SOCIETY for INDUSTRIAL and ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

SCIENCE FOR A SMARTER WORKPLACE

Income and Employment Report 2022

Report prepared by: HumRRO HUMAN RESOURCES RESEARCH ORGANIZATION

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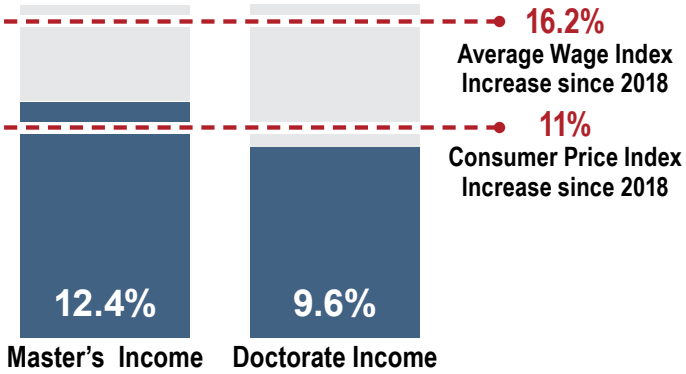
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The **Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology** (SIOP) publishes the Income and Employment Report to track salary and employment trends for industrial and organizational psychologists (I-Os). Below are key points from the 2021 SIOP Salary Survey.

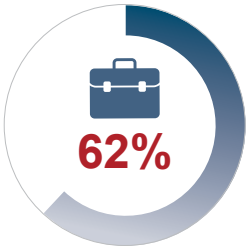
EDUCATION

I-O psychologist salaries increased less than the average wage index since 2018. Master's-level salaries increased more than the inflation rate, but doctorate-level salaries did not.

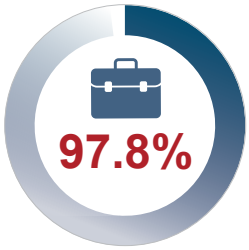
Salary increases since 2018



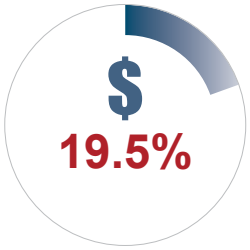
JOB SECTOR



62% of doctorate-level respondents are practitioners and 38% work in academia.

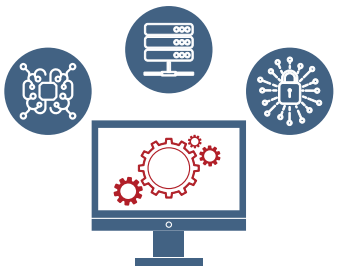


97.8% of master's-level respondents work as practitioners.

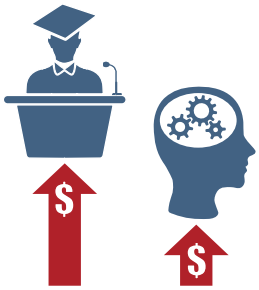


Practitioners' median income is 19.5% higher than that of academics.

Among doctorate-level practitioners, independent consultants earned the highest median salary ($350,000).



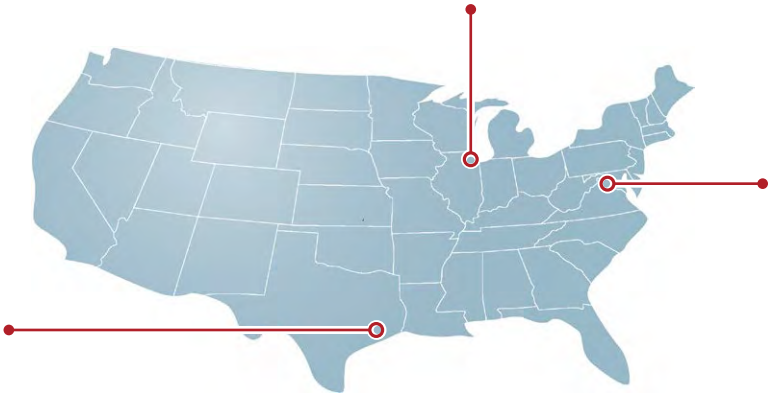
Among master's-level practitioners, those working in the technology industry earned the highest median salary ($121,729*).
(*for industries with n > 10)



Academics in business schools had a higher median income ($143,559) than those in psychology departments ($92,000).

LOCATION

$133,891
Master's-level I-Os working in the Chicago metro area earned the highest median income (Adjusted for cost of living).

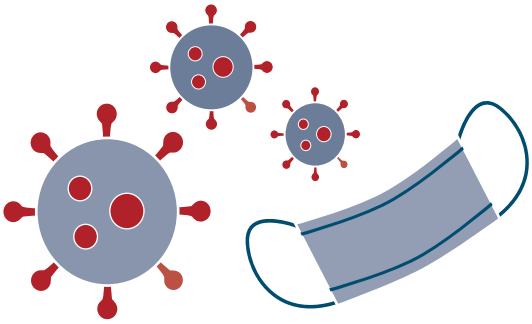


$239,425
Doctorate-level I-Os working in the Houston metro area earned the highest median income (Adjusted for cost of living).

9%
The largest concentration of respondents work in the D.C. metro area.

Before the pandemic, 17% of I-Os worked fully remotely. In 2021, 42% of I-Os reported working fully remotely. Remote work status did not impact pay.

COVID-19



Most I-Os experienced no change in employment or income due to COVID-19 in 2020 (73.2%) or in 2021 (88.5%). Salary, benefit, and bonus reductions were the most common impacts in 2020 (8.4%, 8.9%, and 7%, respectively). Those impacts dropped by about two-thirds in 2021.

The most common COVID-related benefits offered by employers in 2020 and 2021 were flexible work arrangements (45% and 37%, respectively), additional time off (32% and 26%), and access to Personal Protective Equipment (27% and 26%).

GENDER

The gender wage gap has narrowed since the 2019 report.

The median income for women increased in 2021 to 94% of men's median income, and the pay difference was not statistically significant.

INTRODUCTION

Methodology

The 2021 SIOP Income and Employment Survey asked members about their income and work arrangements in 2020 and 2021. The survey was developed and administered by SIOP's Institutional Research Committee (IRC) Salary Survey Subcommittee in partnership with Mercer|Sirota. Email invitations to complete the survey were sent to 5,146 SIOP members. We received 1,213 responses; a 21% percent response rate. Human Resources Research Organization (HumRRO) analyzed the survey results and developed this report. To protect respondent anonymity, we report results for groups and subgroups with no fewer than 10 respondents. In some cases, this limited the level of depth and detail of subgroup analyses but we are confident that these findings are sufficiently representative of the state of income and employment for SIOP members.

About the Sample

After data cleaning procedures, the 2021 SIOP Salary Survey received 1,074 responses from members (Student members are not included in the sample). Because 96% (n = 1,027) of respondents were employed full-time and only 4% (n = 47) were employed part-time or did not specify the number of hours they worked, we only included responses in our analyses from members who worked full-time in 2021. Full-time employees worked 44.5 hours per week on average (median = 42), a continuing decrease from 2019 (mean = 45.5, median = 45) and 2015 (mean = 47.8, median = 48).

As in previous reports, the sample consists of more practitioners than academics. Of those who reported career type, 72% (n = 739) were practitioners and 28% (n = 288) worked in academia. Practitioners worked in a wide variety of industries, with the largest percentage working in consulting firms (38% of doctorate practitioners and 35% of master's-level practitioners) or in the tech industry (25% of doctorate practitioners and 19% of master's-level practitioners). As in previous years, a majority of the sample reported their highest degree was a doctorate, with 72% (n = 740) holding doctorate degrees and 27% (n = 276) holding master's degrees, while 1% (n = 11) of respondents held bachelor's degrees or did not report degree status.

Another continuing trend is the larger representation of women than men in the sample, with women making up 53% (n = 543) of respondents and men accounting for 46% (n = 465). Demographic characteristics of the current sample compared to previous survey administrations can be found in the Appendix.

As in past years, this report provides findings and insights about how and where I-Os work and current income and benefit trends in the field. The 2021 survey was unique from past surveys in several respects. The most profound of these differences was the inclusion of questions about the impact of COVID-19. The pandemic affected nearly every area of life in 2020 and 2021, and the current survey included questions about remote work, caregiving, and changes in employment, income, and benefits due to COVID-19. Responses to this additional survey content showed that on the whole, I-O careers fared well during the pandemic and companies where I-Os worked responded to employees' changing needs by offering additional benefits. These findings are discussed in later sections of this report.

Qualifications and Experience

Because an overwhelming majority of respondents reported having earned a doctorate degree or a master's degree, this report focuses on metrics for those two groups. Median income for master's-level respondents increased more than the median income for doctorate-level respondents from 2018 to 2021. Salaries for doctorate-level respondents in the sample rose by 9.6% since 2018, while master's-level salaries rose by 12.4%. The U.S. Consumer Price Index (CPI) inflation rate increased 11%[1] between 2018 and 2021, meaning master's-level incomes kept abreast of inflation while doctorate-level salaries did not. However, income gains for both master's-level and doctorate-level respondents fell far short of the U.S. Average Wage Index increase of 16.2%[2] over the same period.

Figure 1 shows median salaries by degree for each report year. For 2021, the median salary was $137,000 for doctorate-level respondents and $100,000 for master's-level respondents. The difference between median salaries for doctorate holders and for master's degree holders decreased from 41% in 2018 to 37% in 2021. The trend over time (Figure 2) shows doctorate-level salaries have ranged between 34% (in 2000) and 47% (in 2011) higher than master's-level salaries since 1997. However, since 2014 the pay differential has been narrowing (Figure 2).

"For 2021, the median salary was $137,000 for doctorate-level respondents and $100,000 for master's-level respondents."

[1] The CPI inflation rate between 2018 and 2021 was calculated using data from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics at https://www.bls.gov/timeseries/CUUR0000SA0. The increase was calculated by comparing the December 2021 CPI with the December 2018 CPI.

[2] Average Wage Index (AWI) data was retrieved from the U.S. Social Security Administration (S.S.A.) AWI tables at https://www.ssa.gov/OACT/COLA/AWI.html. Note: AWI data from the S.S.A. are average per worker, so industries with larger numbers of workers have more weight.

Figure 1. Median Income Over Time by Degree Level

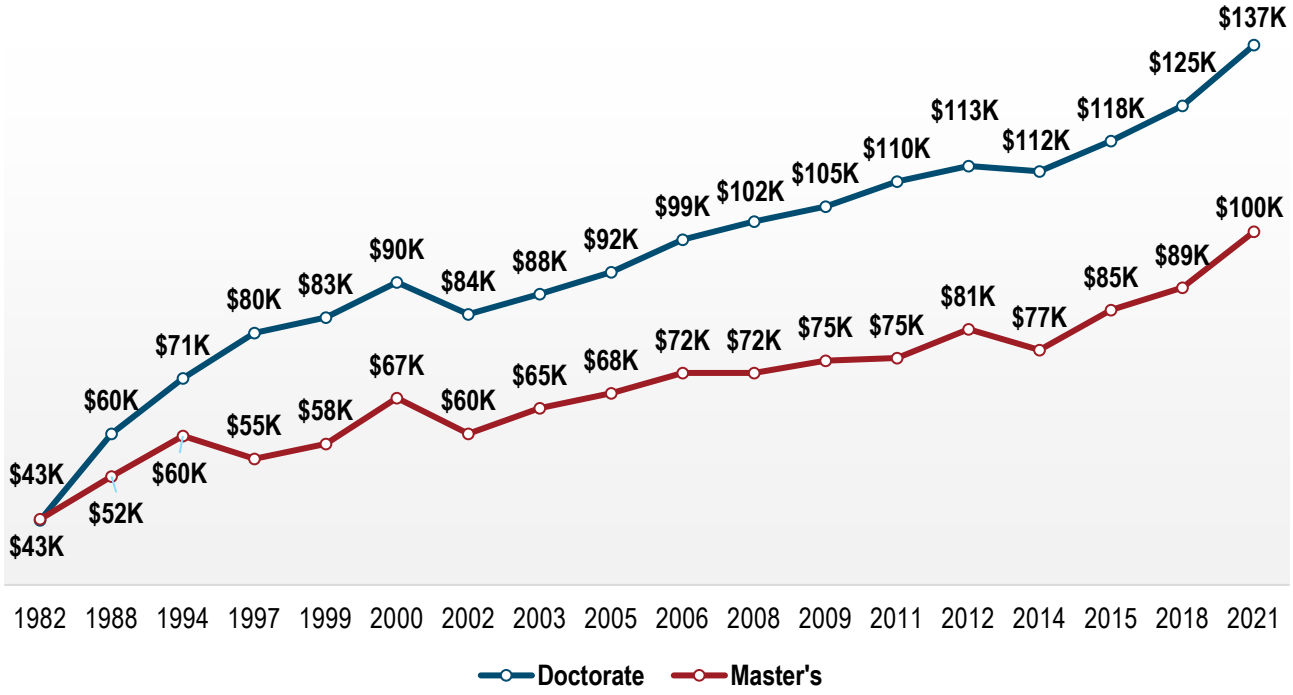
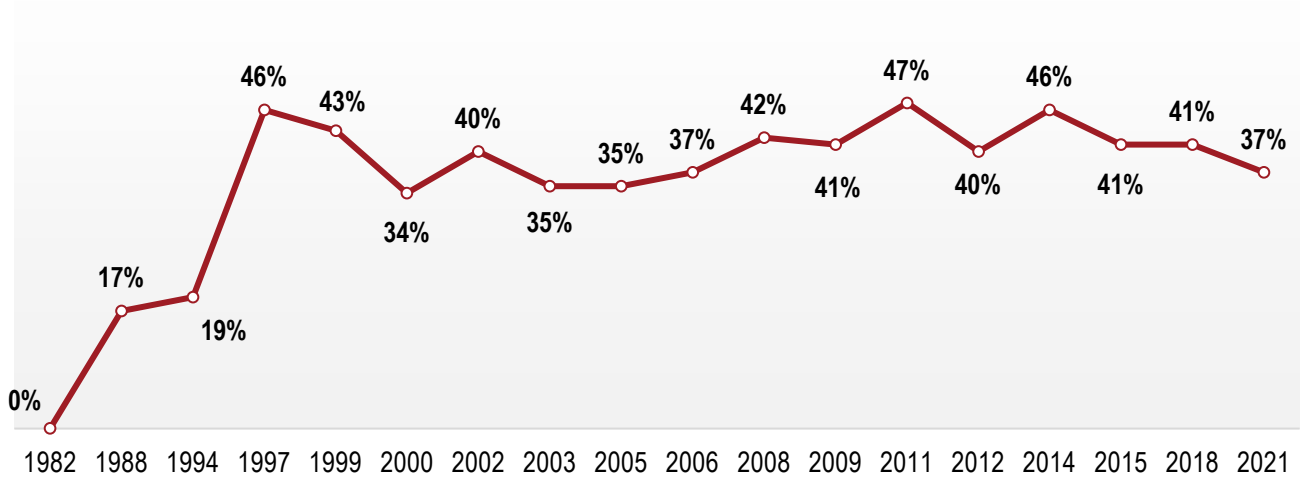


Figure 2. Percent Difference Between Doctorate-level and Master's-level Median Salaries Over Time



Experience

Overall, doctorate-level income was 37% higher than that of master's level respondents (t = 8.0, df = 953.1, p < .001)[3]. Beyond educational attainment, work experience has a substantial impact on I-Os' income. Time since degree represents work experience and skill acquisition, both of which are associated with higher earning potential. Tables 1 and 2 show median and mean salary along with percentile distributions for doctorate-level and master's-level members by years since highest degree earned.

Unlike in past reports, the income trajectory for doctorate-level I-Os did not consistently increase with years since degree. Notably, salary percentiles for the 20-to-24-years group are slightly inflated compared to their adjacent cohorts, suggesting that this cohort contains some extremely high incomes. Salaries for the 15-to-19-years cohort at or below the 50th percentile are slightly deflated compared to the 10-to-14-years cohort. To better understand the trends in median income, we examined additional characteristics of doctorate holders for those at 15-to-19 years since degree and those at 25-or-more years since degree. In the 15-to19-years cohort, the median salary for men ($150,559) and women ($146,694) were both close to the overall median. Within the 25-or-more-years cohort, the median salary was $196,500 for men and $153,562 for women (although this difference was not statistically significant), with women making up about 41% of this cohort. In the remaining cohorts, median salaries for men and for women were similar, with median salaries for women being higher than for men in the 5-to-9-years, 10-to-14-years, and 20-to-24-years cohorts. The gender effect for the 25-or-more years cohort may contribute to the relatively lower salaries in the 25-or-more-years since degree group. Gender differences in pay are discussed in more detail in a later section of the report.

Table 1. Base Salary by Years Since Doctorate Degree

	Years Since Degree						
	< 2	2-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25+
n	25	107	157	87	71	57	99
Median	$100,000	$110,000	$130,000	$150,000	$149,000	$190,000	$160,000
Mean	$109,214	$119,192	$142,950	$168,021	$172,158	$278,667	$217,747
Percentile							
90th	$142,400	$170,200	$212,000	$225,000	$245,000	$320,938	$300,000
75th	$124,000	$137,500	$165,000	$184,500	$198,000	$240,000	$232,000
50th	$100,000	$110,000	$130,000	$150,000	$149,000	$190,000	$160,000
25th	$87,500	$95,000	$104,000	$121,500	$118,500	$133,484	$110,250
10th	$80,372	$72,900	$85,000	$83,471	$83,300	$91,872	$90,914

[3] Welch t-tests were used in cases where group sizes and/or group variances were unequal. The Welch t-test estimates degrees of freedom using a formula that includes group variance divided by group size, leading to the potential for estimated degrees of freedom to include decimal places.

Table 2. Base Salary by Years Since Master's Degree

	Years Since Degree					
	< 2	2-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24
n	17	72	79	31	20	12
Median	$65,000	$87,500	$99,174	$120,750	$153,636	$155,000
Mean	$65,668	$88,273	$107,313	$123,899	$167,336	$172,250
Percentile						
90th	$90,055	$119,000	$151,000	$165,000	$209,650	$232,600
75th	$72,500	$102,025	$121,114	$143,500	$178,000	$205,000
50th	$65,000	$87,500	$99,174	$120,750	$153,636	$155,000
25th	$50,000	$72,875	$87,000	$102,000	$130,000	$129,500
10th	$37,017	$52,800	$72,400	$80,000	$109,500	$116,300

We also examined whether this unusual pattern in doctorate salary by years since degree was found when separating practitioners and academics. As shown in Table 3, median income for those in academia at 15-to-19 years out from their degree was slightly lower than for academics 10-to-14 years from their degree, while for practitioners this cohort exhibited the expected increase in income from the 10-to-14-years practitioner cohort. The median salary at the doctorate level for academics 25 or more years out from their degree was $118,400 while the median salary for practitioner doctorate holders in this cohort was $206,138. However, even accounting for career field, the median salary for doctorate-level I-Os did not continue to increase after around 20-to-24 years of experience. For doctorate-holding I-Os in academia, median salary at 25-or-more years is much lower than for those at 20-to-24 years since degree. Salaries for those in academia are explored further in a subsequent section of the report.

