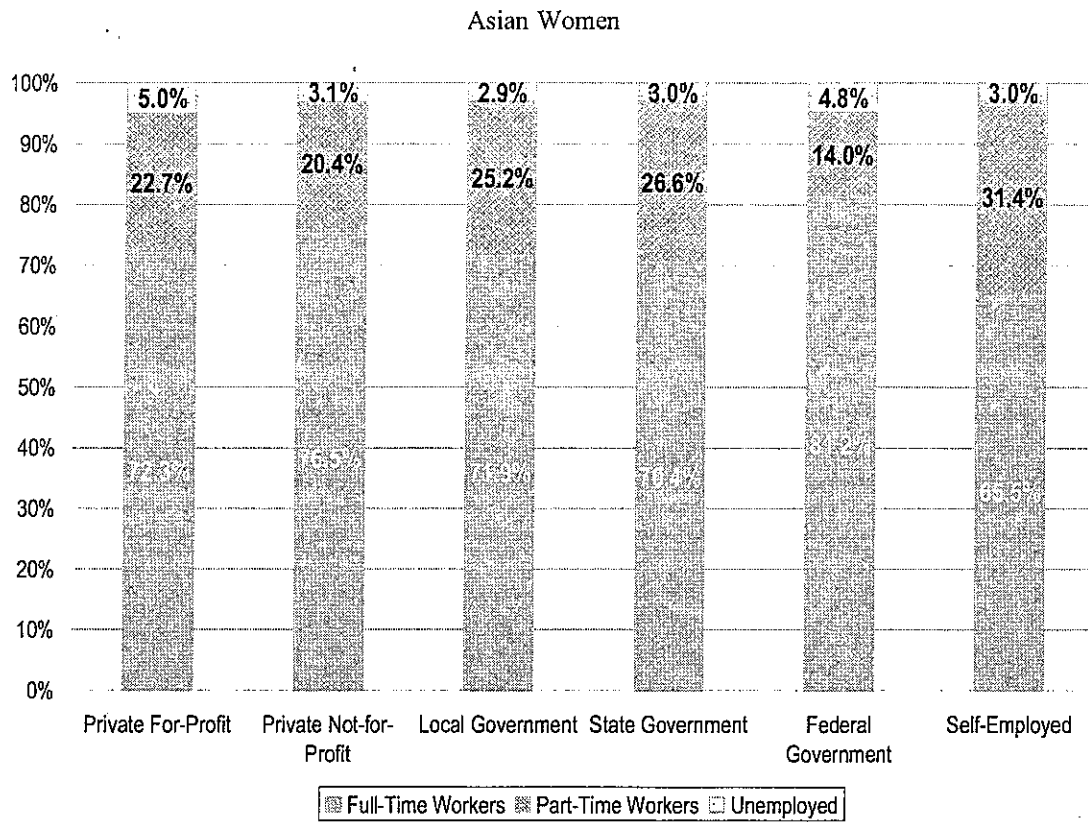


Figure 26: Women's and Men's Employment Status by Employer Type — Disaggregated by Race/Ethnicity



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			With a Four-Year College Degree		
	%	Earnings (Med)		%	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			With a Four-Year College Degree		
	%	Earnings (Med)		%	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			With a Four-Year College Degree		
	%	Earnings (Med)		%	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			With a Four-Year College Degree		
	%	Earnings (Med)		%	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 in 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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