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ABSTRACT

The study explored sex disparities in economic remuneration for gainful employment among black, blue collar wage earners residing in selected nonmetropolitan and metropolitan areas of Texas. The bulk of the workers' families lived in or near poverty and were highly dependent on famale as well as male income. Preliminary analysis revealed that being female had a high negative correlation with their incomes earned in the 12 months preceding the survey. The 1970 nonmetropolitan data were collected from two rural villages and a town of about 5,000 persons in east Texas, which were located in a county characterized by a higher proportion of blacks and a substantially lower median family income than for Texas as a whole. Most of the residents, both male and female, were employed in the area's poultry and lumber industries. The metropolitan data were collected a year later in a lower class, black ghetto of Houston. The median family income in this ghetto was among the lowest of any ward in the city. Individuals were sampled for sex, wage income, occupation, time worked, job training, education, and age. The study found that, among both nonmetropolitan and metropolitan groups, being female had a strong negative effect on wage income. Considering the high dependence of working and lower class black families on female incomes, the study suggested that sexism is an important factor to be investigated in future studies of black poverty. (KM)

THE INFLUENCE OF SEX ON WAGE-INCOMES OF BLACK, BLUE-COLLAR WORKERS IN SELECTED NONMETROPOLITAN AND METROPOLITAN AREAS OF TEXAS*

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There is no sector of our society in which the implications of sexism are more damaging, at least in terms of impact on family economic well-being, than the black lower-class. Some researchers claim the consequences of sexism to be so great that it vies with racism as the most salient structural factor accounting for the high incidence of poverty among American blacks (Miller and Ferman, 1972). Seldom, however, is sexism reckoned with as a causal factor in poverty studies.

This study explores sex disparities in economic remuneration for gainful employment among black, blue-collar wage-earners residing in selected nonmetropolitan and metropolitan areas of Texas. The bulk of the workers' families lived in or near poverty and were highly dependent on female as well as male earned income. Preliminary analysis reveals that being female had a high negative correlation (-.58 for the nonmetropolitan workers and -.62 for the metropolitan workers) with their incomes earned in the twelve months preceding the survey. The purpose of this study is to explore the process by which sex exerted its influence on these wage-incomes, taking into consideration factors other than sex-discrimination in remuneration per se which are postulated to account for this difference. Sex-discrimination is postulated to explain much of the influence of sex on wage-income that is not mediated by these factors.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The Economic Plight of the Black Female

Like ameliorative efforts and policy advances regarding sex discrimination, research on the topic of sexism in the labor market has had a white middle-class bias. Two beliefs about the status of black females have contributed to this bias: (1) the belief that the black female generally fares better in the labor market than the black male (Martin and Poston, 1972; Gans, 1966); (2) the belief that black and female are the most propitious attributes one can have to compete in today's labor market, due to official pressures to end race and sex discrimination.

As regards black workers in general and blue-collar, black workers in particular, these beliefs appear to have no basis in fact. Historically, sexism has reinforced racism in relegating the black female to the lowest rank in our society's economic hierarchy. While the economic plight of the black female may have lessoned in recent years, she is still conspicuously over-represented--even more so than the black male--at the lowest income levels.

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Data from the 1971 Current Population Survey indicate that although black females made up "...less than 5 percent of full-time wage and salary employment, they accounted for over 13 percent of those earning less than $60 a week" (Flaim and Peters, 1972). The U.S. Department of Labor reports, "Among year-round full-time workers, the median wage or salary income of nonwhite women was consistently lower than that of all other workers from 1939 to 1965" (Women's Bureau, 1967:11). Comparing the 1965 earned incomes of year-round full-time workers, the median income of nonwhite females was only 66 percent of that of nonwhite males, 71 percent of that of white females, and 42 percent of that of white males (Women's Bureau, 1967:40).

Corresponding statistics in 1939 were 51 percent, 38 percent, and 23 percent, respectively (Women's Bureau, 1967:40). Comparison of these 1939 and 1965 statistics suggests that the black female has made greater strides countering the barrier of racism than sexism in terms of effect on earning differentials. Contrasting more recent earnings of black male and black female workers, the median incomes of full-time, year-round workers in 1970 were $6,435 and $4,536, respectively (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:37). Corresponding figures for all black wage and salary workers were $5,370 and $3,200 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:37).

