

The Literature Corner: Recent Publications of Interest to Forensic Economists

James D. Rodgers and Robert J. Thornton

Associate Editor's Note

In this new feature of the *Litigation Economics Review*, it is our intention to provide an annotated listing of recent publications that are likely to be of considerable interest to forensic economists in their work and in their research. To compile such a list, we will primarily be scouring the regular *non-forensic* economics literature, a literature that because of time constraints or narrow sub-disciplinary interests is not likely to be visited as frequently (or maybe not at all) as many of us would wish. Although some of the publications that we will note are of the type that might be periodically brought to the attention of NAFE members via the LISTSERV, we feel that a regular feature such as this has several advantages. First, not all NAFE members subscribe to or read the LISTSERV. Secondly, information about recent publications provided on the LISTSERV is presented in a random, non-systematic way—one that is dependent on the time and goodwill of those providing the information. Finally, in a regular feature such as this, we are able to summarize, categorize, and link the publications in a way that is not always possible with the LISTSERV.

Because this feature is new, we welcome any suggestions from the NAFE readership about items to include, format, etc. The reader is cautioned that the article descriptions appearing below are necessarily brief and cannot convey all the richness of detail, qualifications, and caveats appearing in the articles themselves. Also, it should be noted that most of the works we highlight will generally have appeared in the last year or two. However, we have elected to follow no strict statute of limitations.

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In this issue, we highlight articles of interest in the areas of crime, disability and health, discrimination, earnings and education. As a result, articles have been arranged by topical area.

Crime

Grogger, Jeffrey. "The Effect of Arrests on the Employment and Earnings of Young Men," *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 90, No. 1, February 1995, pp. 51-72.

Summarizing this article in the author's own words: "The primary conclusion of this paper is that the effects of arrests on employment and earnings are moderate in magnitude and rather short-lived.... Most of the negative correlation between arrest records and labor market success stems from unobserved characteristics that jointly influence crime and labor market behavior, rather than from the causal effects of arrests.

"This finding helps resolve an apparent conflict between theory and observation. The cross-sectional correlation between earnings and arrest records is strongly negative, suggesting that the market penalty for committing crime is quite severe. Indeed, unless the risk of arrest is quite small, the occurrence of widespread crime in the face of such large market penalties would seem to cast doubt on whether youth crime could be explained by optimizing behavior. In fact, recent research shows that arrest risks are fairly large. In a world where arrests have small and

short-lived consequences, however, and most of the correlation between arrests and earnings is due to unobserved heterogeneity, widespread crime may well be consistent with optimizing behavior.

“My results are at odds with Freeman [Richard B. Freeman, “Crime and the Employment of Disadvantaged Youth,” in Adele Harrell and George Peterson, eds., *Drugs, Crime and Social Isolation: Barriers to Urban Opportunity* (Washington, D.C.: Urban Institute Press, 1992)], who, based on an analysis [of data] from the NLSY, concluded that jail terms had substantial long-term effects on earnings and employment. The differences in our results may be due in part to differences in the measures of jail spells available in our samples....It may be that long sentences have long-lasting effects, while the typical sentence has only a shorter effect. Since my data do not include an explicit measure of time served, however, I am unable to test this hypothesis directly.” (p. 70)

Grogger, Jeffrey. “Market Wages and Youth Crime,” *Journal of Labor Economics*, Vol. 16, No. 4, October 1998, pp. 756-91.

The author uses data from the NLSY for 1979 for young men not in the military and not in school to test various hypotheses about participation in criminal activities. A key feature of the article is the notion that the level of a person’s market wages in legal activities affects that person’s likelihood of participation in illegal activities. The empirical results support the conclusion that young men are responsive to wage incentives. The article links falling real wages of young less educated men in the 1970s and 1980s to increases in criminal activities during these decades. It also links greater participation by blacks in criminal activities to the lower relative wages of blacks. Finally, it explains the falling rate of participation in criminal activities with age by pointing to the higher real wages earned as males age and gain more work experience. The author estimates a market wage equation, a structural crime probit equation, and a labor supply equation. Two results from the wage equation are especially interesting. First, individuals who were charged or convicted of a crime in 1979 had wages that were 15% lower on average than those for other individuals. Second, being on probation reduced wages by 29% on average. Because employment is often stipulated as a condition for probation with a return to jail if employment is not maintained, individuals (for whom freedom is presumably very valuable) are willing to work for lower wages than would an otherwise identical person who is not subject to the conditions of probation.