Table 3. Base Salary by Years Since Doctorate Degree for Practice and Academia

	Years Since Degree for Practitioners						
	< 2	2-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25+
n	20	86	107	53	39	32	50
Median	$100,520	$120,000	$149,800	$155,000	$171,858	$207,149	$206,138
Mean	$107,068	$127,099	$159,371	$192,010	$202,008	$374,472	$220,796
	Years Since Degree for Academics						
	< 2	2-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24	25+
n	5	21	50	34	32	25	49
Median	N/A	$89,319	$101,666	$124,500	$121,294	$133,484	$118,400
Mean	N/A	$86,808	$107,809	$130,626	$135,779	$156,037	$214,636

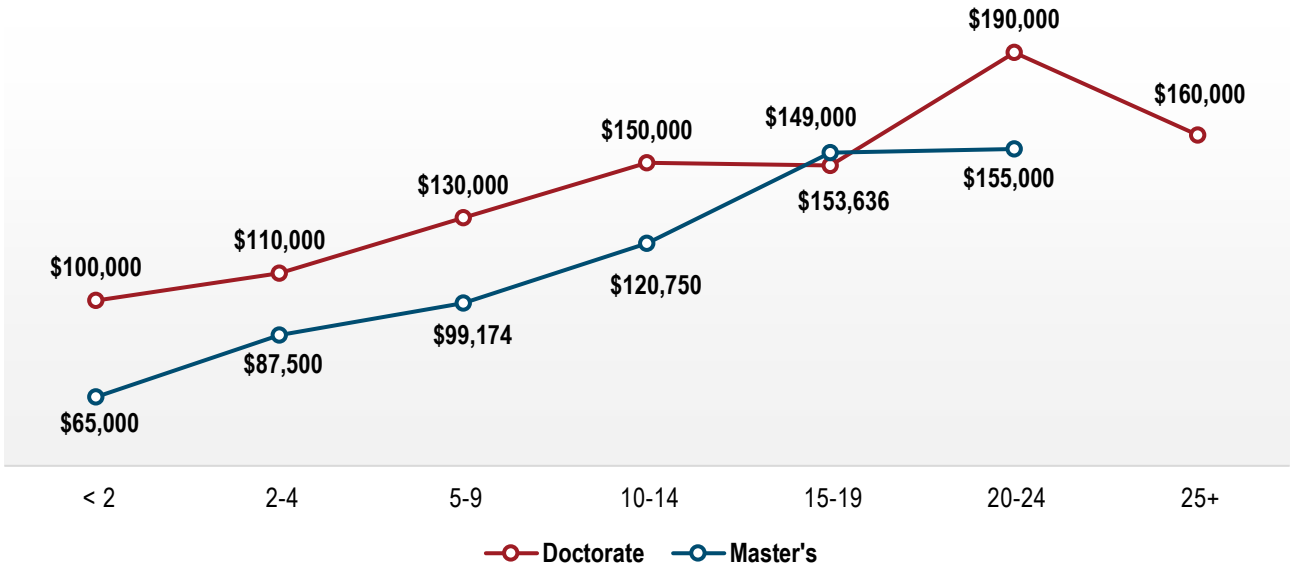
Salaries for master's degree holders increase with years of experience (Table 4). The group size was not sufficient to report salary information for master's degree holders at 25 or more years since earning their degree.

Table 4. Base Salary by Years Since Master's Degree for Practitioners

	Years Since Degree					
	< 2	2-4	5-9	10-14	15-19	20-24
n	17	71	76	31	20	11
Median	$65,000	$88,000	$102,000	$120,750	$153,636	$160,000
Mean	$65,668	$88,432	$109,488	$123,899	$167,336	$176,091

Across years since degree, median doctorate-level I-O salaries were higher than those of master's-level I-Os at all time points except for respondents who earned their degree 15-to-19 years ago (Figure 3). The number of master's-level I-Os at 25-or-more years since earning their degree was not sufficient to report salary information. For each cohort up to and including 10-to-14 years since degree, median doctorate and master's level income rose at similar rates. The difference between doctorate and master's degree holders in median salaries when starting their careers may reflect differences in skill level or entry-level job responsibilities for those graduating with a doctorate versus a master's degree. Likewise, the ongoing difference in pay over years since degree may be partly explained by greater skill and expertise requirements in job roles for doctorate holders.

Figure 3. Median Income by Years Since Degree



Certifications

Holding a license or professional credential may also impact income for I-Os. Many respondents reported holding some type of certification or credential (n = 151). A greater percentage of master's degree holders held certifications (23%) than did doctorate-level respondents (18%), although for both master's level and doctoral level respondents, this is a percentage increase from the 2019 report (21% and 12%, respectively).

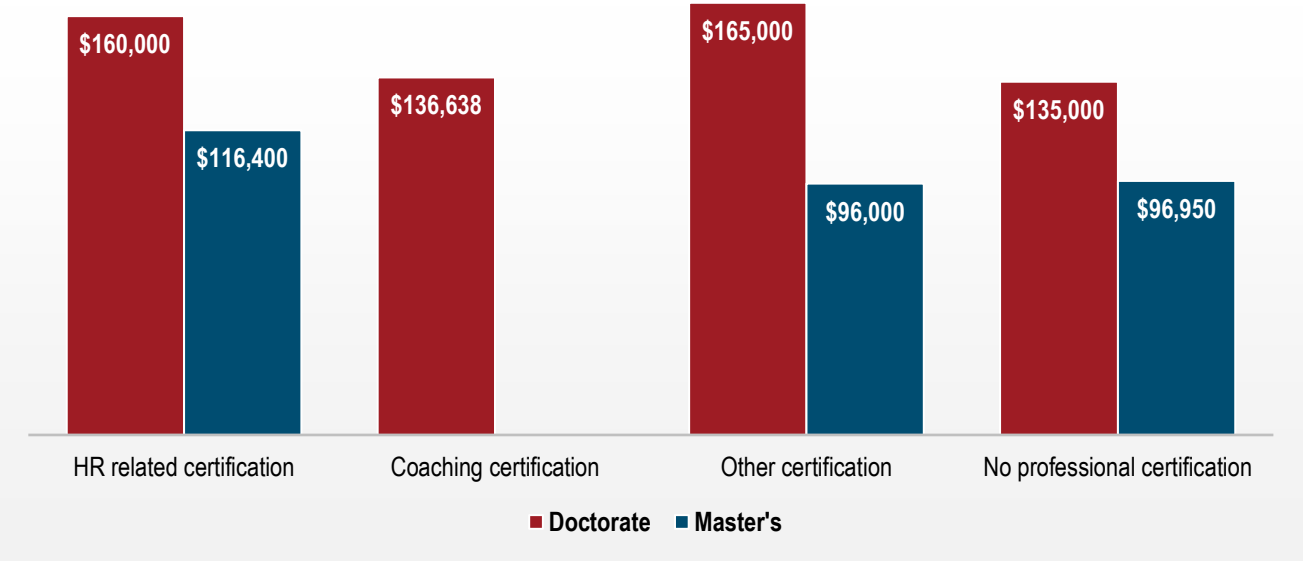
Table 5. Base Salary by Type of Certification

Doctorate	HR related Certification	Coaching Certification	Other Certification	No Professional Certification
n	39	12	49	554
Median	$160,000	$136,638	$165,000	$135,000
Mean	$184,825	$157,754	$250,242	$159,155
Master's	**HR related Certification**	**Coaching Certification**	**Other Certification**	**No Professional Certification**
n	19	7	25	180
Median	$116,400	N/A	$96,000	$96,950
Mean	$128,528	N/A	$94,786	$105,663

Note. The number of master's-level respondents with a coaching certification was insufficient for reporting salary information.

For respondents with a master's degree, the median income for those with some type of certification was $106,694 (n = 51) and for those without any certification (n = 181) was $96,950 (n.s.). For doctorate holders, those with at least one certification (n = 125) earned a median salary of $156,000 while the median salary for those with no certification (n = 560) was $135,000 (n.s.). Figure 4 shows the median salary by type of certification for both doctorate-level and master's-level I-Os.

Figure 4. Median Salary by Certification Type by Degree Level



Note. Median salary for master's degree holders with a coaching certification is not reported due to insufficient group size.

There were too few master's-level respondents with a coaching certification to include in the results. For doctorate-level I-Os, having a certification other than HR-related or coaching was associated with a higher salary than having no certification (F (3, 651) = 3.94, p < .05). Except for this comparison, salaries within degree levels for those with a certification were not significantly higher than for those without.

"Professional certifications were associated with increased income for I-Os. Depending on the type of certification, doctorate-level salaries were up to 15.5% higher and master's-level salaries were up to 10% higher."

Career Type

The skills and expertise of I-O psychologists are of value to organizations in many employment sectors. For this report, we grouped employment sectors into five categories: university or college, private for-profit, nonprofit, government, and self-employed consulting. The majority of survey respondents reported working in private for-profit organizations (56%), with the next largest percentage working in academia (28%). Most academics hold a doctorate degree, with only 2.2% of master's-level I-Os employed in academia. Figures 5 and 6 show the percentage of doctorate holders and master's degree holders in each employment sector.

Income can vary greatly by employment sector. Among practitioners, self-employed consultants reported substantially higher salaries than those in other sectors, although this difference did not meet statistical significance. Doctorate-level practitioner income is significantly greater than income for doctorate-level academics ($t(593.2) = 2.87$, $p > .05$). More specifically, as Table 6 shows, doctorate-level private-sector for-profit income was significantly higher than income for academics ($t(548.4) = 2.74$, $p < .01$). For those with a master's degree (Table 7), although the median salary for I-Os working in nonprofit organizations was lower than for those working in government or for-profit organizations, the difference was not statistically significant.

Figure 5. Doctorate-Level I-Os in Each Employment Sector

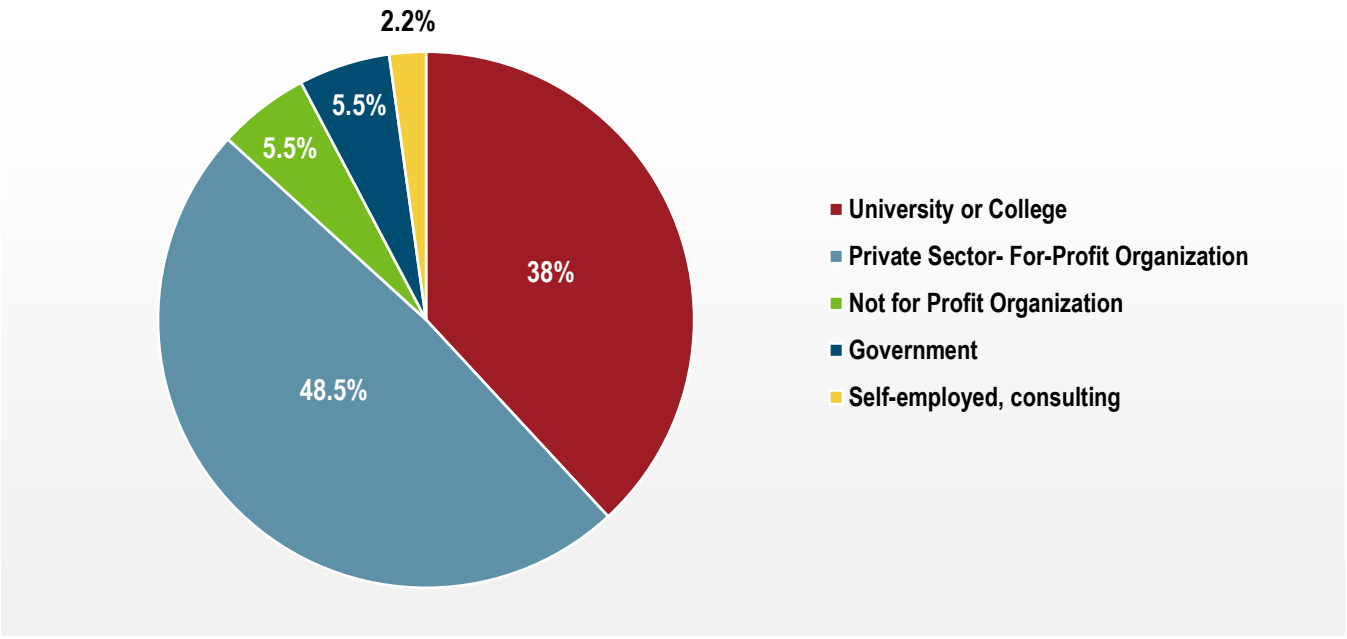


Figure 6. Master's-Level I-Os in Each Employment Sector

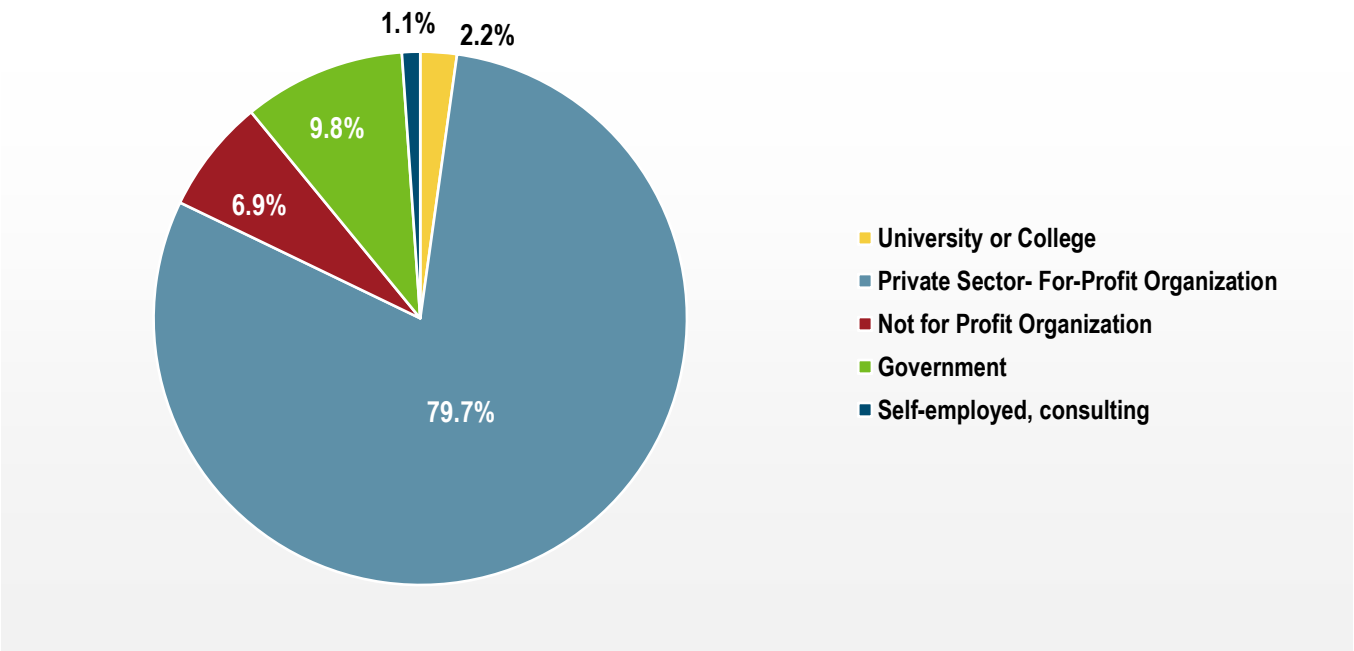


Table 6. Base Salary by Employment Sector for Doctorate-level I-Os

	Doctorate-Level Base Salary				
	For-Profit	Non-Profit	Government	Self-employed Consulting	Academia
n	356	41	41	16	274
Median	$150,000	$147,000	$127,000	$250,000	$111,438
Mean	$181,025	$157,308	$174,473	$265,689	$141,916

Table 7. Base Salary by Employment Sector for Master's-level I-Os

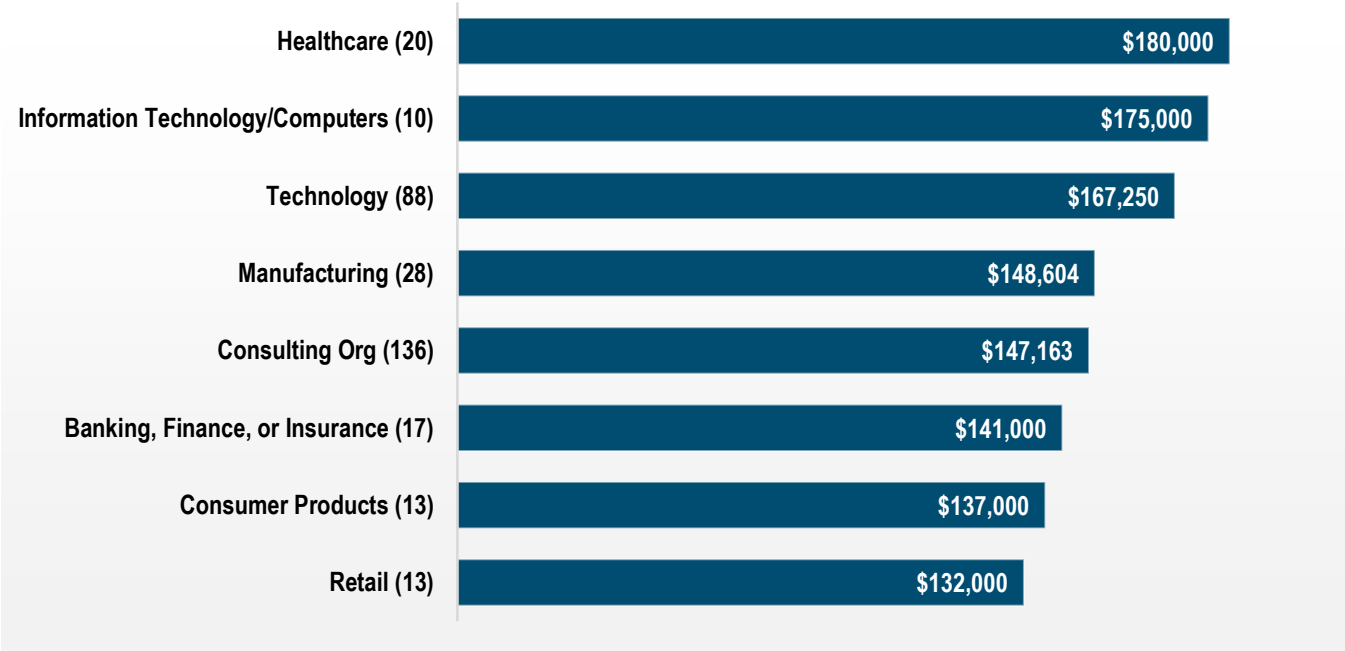
	Master's-Level Base Salary		
	For-Profit	Non-Profit	Government
n	217	19	28
Median	$101,700	$80,000	$113,500
Mean	$110,182	$92,844	$116,226

Applied Employment

Industry

Salary varies by industry for both doctorate-level I-Os and master's-level I-Os. The highest median base salary for those with a doctorate degree was in the healthcare industry (Figure 7), although I-O salaries between industries did not significantly differ. This is likely in part due to small group sizes and substantial I-O salary variance within industries.

