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consequence of the gender pay gap. Our simulation analysis suggests that highly educated, high-income women are unlikely to associate in terms of education. We explore the sensitivity of these simulation results to other specifications. Additional data S4 examines the sensitivity of our results to the selection of birth cohorts, additional S5 data to the restriction on childless men and women, and additional data S6 examines different matching rules. Our findings solid results in these different decisions and show results substantially similar to those shown in Figure 3. Table 4 shows the status attributes of men and women, presented as the average and SD for measures of social class, professional prestige and disposable income, between types of unions through education. Table Table and standard deviation (in parentheses) for EI, SIOPS and annual disposable income, for men and women in the 1970-1972 cohort, depending on the type of union (statistics for other cohort groups are essentially similar). H.Edu woman. . The man H.Edu. . Both H.Edu. . Average SEI (SD), by trade union type Women 44 (21) 44 (22) 47 (19) Men 43 (23) 46 (20) 48 (19) SIOPS average (SD), by trade union type Women 52 (9) 44 (13) 55 (10) Men 43 (11) 54 (10) 56 (10) Average Income (S Trade union type Women 156 100 (142,200) 155,900 (104,900) 181,200 (166,000) Men 181 185,400 (321,300) 218,700 (300,800) 225,200 (195,100) Table 4 highlights how women in hypogamous unions are relatively disadvantaged compared to highly educated women in homogeneous unions. Women in hypogamous unions have a slightly lower level of social class and professional prestige, and their average disposable income is 86 percent of women in educational partnership. Thus, part of the explanation why women who associate in education tend not to over-win their male partners is that these women are themselves negatively selected on income. Table 4 also suggests that there is no gender re-ed. Women who associate in education have a lower status than men who associate. Overall, the simulation analysis combined with the results of Table 3 suggests that hypogamous unions are at a disadvantage compared to homogeneous couples, but also compared to hypergamous unions.4 Discussion Women have closed or reversed the gender gap in post-secondary education in most European countries (Van Bavel, 2012). As a result of this reversal, an unprecedented model of female educational hypogamy has emerged in several countries (Doma-ski and Przybysz, 2007; And Jalovaara, 2015). We wonder if the decline of educational hypergamy implies a decline in other forms of hypergamy status. Sweden provides an excellent trial case for such an issue because female educational hypogamy was widespread beginning with cohorts born in the 1960s. We built ourselves on a notion of weberian multidimensional status and argued that we must consider multiple forms of status to advance our understanding of inequalities within the couple. We used administrative registry data to examine three dimensions of status: social class background, professional prestige and income. We compared the relative status of men and women within and between unions. We found that gender inequalities differ by size of the Our models of regression have shown that for social origin and professional prestige, the partner who has higher education also tends to outperform the other partner in terms of social class, and especially in terms of professional prestige. For example, unions where women associate in terms of education also tend to be unions where women have and often unions where they have a higher professional prestige. It should be noted, however, that these average differences in status, as shown in our last stage (Table 4), are not very important. The results of differences in disposable income reveal that for all educational pairings, men tend to over-gain women. It is also common for couples to be almost equal in terms of income (for women to earn 45-55% of total households), a finding reflected in economic research (Hederos and Stenberg, 2019). However, women who have a higher education than their partners do not have an income advantage. In this way, income differs from professional prestige and social class. Our income results are consistent with previous U.S. research (Qian, 2017). In a study conducted in European countries, Klesment and Van Bavel (2017) showed that women in hypogamous relationships in educational terms were more likely to be breadwinners than other women, as did Schwartz and Han (2014) in their study of American marriages. Our study shows that women in hypogamous unions have a slightly (1 percent) higher probability of over-earning their husbands compared to other women. It should also be noted that in this study, income was measured in the couple before the birth of the common child. This is a period when Swedish women's incomes peak and income equality among Swedish families is highest, after which men's and women's incomes tend to diverge by 30% in the first 15 years (Angelov, Johansson and Lindahl, 2016). The gender pay gap in Sweden may lead to income inequality in income. We did a simulation analysis to fix it. In the results presented here, we compared couples born in 1970-1972 with 100 random pair simulations of similar birth years (1968-1971 for men and 1971-1974 for women) that were randomly compared using educational and income data from the year 2000. We also conducted several sensitivity analyses (see additional data S4-S6) to address possible biases in the simulations, the result of which suggests that the simulations are not significantly affected by the choice of birth cohort, the restriction on childless men and women, and the matching rules. Our simulation analysis shows that men and women tend to sort through unions where both partners contribute substantial