Disability and Health

Cater, Bruce I. “Employment, Wage, and Accommodation Patterns of Permanently Impaired Workers,” *Journal of Labor Economics*, Vol. 18, No. 1, January 2000, pp. 74-97.

The author develops a model which seeks to explain employment, wage, and accommodation patterns experienced by permanently impaired workers after an occupational injury. Although the model is rather technical, the major implication

for forensic economists and vocational experts is nicely summarized by the author as follows: It is important to “look beyond the initial return to work [period] when attempting to measure the impact of impairment. The initial post-injury wages earned by impaired workers will, in many cases, overstate post-injury productivity. In addition, the ‘return to work’ should not be interpreted as the cessation of injury-related employment disruptions.” (p. 93)

Frank, Richard; Susan Busch; and Ernst Berndt. “Measuring Prices and Quantities of Treatment for Depression,” *American Economic Review*, Vol.88, No.2, May 1998, pp. 106-11.

Spending on depression and other mental illnesses has been pointed to as a major factor driving up overall medical spending in the U.S. The authors construct PPI and CPI versions of price indices for five treatment “bundles” for depression (e.g., psychotherapy alone, psychotherapy plus prescription drugs, etc.). They find that their price indices actually *fall* over the period studied (1991-95) in contrast to the substantial rise in the BLS medical CPI over the same period. An important implication of their results, in the words of the authors, is that “the use of standard indices may result in mistaking quantity changes for price changes.”

Kahn, Matthew. “Health and Labor Market Performance: The Case of Diabetes,” *Journal of Labor Economics*, Vol. 16, No. 4, October 1998, pp. 878-99.

The author uses data from the 1976 and the 1989 waves of the National Health Interview Survey (NHIS) and data from wave 1 (1991 to 1993) of the Health and Retirement Survey (HRS) to document changes in the labor market performance of diabetics from 1976-92. The bulk of his results compare labor market outcomes of nondiabetics and persons with Type II diabetes. He finds differential trends for males and females. Female diabetics have significantly increased their employment rates (from 28.0% in 1976 to 44.0% in 1992) while rates for male diabetics have fallen (from 69.3% in 1976 to 61.9% in 1992). This compares to smaller percentage increases in employment rates for nondiabetic women (47.7% in 1976 to 61.4% in 1992) and smaller decreases for nondiabetic men (82.9% in 1976 to 79.5% in 1992). The author speculates that the employment gains of diabetic women relative to diabetic men in part reflects a greater investment by diabetic women in their health and greater compliance with a regimented routine (blood testing, exercise, smoking cessation, reduced sugar and fat consumption) than is true for diabetic men. Concerning the income of employed diabetics, little difference is found in family income using the NHIS data. While tabular comparisons show lower family income for diabetics, the income differences disappear or become statistically insignificant in a regression equation controlling for body mass index, education, race and marital status of the family head. It is also found that diabetics have experienced a 6% growth in family income from 1976-1989 as compared to nondiabetics. Regressions with the HRS data reveal no salary gap for diabetic women but a substantial gap for diabetic men. However, the author puts little weight on the result for men

due to the small sample (98) of diabetic men, a quarter of whom reported annual salaries of less than \$1,000. The author discusses the puzzle of why employment rates differ between diabetics and nondiabetics as much as they do while, given that they are working, their incomes differ so little. He speculates that diabetics divide into two groups: compliant and non-compliant, who are and are not in control of their disease, respectively. He predicts that the size of the latter group will shrink over time as the cost of compliance continues to be reduced by health innovations. The author is unable to study the income of Type I diabetics because the HRS sample is too small.

Attanasio, Orazio P., and Hilary Williamson Hoynes. "Differential Mortality and Wealth Accumulation," *Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 35, No. 1, Winter 2000, pp. 1-29.