Factors Contributing to Low-Wage Incomes

Labor-force Participation and Unemployment. Given the option of many females, even lower-class females, to not seek employment outside of the home, voluntarily lower labor-force participation by females compared to males is a factor accounting for sex disparities in earnings of black workers, regardless of social class. Black males are more likely than black females to be employed full-time and on an all-year, rather than part-of-the-year, basis (U.S. Bureau of Census, 1972:62). However, unemployment of persons seeking work also appears to plague proportionately more black females than black males. In 1971, the unemployment rates of black adult women and men were 8.7 and 7.2 percent, respectively (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:53). Again the black female suffered more than any other race-sex group, with unemployment rates for white males and females shown as 5.3 percent and 4.0 percent, respectively (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:53).

Occupations and Industries. The most conspicuous factor accounting for the lower wage-incomes of black females is their occupational placement. In addition, the industry in which they usually find employment is, although to a lesser extent, a salient contributing factor. Black females are markedly over-represented in the low-prestige, low-paying occupations and industries and under-represented in the high-prestige, high paying occupations and industries (Fuentes, 1971:292). Although black females have progressed in occupational achievement in recent years (Clover, 1970:32), over half of the black females employed in 1971 were service workers or operatives (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:67). Moreover, black females have been more likely than any other race-sex group to hold the lower prestige jobs within these occupational categories. For example, Ginzberg

and Hiestand (1966)reported that in 1960 black females comprised "half or more of the domestic and paid farm workers, one-fourth or more of the laundry and drycleaning operatives and charwomen, and one-fifth of the cooks and institutional attendants." Even in the predominantly female occupations, women generally earned less than their male colleagues (Farris: 1971:140).

Black females are most heavily concentrated in service occupations. Forty-three percent of all black female workers were reported in service occupations in 1970 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:67)--especially private-household domestic labor. Earnings of the latter are far below those of the other occupational groupings of the Alba Edward occupational classification (Flaim and Peters, 1972:30). In 1971, private household workers, accounting for only 1 percent of all full-time wage and salary workers, made up 11 percent of those earning less than $60 a week (Flaim and Peters, 1972:28). "Minimum wage coverage of private household work is practically nonexistent" (Women's Bureau, 1967:11).

In contrast to black females, black males are most frequently employed as operatives, craftsmen and foreman, or nonfarm laborers (Women's Bureau, 1967:36). Average wages in these occupations are substantially above the average wages of service workers (Flaim and Peters, 1972:30).

Education. Educational achievement, which is an obvious contributing factor to low-wage income, does not account for general disparities among black males and females in occupational attainment and earned income. Black females, in general, have higher educational attainment than black males. The 1970 census reports that the median number of school years completed by black males and black females 25 years of age and over to be 9.4 and 10.0 respectively (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:1-368). In 1966, 33.2 percent of black females over 18 years of age were reported to have completed high school compared to 29.4 percent of black males in the same age range (Women's Bureau: 67:17). The same educational advantage that black females have over black males in the total black population also holds among blacks in the labor market, for the black females having higher educational achievement are more likely to be employed outside of the home.

The Black Family's Dependence on Female Earnings

"More than half of all Negro women 25 to 54 years of age were working or seeking work in March 1966" (Women's Bureau, 1967:5). Such high rates of labor-force participation, or desired participation, are reportedly motivated by economic need (Women's Bureau, 1970; Douglas, 1966; Cain, 1966; Bogan, 1969).

The fact that a large proportion of black families are female-headed (30 percent of nonwhite females in 1972, U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:100) and that about half (52 percent in 1971, U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:64) of these female family heads are employed attests to the critical dependence of many black families

on female earnings. About half of the nonwhite, female-headed families are below the poverty threshold (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1972:39). Furthermore, the black female is an important contributor to the income of intact (husband-present) families. "Nearly half of all wives in Negro husband-wife families were in the paid labor force in 1966" (Women's Bureau, 1967:5). Those families in which the wife worked were only half as likely to have income below the poverty level (Women's Bureau, 1967:5). "Forty-two percent of all nonwhite husband-wife families would have been living in poverty in 1965 if they had depended solely on the husband's income which was less then $3000 per year" (Women's Bureau, 1967:5). The employment of wives reduced this figure to 19 percent.