income to the household. Hypogamous couples by a female income dominance below this as might be expected at random, and a greater proportion of women earning 35-45% and 45-55% of household income than expected at random. If union selection was random, we expect to find a higher proportion of couples where the woman has higher education and a higher income than her male partner. This is because among highly educated women, there are many who have relatively high wages (for example, in the professional occupations), and among less educated men, there are many who have relatively low wages (e.g., those working in unskilled occupations). Instead, as the results of the simulation show, women and men seem to sort unions out in a way that minimizes inequality. Homogeneous or hypergamous couples also have greater income equality (women earning 45 to 55 per cent of household income) and less male income dominance than might be expected at random. However, men over-gain women in all types of unions, and our simulation suggests that the gender pay gap cannot be seen as the explanation for this inequality. Further explanations of income inequality between men and women go beyond the scope of this article, but one possible explanation could be the differences in working time of men and women. Such inequality would probably widen even further after the birth of the couple's child. The final step in our analysis is to compare the status of men and women in absolute terms between different forms of trade union. Educationally homogeneous couples tend to have the highest income, professional prestige and social class background. This is consistent with previous research from Sweden, which shows that highly educated women who associate down are chosen negatively in terms of income and labour market opportunities (Dribe and Nystedt, 2013; Chudnovskaya, 2017), as well as research in the United States that shows that women in homogeneous unions tend to have slightly higher incomes than women in hypogamous unions (Schwartz and Han, 2014). The rise of educational hypogamy was heralded as part of the broader set of changes described as the gender revolution. Our closer examination of status inequalities among hypogamous couples supports a stalled prospect of gender revolution. We find that highly educated women with the highest status pair with highly educated men (who tend to have an even higher status than women). Meanwhile, women who associate down tend to be relatively disadvantaged. The trends we observe could be motivated either by preferences (towards egalitarianism or hypergamy of women's status) or by constraints (social norms or partner market structures). It is important to note that our study included only reproductive unions. The transition to parenthood is a period of many including issues of parental leave, housework, career trajectories, and so on. Couples who do not have children together may have different patterns of inequality and may face different challenges. We have focused on couples of childbearing age because of data constraints, but issues of inequality within reproductive unions are paramount to promoting gender equality in societies. In addition, our study focused on differences in status before the birth of the child in order to address the starting point of inequality in trade unions, before after the birth of the child (Angelov, Johansson and Lindahl, 2016). Recent research suggests that the evolution of income inequality within the couple varies according to the educational mix within the union (Angelov, Johansson and Lindahl, 2016 and Nylin et al., 2019 for Sweden, Qian, 2018 for the United States). Our study provides an important complement to these results. This study was an empirical step towards understanding inequalities in couples. We have only looked at first-rate trade unions, and the study of inequalities in high-level trade unions remains a future work subject. Further work is needed to examine the evolution of gender inequalities among younger cohorts, to more explicitly study the evolution of inequalities over time, and to theorize the implications of different forms of status inequalities for bargaining processes within the couple. With registry data, although we are able to measure different forms of status, we are not able to identify how the benefits in education, income, class or professional prestige translate into resources or power within the home. However, our work highlights how status attributes are distributed between men and women in a way that is not always simple. We believe that these dimensions of status should be further studied to complement studies on income inequality within households, as social resources and opportunities related to social class and professional prestige are likely linked to family decision-making. Margarita Chudnovskaya is a researcher at the Swedish Institute for Social Research. Ridhi Kashyap is a professor at Nuffield College and associate professor of social demography at the University of Oxford. Acknowledgements The authors would like to thank the following people who helped us improve this article: Jan Van Bavel and all the participants in the WORKSHOP GENDERBALL, Carina Mood, Juho Hurkonen, Kelly Musick, Jan O Jonsson, and the three anonymous editors as well as the editors esr. Ridhi Kashyap would like to acknowledge the support of the Leverhulme Centre for Demographic Science, The Leverhulme Trust. This work has been supported by Forskningsdet om Fuls, Arbetsliv och Valfard (2016-07099) and Vetenskapsr-ten (340-2013-5164). References. . (). Stagnation only on the surface? The implications of family skills and responsibilities on the gender pay gap in Sweden, 1974-2010. The British Journal of Sociology, 595-619. (). Higher education and family training: a history of the expansion of Swedish education. 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