This paper makes contributions in two areas: first, it identifies and estimates the relationship between wealth and mortality; second, it uses this relationship to correct estimates of the age-wealth profile using a time series of repeated cross-sections. Forensic economists will be particularly interested in the paper's wealth/mortality results and how these might be tailored to fit the circumstances of a particular individual. [An interesting reference in the bibliography of this paper that we were unable to review for this issue is Jonathan Feinstein, "The Relationship between Socioeconomic Status and Health: A Review of the Literature," *The Milbank Quarterly*, Vol. 71, No. 2, 1993, pp. 279-322.] The paper pools data from SIPP for 1984 (containing 21,000 families) and 1987 (containing 12,000 families). The SIPP mortality rates are very similar to those found in the U.S. life tables for various age/gender/race groupings. For the presentation on wealth and mortality linkages, the data are limited to a sample of 7,025 married couples age 50 and over. A summary of the data is presented by showing the probability of death of either head or spouse by age of head of household and wealth quartile. Within each age group, death rates are inversely related to wealth quartile. Mortality in the lowest wealth quartile is, on average, three times as high as mortality in the highest wealth quartile. Most of the effect of wealth shows up in the high death rates in the lowest quartile compared to the other three, with the relationship being much less strong among the upper three quartiles. The mortality information is used to correct a bias in age-wealth profiles that arises from a sample selection problem. As the authors state: "If wealth and mortality are inversely related, then as one samples in subsequent years from a given cohort of individuals, one is drawing from a population that is becoming progressively richer as the poorest individuals die younger. To correct for this bias, therefore, one can compute weights that are inversely proportional to the probability that each individual in the sample has survived to the observed age." (p. 10)

Discrimination

Biddle, Jeff, and Daniel Hamermesh. "Beauty, Productivity, and Discrimination: Lawyers' Looks and Lucre," *Journal of Labor Economics*, Vol. 16, No. 1, January 1998, pp.172-201

In their path breaking 1994 article ("Beauty and the Labor Market," *American Economic Review*, Vol. 84, Dec. 1994, pp. 1174-94), Hamermesh and Biddle found that, *ceteris paribus*, wages of people with below-average looks are lower (by about 5-10%) than those of average-looking workers, and there is also a (slightly smaller) premium for good-looking people (like Rodgers and Thornton). Here the authors find that better-looking attorneys earn more than others, an effect that increases with experience. The authors attribute the effect to clients preferring better-looking attorneys, although it is unclear whether the clients' choices stem purely from discrimination or from their (correct) belief that judges, juries, and other attorneys treat better-looking attorneys more favorably. We believe that additional implications for the forensic economist are to be wary of dealing with unattractive attorneys (you might not get paid) and to devote more attention to one's own appearance in case the Hamermesh-Biddle effect extends to forensic economists also.

Brown, Charles, and Mary Corcoran. "Sex-Based Differences in the Male-Female Wage Gap," *Journal of Labor Economics*, Vol. 15, No. 3, Part 1, July 1997, pp.431-65.

Using data from the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) and the National Longitudinal Study (NLS), the authors find that differences in college majors are strongly related to the male-female earnings gap. A major reason is that the college major affects the kinds of occupations and industries in which graduates work. For forensic economists, this finding implies that appropriate "tailoring" to account for major fields of study can have substantial effects on lost earnings estimates.

Baldwin, Marjorie, and William G. Johnson. "Labor Market Discrimination against Men With Disabilities," *Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 29, No. 1, Winter 1994, pp. 1-19.

In the words of the authors, "This article examines the effect of employer discrimination on employment and wages of handicapped and disabled men in 1972 and 1984." Disabled men are defined as men with heart trouble, back problems, diabetes, high blood pressure, and other conditions subject to little or no prejudice; handicapped men are defined as men with conditions that are subject to greater prejudice (missing limbs, blindness, deafness, cancer, senility, stroke, paralysis, mental retardation, mental illness, alcohol or drug problems). Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) data for 1984 are used to generate empirical results, which are then compared to similar empirical work conducted using 1972 data in the Social Security Survey of the Disabled. The authors report that in both years discriminatory wage differen-

tials were higher for men with handicaps than for men with disabilities. As they put it, "In 1984, the offer [hourly] wages for handicapped men were \$2.44 less than for nondisabled men. Approximately 40 percent of the differential (\$0.98) was attributable to discrimination and a residual. We attribute the discrimination to prejudice, appealing to the attitudes measured by the Tringo scale." (p. 13). [The reference is to John L. Tringo, "The Hierarchy of Preference toward Disability Groups," *Journal of Special Education*, Vol. 4, No. 3, 1970, pp. 295-306.] They conclude that "barriers to employment are a more important problem than wage discrimination for men with disabilities and that the causes of discrimination are different for different impairments....The employment prospects for less skilled, inexperienced workers who are impaired by an injury or illness are limited since the benefits to employers from investments in job modifications are very small." (p. 14)

Earnings

Mar, Don. "Four Decades of Asian American Women's Earnings: Japanese, Chinese, and Filipino American Women's Earnings, 1960-1990," *Contemporary Economic Policy*, Vol. 18, No. 2, April 2000, pp.228-37.