Figure 7. Doctorate - Median Base Salary by Industry



Note. Numbers in parentheses in Y-axis labels indicate respondent N for each listed industry.

For master's degree holders (Figure 8), I-Os in the technology industry earned the highest median base salary ($F(3, 147) = 4.1$, $p < .01$). Technology salaries were significantly higher than consulting organization salaries ($p < .05$) or healthcare salaries ($p < .05$) for I-Os with a master's degree.

Figure 8. Master's - Median Base Salary by Industry

Note. Numbers in parentheses in Y-axis labels indicate respondent N for each listed industry.

Job Title

In addition to degree level, years of experience, and job sector or industry, I-O salaries vary by job title. Of course, job title is often related to years of experience. As I-Os gain experience, they may move into positions with greater responsibility at a higher salary. Table 8 gives median, mean, and salary percentiles across job titles for doctorate-level practitioners. Compared to the 2019 report, median salaries were higher for every job title. This may be partly due to members in the same position receiving pay raises, although the increase from 2019 for those at the entry-level likely indicates a general upward shift in salaries for practitioner I-Os.

While median salaries incremented upward for increasing levels of responsibility, the mean doctoral-level salary for vice president was higher than for senior vice president (n.s.). Also, the range of salaries for vice presidents was greater than for senior vice presidents. As found in previous reports, the comparatively lower mean salary for senior vice presidents is possibly due to the smaller size of organizations in which they tend to work compared with vice presidents. About half of senior vice presidents work in companies with fewer than 300 employees and 25% work in companies with fewer than 100 employees, while nearly 78% of vice presidents work in companies with more than 300 employees (and more than a third work in companies with more than 3,000 employees).

Table 8. Practitioner Base Salary by Job Title for Doctorate Degree Holders

	Entry-level	Consultant	Senior Consultant	Direct Supervisor	HR Mgr.	Non-HR Mgr.	Vice President	Senior Vice President
n	14	78	140	49	91	29	27	12
Median	$88,050	$116,500	$144,500	$151,928	$173,000	$160,000	$220,000	$239,000
Mean	$86,431	$123,986	$158,566	$154,043	$192,685	$164,874	$318,200	$243,333
Percentile								
90th	$103,861	$150,637	$221,800	$191,400	$235,000	$231,200	$433,000	$297,300
75th	$92,875	$139,250	$170,090	$170,000	$212,500	$197,000	$257,500	$255,750
50th	$88,050	$116,500	$144,500	$151,928	$173,000	$160,000	$220,000	$239,000
25th	$73,370	$100,150	$120,750	$131,000	$139,000	$140,544	$190,000	$215,750
10th	$67,100	$90,140	$104,000	$111,016	$120,000	$90,000	$179,000	$186,500

Note. HR Mgr. = manager/director of human resources. Non-HR Mgr. = manager/director of other than human resources unit.

Master's-level practitioner salaries also rose with increased job responsibility (Table 9), although median and mean salaries for master's-level I-Os were lower than their doctorate-level counterparts for all job titles. For master's-level respondents, we combined the roles of vice president and senior vice president to increase group size for reporting purposes. We examined the organization size for master's-level vice presidents and senior vice presidents compared with doctorate holders. Organization size for master's degree holders in these roles was similar to that of doctorate-level senior vice presidents, with 55% of master's degree holders at this job level working in organizations with fewer than 300 employees.

Table 9. Practitioner Base Salary by Job Title for Master's Degree Holders

	Entry-level	Consultant	Senior Consultant	Direct Supervisor	HR Mgr.	VP or Senior VP
n	25	99	61	14	46	11
Median	$61,800	$90,000	$113,000	$118,364	$127,000	$200,000
Mean	$61,535	$93,006	$119,442	$118,156	$134,038	$200,818
Percentile						
90th	$89,250	$117,960	$160,000	$143,205	$206,750	$230,000
75th	$79,000	$102,500	$142,000	$130,000	$168,750	$220,000
50th	$61,800	$90,000	$113,000	$118,364	$127,000	$200,000
25th	$43,500	$75,000	$97,500	$100,650	$99,380	$159,500
10th	$28,100	$65,244	$79,799	$95,625	$67,500	$105,000

Note. VP or SVP = vice president or senior vice president. HR Mgr. = manager/director of human resources.

"The highest median base salary for those with a doctorate degree was in the healthcare industry, and the highest median base salary for those with a master's degree was in the technology industry."

Academic Employment

As with I-O practitioner workplaces, several institutional characteristics contribute to academic salaries. Private and public institutions have different primary funding sources, with public colleges and universities largely relying on state government funding and private institutions relying more on tuition and private endowments for their funding. These funding differences can impact academic salaries. Table 10 shows that academic respondents reported higher median and mean salaries working in public institutions than in private.

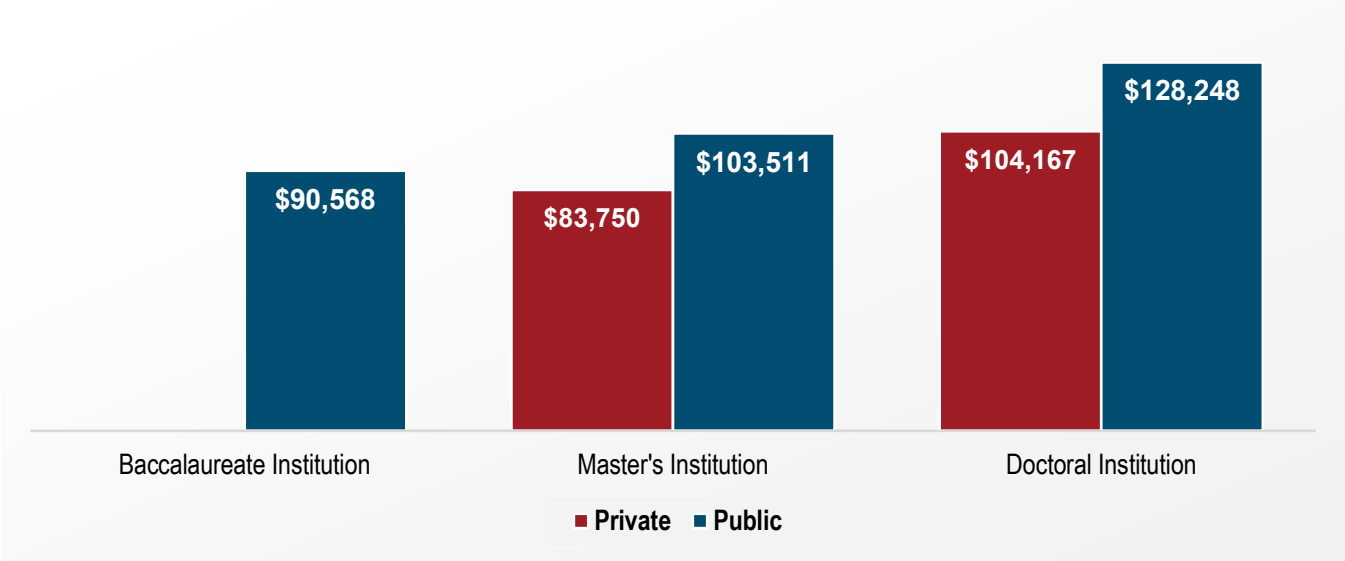
Table 10. Doctorate-Level Base Salary by Institution Type

	Public	Private
n	199	69
Median	$115,000	$96,000
Mean	$132,744	$114,485

Another institutional characteristic affecting academic salary is the degree-granting level of the college or university. Figure 9 shows median salary by degree-granting level for public and private institutions. Salaries for doctorate-granting institutions were highest for both public and private universities. For public institutions, differences between degree-granting levels were not statistically significant; however, academics at private doctorate-granting universities earned significantly more than their counterparts at master's-granting schools ($t(63.9) = -3.69$, $p < .01$).

"Academics in business schools or departments earned significantly more than those in psychology departments."

Figure 9. Median Salary by Degree-granting Level by Institution Type



Note. Median salary for academics working at a private baccalaureate institution is not reported due to insufficient group size.

A third factor affecting academics' income is the department in which they work. We asked academic respondents what department they worked in at their college or university. Although some respondents worked in industrial relations (n = 5) and education departments (n = 2), these group sizes were too small to include as stand-alone categories, so we grouped them into a category labeled 'other' with academics who reported working in a wide variety of departments, such as communication, medicine, professional studies, and leadership, among others. Table 11 shows median and mean salary by academic department. As in previous reports, academics in business schools or departments earned significantly more than those in psychology departments ($t(101.5) = -2.89$, $p < .01$). Although, business school academics also earned more than those in administrative roles or in departments other than psychology, the differences were not statistically significant.

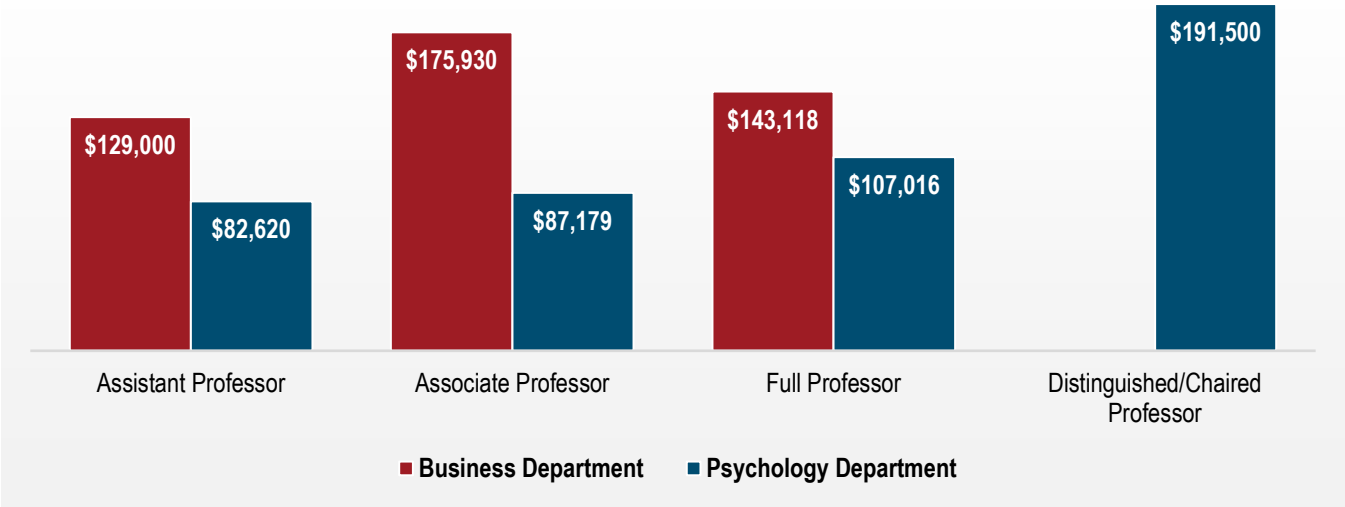
Table 11. Doctorate-Level Base Salary by Academic Department

	Psychology	Business	Administrative	Other
n	136	99	11	26
Median	$92,000	$144,000	$114,000	$122,794
Mean	$106,184	$192,783	$127,282	$144,572

Next, we compared salaries for different levels of professorship in academia. Given the difference in income between academics in psychology departments and those in business schools or departments, we examined salary by job title for professors in business schools and in psychology departments separately (Figure 10). The number of distinguished or chaired professors in business schools in the sample (n = 6) was not sufficient for reporting or analysis. Mean business school salary for associate professors was significantly higher than for assistant professors ($F(2, 74) = 5.97$, $p < .01$), but salary differences between full

professors and either associate or assistant professors were not statistically significant. There were significant differences in salary for academics teaching in psychology departments ($F(3, 115) = 41.6$, $p < .001$). Distinguished or chaired professors in psychology earned significantly more than all other types of professor ($p < .001$), and full professors earned significantly more than either associate ($p < .05$) or assistant professors ($p < .01$). However, even though median and mean salary for associate professors was higher than for assistant professors, this difference did not reach the threshold of statistical significance.

Figure 10. Doctorate-Level Median Base Salary by Professor Type and Department



Note. Median salary for Distinguished/Chaired Professor in Business Departments is not reported due to insufficient group size.

Geographic Location

We asked members to provide the first three digits of their workplace zip code, and then matched these to U.S. cities and states. We then grouped city/state data by metro area[4]. For those working in Canada, we asked for the first three characters of their postal code. Due to sample size restrictions, we were not able to group Canadian I-Os by their city or province. Both doctorate-level and master's-level I-Os working in the San Francisco Bay Area had the highest median base salary (Tables 12 and 13), although when adjusted for cost of living[5], base salaries were highest for doctorate-level I-Os in the Houston metro and for master's-level I-Os in the Chicago metro area. This is a change from the 2019 report, where adjusted median salary was highest for doctorate holders in the Dallas metro area and highest for master's degree holders in the Charlotte metro area. The percent of academic I-Os in a metro area was negatively correlated with the median doctorate-level income for that area (r = -.44, p < .01). However, sample sizes are insufficient to report salary by geographic location for practitioners and academics separately.

"Doctorate-level and master's-level I-Os working in the San Francisco Bay Area had the highest median base salary."

[4] We used the Office and Management and Budget's Metropolitan Statistical Areas 2015 bulletin to group cities by metro area.
[5] To facilitate comparisons across reports, we used the same cost of living indices as were used in the 2019-20 report; the Cost of Living Calculator from PayScale, Inc., at https://www.bestplaces.net/cost-of-living/, using the Washington D.C. metro area as the referent.

Table 12. Doctorate-Level Base Salary by Metro Area

	n	Median	Mean	Percent Academic	Adjusted Median
San Francisco metro	15	$196,000	$217,029	0%	$121,520
Manhattan metro	17	$185,000	$280,336	12%	$125,800
Los Angeles metro	11	$180,000	$191,665	27%	$154,800
Houston metro	18	$152,500	$172,770	33%	$239,425
Minneapolis metro	17	$150,000	$157,283	18%	$215,100
DC metro	68	$149,500	$175,587	6%	$149,500
Atlanta metro	17	$137,000	$185,709	29%	$188,649
Chicago metro	27	$126,500	$154,547	44%	$177,353
Detroit metro	10	$122,288	$142,235	30%	$207,644
Dallas - Fort Worth metro	17	$120,000	$141,892	0%	$178,920
Portland metro	13	$120,000	$275,365	31%	$136,440
Tulsa metro	10	$113,500	$118,805	55%	$207,478
Other metro	64	$141,000	$145,318	42%	
Not metro	16	$137,554	$145,594	50%	
Canada	18	$106,121	$114,577	78%	
Other countries	22	$122,250	$146,151	74%	

Table 13. Master's-Level Base Salary by Metro Area

	n	Median	Mean	Adjusted Median
San Francisco metro	10	$143,500	$131,390	$88,970
Manhattan metro	10	$106,500	$114,500	$72,420
DC metro	26	$99,000	$112,308	$99,000
Chicago metro	22	$95,500	$95,316	$133,891
Other metro	29	$97,000	$92,852	

Bonuses

As in many professions, bonus pay is an important part of the complete compensation package for I-O psychologists. We asked members to provide the types of bonuses they received in 2021 as well as the total amount of their bonuses for the year. Table 14 shows mean and median bonus amounts as well as percentiles for those with a doctorate degree and those with a master's degree. Many members reported receiving more than one type of bonus, so the amounts presented in this table may represent a combination of bonuses rather than single bonuses.

Table 15 shows types of bonuses received as well as the percentage of master's-level and doctorate-level I-Os that received them. Members reported additional bonus types, but group sizes were too small to allow reporting. Not all organizations offer some types of bonuses. For example, government employers and nonprofit companies do not offer stock options. Types of bonuses I-Os receive are partly a function of the type of employer for whom they work. Individual performance and organizational performance were by far the most common types of bonuses received by I-Os at both the doctorate level and the master's level.

Table 14. Bonuses for Doctorate and Master's Degree Holders in 2021

	Doctorate	Master's
n	370	169
Mean	$49,142	$22,768
Median	$19,325	$10,000
Percentile		
90th	$105,335	$42,600
75th	$40,375	$20,000
50th	$19,325	$10,000
25th	$7,575	$4,500
10th	$2,500	$1,948

Table 15. Types of Bonuses Received by Doctorate and Master's Degree Holders in 2021

Bonus Type	Doctorate		Master's	
	n	%	n	%
Individual performance	304	41%	140	51%
Organizational Performance	226	31%	118	43%
Group, department, or unit performance	91	12%	43	16%
Sign-on or recruiting bonus	28	4%	11	4%
Retention bonus	28	4%	*	
Exercising stock options	15	2%	*	
Special project	14	2%	10	4%
Other (please specify):	17	2%	*	

*N is too small to report.

For those who listed only one type of bonus, we report mean and median amounts by type of bonus (Table 16). The types of bonus with sufficient group size to report were individual performance bonuses, organizational performance bonuses, and sign-on bonuses. Individual performance bonuses were slightly larger than organizational performance bonuses, although the difference was not statistically significant. Individual bonuses were significantly higher for doctorate-level I-Os than for master's-level I-Os ($t = 2.58$, $df(119)$, $p < .05$). The difference between doctorate-level organizational performance bonuses and those for master's degree holders was not statistically significant. Sign-on bonuses for doctorates were double or nearly double that of performance bonuses.

Table 16. Amount of bonus by type of bonus in 2021

	Doctorate			Master's		
	n	Median	Mean	n	Median	Mean
Individual performance	95	$10,000	$27,703	31	$7,000	$10,363
Organizational performance	45	$8,000	$20,511	21	$6,000	$12,677
Sign-on or recruiting bonus	15	$18,000	$68,167	*		

*N is too small to report.

Raises

Historically, I-O salaries have risen over the years. This is, in part, due to organizations' efforts to keep up with the cost of living. However, I-Os can increase their pay in many ways, including taking on more responsibilities or receiving a promotion, moving to a different organization, or receiving a merit raise. We asked members whether they received a raise in 2021 and if so, to report the reason for the raise as well as the size of the raise as a percentage of their base salary (Tables 17 and 18). In addition to the types of raises listed in the tables, I-Os reported receiving raises from union negotiations, changing employers, or lateral job changes within the same organization; however, the number of I-Os reporting these types of raises was too small to report. The most common type of raise for both doctorate-level and master's-level I-Os was given when working for the same employer at the same job with the same responsibilities. This was distinguished from a cost-of-living raise, which only 4% (n = 42) of I-Os reported receiving in 2021. It may be that many employers factor in cost of living increases with merit raises.

Raises were highest (as a percent of salary) for both doctorate-level and master's-level I-Os who received a promotion from their current employer. Master's-level raises were, across the board, slightly higher than were doctorate-level raises, although given the differential in pay between master's-level I-Os and doctorate-level I-Os, the dollar increase for those with a master's degree may not be as large as for those with a doctorate.