A MODEL OF THE INFLUENCE OF SEX ON EARNINGS

A model of means by which sex is purported to influence earnings is diagramed in Figure 1. Four mediating variables are included: education, job-training, occupation, and the amount of time worked during the year preceding the survey. Job-training and education are presented as the first variables in logical sequence to be influenced by sex. No causal ordering between them is assumed. Occupation and time-worked follow in the causal sequence, being susceptible to causal effect from education, job-training and sex. No causal ordering between occupation and time-worked is assumed. The need to control for effects of age was considered, but because age was found to have a negligible correlation with sex in the populations studied and in order to simplify the analysis, it was excluded from the model.

Our knowledge of black, female workers in general, as discussed in the Review of Literature, leads us to postulate that the sex of the blue-collar, black female wage-earners negatively influenced their wage-incomes via four routes:

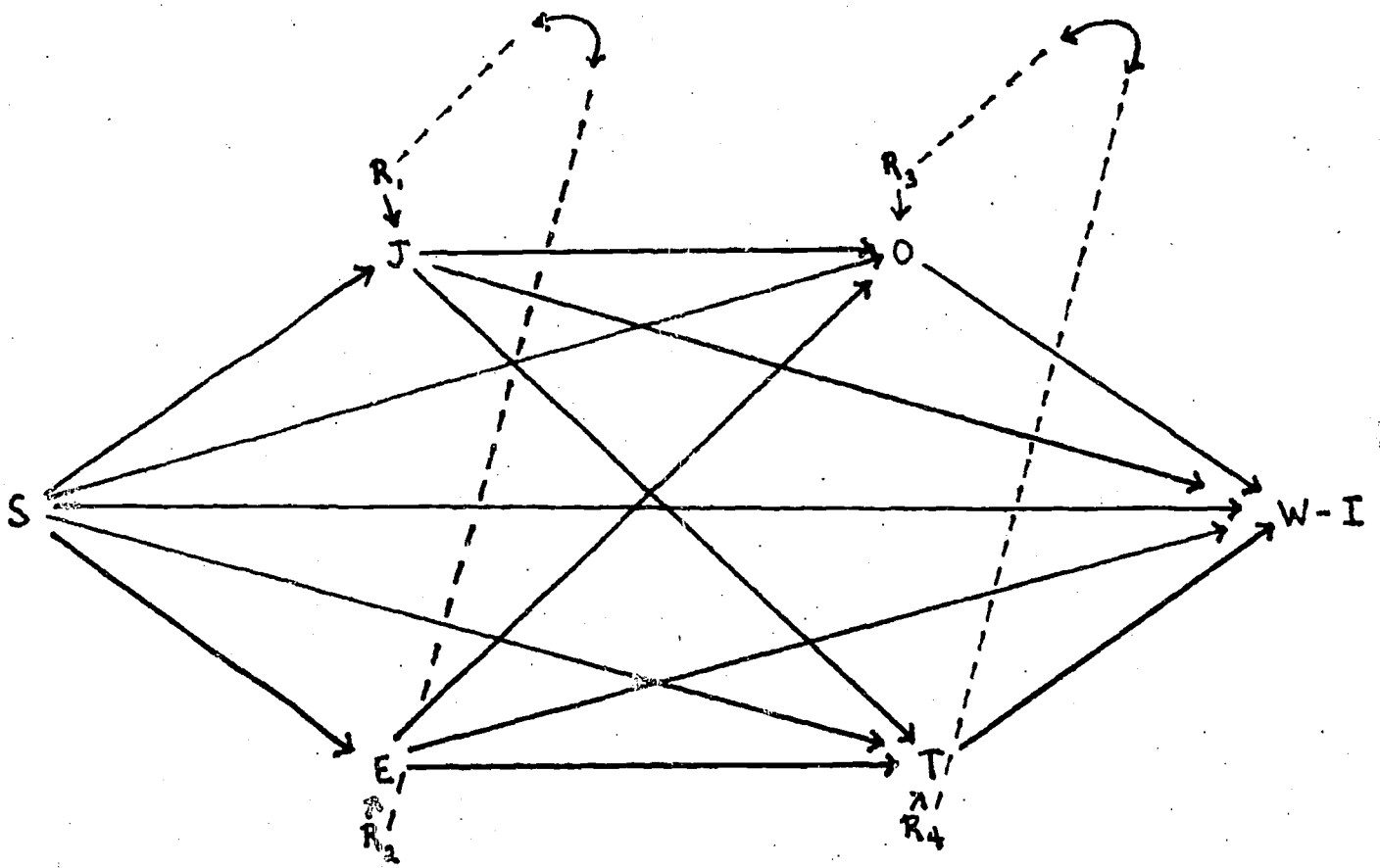
1. The female workers received less economic remuneration for comparable jobs, time-worked, education, and job-skills than their male counterparts.