The article compares the earnings progress of Asian American women from 1960-90 using Census of Population data. Unadjusted earnings show a marked earnings advantage to Asian American women relative to white women, a result of the former group's higher educational levels, a higher proportion working in the professional and technical occupations, and the tendency to reside in urban areas outside the South. Nevertheless, the author still finds evidence of discrimination toward Asian American women.

Hecker, Daniel. "Earnings of College Graduates: Women Compared with Men," *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 121, No. 3, March 1998, pp. 62-71.

Hecker uses data from a 1993 National Science Foundation survey of 215,000 persons who reported in the 1990 census that they had at least a bachelor's degree. He compares women's and men's full-time earnings at a level of detail (by major and occupation) not possible with the commonly used Current Population Survey data. He finds that, although female college graduates overall aged 25-64 had median earnings that were 73% as high as men's, when the major field of study was considered the gender earnings ratio rose (e.g., to an average of 83% for young women graduates). Similarly, when occupation was considered, women's median earnings were generally much closer to those of men than the overall ratio. Hecker also provides two detailed tables showing median earnings of women relative to those of men by field of study, occupation, and degree level.

Education

Cameron, Stephen V., and James J. Heckman. "The Nonequivalence of High School Equivalence," *Journal of Labor Economics*, Vol. 11, No. 1, Part 1, January 1993, pp. 1-47.

This is most definitely a "two-thumbs up" article that has been very influential. Using National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) data for males, Cameron and Heckman reach the conclusion that exam-certified high school equivalents are statistically indistinguishable in the labor market outcomes from high school dropouts. In the words of Cameron and Heckman, both groups "have comparably poor wages, earnings, hours of work, unemployment experiences and job tenure. Even after controlling for ability, GED recipients have inferior labor market status compared to high school graduates. GED recipients have lower employment rates and less work experience than high school graduates. Both anecdotal and empirical evidence also suggests that employers and the military discount the GED. Whatever difference is found among GED recipients, dropouts and high school graduates is largely accounted for by years of schooling. There is no cheap substitute for classroom instruction....Whatever economic return exists from GED reciprocity arises from its value in opening postsecondary schooling and training opportunities." (p. 44) In addition, the authors find that the returns to GED recipients from college education are lower than for persons who are high school graduates. A qualification noted by Cameron and Heckman is that the sampling frame of the NLSY data permit them to analyze only the early stages of labor market careers (no older than age 28). At later stages, GEDs might become more like high school graduates and less like high school dropouts, but analysis of the relative impact of the GED on the entire life cycle of labor market experience requires data for older persons. (pp. 43-44). One implication of the Cameron/Heckman article for forensic work is that when forecasting the future earnings of a young male with a GED, one might consider using the earnings of male high school dropouts—at least in the early stages of the age-earnings cycle.

Cao, Jian; Ernst W. Stromsdorfer; and Gregory Weeks. "The Human Capital Effect of the GED on Low Income Women," *Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 31, No. 1, Winter 1996, pp. 206-28.

The authors attempt to assess the labor market impact of the GED for women in a fashion parallel to the work of Cameron and Heckman for men. They use data from the NLSY mother and children file from 1987 to 1990, when the mothers are 22-33 years old, and from the Washington State Family Income Study (FIS) containing mothers aged 25 to 50. For hours of work, the authors find no difference between dropouts, GED recipients and high school graduates. For hourly wage rates, the results are mixed. Using the FIS data, no difference is found in the hourly wage rates of the three educational attainment categories. Using the NLSY data, the authors find that GED recipients have hourly wage rates greater than dropouts but less than high school graduates.

They conclude that “Years of education completed is found to be capable of explaining the observed wage differential among high school graduates, GED recipients, and high school dropouts—the basic finding of Cameron and Heckman.” (pp. 217-18)

Murnane, Richard; John Willett; and Kathryn Boudett. “Does a GED Lead to More Training, Post-Secondary Education, and Military Service for School Dropouts?” *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, Vol. 51, No. 1, October 1997 pp. 100-116.