Table 17. Doctorate-Level Raises as Percent of Salary

	Cost of Living	Same Employer with Promotion	Same Employer, Same Job, More Responsibilities	Same Employer, Same Job, Same Responsibilities
n	31	62	12	290
Median	2.5%	10.0%	9.0%	3.0%
Mean	2.8%	15.6%	9.3%	4.8%
Percentile				
90th	7.4%	32.3%	17.4%	10.0%
75th	3.0%	19.0%	13.8%	5.0%
50th	2.5%	10.0%	9.0%	3.0%
25th	1.0%	7.5%	4.6%	2.5%
10th	1.0%	5.0%	3.6%	2.0%

Table 18. Master's-Level Raises as Percent of Salary

	Cost of Living	Same Employer with Promotion	Same Employer, Same Job, More Responsibilities	Same Employer, Same Job, Same Responsibilities
n	11	32	12	90
Median	3.0%	13.0%	10.0%	4.0%
Mean	3.4%	17.0%	10.5%	5.8%
Percentile				
90th	6.6%	36.3%	19.8%	10.5%
75th	5.0%	22.5%	12.0%	7.2%
50th	3.0%	13.0%	10.0%	4.0%
25th	2.8%	10.0%	8.0%	3.0%
10th	1.5%	6.2%	4.7%	2.5%

Benefits

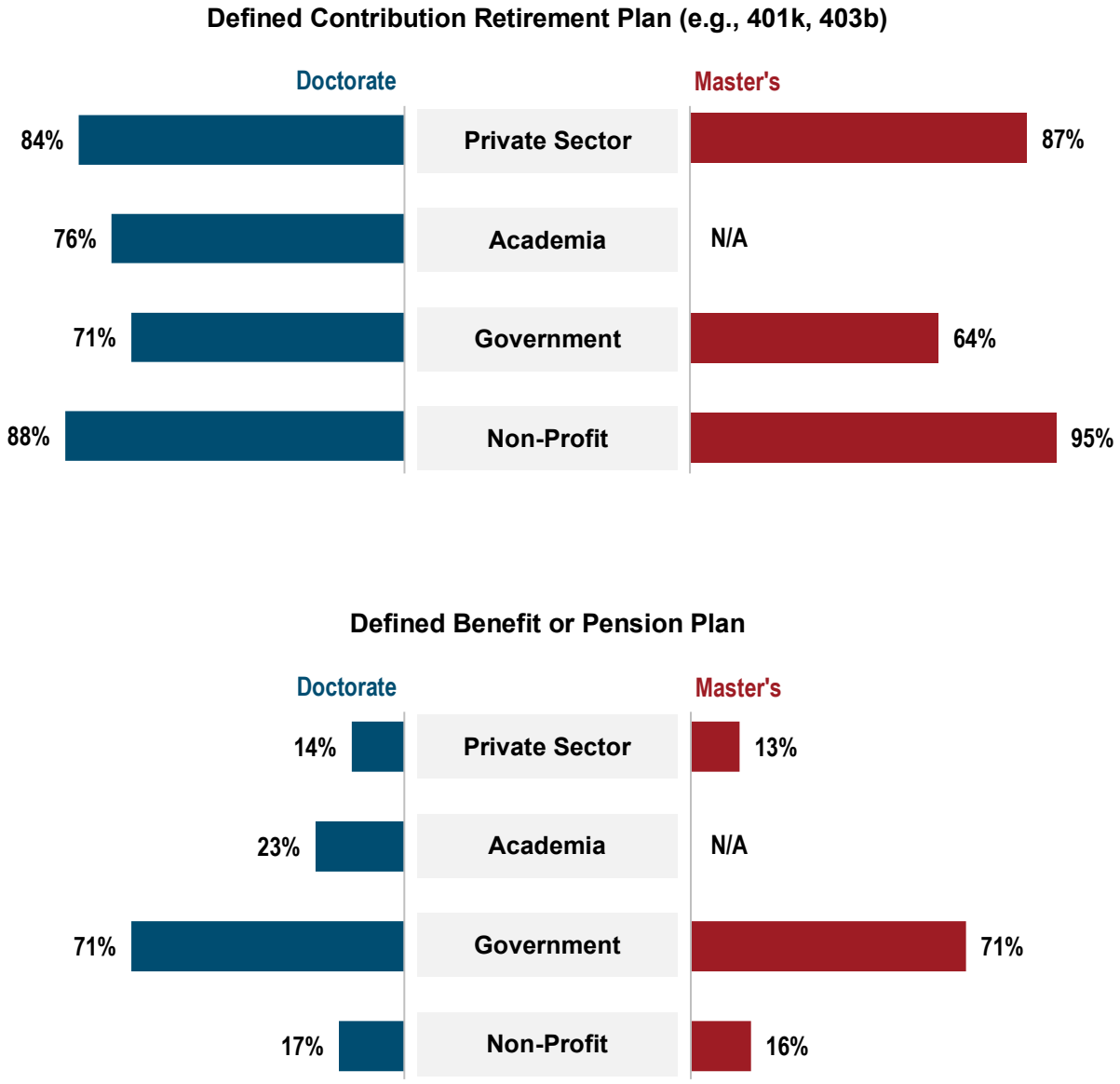
Benefits are an important component of a full compensation package, and a large majority of I-Os reported receiving a broad range of employer-sponsored benefits in 2021. Because of the differing market demands, constraints, and types of employment arrangements among employment sectors, we examined benefits by job sector. As in the 2019 report, we compared benefits for doctorate holders with those offered by employers of master's degree holders. However, because similar percentages of doctorate-level I-Os and master's-level I-Os work in similar industries, with the exception of academia, benefits were generally comparable across degree level. We did not include those with master's degrees working in academia due to small sample size. In the following sections, we look at types of benefits available to I-Os through their employers and note differences among sectors and among degree levels. Overall, the type of benefits offered to I-Os through their employers and the percentage of employers offering such benefits is similar to results in the 2019 report. The benefits most commonly offered by employers of I-O psychologists are in these four categories: retirement, health, disability, and paid time off.

Retirement Benefits

Across sectors, a majority of I-Os were able to participate in defined contribution retirement plans, although most government employees were also offered a separate pension plan (Figure 11). Retirement benefits were nearly equally available to doctorate-level and master's-level employees. As in past reports, a defined contribution retirement plan and a defined benefit or pension plan were described as follows:

> *In a defined contribution retirement plan, the organization and the employee pay a set amount of money or percentage of salary annually into a retirement account while the employee works at the organization. However, the amount of money the employee will actually receive upon retirement is not a fixed amount, is not known till the employee retires, and fluctuates based on the performance of the investments held in the account. A few examples of defined contribution plans are 401(k) for businesses, 403(b) for tax-exempt organizations, and SEP IRA for self-employed individuals, small business owners, and partnerships.*
>
> *In a defined benefit retirement plan, an organization typically agrees to pay an employee a set amount of their final salary after the employee retires. For example, a company may pay retired employees 60% of the average of their last three years of salary. The amount of retirement benefit is defined, rather than dependent on how money in an individual's retirement account, such as a 401k, increases or decreases.*

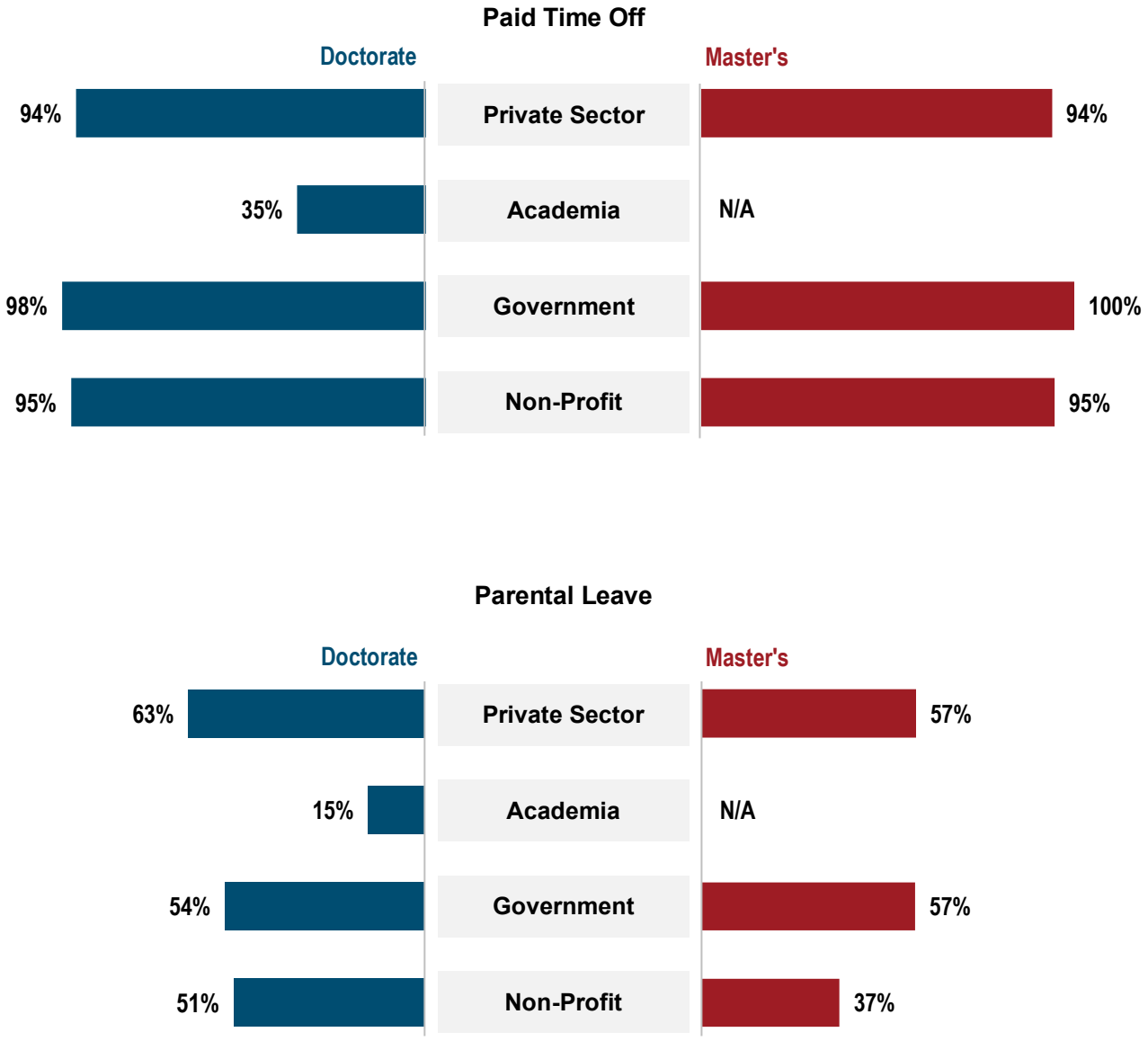
Figure 11. Retirement Benefits by Job Sector



Leave, Health, and Disability Insurance Benefits

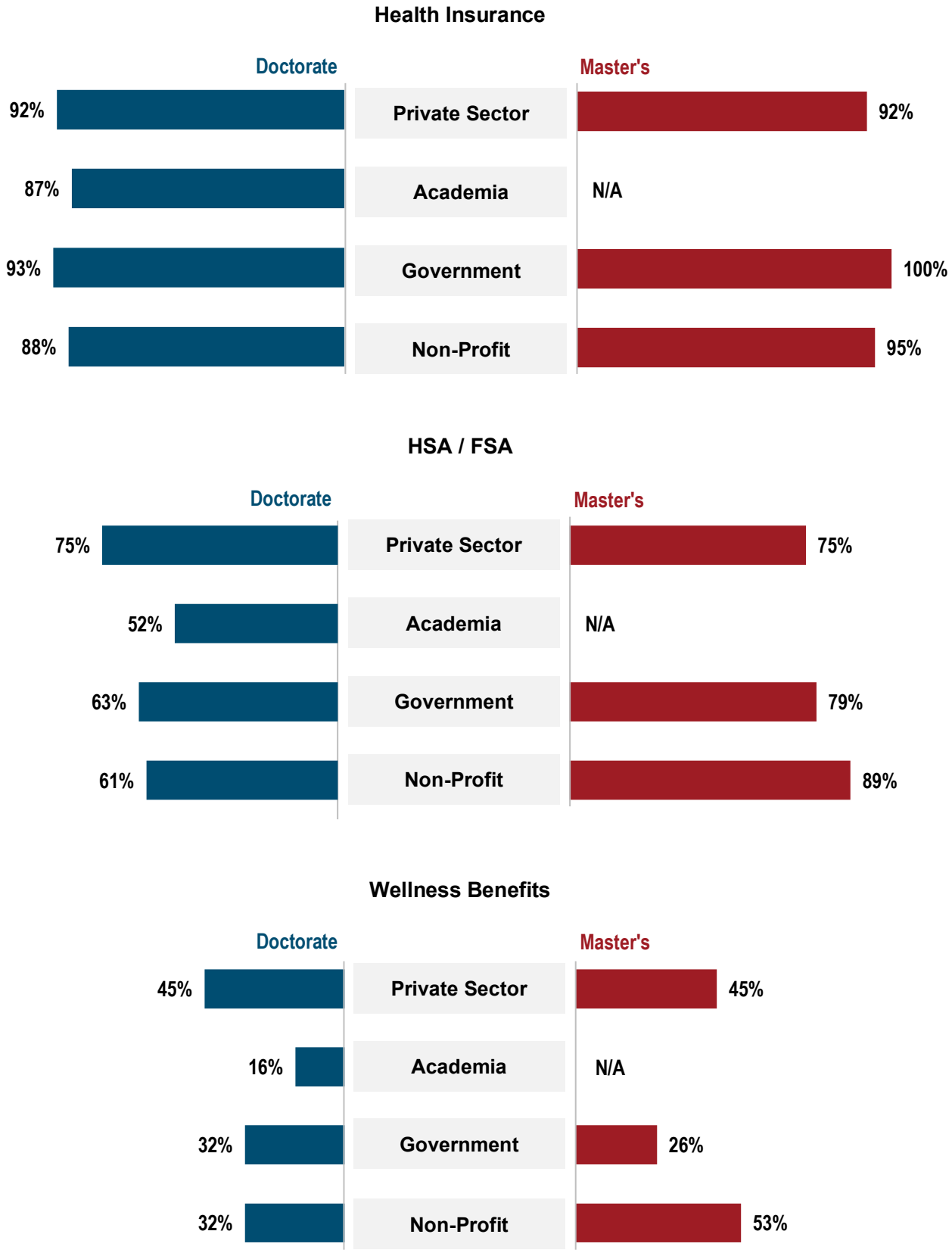
Paid time off (PTO) is a common employer benefit across sectors, with the exception of academia. As shown in Figure 12, only 35% of academic respondents reported being offered PTO. This may be due to the more flexible work schedules of those who teach at the college or university level. When examining roles within academia, 90% of administrative staff and 27% of professors reported receiving PTO. Parental leave was most common in private sector organizations, and much less common in academia. For those working in the non-profit sector, a larger percentage of doctoral-level employees (51%) than master's-level employees (37%) reported being offered this benefit.

Figure 12. Leave Benefits by Job Sector

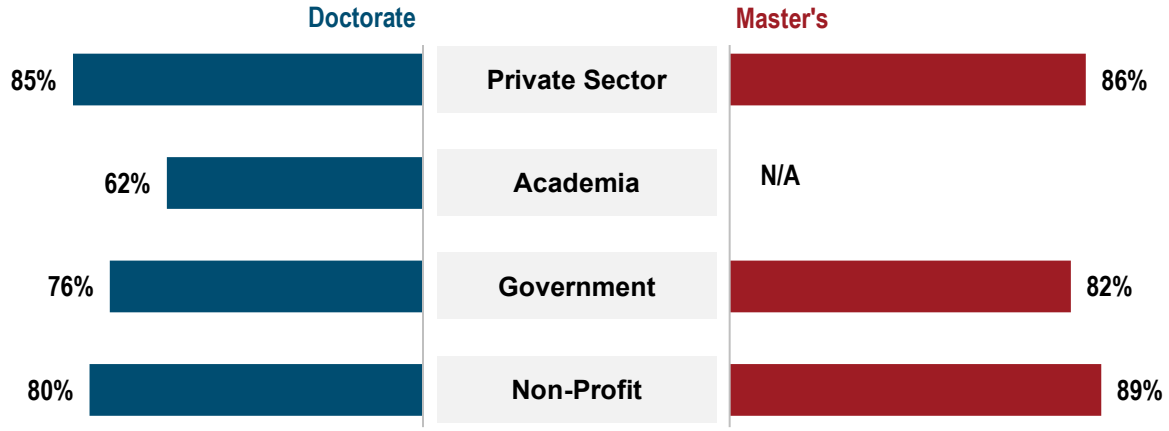


Health insurance was the most common benefit offered by employers across all sectors, with 89% of respondents reporting receiving employer-sponsored health insurance. Figure 13 shows the percentage of respondents in each sector who are offered health insurance, health savings or flexible spending accounts, wellness benefits, dental insurance, and vision insurance. Overall, wellness benefits are less common than other types of health insurance, and least common for those in academia. Health savings accounts/flexible spending accounts, vision insurance, and dental insurance are quite common across employment sectors, although again, somewhat less common for academics. Short- and long-term disability insurance are less common across sectors than are most types of health insurance (Figure 14).

