

Wages, intelligence and physical appearance

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Abstract

The paper explores the relation among wages, intelligence and Physical appearance. We find the later to influence the former, but once IQ is accounted for, the effect vanishes, showing that physical appearance may be a signal that actually indicates the cognitive ability possessed by the workers. Small and medium firms, lacking technologies to properly estimate the ability of their applicants, may rely on physical appearance as a substitute. We finally discuss some explanations of the effect found.

JEL code; J3, J7, D3

Introduction

Since the seminal work of Mincer (1974) many economists have regressed wages on different sets of attributes including intelligence (Card, 1992; Arias et al. 2001; Meghir 2005; Plug 2000), behavioral traits (Bowles, 2001; Kwon et al. 2001), sibling characteristics and birth order (Dancer, et al. 2004), family influences (Becker 1993; Bound et al. 1986), gender (Oaxaca, 1973; Blau et al. 1996; del Rio et al. 2003), race (Neal, 1996; Heckman 1998), socioeconomic influences (Herrnstein et al. 1994; Psacharopoulos, 2002), health status (Schultz, 1985), public vs. private hiring (Tetaz, 2005a), and so on.

Some scholars have gone even farther. Hamermesh et al. (1994) found “beauty” to influence wages, Persico et al. (2004) do the same for “height” but they were not the first; Sargent, et al. (1994) coupled this with the “obesity effect”.

More precisely, Loh et al. (1993) draw on “The economic effects of physical appearance”, but to our knowledge there was no attempt to relate physical attributes to intelligence, and therefore explain why such a premium exists, in a meaningful way.

In this paper we explore the relation between physical appearance and wages. In so doing we will try to find out whether the influence is mediated by cognitive factors.

The paper develops as follows; in the next section we will discuss some theoretical issues in regard to wage settings. Then we will introduce our data base. Section four presents our regressions, the next part is left for discussing the results. Finally we will conclude.

The determination of wages

From a theoretical point of view; wages are settled in the labor market as a result of the interaction between demand and supply of time for working purposes.

Formally, in a competitive environment there is a demand

$$D = f(\text{Wage; Workers Productivity; Price of the product; etc.}) \quad (1)$$

and a supply

$$S = f(\text{Wage; Amenities of the job; etc.}) \quad (2)$$

Where “Amenities” stands for many non monetary advantages (or disadvantages) associated with the task due to perform, such as the difficulty of the job, the office environment, the location of the firm, and so on.

As a result, and using the implicit function theorem, we can derive the equilibrium wage as follows

$$W^* = f^*(WP; P; A; \text{etc}) \quad (3)$$

where $(\partial W^*/\partial WP) > 0$; $(\partial W^*/\partial P) > 0$; $(\partial W^*/\partial A) > \text{ or } < 0$, depending on the amenity.

As the reader can realize “Productivity” is made up of many (some fixed) personal traits, such as ability, education, health status, and in the case of agency problems, personality as well.

Following Mincer original formulation; people would invest in schooling provided that the marginal investment return exceeds (in the equilibrium is equal to) the marginal cost of doing so. If we restrict investment costs to the foregone earnings due to the time spent at schooling, we obtain the, by now, famous Mincer equation

$$\log(W^*) = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{ Years of schooling} + \beta_2 \text{ Tenure} + \beta_3 \text{ Tenure squared} \quad (4)$$

where “ α ” stands for the level of non qualified wage, whereas “ β_1 ” is the proportional change in the wage due to one additional year of schooling.

Since Mincer supposed the only cost of schooling was foregone earnings, at the individual level of optimality (from which we derived equation 2), “ β_1 ” becomes the internal rate of return of one additional year of education.

As Heckman et. al. (2005) have pointed out, if the marginal cost of schooling goes beyond foregone earnings (and it goes indeed), “ β_1 ” can no longer be thought as an internal rate of return, but as the mere increment in wages after one additional year of schooling.

Anyway, equation (4) is commonly used in the literature to measure the impact of any change in equation (3), and therefore we will take advantage of that framework here.

The impact of physical appearance

Unfortunately there seems to be no place in our formulation to account for the effect of physical appearance on wages.

And we used “seems” because having a closer look at equation 3, we can see that “Amenities” can certainly play a role in the level of wages.

Until now we have supposed that workers effort was not endogenous, but what if it is indeed?.

If this were the case, workers productivity would become endogenous in the following way

$$\text{Productivity} = F(\text{Effort; Ability; Education; Health; Personality; etc.}) \quad (5)$$

In turn, provided that principal has no chance to fully observe the agent level of effort (or she has no access to incentive instruments, due to Law constraints), there is scope for the agent to decide his level of effort in order to maximize his utility.

Then “effort” may well be fostered giving the workers a better environment. In turn this can be achieved choosing “beauty” peers, so as to raise the exit cost.