Using data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth for 1979-91, the authors find that receipt of a GED increases the probability that school dropouts will attend college and participate in non-company training. However, fewer than 20% of GED recipients had completed at least a year of college by the age of 26, despite the expressed intention of 2/3 of them to obtain further study after receiving the GED credential.

Kane, Thomas and Cecilia Rouse. “The Community College: Educating Students at the Margin between College and Work,” *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, Vol. 13, No. 1, Winter 1999, pp. 63-84.

Although most of this article deals with such topics as subsidies and enrollments, financing, and absorption rates into higher educational institutions, one very useful section addresses the labor market payoffs to community college. As many forensic economists know, there has been very little research done on the relation between community college attendance and earnings. (The Current Population Survey publishes information on years of schooling and earnings, but not by the *type* of institution attended.) Summarizing the results from three studies, the authors report that one year of community college is associated with about a 5-8 % increase in annual earnings, which is about the same as the estimated value of a year of education at a four-year college. The returns appear to be the same for those who attend community college immediately after high school as for those who attend community college after age 25. There is also an additional payoff to completing the associate’s degree, although only about 16% of community college entrants complete that degree.

Evans, William N., and Robert Schwab. “Finishing High School and Starting College: Do Catholic Schools Make a Difference?” *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Vol. 90, No. 4, November 1995, pp. 941-74.

The authors summarize their conclusions as follows: “We find a great deal of support for the argument that Catholic schools are more effective than public schools. Single-equation estimates suggest that for the typical student, attending a Catholic school raises the probability of finishing high school or entering a four-year college by thirteen percentage points. Unlike single-equation estimates of the effect of Catholic schools on test scores, these results are qualitatively important and robust. This Catholic school effect is very

large. It is twice as large as the effect of moving from a one- to a two-parent family and two-and-one-half times as large as the effect of raising parents’ education from a high school dropout to a college graduate. In models where we treat the decision to attend a Catholic school as an endogenous variable, we find almost no evidence of selection bias. Bivariate probit estimates of the average treatment effect of Catholic schools on high school graduation and entering college are very similar to single-equation probit estimates.”(p. 944) The results in the Evans and Schwab paper relate to attending a Catholic school and can be compared to those of Gill and Foley, who examine the influence of being “raised Catholic,” which does not necessarily imply attendance at Catholic school. (Andrew M. Gill and Jack Foley, “Predicting Educational Attainment for a Minor Child,” *Journal of Forensic Economics*, Vol. 9, No. 2, pp. 101-112.) In models 2 and 3, Gill and Foley find an insignificant coefficient for the “raised Catholic” variable for girls in their ordered probit equation explaining educational attainment, though for boys the “raised Catholic” variable is found to be a highly significant and important positive influence. Whether this result is due to the fact that more Catholic boys attend Catholic schools than do Catholic girls is unknown.

Vella, Francis. “Do Catholic Schools Make a Difference? Evidence from Australia,” *Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 34, No. 1, Winter 1999, pp. 208-224.

According to the author, “This paper examines whether the substantial benefits reported for attending Catholic school in the United States also exist for students of Catholic schools in Australia. We find that despite its relatively low cost, attendance at Australian Catholic schools increases the probability of completing high school by 17 percentage points. The evidence also suggests that attendance at Catholic schools increases the probability of obtaining higher education and is associated with superior performance in the labor market [higher employment rates and hourly wages].” (p. 208). The author notes that it is difficult to determine what aspects of Catholic education are responsible for these higher rates of success (more discretion with respect to curriculum and hiring practices, better facilities, greater discipline?) even though there is an increasing body of evidence supporting their existence.

Brewer, Dominic J.; Eric Eide; and Ronald G. Ehrenberg. “Does It Pay to Attend an Elite Private College?” *Journal of Human Resources*, Vol. 34, No. 1, Winter 1999, pp. 104-119.