Figure 13. Health Insurance Benefits by Job Sector



Vision Insurance



Dental Insurance

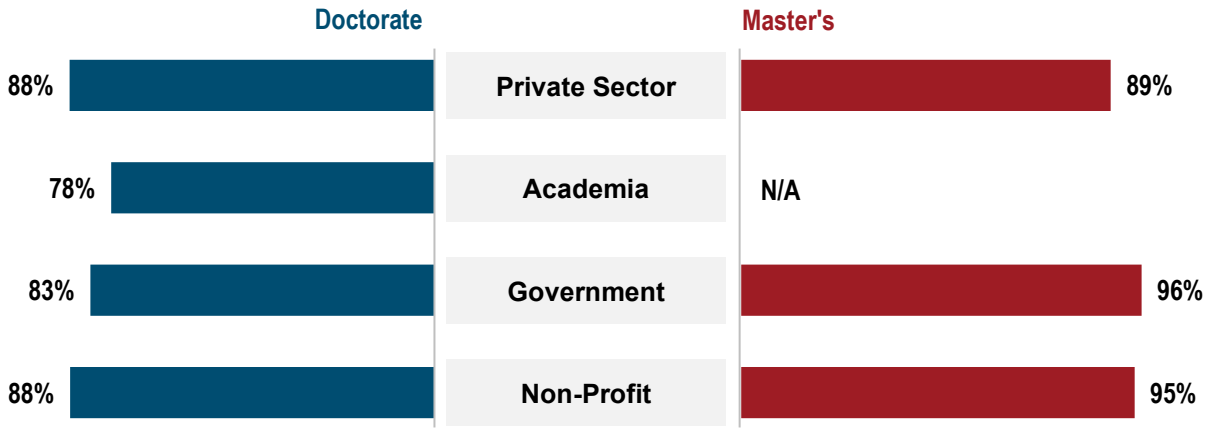
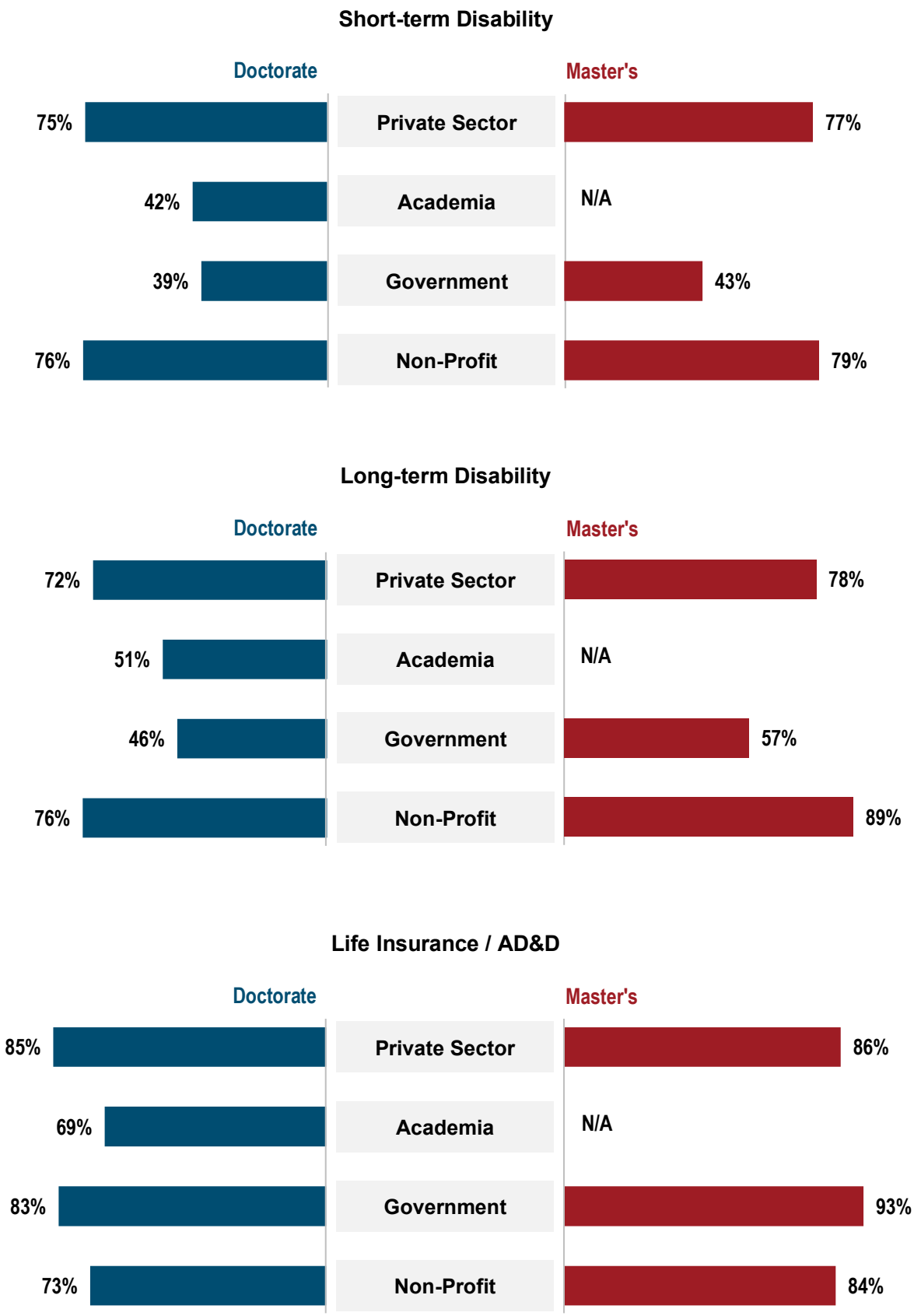


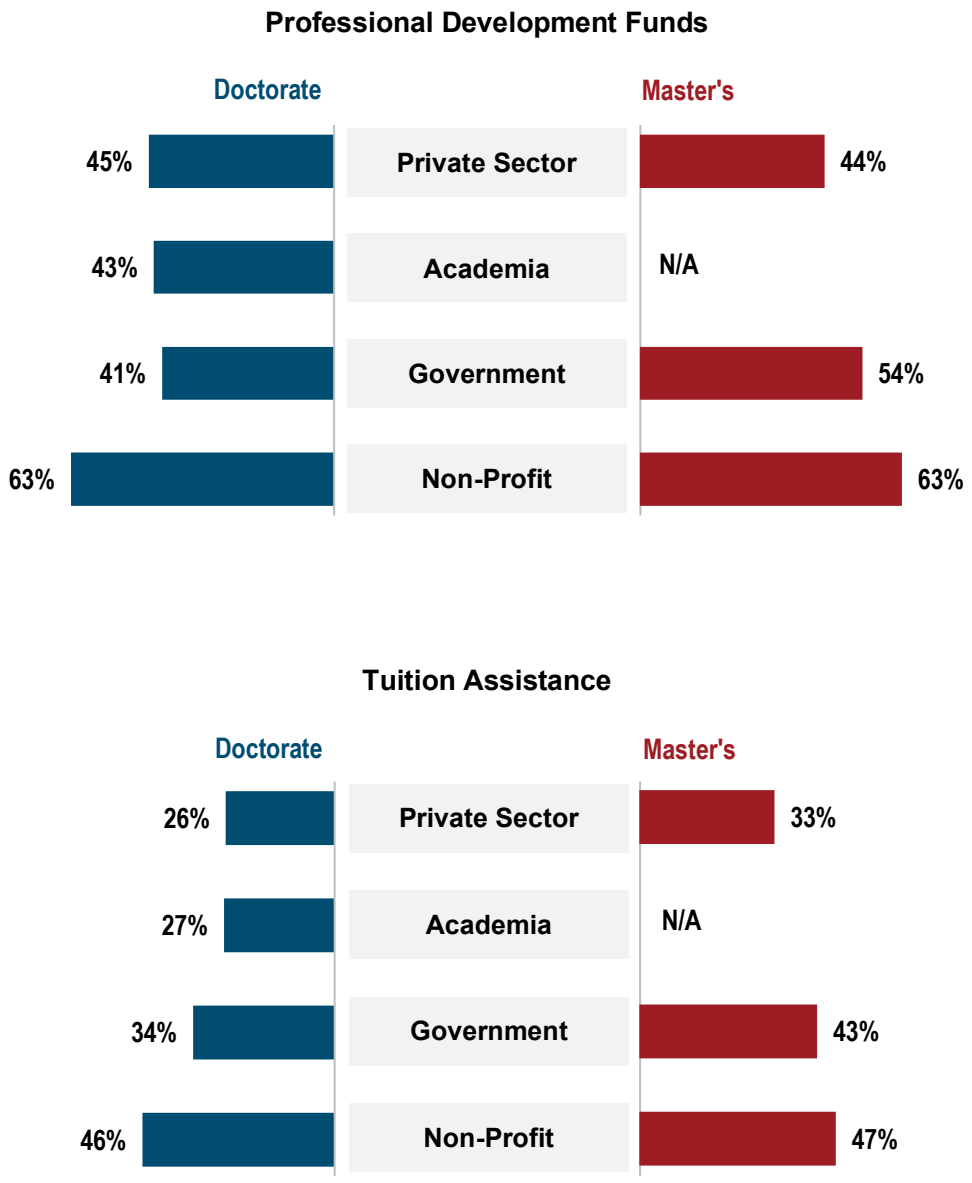
Figure 14. Disability Benefits by Job Sector

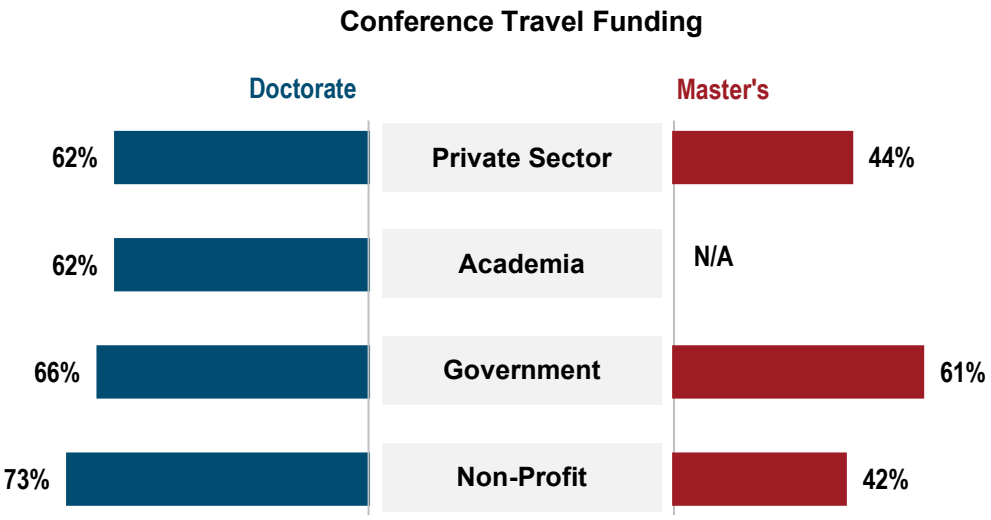


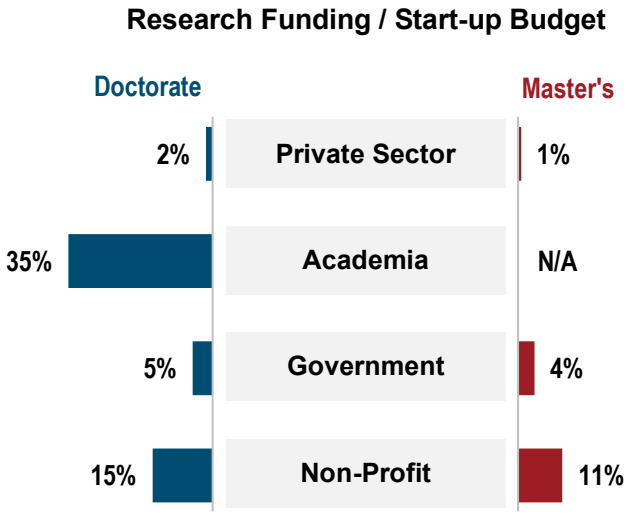
Professional Development and Education Benefits

Additional benefits beyond retirement, health, and leave are of value to employees and organizations offer them to attract and retain talent. As shown in Figure 15, overall, about half of I-Os reported their employers offer professional development funds and conference travel funding, although this varied by sector. Tuition assistance was less common. While relatively rare, research funding was more common in academia (35%) than in other sectors.

Figure 15. Professional Development and Education Benefits by Job Sector







Other Benefits

STOCK OPTIONS, PROFIT SHARING, AND BONUS PAY

As expected, stock options and profit sharing are rare in all but the private sector, with about half of private sector employers offering these benefits to their I-O employees (Figure 16). While more common in private for-profit companies than in other sectors, bonus pay was fairly common in government and non-profit organizations and very rare in academia.

ADDITIONAL BENEFITS

Commuter benefits or technology stipends are offered by less than half of employers and are quite rare in academia (Figure 17). These types of benefits may become more common if the current remote work trend continues. Other types of benefits offered by employers included pet insurance, 529 plans, legal insurance, employee discounts, employee assistance programs, fertility benefits, and others; however, these were extremely rare. We grouped these under 'Other Benefits' in Figure 21.

Figure 16. Stock Options, Profit Sharing, and Bonus Pay by Job Sector

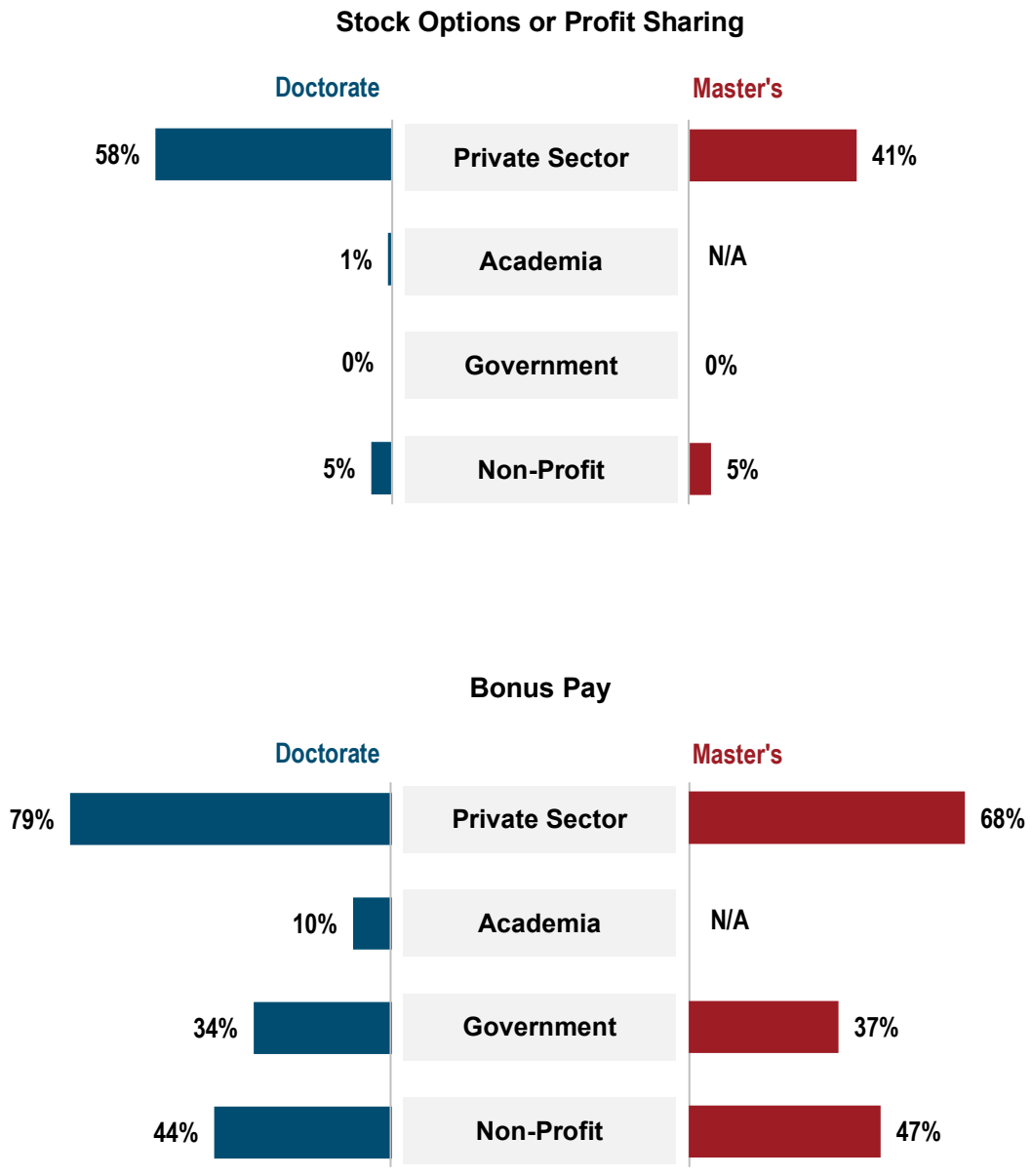
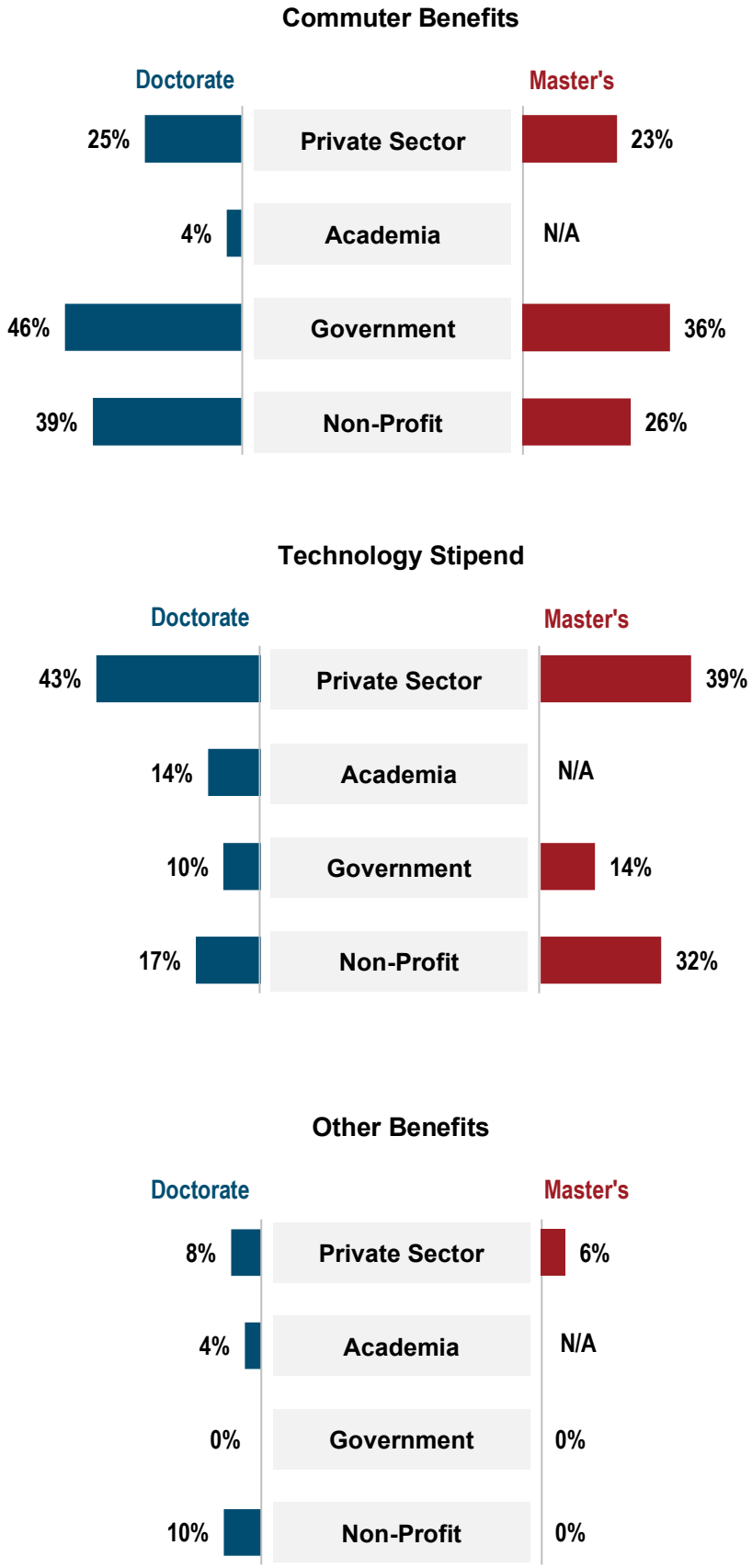


Figure 17. Other Benefits by Job Sector



Supplemental Income

Many opportunities exist to supplement salaries for those working in academia or as practitioners. Academic I-Os more often engage in activities to earn supplemental income, and engage in a wider variety of such activities, than do practitioner I-Os. Tables 19 and 20 show sources of supplemental income and amounts earned from each source for academics and practitioners. Academics more often engage in additional teaching than other types of work to supplement their income, with 37% of academics reporting this as a source of additional income. A second common source of income for academics is through consulting (30%). Engaging in external research is a less common source of additional income in academia, although the median income earned from it is higher than from other types of additional work. Practitioners engage in fewer activities to generate supplemental income and at a lower rate than do academics. The two most common sources of supplemental income for practitioners were writing (9.5%) or speaking engagements (6%). Of these, speaking engagements bring in the highest median supplemental income.