2. The female earners spent less time in the labor-market (i.e., worked fewer total hours) during the year than the male earners.

3. The female earners were employed in lower-prestige jobs than the male earners, regardless of job-training and education.

4. The job-skills of the female workers were inferior to those of the male workers, as evidenced by fewer females than males having had specialized job-training.

Figure 1. A Path Diagram for a Model of Factors Influencing Wage-Incomes (Model 1)



S = Sex;

J = Jobtraining; E = Education; O = Occupation; T = Time-worked;

W-I = Wage-Income

The only variable in the model through which the literature would lead us to predict a positive effect on the wage-incomes of the black female workers is education.

Model 1 will be examined, therefore, in terms of the following hypotheses:

H_1: The direct effect of sex on wage-income was negative.

H_2: The indirect effect of sex on wage-income that was mediated solely by time-worked was negative.

H_3: The indirect effect of sex on wage-income that was mediated solely by occupation was negative.

H_4: The indirect effect of sex on wage-income that was mediated by job-training was negative.

H_5: The indirect effect of sex on wage-income that was mediated by education was positive.

These hypotheses presume that education and job-training positively affected occupation and time-worked and that occupation and time-worked, in turn, positively affected wage-income.

Additional objectives of the analysis are to examine the relative degree of effect of sex on wage-income via these alternative routes and to examine simplified forms of Model 1.

DATA COLLECTION

The nonmetropolitan data were collected in 1970 in two rural villages and a town of about 5,000 persons in East Texas. These communities were located in a county characterized by a higher proportion of blacks and a substantially lower median family income than the Texas population as a whole. The bulk of the residents, both males and females, were employed in the poultry and lumber industries located in the area. The nearest metropolitan center, which was about 60 miles from the communities, was an infrequent source of employment for these residents. The village and town subjects were employed in the same industries and often by the same companies; therefore, they have been grouped together in this analysis.

The metropolitan data were collected a year later in a lower class, black ghetto of Houston, Texas. The median family income in this ghetto was among the lowest of any ward in the city.

The specific data analyzed in this study were collected as part of a more comprehensive study of attributes of poverty families. Families studied were restricted to those in which there was a child (i.e., a person under 18 years of age) and a female homemaker under 65 and, unless she was the mother of one or more of the children in the home, over 17. All households in the study area were screened for eligibility and 94 to 100 percent of the eligible families were subsequently interviewed. A total of 259 metropolitan and 294 nonmetropolitan families were contacted. The female homemakers served as sources of information about the families.

The subjects of analysis in this study are all blue-collar wage-earners in these families. The nonmetropolitan families contained 155 female and 186 male blue-collar wage-earners; the metropolitan families, 136 female and 137 male blue-collar earners.

Measurement

Sex. For the purposes of this analysis, female is coded 1; male, 0.

Wage-Income. The amount of income earned as a result of gainful employment during the 12 months preceding the survey. Income received as profits from self-employment is excluded.

Occupation. The respondents' reports of the "kind of job" and "industry" in which the workers were employed during the year preceding the survey are coded according to Duncan's Socioeconomic Index of Occupations and Hollingshead's Occupational-Status Scale. If a person was employed in two or more jobs during the year, the job with the highest prestige score was coded, unless this job was held for a much shorter time than the other(s). Both Duncan's and Hollingshead's Occupational Scales were coded, because of the different relative prestige rankings of these scales for the jobs most frequently reported by the females, private household labor. In the Duncan scale, this occupation was ranked higher than frequently reported operative-type occupations of the males; in the Hollingshead scale, it was ranked lower. The original Hollingshead scores, whereby 1 = highest prestige and 7 = lowest, have been reversed in this analysis.

Time-worked. The number of weeks worked in the 12 months preceding the survey multiplied by the average number of hours worked per week.

Job-training. The respondent was asked to report whether or not she or her husband had had any kind of "special job-training other than high school or college." Included were apprenticeships, or on-the-job training, sponsored by companies or high school programs.

Education. The highest grade of school completed. A year of college was coded 13; 2 years, 14; etc.

Age. The age of the person at their last birthday preceding the survey.