Finally, to attract the beauty, firms will have to offer them higher wages. The beauty premium being the result of increasing marginally the wage paid to the beauty every time the increase in the cost of that wages is less than the raise in the level of effort exerted by the other workers, times the price of unit of effort, which corresponds with the value of the marginal productivity associated.

Moreover; if this scenario applies, readers ought to bear in mind that peer’s beauty is actually a public good.

On the other hand, and regardless any agency considerations, it may be the case that workers just consider peer’s beauty as an amenity, being therefore willing to supply more time per dollar of wage. As a result firms will marginally pay higher wages to the beauty every time the increase in that bill is less than the sum of the substitution rate between amenities and wages for the other workers (namely, Samuelson’s rule).

Last but not least, physical appearance may not play a role “per se”, but as a signal that shows other personal traits that enters equation 5, such as intelligence or personality, that are not easy to observe straight forward.

For example, while big firms usually have their own human resources department, equipped with the technology needed to somehow measure those traits, small and medium firms may lack that possibility and be obliged to rely on noisy signals.

Physical appearance, in turn, may be correlated with intelligence or personality (Damon et. al., 1996; Gottfredson et. al., 2004; Rushton 2000; Jensen et. al. 1993) so the firms may make wise decisions based on appearance, everything else equal.

In the remaining part of the paper we will see whether the evidence supports any of the preceding hypothesis.

The data

To our knowledge, there is no data covering cognitive, physical and earnings aspects at the same time.

To mend that lack of information we run a household survey during the month of April, 2005.

We draw a random sample of 929 subjects covering the area known as "Gran La Plata", namely the cities of La Plata, Berisso and Ensenada. The area is a 600.000 inhabitants located 50 kilometers far from Buenos Aires, the Capital district of Argentina.

To give the readers an idea, La Plata is the Capital of Buenos Aires Province; an administrative city with a big university of almost 100.000 students, whereas Berisso and Ensenada are smaller, but highly industrial.

The survey consisted in 70 questions including a short IQ test, years of education, wage per month; tenure; family background; school characteristics; and many usual questions in the literature. On top of that we asked the surveyers (six in total) to provide us with a number ranging from 1 to 10, indicating the physical appearance of the subjects as they show up, before starting the survey. Then, at the end of the interview the surveyers gave another figure, again ranging from 1 to 10, in order to see to what extent they were "well impressed" by the subjects after the interview.

To obtain a comparable measure, we adjusted the wage reported by the subjects when they were working in the formal sector of the economy, since they usually work 11 months a year but perceive 13 wages a year (due to holidays and complementary annual salary). We did not perform any adjustment to account for pension bonuses, although according to Mincer's original formulation we should. Briefly, if a worker is promised a pocket wage plus a pension fund when retired, the latter is included both in the employer and the employee cost benefit analysis. Unfortunately in Argentina there is a mixed pension system, and we have no reason to believe that the pension received by the worker when retired is likely to be related to the tax charged by the government, at all. Therefore we are not able to make proper estimations, but we warn the reader to look at our estimates as low bounds of the proper figure.

The IQ test consisted in eight questions (see the methodological appendix), but we dropped one due to ambiguity in the legal response (shown to us by an anonymous referee).

With the seven remaining items we performed a factor analysis to find out whether there was a general "latent" factor accounting for the correlations between the items, as described by Spearman (1927). There was no need to rotate the factors since only the first one had a relevant eigenvalue of 1,26 (see Garcia 2004; Cortada de Kohan 1994); the second being of just 0.062.

The results

To begin with, we run (OLS) the usual Mincerian equation (4) using age as proxy of tenure.

Logatithm of the adjusted hourly wage			
Dependent Variables	Coeficient	"t" statistic	P>t
<i>Years of education</i>	0,0511	6.84	0.000
<i>Age</i>	0,0853	7.03	0.000
<i>Age squared</i>	-0,0008	-5.70	0.000
<i>Constant</i>	2,4570	9.91	0.000
Observations	512		
Adjusted R squared	0,2043		

The results are in line with the literature (Psacharopolous op. cit.), though perhaps with a higher than usual prime for tenure.

Now, we add the physical appearance variable in order to see whether there is an impact on wages.

Logatithm of the adjusted hourly wage including physical appearance			
Dependent Variables	Coeficient	"t" statistic	P>t
<i>Years of education</i>	0,0506	6.80	0.000
<i>Age</i>	0,0879	7.24	0.000
<i>Age squared</i>	-0,0009	-5.86	0.000
<i>Physical appearance</i>	0,0292	2.18	0.030
<i>Constant</i>	2,2180	8.21	0.000
Observations	512		
Adjusted R squared	0,2102		

Interestingly enough, every point of physical appearance seems to be rewarded at the market, almost as much as 3/5 the (mincerian) return to one additional year of schooling. Of course, the strength of the relation is rather weak but this can be explained as the result of the low reliability of the procedure used to measure physical appearance (for reliability and validity, see Cortada de Kohan, 1968).