Table 19. Academic Supplemental Income by Source

	Additional Teaching	Consulting	Speaking	Writing	Textbook Review	Internal Research Grants	External Research Grants	Other: Administration
n	107	87	30	34	14	52	34	11
Median	$9,669	$8,000	$1,000	$1,000	$325	$8,000	$15,500	$7,500
Mean	$13,242	$31,770	$3,711	$2,415	$450	$15,520	$20,855	$8,109
Percentile								
90th	$28,400	$68,400	$9,500	$8,000	$1,000	$48,500	$48,500	$16,597
75th	$16,000	$29,000	$3,000	$2,125	$850	$20,000	$20,500	$14,000
50th	$9,669	$8,000	$1,000	$1,000	$325	$8,000	$15,500	$7,500
25th	$5,000	$3,000	$338	$500	$188	$4,500	$5,863	$3,000
10th	$3,000	$1,740	$200	$90	$100	$1,685	$2,400	$1,000

Note. 'Other: Administration' includes administrative work, additional advising role, program director, department head supplement, associate chair stipend, or associate dean stipend.

Table 20. Practitioner Supplemental Income by Source

	Speaking	Writing	Textbook Review
n	46	70	14
Median	$8,000	$5,500	$450
Mean	$9,902	$19,150	$7,298
Percentile			
90th	$21,196	$50,000	$42,500
75th	$15,250	$20,000	$3,750
50th	$8,000	$5,500	$450
25th	$3,500	$2,000	$238
10th	$2,350	$1,000	$110

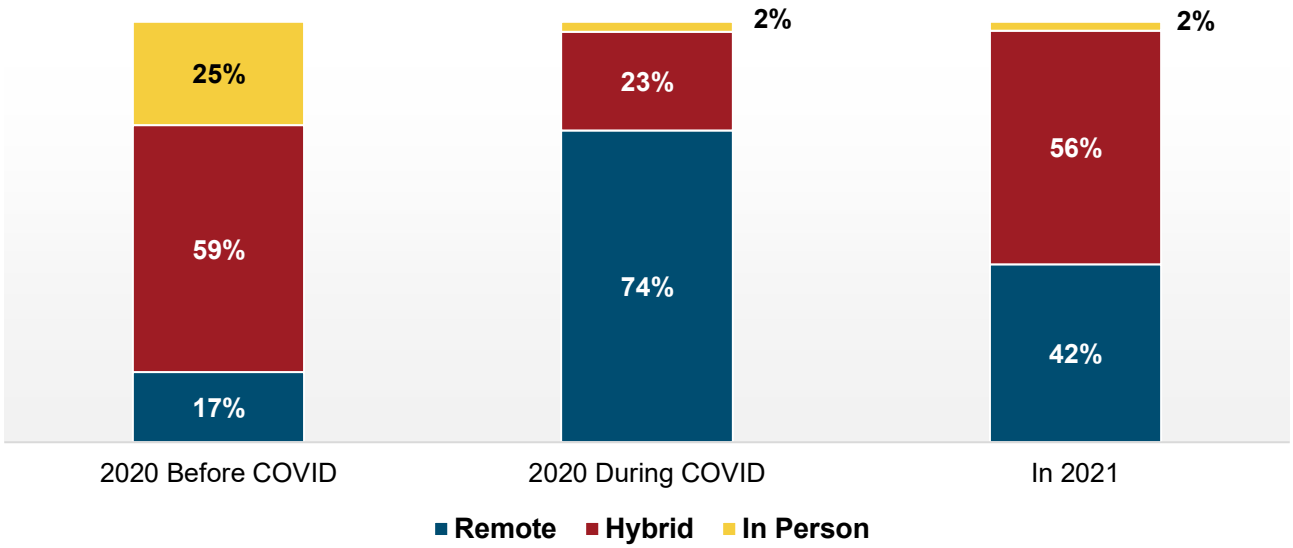
The Impact of COVID-19

Unlike previous periods of time between SIOP income and employment surveys, the last two years saw major disruptions in the workforce worldwide. The COVID-19 pandemic did not impact income for the majority of I-Os, but its effects were felt to varying degrees across job sectors, in practice and academia, and across demographic categories. The brunt of COVID-19's impact on income for I-Os was felt in 2020, with 2021 seeing a lessening of those effects.

COVID-19 Impact on Remote Work Arrangements

Due to the pandemic, work arrangements changed dramatically in 2020 for both practitioner and academic I-Os. As in past surveys, we asked members about the amount of time they worked remotely or in person at an office or place of business. However, in the current survey, we asked members to report their work arrangements for three timepoints: in 2020 before COVID-19, in 2020 during COVID-19, and in 2021. Figure 18 shows overall percentages of I-Os with remote, hybrid, and in-person work arrangements at these three timepoints. "Remote" are those working 100% of the time somewhere other than at the office; "Hybrid" are those working at least some percentage of time at the office and some percentage of time not at the office; and "In Person" are those working 100% of time in the office. At the beginning of 2020 before the pandemic, a majority of I-Os had hybrid arrangements (59%) – working part of the time at home and part of the time in the office – while 17% worked fully remotely. During the height of COVID-19 in 2020, the percentage of I-Os working fully remotely dramatically increased to 74%. In 2021, the percentage of I-Os working fully remotely dropped to 42%; still much higher than the 17% of I-Os working fully remotely before the pandemic. However, the percentage of those working in-person in 2021 remained at the 2% as was seen during the latter part of 2020. These changes reflected trends in work arrangement throughout the U.S. workforce in 2020 and into 2021[6].

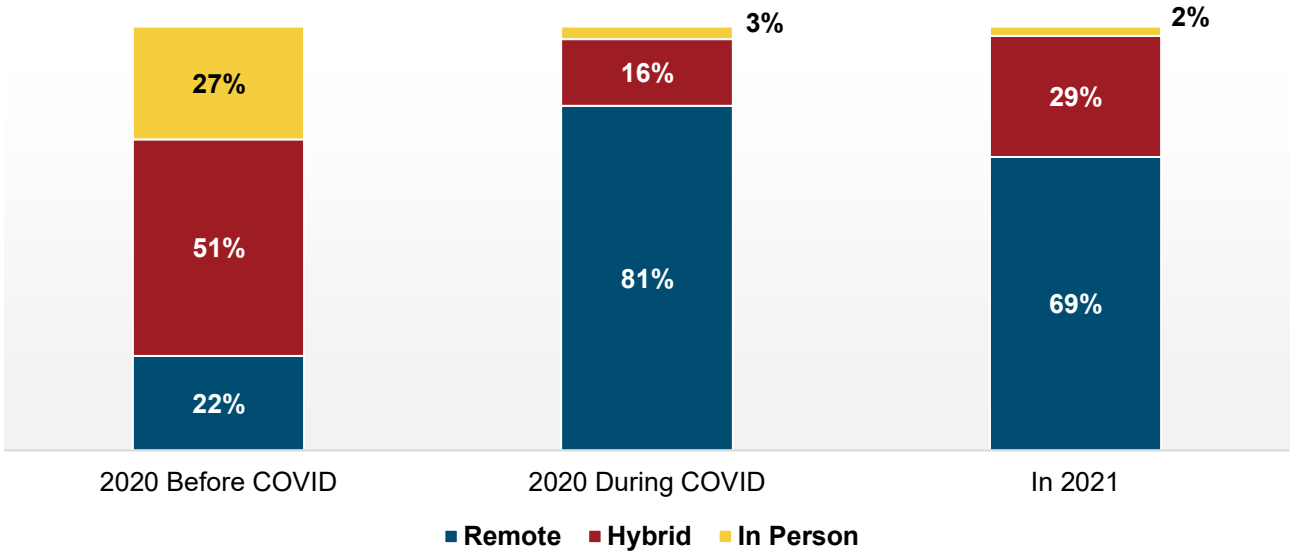
Figure 18. Work Arrangements in 2020 and 2021



Due to the differences in work schedules and job demands between I-O practitioners and academics, we examined work arrangements for these two groups separately. Figure 19 shows work arrangements at the three timepoints for practitioners. Because practitioners made up the majority of the sample, these trends are similar to those found in the overall sample.

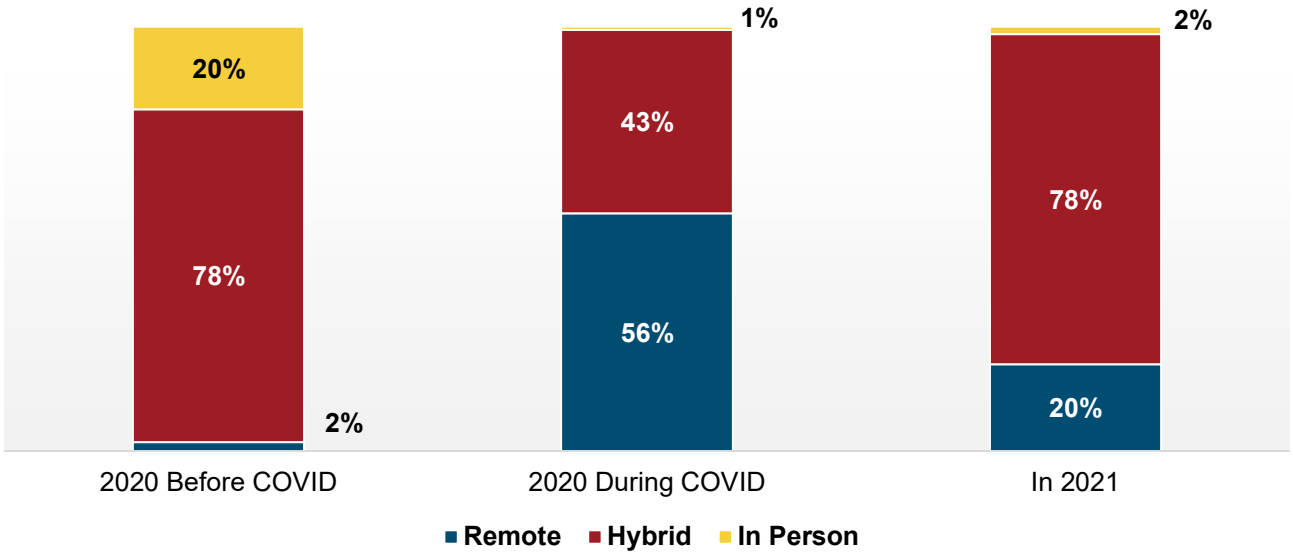
[6] Pew Research Center reported 71% of workers who could perform their jobs from home worked remotely all or most of the time by October 2020. By January 2021, this had decreased to 59%. Retrieved from https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2022/02/16/covid-19-pandemic-continues-to-reshape-work-in-america/.

Figure 19. Practitioner Work Arrangements in 2020 and 2021



Comparing I-Os in academia to those working as practitioners, a greater percentage of academics had hybrid work arrangements before the pandemic, during the pandemic, and in 2021 than did their practitioner counterparts. Figure 20 shows work arrangements for academics across the three time points. Traditionally, academic work schedules have a great amount of scheduling flexibility, allowing professors and instructors to do much of their work away from campus except when teaching or advising – to the extent these activities are not done online. However, during the pandemic in 2020, only 56% of academics switched to fully remote work compared to 81% of practitioners. This may have been due to the ongoing need for some academics to teach in-person classes in the 2020 fall term. In 2021, the percentage of academic I-Os working fully remotely dropped nearly two-thirds from mid-pandemic 2020 levels. In keeping with the 2021 trend for practitioners, academic I-Os remained either fully remote or in hybrid working arrangements and did not return to the same level of in-person work arrangements as seen before the pandemic.

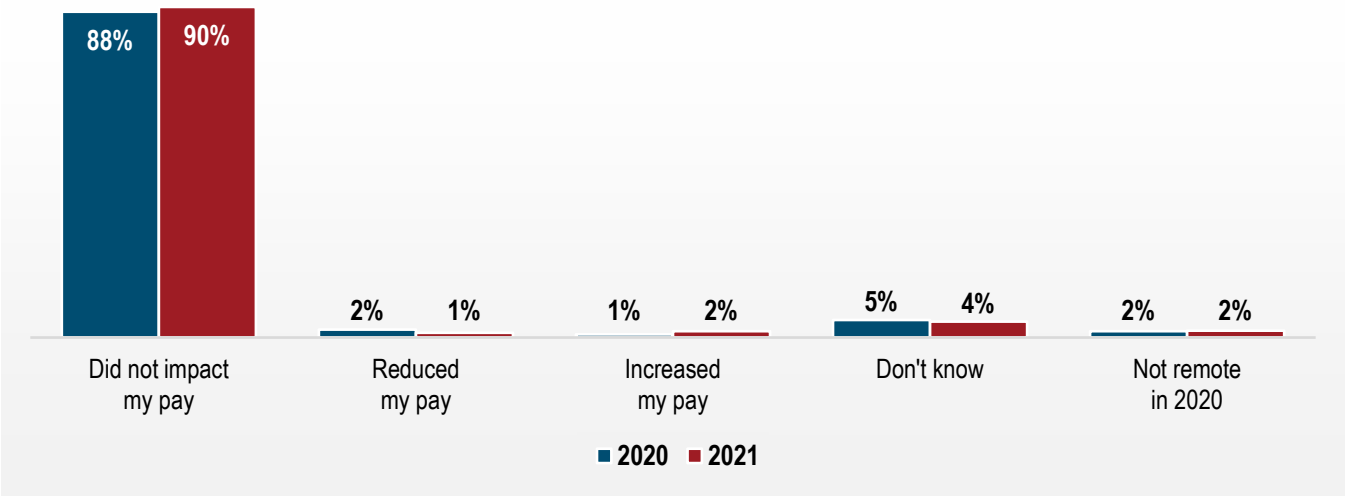
Figure 20. Academic Work Arrangements in 2020 and 2021



When comparing salaries across the three different work arrangements, we examined doctorate-level and master's-level salaries separately. While the median salary for doctorate-level I-Os working remotely was higher than for those with hybrid work arrangements or working in person across all time points, these differences were not statistically significant. For master's-level I-O's, before the pandemic those with hybrid work arrangements earned significantly more than those working in person ($F(2, 270) = 4.99$, $p < .01$).

As discussed in a previous section of this report, salaries vary by geographic location. These location-based pay differences are most often influenced by the location of the company or its offices rather than the location of an employee. However, some companies adjust pay for remote employees to align with the location in which the employee lives. For the majority of I-Os, 2021 salaries were not impacted by changes in work location due to remote work arrangements (Figure 21). If employees who shifted from hybrid to fully remote work arrangements during the pandemic remain fully remote or choose to move to a different area from where their workplace is located, companies may change their pay policies. It may be too soon to tell what policies companies will adopt in the long term for remote work or location-based pay adjustments in the years after the pandemic.

Figure 21. Remote Work Location During COVID-19 Impact on Pay



"For the majority of I-Os, 2021 salaries were not impacted by changes in work location due to remote work arrangements."

COVID-19 Impact on Employment

IMPACT ON EMPLOYMENT BY JOB SECTOR

The effects of the pandemic on income were felt more severely by I-Os in some job sectors than in others. Figures 22 and 23 show the impact of the pandemic on job loss or income changes in 2020 and in 2021. I-Os working in government reported the least disruption to work hours or income in both 2020 and 2021. More than a quarter of self-employed I-Os experienced involuntary job loss in 2020, with nearly a third reporting other income changes (e.g., salary, bonus, or benefit reduction) that year. These effects for self-employed I-Os were lessened in 2021, although self-employed I-Os were still impacted to a greater degree than were I-Os working in other sectors. As a comparison, a survey of U.S. households in August 2020 reported that 15% of adults had lost their jobs or been laid off due to COVID-19[7], with the hardest hit industries being retail, entertainment, and service[8]. Workers who could work from home may have been more likely to continue working during the pandemic. As discussed in an earlier section of this report, I-Os were generally able to make the shift from in-person or hybrid work arrangements to fully remote arrangements when needed.

Figure 22. COVID-19 Impact on Income in 2020 by Job Sector

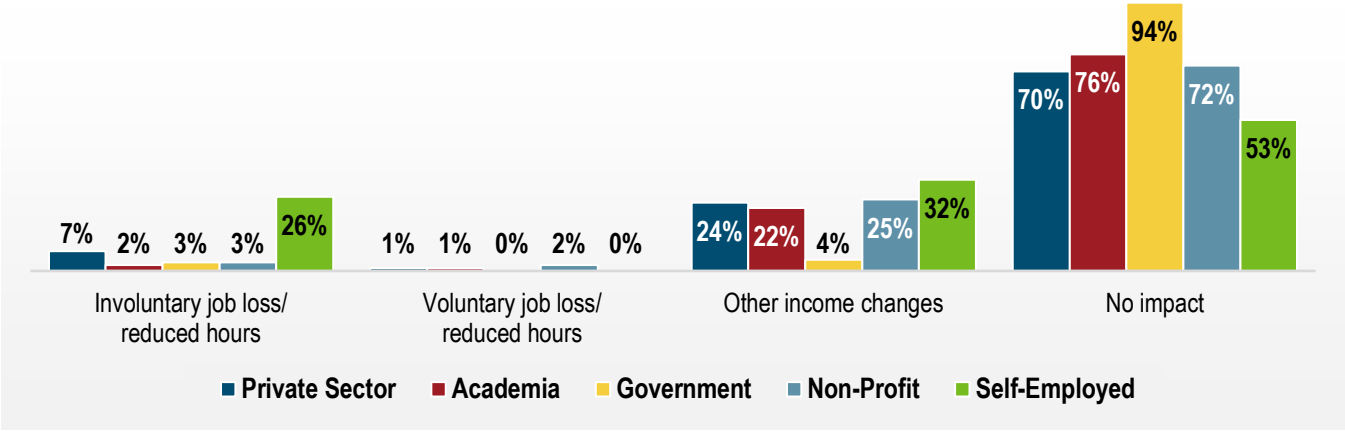
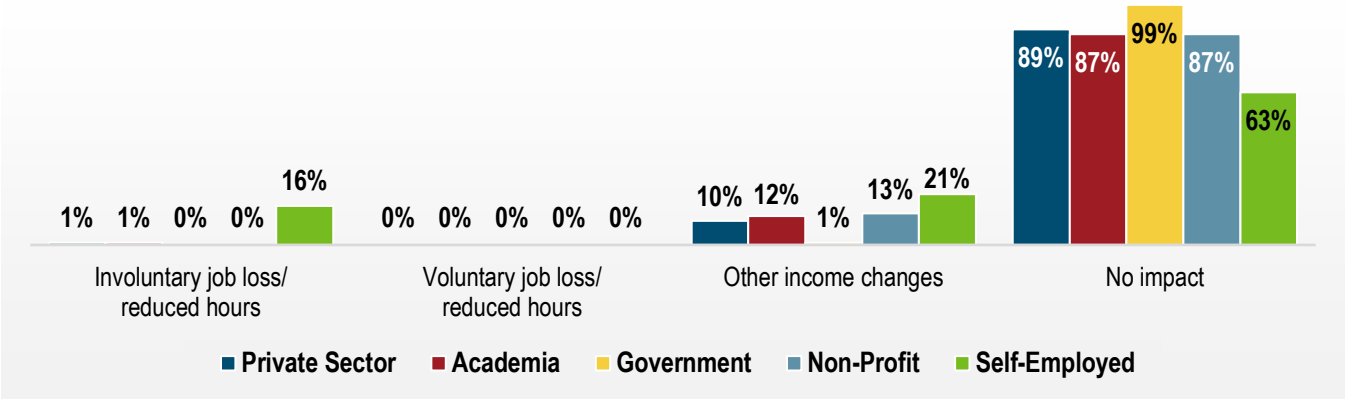


Figure 23. COVID-19 Impact on Income in 2021 by Job Sector



[7] As reported by Pew Research Center. Retrieved from https://www.pewresearch.org/social-trends/2020/09/24/economic-fallout-from-covid-19-continues-to-hit-lower-income-americans-the-hardest/.
[8] As reported by Business Insider on May 12, 2020. Retrieved from https://www.businessinsider.com/jobs-industries-careers-hit-hardest-by-coronavirus-unemployment-data-2020-5.