ANALYSIS

Path coefficients for Model 1 are presented in Table 1 and the sums of indirect effects, in Table 2.[1/] The findings for both the nonmetropolitan and metropolitan workers appear to confirm H_1 and H_2 : sex has a pronounced negative effect on wage-income that is not mediated by other variables in the model, and sex has a negative effect on wage-income that is transmitted via its negative effect on time-worked. The indirect effects of sex on wage-income via occupation, job-training and education appear to be negligible, suggesting rejection of H_3, H_4, and H_5.

The failure of sex to influence wage-income indirectly via the last three hypothesized routes is due both to the small effect of sex on occupation, job-training, and education and to the small effect of these variables, in turn, on wage-income. Although education and job-training did not always have a positive effect on time-worked and education did not always have a positive effect on occupation, the effects of these negative paths were minimal, thus exerting little countering influence on the hypothesized effects.

It should be noted that the Duncan Socioeconomic Index and Hollingshead's scoring of occupations yielded different path coefficients in terms of size and sign. However, the same conclusions regarding the indirect influences of sex on wage-income are deduced, regardless of the occupational scoring procedures employed.

1/ A correlation matrix of the variables considered in this analysis are presented in Table A-1 of the Appendix. Additional statistics and information about these variables may be obtained from the author.

TABLE 1. Standardized Regression Coefficients for a Model of Factors Affecting Wage-Income Differentials among Blue-Collar Black Workers, by Residence.** (Reference: Model 1)

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables				
	J	E	O	T	W
Nonmetropolitan					
S	.11	.20	.11(-.20)	-.40	-.44(-.42)
J			.06(.06)	-.03	.02*(.02)*
E			-.01(.13)	.23	.09(.08)
O					.01*(.10)
T					.48(.46)
Metropolitan					
S	.07	.10	-.04(-.25)	-.34	-.44(-.43)
J			.09(.21)	.03	.04*(.03)*
E			.14(.08)	-.08	.01*(.02)*
O					.13(.10)
T					.50(.48)

S=Sex; J=Job-training; E=Education; O=Occupation; T=Time worked; W=Wage-Income
* P > .05

** Numbers not in parentheses refer to equations employing Duncan's SEI; Numbers in parentheses refer to equations employing Hollingshead's Occupational Scale.

Table 2. Direct and Indirect Effects of Sex on Wage-Incomes*
(Reference: Model 1)

Nonmetropolitan		
Direct:	-.44	(-.42)
Indirect:		
Via Time worked	-.19	(-.18)
Via Occupation	+.001	(-.02)
Via Job-training	+.001	(+.001)
Via Education	+.04	(+.04)
Metropolitan		
Direct:	-.44	(-.43)
Indirect:		
Via Time worked	-.17	(-.16)
Via Occupation	-.005	(-.025)
Via Job-training	.005	(.005)
Via Education	-.001	(-.001)

*Numbers not in parentheses refer to equations employing Duncan's SEI; Numbers in parentheses refer to equations employing Hollingshead's Occupational Scale.

Simplified models in which the effects of job-training are deleted are shown in Figure 2. The decision to delete job-training was made, because information about this variable was not available for all of the blue-collar wage-earners. In addition, the negligible path coefficients from job-training to other variables in the first model dictate deletion of job-training if one wishes to derive a more parsimonious form of the model. The revised model is also simplified by the inclusion of a new variable, wage-rate, which is wage-income divided by time-worked.

Similar conclusions are derived from this revised model and the larger group of subjects as from the original model. The direct effect of sex on wage-rate is negative and substantial. The effects of sex on wage rate that are mediated by occupation and education are negligible.