Finally, we introduce the intelligence factor.

Logatithm of the adjusted hourly wage including physical appearance and a general factor of intelligence			
Dependent Variables	Coeficient	"t" statistic	P>t
<i>Years of education</i>	0,0354	4,67	0.000
<i>Age</i>	0,0756	6,36	0.000
<i>Age squared</i>	-0,0007	-4,98	0.000
<i>Physical appearance</i>	-0,0006	-0,04	0.966
<i>General factor of Intelligence</i>	0,2402	6,19	0.000
<i>Constant</i>	2,8120	10,12	0.000
Observations	512		
Adjusted R squared	0,2643		

As the reader can see from the table above, not only the introduction of "intelligence" as a regressor, increased significantly the R squared, but it ruled out the

effect of physical appearance as well. To give the reader an idea about the size of the effect, one standard deviation of the general factor of intelligence equals 0,78 so the marginal increase in the medium wage due to a one standar deviation in general intelligence is 18,75%.

Of course there was a reduction in the size of the “years of education” coefficient. This effect was broadly discussed in the literature (see Rosen 1976, Hartog 2001). Basicaly, it was argued that education achievement worked as a signal, showing the ability of the subjects (Spence 1974), therefore once ability is included in the regressions, part of the effect of education as a signal of that ability, vanishes. Others have replied (see Heckman et.al. op.cit.) that since education plays a key rol in the determination of intelligence, the introduction of a measure of the later in the regressions, steals the former part of it's effect.

Interesting as it may be, the issue is out of the scope of this paper

On the other hand, the “death” of the “physical appaerance” coefficient, once intelligence was accounted for, shed new light on discrimination arguments, indicating that perhaps physical appearance is used when firms lack the proper technology to elucidate the ability of their applicants. By the way, the Pearson's correlation between intelligence and physical appearance is 0,3307 in our sample, whereas, between physical appearance and the adjusted hourly wage is only 0,0047.

Final comments

We started this paper wondering why some authors had found that beautiful people were better paid.

After analysing the issue using a thoretical framework, we came to the point that physical appearance may be either a job amentity or an incentive to elicit more effort. Besides we considered the chance that appearance was just a signal to indicate workers ability.

We, then draw on a household survey specificaly suited to account for physical appearance effect on wages, coupled with the impact of intelligence.

The most important findings are that physical appearance play no rol in wages determination once intelligence is accounted for.

Nevertheles, if the firm lacks the technology to properly estimate worker's ability, it can rels in physical appearance as a proxy, based on the correlation it shows with the former.

It remains to be explained, why such a correlation exist at all.

To answer this question we have to begin asking how intelligence is determined.

Fortunately there is a lot of literature on the issue (see Jensen 1975; Eysenck 1981; Plomin 1991; Lewontin 1996; Gould 1997; Winship et. al. 1997; Carey 2000; Garlick 2002; Tetaz 2005b).

Briefly, it seems that both genes and the environment play important roles in that task. As to the link between environment determination of IQ and physical appearance it may be the case that teacher's pay more attention the more beautiful a student is (see Figlio 2005, for a related discrimination). Moreover, it was found (Harrell 2005) that even parents discriminate among their children giving more atention to the more beautiful ones

With regard to the relation between genes determination of IQ and physical appearance, it could be that more clever subjects were more productive in hunting and collecting many years ago (perhaps one millon or more), and therefore preferred by the women because a “richer” partner could provide more resources to reassure the well being of the children. The most intelligent men, in turn, having a broader list of potential mates, were able to chose the most beatiful among. On top of that, clever people (both men and women), are likley to have been more keen in detecting one of the most

important regularities of life; that of understanding the rules of courtship (see Buss et. al., 1993), then they had a plus to win more beautiful mates.

Last but not least, although physical appearance correlates with intelligence, there is a lot of noise in the relation, meaning that the use of such a proxy implies committing mistakes from time to time, with the following negative impact on discrimination.

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Appendix

The short intelligence Test

The following are the eight questions (and the expected answers) asked by the surveyers. The reader are reminded the the originals, were placed in spanish, therefore the translation may not be fully accurate.

- 1- "If I tell you; seven...twenty one... thirty five...what's the next number in the series?" (49).
- 2- "Long is to short, as wide is to...?" (narrow)
- 3- "The squared is to the cube as the triangle is to..." (pyramide or Prism)
- 4- "If some japanese are warriors and some warriors are brave, then one can conclude that some japanese ought to be brave. True or false?" (false)
- 5- "If I tell you; A...C...E; what's the next leter in the series (G)
- 6- "If I tell you; S...M...W; what's the next leter in the series (T)
- 7- "Think in the next geometric figures; a triangle, a squared, a cube, a rectangle. Wich one do you think do not belong to the group" (cube)
- 8- Imagine a squared. Now imagine that you draw the two diagonals, as if it were an "X". Then...how many triangles can you count in the figure. (8)