IMPACT ON EMPLOYMENT FOR PRACTICE AND ACADEMIA

Figures 24 and 25 show how COVID-19 impacted employment and income for academics and for practitioners. In 2020, a greater percentage of practitioners than academics experienced involuntary job loss, although both groups reported similar incidence of voluntarily quitting/ reducing work hours or other income changes. In 2021, incidence of job loss or income changes had decreased by about half for both practitioners and academics. Most respondents who reported losing their jobs in 2020 were able to find employment again in 2021.

Figure 24. COVID-19 Impact on Income in 2020 for Practice and Academia

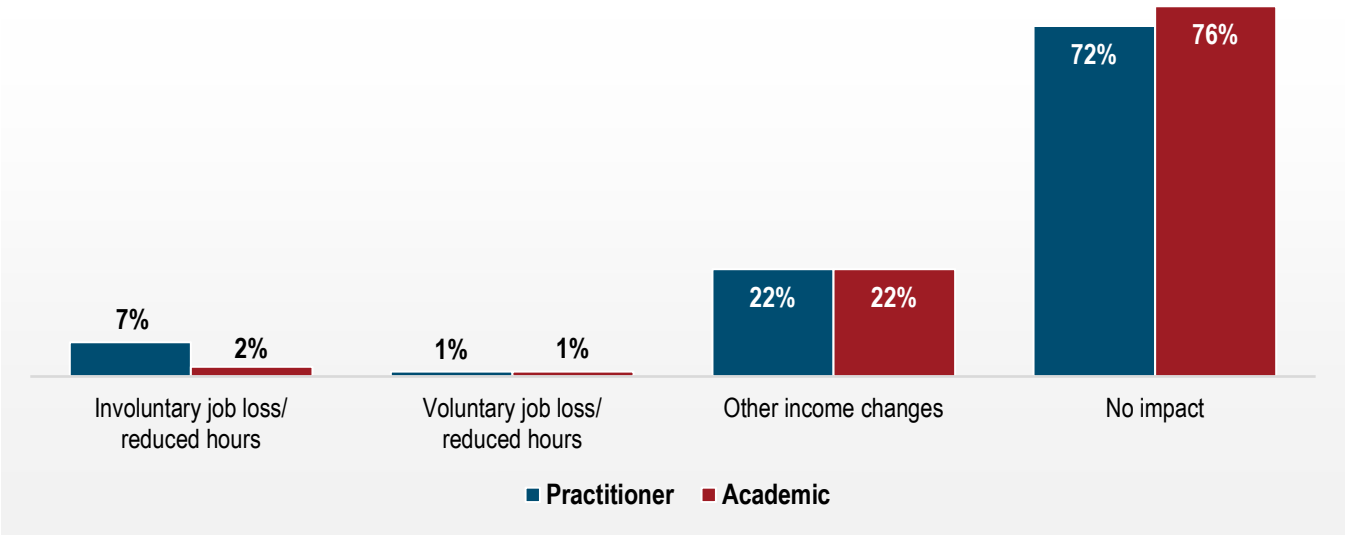
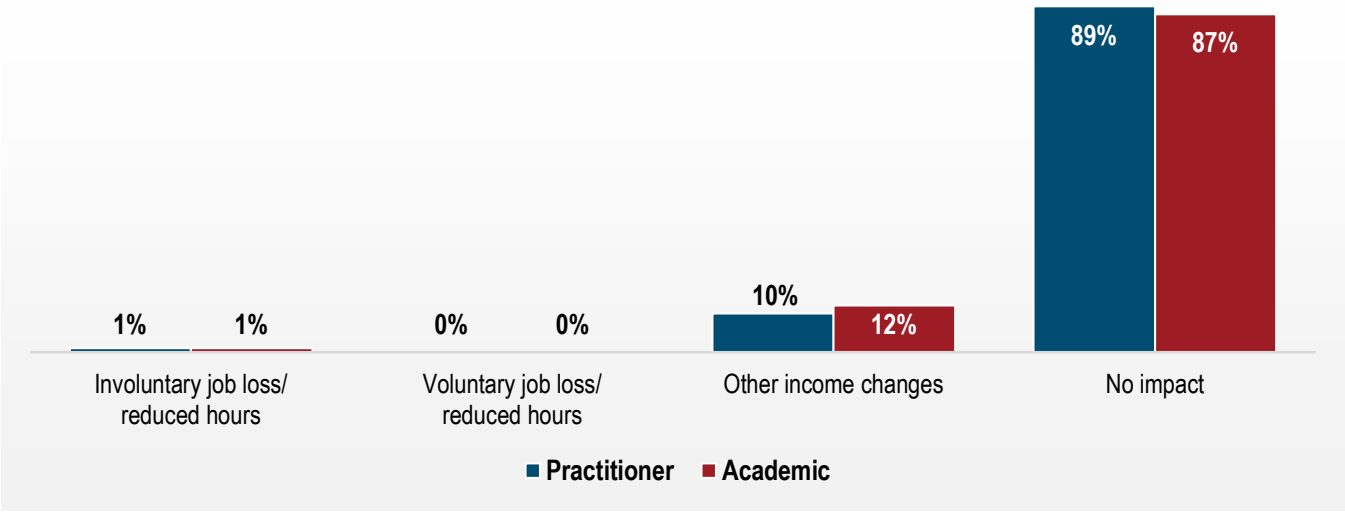


Figure 25. COVID-19 Impact on Income in 2021 for Practice and Academia



IMPACT ON EMPLOYMENT BY GENDER

Men and women experienced similar levels of job loss and reduced work hours due to COVID-19 (Table 21). However, in 2020 women experienced a significantly greater percentage of other types of income changes due to the pandemic than did men ($\chi^2(1, N = 1{,}010) = 7.9$, $p < .01$).

Table 21. Impact of COVID-19 on Income by Gender

Impact	2020		2021	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Involuntary job loss/reduced hours	5%	6%	1%	2%
Voluntary job loss/reduced hours	1%	1%	0%	0%
Other income changes	18%	26%	10%	10%
No impact	76%	70%	88%	89%

IMPACT ON EMPLOYMENT BY RACE/ETHNICITY

In the sample, race and ethnicity groups other than white were too small to examine by type of income change, so we compared COVID-related employment changes for those who identified as white and for those who identified as other than white (including multi- or bi-racial). A slightly higher percentage of I-Os identifying as other than white experienced other income changes due to the pandemic in both 2020 and 2021 (Table 22).

Table 22. Impact of COVID-19 on Income by Race/Ethnicity

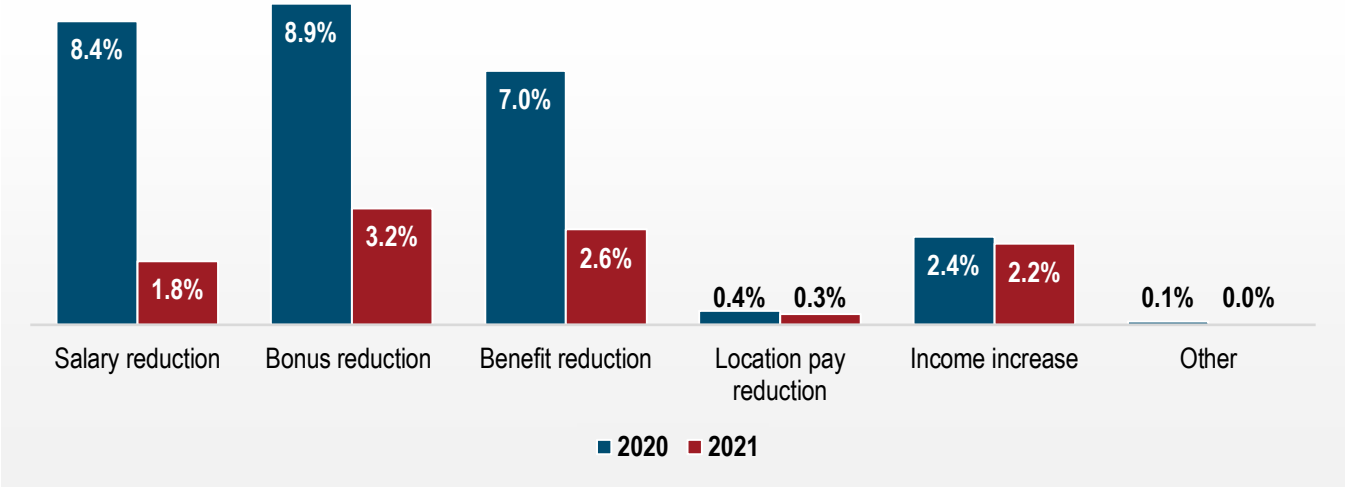
Impact	2020		2021	
	White	Non-white	White	Non-white
Involuntary job loss/reduced hours	5%	6%	1%	1%
Voluntary job loss/reduced hours	1%	1%	0%	1%
Other income changes	21%	25%	10%	13%
No impact	74%	70%	89%	86%

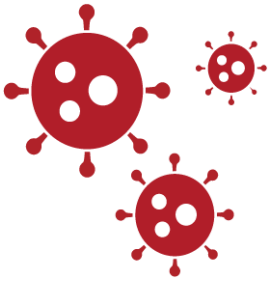
Note. Race/ethnicity subgroup N's were too small to analyze by category.

OTHER INCOME CHANGES DUE TO COVID-19

Looking closer at COVID-19's impact on I-O income, we asked members to report the type of income changes (other than job loss or reduction of hours) they experienced due to the pandemic (Figure 26). In 2020, the largest percentages reported a reduction in the amount of their bonus (8.9%) or a reduction in salary (8.4%). The third largest income change during 2020 was a reduction in benefits (7%). In 2021, these percentages decreased by about a third or more. Interestingly, a little more than 2% of I-Os experienced an income increase due to the pandemic in 2020 and in 2021. It is unclear whether this is due to increased work hours, incentive pay, or gaining new employment.

Figure 26. Other Income Changes Due to COVID-19





"In 2020, the most notable effects of the pandemic on I-O income were a reduction in bonus amount (8.9%) or a reduction in salary (8.4%)."

OTHER INCOME CHANGES BY JOB SECTOR

Comparing COVID-related income changes (other than job loss or reduction of hours) by job sector in 2020 (Table 23), salary reduction affected the private sector and non-profit organizations about equally. The group size for self-employed I-Os was too small to report types of income changes. A greater percentage of I-Os in the private sector experienced bonus reductions. Academics and those working in the non-profit sector experienced greater incidence of benefit reduction. In 2021, income-related effects of COVID for I-Os had eased substantially.

Table 23. Other Income Changes Due to COVID-19 by Job Sector

	2020			
Type of Change	**Private Sector**	**Academia**	**Government**	**Non-Profit**
Salary reduction	10%	7%	1%	10%
Bonus reduction	11%	6%	1%	8%
Benefit reduction	7%	9%	1%	8%
Location pay reduction	0%	0%	0%	0%
Income increase	3%	1%	0%	2%
	2021			
Type of Change	**Private Sector**	**Academia**	**Government**	**Non-Profit**
Salary reduction	1%	3%	1%	3%
Bonus reduction	3%	4%	0%	3%
Benefit reduction	2%	5%	0%	7%
Location pay reduction	0%	0%	0%	0%
Income increase	3%	1%	0%	3%

OTHER INCOME CHANGES BY GENDER AND RACE/ETHNICITY

Among I-Os in 2020, a greater percentage of women than men experienced salary reduction or bonus reduction as a result of the pandemic, although these differences were not statistically significant (Table 24). This is not likely a function of where women work compared to where men work. Men and women are roughly proportionally represented among industries and sectors in the sample. Both white and non-white I-Os reported similar percentages of income changes due to COVID-19 (Table 25).

Table 24. Other Income Changes Due to COVID-19 by Gender

	2020		2021	
Type of Change	**Men**	**Women**	**Men**	**Women**
Salary reduction	8.4%	10.0%	2.0%	1.0%
Bonus reduction	8.9%	11.0%	3.0%	3.0%
Benefit reduction	7.0%	7.0%	2.0%	3.0%
Location pay reduction	0.4%	0.4%	0.0%	0.0%
Income increase	2.4%	2.4%	3.0%	2.0%

Table 25. Other Income Changes Due to COVID-19 by Race/Ethnicity

	2020		2021	
Type of Change	**White**	**Non-white**	**White**	**Non-white**
Salary reduction	8.4%	8.0%	1.6%	2.3%
Bonus reduction	8.9%	9.2%	3.0%	4.6%
Benefit reduction	7.0%	6.9%	2.4%	2.9%
Location pay reduction	0.0%	1.1%	0.0%	1.1%
Income increase	2.5%	1.7%	2.2%	2.9%

Note. Race/ethnicity subgroup N's were too small to analyze by category.

COVID-19 Impact on Work Hours

A small percentage of I-Os lost their jobs due to COVID-19. The largest percentage of those who lost work in 2020 were furloughed or laid off without pay (1.6%), and the second largest percentage involuntarily had their work hours reduced (1.4%). Of those who lost their job in 2020 due to COVID-19, most experienced some delay before finding another job. When comparing the pandemic's impact in 2020 on work hours across job sectors, those in academia experienced the least disruption (1.6%), followed by non-profit employees (1.7%), government employees (2.8%), and private sector employees (6.5%). Conversely, in 2021, academics experienced a larger percentage of reduced work hours or being furloughed without pay (1.3%, compared with 1.2% in the private sector, and 0% in non-profits and in government). However, it is important to remember the numbers of individuals who experienced these effects are very small and these differences in 2021 are within one percentage point of one another.

COVID-19 Impact on Benefits

In response to the pandemic, many organizations offered their employees additional benefits. I-Os reported receiving a wide range of COVID-related benefits starting in 2020. Many of these benefits were still in place in 2021, although they were not as widespread. Comparing COVID-related benefits across job sector (Table 26), those in academia and in government were less likely to be offered many of the benefits with the exceptions of access to PPE and access to COVID tests. This same pattern held for 2021.

Table 26. COVID-19-related Benefits by Job Sector

	2020			
Benefit	**Private Sector**	**Academia**	**Government**	**Non-Profit**
Flexible work arrangements	51%	33%	44%	53%
COVID-designated time off	36%	17%	46%	47%
Mental health benefits/resources	33%	8%	10%	27%
Home office equipment allowance/stipend	30%	10%	7%	25%
Access to PPE	23%	32%	23%	42%
Changes to vacation or PTO policies	23%	7%	16%	23%
Access to COVID tests	21%	33%	16%	30%
Telemedicine options	19%	7%	10%	17%
Enhanced childcare credits	10%	1%	1%	10%

Table 26. COVID-19-related Benefits by Job Sector (continued)

	2021			
Benefit	**Private Sector**	**Academia**	**Government**	**Non-Profit**
Flexible work arrangements	40%	30%	39%	52%
COVID-designated time off	29%	15%	36%	42%
Mental health benefits/resources	29%	11%	10%	30%
Home office equipment allowance/stipend	24%	6%	7%	23%
Access to COVID tests	22%	34%	19%	38%
Access to PPE	21%	33%	26%	43%
Changes to vacation or PTO policies	20%	5%	16%	15%
Telemedicine options	17%	8%	7%	13%
Enhanced childcare credits	7%	1%	3%	8%

Caregiving

In addition to the information provided in past reports, this year we asked members about their caregiving responsibilities at home. Many I-Os are care providers for children, relatives with a disability, or older relatives. It is an ongoing struggle for many to find a balance between responsibilities at work and those outside of work. This balance may have been even more challenging to attain during the COVID-19 pandemic. In the U.S., as schools and care centers closed in 2020 and remained closed into 2021, 58% of employees with children and about half of employees caring for adults experienced an increase in their at-home caregiving commitments[9]. Employee caregiving responsibilities outside of work is an important consideration for employees and employers in any year, but the past two years have seen unprecedented challenges for those in caregiving roles as families faced uncertainty and employers tried to meet the changing needs of their employees[10].

In this sample, 39% of respondents reported having caregiving responsibilities. Of those, 82% reported caring for children, 13% reported caring for older adults, and 4% reported caring for disabled adults. We also asked members about how they share their caregiving responsibilities with others in or outside of the household. Table 27 shows the percentage of respondents who shared or did not share caregiving with others, and what type of caregiving assistance they had.