THE COST OF BEING FEMALE

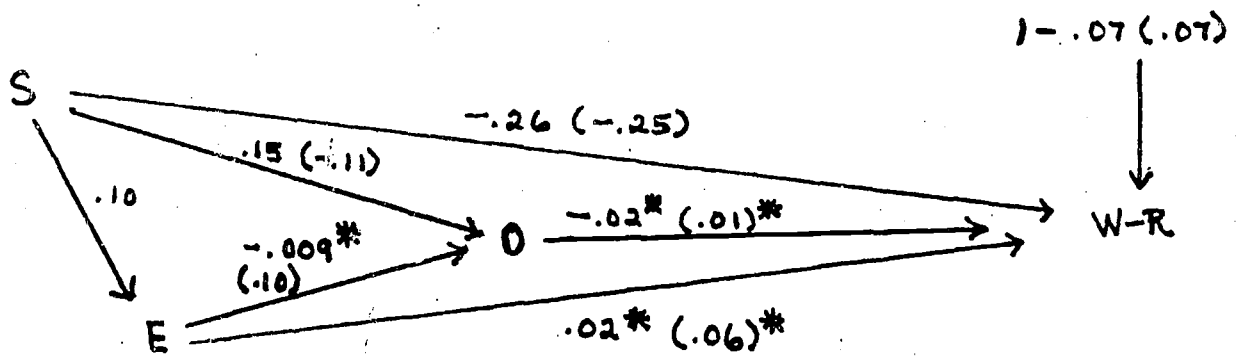
To explore the loss in wage-rate that the female earner suffered because of her sex, the variable sex is deleted from the model and unstandardized regression coefficients are calculated for the revised model for each sex separately. Because age is often a salient determinant of income, it has been added to this revised model. This model is diagrammed in Figure 3, and the unstandardized regression coefficients are presented in Table 4. Mean wage-rates for the females are generated by substituting the female means in the male regression equations. The results are presented in Table 5.

This procedure indicates that had the process of influence on wage-rate been the same for the female workers as it was for the male workers of the same residence (i.e., had the same factors been influential and had the influence of these factors been of the same degree), the wage-rates of both the nonmetropolitan and metropolitan females would have been substantially higher than they actually were. The reason for this disparity can be explored by comparing the unstandardized regression coefficients for the males and females and by looking at the occupational scores derived for the females from the male regression equation.

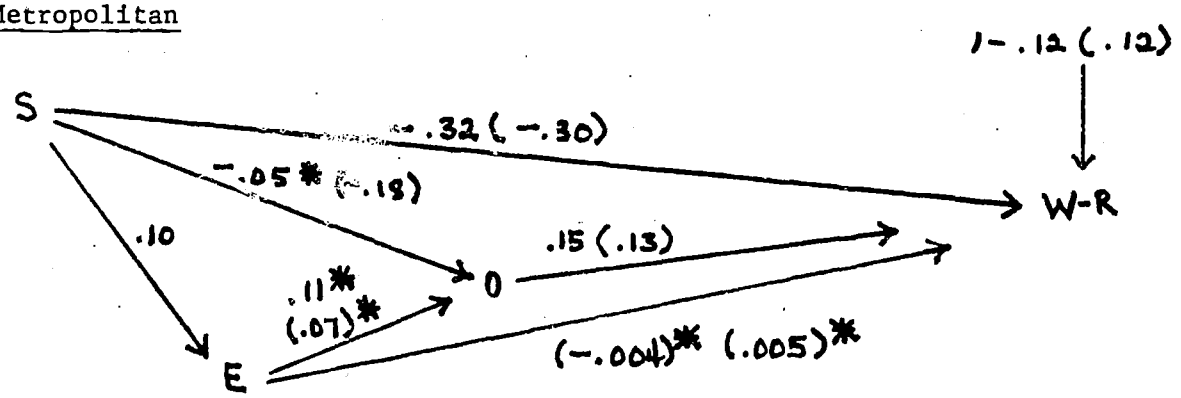
In the nonmetropolitan population, male blue-collar earners appeared to receive a greater gain in occupational attainment and wage-rate from specialized job-training than did the females, and age appeared to have less effect on occupational attainment for the males than for the females. In total, however, differential effects of the variable specified in the model did not appear to account for the higher wage-rates of the males. In fact, the females' occupational attainment would have been lower than it actually was if their process of occupational attainment (in terms of this model) had been identical to that of the males.

Figure 2. Path Models of Factors Influencing Wage-Rate Among Selected Black, Blue-Collar Workers, by Residence

Nonmetropolitan



Metropolitan



* P > .05

** Numbers not in parentheses refer to equations employing Duncan's SEI; Numbers in parentheses refer to equations employing Hollingshead's Occupational Scale.