In the words of the authors: “In this paper we have presented estimates of the effect of attending colleges of different quality on labor market outcomes. Unlike previous studies, we are able to utilize longitudinal data which permit us to examine how the labor market return changes across time for a given cohort, and how the return changed for those cohorts that attended college in the early 1970s and the early 1980s. In addition, we allow for the fact that students systematically select the college quality type they attend on the basis of the net costs they face. Although we find little evidence that this

correction for selectivity significantly affects our results, it is important in principle. We find a large premium to attending an elite private institution and a smaller premium to attending a middle-rated private institution, relative to a bottom-rated public school. Evidence is weaker of a return to attending an elite public university. Our analysis suggests the return to elite private colleges increased significantly for the 1980s cohorts as compared to the 1972 cohort. We do not attempt to determine the *cause* of this change, but it is a potentially important finding in light of the large tuition increases concentrated at these institutions during the past two decades. These results suggest that the rising tuition at these elite private institutions was at least partially made possible by the increasing returns to quality that took place.” (p. 119)

Employment

Neumark, David; Daniel Polsky; and Daniel Hansen. “Has Job Stability Declined Yet? New Evidence for the 1990s,” *Journal of Labor Economics*, Vol. 17, No. 4, Part 2, October 1999, pp. S29-S64.

The authors update the evidence on job stability through the mid-1990s using CPS data. They find evidence of “modest declines” in job stability in the first half of the 1990s, but argue that aggregate job stability was stable in the 1980s. This latter contention has been in dispute, however, since other research has claimed that there was a substantial decline in job stability in the 1980s.

Schmidt, Stefanie, and Shirley Svorney. “Recent Trends in Job Security and Stability,” *Journal of Labor Research*, Vol. 19, no. 4, Fall 1998, pp. 647-68.

This article reviews the current research on job tenure and job separations over the past several decades. The authors find that the most consistent result in the literature is that women’s job tenure has increased markedly but that there has not been a dramatic change in job security in general over the past two decades. The studies they review also do not point to consistent losses in job security for any particular demographic group, although there is some evidence that supports the conventional wisdom about the growing incidence of involuntary job loss among older workers and workers with a college education since the late 1980s. Neither does the research find consistent evidence of worsening conditions for less skilled workers between the 1970s and the 1990s. There appears to have been a decline in job security for high school dropouts during the 1980s, but it does not appear to be part of a consistent trend.

Hipple, Steven. “Worker Displacement in the Mid-1990s,” *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 122, No. 7, July 1999, pp. 15-32.

This article summarizes the results of the most recent biennial survey of worker displacement undertaken by the US Department of Labor. The latest survey results show that for the 1995-96 period the number of displaced workers fell, and

those displaced spent fewer weeks without work and suffered less severe earnings losses than workers in the previous two surveys.

Rodriguez, Daniel, and Madeline Zavodny. “Are Displaced Workers Now Finished at Age Forty?” *Economic Review*. Federal Reserve Bank of Atlanta, Second Quarter, 2000.

This is an excellent review and analysis of the controversies and evidence concerning worker displacement. The authors provide data that suggest that much of the concern about displacement may soon abate since displacement rates during 1995-97 have fallen to levels similar to those experienced in the 1980s expansion and the gap between pre- and post-displacement earnings has shrunk.

Barrow, Lisa. “An Analysis of Women’s Return-to-Work Decisions Following First Birth,” *Economic Inquiry*, Vol. 37, No. 3, July 1999, pp. 432-451.

The author uses information from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth to analyze women’s decisions to return to work within a year of the birth of their first child. She finds that women facing lower child care costs are more likely to return to work, as are women with higher wages and lower family income. These findings, of course, are consistent with what basic economic theory would predict, but the author also provides estimates of the elasticity of the re-employment rates for new mothers with respect to child care costs (-0.18), wages (0.12), and family income (-0.04).

Hours of Work

U.S. Department of Labor. *Report on the American Workforce*. 1999.

This (fourth) *Report on the American Workforce* contains a chapter (“Hours of Work”) that will be useful to many forensic economists. The chapter was written by 14 economists (which is most likely a record for a labor economics article – Howard Hayghe, William Wiatrowski, et al.) and examines trends in work time using data from BLS surveys and other sources. The major survey, the Current Population Survey, indicates that average weekly hours of work for employed workers has been fairly stable since 1960, fluctuating between 38-40 hours per week. However, the stability of the overall average masks some changes in subgroups. First, there has been a small increase in the number of hours worked by women. Second, there has been an increase in the proportion of men who are working extended workweeks (i.e., 40 hours or more). Third, data show that married couples with small children are spending considerably more combined hours at work. This, along with the growing number of single-parent families, has resulted in a “time squeeze” for many individuals. Still, some people are working fewer hours than in the past, particularly men aged 25-54 with less than a high school education and men at the lower end of the earnings distribution.