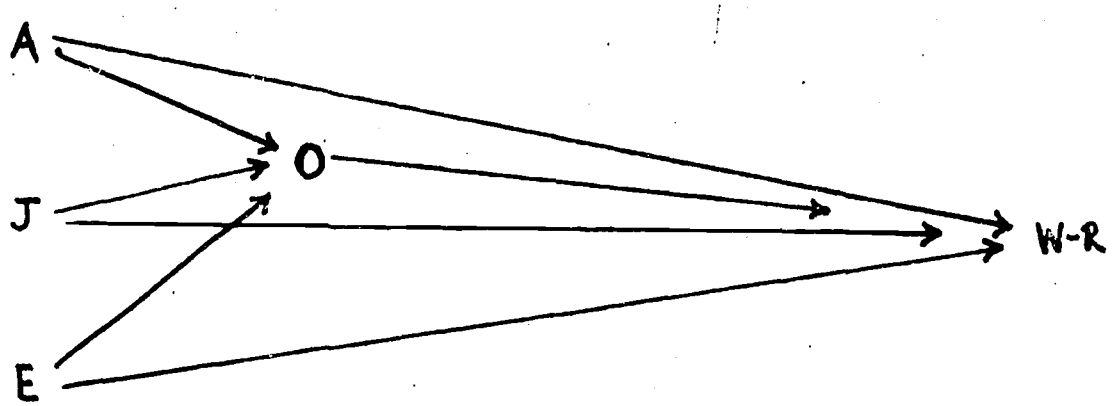
S = Sex; E = Education; O = Occupation; W-R = Wage-Rate

Table 3. Direct and Indirect Effects of Sex on Wage-Rate* (Reference: Model 2)

Nonmetropolitan		
Direct Effect:	-.26	(-.25)
Indirect Effect:		
Via Occupation	-.003	(-.001)
Via Direct Effect of Education	.002	(.006)
Via Education and Occupation	.00002	(.0001)
Total Indirect Effects	.005	(.005)
Metropolitan		
Direct Effect:	-.32	(-.30)
Indirect Effect:		
Via Direct Effect of Occupation	-.008	(-.02)
Via Direct Effect of Education	-.0004	(.0005)
Via Education and Occupation	.002	(.001)
Total Indirect Effects	-.006	(-.019)

* Numbers not in parentheses refer to equations employing Duncan's SEI; Numbers in parentheses refer to equations employing Hollingshead's Occupational Scale.

Figure 3. A Path Diagram for a Model of Factors Other Than Sex Influencing Wage-Rate (Model 3)



A = Age; J = Job-training; E = Education; O = Occupation; W-R = Wage-Rate

Table 4. Unstandardized Regression Coefficients for a Model of Factors Affecting Wage-Rate Differentials Among Blue-Collar, Black Workers, by Sex and Residence: Model 3*

Dependent Variables by Residence & Sex	Independent Variables				
	A	J	E	O	Intercept
Nonmetropolitan Females:					
O	.15(-.01)	.37(.12)	.23(.04)		7.65(1.61)
W	-.007(-.006)	-.12(-.14)	.001(-.01)	-.01(.24)	1.85(1.37)
Nonmetropolitan Males:					
O	.06(.006)	4.87(.12)	.07(.02)		10.49(1.42)
W	.005(.005)	.03(.02)	.01(.01)	-.001(.07)	2.06(1.94)
Metropolitan Females:					
O	-.07(-.006)	.69(.33)	.21(.03)		16.22(1.39)
W	.01(.01)	.04(-.08)	.03(.02)	.03(.30)	.60(.69)
Metropolitan Males:					
O	-.08(-.01)	4.03(.31)	.48(.002)		13.61(2.08)
W	-.008(-.008)	.04(.06)	-.01(-.003)	.01(.07)	2.63(2.66)

* Numbers not in parentheses refer to equations employing Duncan's SEI; Numbers in parentheses refer to equations employing Hollingshead's Occupational Scale.

A = Age; J = Job-training; E = Education; O = Occupation; W = Wage

Table 5. Mean Wage-Rates and Occupational Scores of Females Derived From Male Models: Comparison with Actual Female and Male Means

	Mean Occupation	Mean Wage-Rate
Nonmetropolitan		
Actual for Females	15.52 (1.66)	$1.42
Derived for Females	10.98 (2.03)	2.33 (2.36)
Actual for Males	13.67 (1.86)	2.35
Metropolitan		
Actual for Females	15.34 (1.45)	$1.73
Derived for Females	16.44 (1.79)	2.39 (3.14)
Actual for Males	15.89 (1.77)	2.46

Among the metropolitan workers, on the other hand, males appeared to receive a greater occupational gain (as scored by Duncan's SEI) from their education and job-training than the females. If the metropolitan females had received the same reward for educational achievement and job-training as their male counterparts, their occupational attainment (as scored by Duncan's SEI) would have been substantially higher. However, occupational attainment of the metropolitan males had only a small effect on their wage-rates, as did the other factors in the model. Therefore, the bulk of the disparity in metropolitan male and female wage-rates, like the sex disparity in nonmetropolitan wage-rates, must have been due to factors other than those considered in the model.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Among nonmetropolitan and metropolitan black, blue-collar wage-earners, being female was found to have a strong negative effect on wage-incomes. The process, or routes, by which sex exerted its influence on wage-incomes was explored in a path-analysis model. It was hypothesized that being female would exert a negative influence on wage-income via four routes: H_1--directly (i.e., not mediated by other variables in the model); H_2--indirectly via time-worked; H_3--indirectly via occupation; H_4--indirectly via job-training. A countering positive influence of being female on wage-income was hypothesized to occur via education. The results suggest acceptance of H_1 and H_2 and rejection of H_3, H_4, and H_5. Time-worked appeared to be the only variable mediating an effect of significant degree. The bulk of the strong effect of sex on wage-income was direct. A simplified form of the model showing effects on wage-rate (wage-income divided by time-worked) and utilizing a larger group of subjects was also analyzed. Again the direct effect of sex was pronounced; the indirect effects via other variables, negligible.

An estimate was made of what the wage-rates of the females would have been had the process of influence on their wage-rates been identical to that of males of the same residence. This was done by substituting the female means for the independent variables in the male regression equations of a path model of influence of factors other than sex on wage-rate. The results show that the mean wage-rates of both the nonmetropolitan and metropolitan females would have substantially higher than their actual means. Comparison of unstandardized regression coefficients indicates that this disparity could not be accounted for by sex differentials in the effects of the independent variables considered in the model.

It is concluded that the models presented in this study do not adequately explain the sex disparities in the wage-incomes of these black, blue-collar wage-earners. The bulk of the negative effect

of being female on wages must be mediated by other factor(s). Work-experience (about which we have no information for our subjects) is likely to explain part of the difference, because ever-employed females tend to spend less of their lives in the labor-market than do males. However, it seems unlikely that in the lower-prestige, blue-collar occupations of these workers that work experience had a substantial impact on wage-income--at least not an impact sufficient enough to result in an indirect effect from sex to wage-income that would account for the bulk of the sex disparity left unexplained by our model. By the process of elimination, sex-discrimination looms as a conspicuous factor by which much of the large unexplained sex disparity in wage-income may be mediated. Considering the high dependence of working-class and lower-class black families on female wage-income, the results of this study would seem to suggest that sexism, is an important factor to be investigated in future studies of black poverty.

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TABLE A-1. Correlations, Means, and Standard Deviations of Wage-Income, Wage-Rate, and Related Factors.

Nonmetropolitan	S	E	J	T	O(SEI)	O(Holl.)	W-I	W-R	$\bar{x}$	s
S	1.0	.21	.11*	-.35	.12	-.16	-.58	-	.48	.50
E		1.0	.12	.15	.02*	.10	.07*	-.05	9.3	2.6
J			1.0	-.04*	.07*	.06*	-.04*	-.03	.07	.26
T				1.0	-.03*	.24	.60	-	1847.	684.
O(SEI)					1.0	.46	-.05*	-.06	14.6	7.5
O(Holl.)						1.0	.29	.09	1.8	.62
W-I							1.0	-	3272.	1728.
W-R								1.0	1.91	1.78
Metropolitan										
S	1.0	.10*	.06*	-.35	-.02*	-.24	-.62	-	.53	.5
E		1.0	.07*	-.12*	.14	.07*	-.07*	-.0004	10.1	2.4
J			1.0	-.01*	.06*	.18	.02*	-.003	.21	.41
T				1.0	-.07*	.16	.65	-	1821.	670.
O(SEI)					1.0	.52	.10*	.18	15.5	8.7
O(Holl.)						1.0	.28	.18	1.6	.67
W-I							1.0	-	3713.	2082.
W-R								1.0	2.07	1.03

* P > .05

S = Sex; E = Education; J = Job-training; T = Time-worked; O(SEI) = Occupation (Duncan's SEI); O(Holl.) = Hollingshead's Occupation Scale; W-I = Wage-Income; W-R = Wage-Rate.