Table 27. Caregiving Responsibilities for Those Who Reported Being a Caregiver

Responsibility	% of Caregivers
Other than self or partner	30%
Self and partner equally	18%
Partner/Spouse	17%
Self, partner, and outside care	17%
Self	8%
Self and outside care	6%
Other	3%
Partner and outside care	2%

[9] As reported by S&P Global and AARP. Retrieved from https://www.spglobal.com/en/research-insights/featured/companies-expand-family-friendly-policies-but-focus-favors-parents-over-caregivers.
[10] As reported by S&P Global and AARP. Retrieved from https://www.spglobal.com/en/research-insights/featured/companies-expand-family-friendly-policies-but-focus-favors-parents-over-caregivers

Although caregiving responsibilities present additional challenges to employee work schedules, I-Os in caregiving roles earned more than their non-caregiving counterparts (Table 28). However, the mean difference in salaries was not statistically significant. To check whether this difference was due to years of experience or job roles, we compared caregivers and non-caregivers by years since degree. While there were more non-caregivers who were less than 10 years out from their degree, the salary ranges for caregivers versus non-caregivers at each cohort were comparable. Mean salaries were higher for caregivers at the 5-to-9 years, 10-to-14 years, and the 15-to-19 years cohorts, while mean salaries were higher for non-caregivers at the 2-to-4 years, 20-to-24 years, and 25-and-over years cohorts. Comparing job titles across caregivers and non-caregivers, 4.3% of non-caregivers were in vice-president or higher positions while 7.3% of caregivers were in these job roles. This may account for the higher median and mean salary for caregivers compared to non-caregivers. We also looked at the percent of caregivers versus non-caregivers who had doctorate or master's degrees, and found caregivers included a greater percentage of doctorate degree holders than did non-caregivers. Doctorate-level caregivers (n = 318) earned a median salary of $165,022 while the median salary for doctorate-level non-caregivers (n = 388) was $169,737, although this difference was not statistically significant.

Because caregiving can conflict with work schedules, we compared the number of hours worked per week for caregivers and non-caregivers. Somewhat surprisingly, caregivers reported working an average of 44.7 hours per week (median = 45) while non-caregivers worked an average of 44.3 hours per week (median = 40). However, there was quite a bit of variance in the number of hours worked for full-time I-Os, so we looked at whether pay differences between caregivers and non-caregivers held when accounting for the number of hours worked (Table 29). For those working 30 to 39 hours per week, the median caregiver salary was higher than that of non-caregivers in 2020 and lower than that of non-caregivers in 2021. However, mean differences for these comparisons were not statistically significant. For I-Os working 40 or more hours per week, caregivers earned more than non-caregivers in 2020 and in 2021, although, again, these differences did not reach statistical significance.

Table 28. Base Salary for Caregivers and Non-Caregivers

	Caregiver	Non-Caregiver
n	396	582
Median	$135,500	$118,450
Mean	$157,973	$147,460

Note. Caregiver = caregiver in 2020 or in 2021; Non-Caregiver = not a caregiver in 2020 nor in 2021.

"In this sample, 39% of respondents reported having caregiving responsibilities."

Table 29. Caregiving Responsibilities Impact on Salary

	Working 40 Hours Per Week			
	2020 Caregiving		2021 Caregiving	
	Caregiver	Non-Caregiver	Caregiver	Non-Caregiver
n	327	571	331	585
Median	$142,000	$120,000	$160,492	$120,000
Mean	$161,718	$148,424	$140,000	$148,532
	Working 30 to 39 Hours Per Week			
	2020 Caregiving		2021 Caregiving	
	Caregiver	Non-Caregiver	Caregiver	Non-Caregiver
n	23	29	26	29
Median	$116,400	$105,000	$118,200	$105,000
Mean	$144,848	$118,609	$117,508	$140,999

Note. Caregiver = caregiver in 2020 or in 2021; Non-Caregiver = not a caregiver in 2020 nor in 2021.

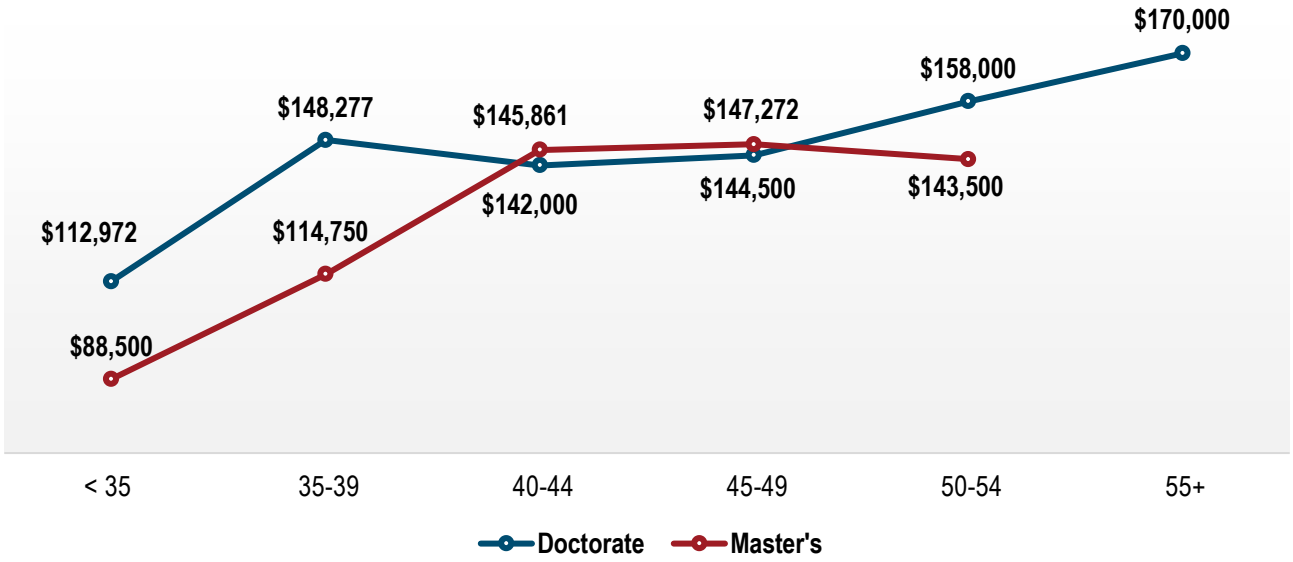
Demographics

In this section, we report salary information by demographic group. I-Os represent a wide range of ages, races, ethnicities, gender identities, ability statuses, and educational backgrounds. We examined the extent to which I-O incomes differ based on these characteristics.

Age

I-O salaries generally increase with age; this may be because age correlates strongly with work experience, and work experience is positively correlated with increasing responsibilities and job title. Both master's-level and doctorate-level salaries increased with age (Figure 27), although from age 45 to age 54, master's-level salaries did not increase. However, it is important to note that group sizes in these age ranges are small (n = 13 for 45-to-49, and n = 10 for 50-to-54) for master's degree holders.

Figure 27. Median Base Salary by Age Group



Note. Median salary for master's degree holders 55 and older is not reported due to insufficient group size.

Disability

Although the median base salary for those who reported having a disability was less than for those who reported no disability, the difference was not statistically significant. The median salary for I-Os with a disability was 90% that of their counterparts without a disability (Table 30). We looked at whether degree level was an influencing factor in the salary difference. Of those with a disability, 66% were doctorate degree holders and 33% held master's degrees, whereas for those without a disability, 73% had doctorate degrees and 26% had master's degrees. To see if this difference in degree level contributed to the difference in median income, we compared salaries for those with doctorate degrees. Median income for doctorate-level I-Os with a disability was $129,000 (mean = $175,811), and median income for those without a disability was $139,840 (mean = $165,237). The mean difference in doctorate-level salaries was also not statistically significant.

Table 30. Base Salary for Those With and Without a Disability

	With Disability	Without Disability	Income With Disability as Percentage of Income Without Disability
n	164	819	
Median	$116,700	$130,000	90%
Mean	$150,119	$151,296	99%

Gender

The gender pay gap for I-Os decreased in 2021. In 2018 women I-Os earned 87% as much as their male counterparts (Figures 28 and 29). In 2021, women earned 94% as much as men in I-O jobs. This is by far the largest gain for women's salaries as a percentage of men's since SIOP began publishing its income report. It should be noted, however, that samples vary across survey administrations and results for 2021 do not necessarily reflect the same respondents as in previous years.

Women working as practitioners had the largest gain in salary as a percentage of men's salary in 2021. Women earned 99% of what men earned in practitioner roles. In academia, women's salaries were 89% of men's salaries. However, the differences between men's and women's salaries were not statistically significant. A table giving sample sizes and group sizes by gender for each survey cohort is provided in the Appendix.

Figure 28. Gender Wage Gap Over Report Years

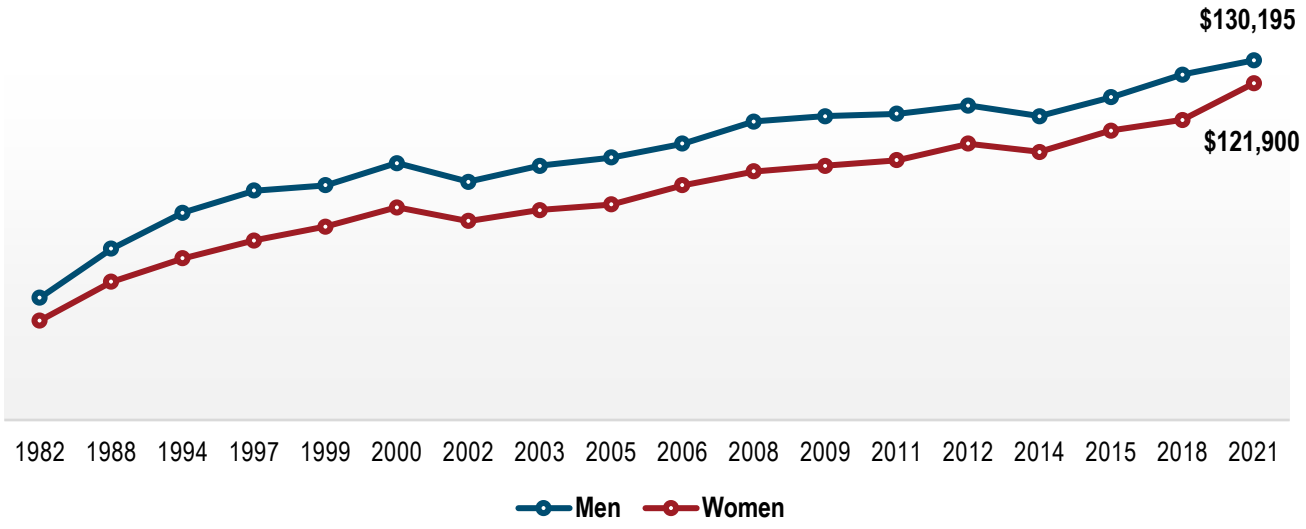
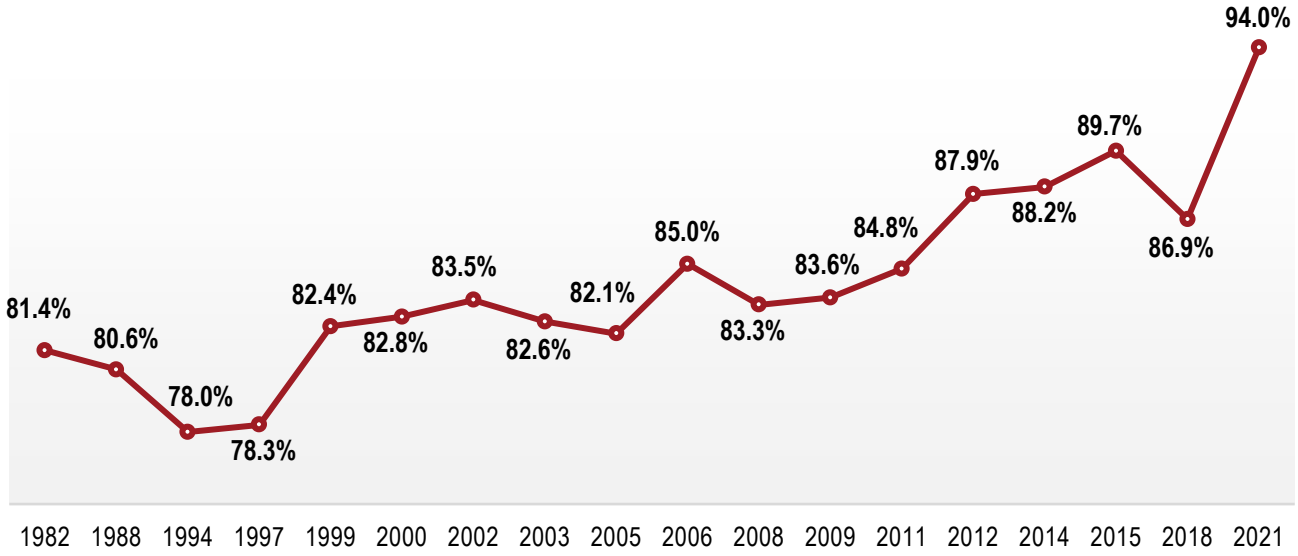


Figure 29. Women's Income as a Percent of Men's Income Over Time



Women's overall gains in salary parity with men have not affected all cohorts equally. When comparing men's and women's doctorate-level salaries by years since earning degree, women who earned their doctorate degrees 25 or more years ago earn only 78% of what men with comparable years of experience earn (Table 31). Women in this group also earn less than their counterparts with 20 to 24 years of experience. However, these differences were not statistically significant, in part due to small subgroup sizes. The drop-off in women's salaries for the 25+ cohort likely contributes to the overall decrease in doctorate salaries discussed in the Qualifications section of this report for those at 25 or more years since earning their degree. One possible explanation for the gender effect for this cohort could be that women starting their careers 25 or more years ago may have been less likely to move into or be promoted into higher paying positions over time than were men with equivalent experience. Another explanation is that a disparity in starting salary compounds over time, with percentage increases in income (i.e., raises as a percent of salary) resulting in greater income gains for those with higher starting salaries. The subgroup sizes for comparing doctorate-level men's and women's salaries within the same job title were too small to test this. Tables 31 through 34 show salary comparisons for doctorate-level men and women practitioners and academics, and for master's-level men and women. Subgroup sizes were quite small in some cases, and for men at fewer than 2 years since their degree, often too small for reporting salary information.

"In 2021, women earned 94% as much as men in I-O Psychology jobs, and this pay difference was not statistically significant."

Table 31. Doctorate-level Median Income by Gender and Years Since Earning Degree

Years with Doctorate	Men		Women		Women's Salary as a Percent of Men's
	n	Salary	n	Salary	
< 2	*	*	17	$100,000	*
2 to 4	47	$110,500	59	$110,000	100%
5 to 9	65	$132,000	90	$135,000	102%
10 to 14	41	$142,000	44	$151,500	107%
15 to 19	30	$150,559	41	$146,694	97%
20 to 24	33	$180,000	22	$189,000	105%
25+	58	$196,500	40	$153,562	78%

*N is too small to report.

Table 32. Doctorate-level Median Income by Gender for Practitioners

Years with Doctorate	Men		Women		Women's Salary as a Percent of Men's
	n	Salary	n	Salary	
< 2	*	*	15	$100,000	*
2 to 4	38	$126,000	47	$117,000	93%
5 to 9	44	$138,500	61	$151,928	110%
10 to 14	19	$152,000	33	$160,000	105%
15 to 19	15	$190,000	24	$166,000	87%
20 to 24	21	$200,000	11	$210,000	105%
25+	24	$224,500	25	$164,000	73%

*N is too small to report.

Table 33. Doctorate-level Median Income by Gender for Academics

	Men		Women		Women's Salary as a Percent of Men's
Years with Doctorate	n	Salary	n	Salary	
2 to 4	*	*	12	$92,690	*
5 to 9	21	$99,100	29	$103,333	104%
10 to 14	22	$129,500	11	$98,456	76%
15 to 19	15	$122,806	17	$117,000	95%
20 to 24	12	$100,500	11	$144,000	143%
25+	34	$120,150	15	$110,876	92%

*N is too small to report.

Table 34. Master's-level Median Income by Gender and Years Since Earning Degree

	Men		Women		Women's Salary as a Percent of Men's
Years with Master's Degree	n	Salary	n	Salary	
< 2	*	*	10	$67,500	*
2 to 4	23	$90,000	49	$83,000	92%
5 to 9	31	$99,174	45	$98,000	99%
10 to 14	16	$124,500	15	$116,400	93%
15 to 19	*	*	11	$162,000	*

*N is too small to report.

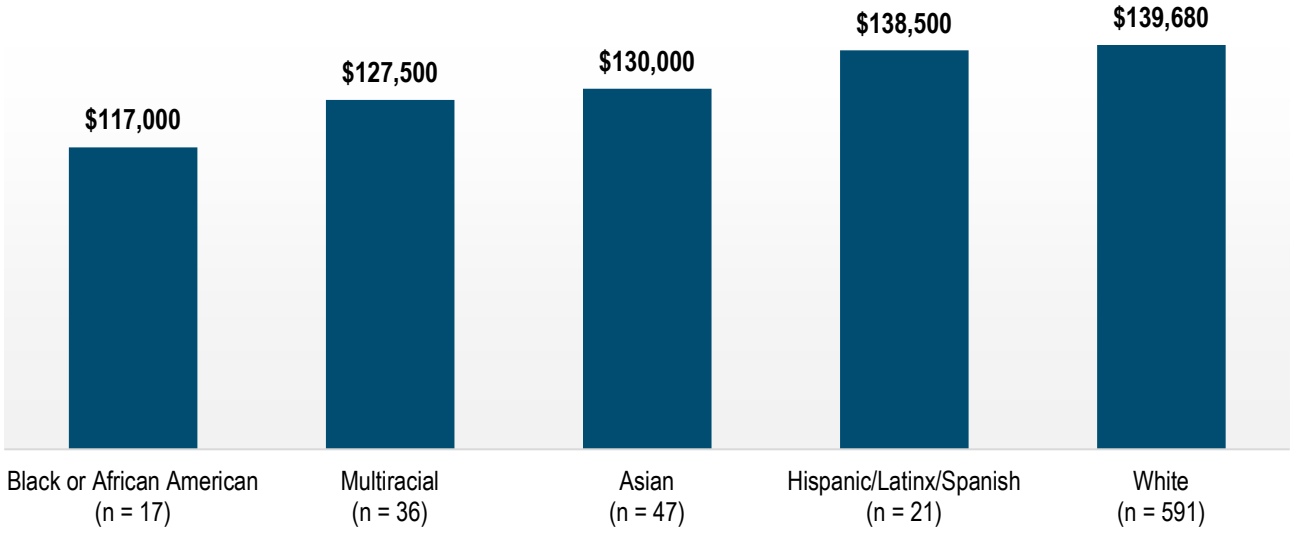
Race and Ethnicity

For doctorate degree holders, those identifying as white earned significantly more than those identifying as a race other than white ($t(479) = -2.55$, $p < .05$). Salary did not significantly differ by race for master's degree holders (Table 35). Group sizes were too small to compare incomes between each race/ethnicity category. However, Figure 30 shows median salary comparisons for race/ethnicity groups with n > 10. Although salaries for I-Os in all race/ethnicity groups have increased since 2018, disparities among race/ethnicity groups persist.

Table 35. Base Salary by Degree Level and Race

	Doctorate Degree		Master's Degree	
	White	Non-White	White	Non-White
n	591	124	218	51
Median	$139,680	$130,000	$100,600	$96,000
Mean	$171,883	$144,631	$110,494	$102,185

Figure 30. Doctorate-level Median Income by Race/Ethnicity

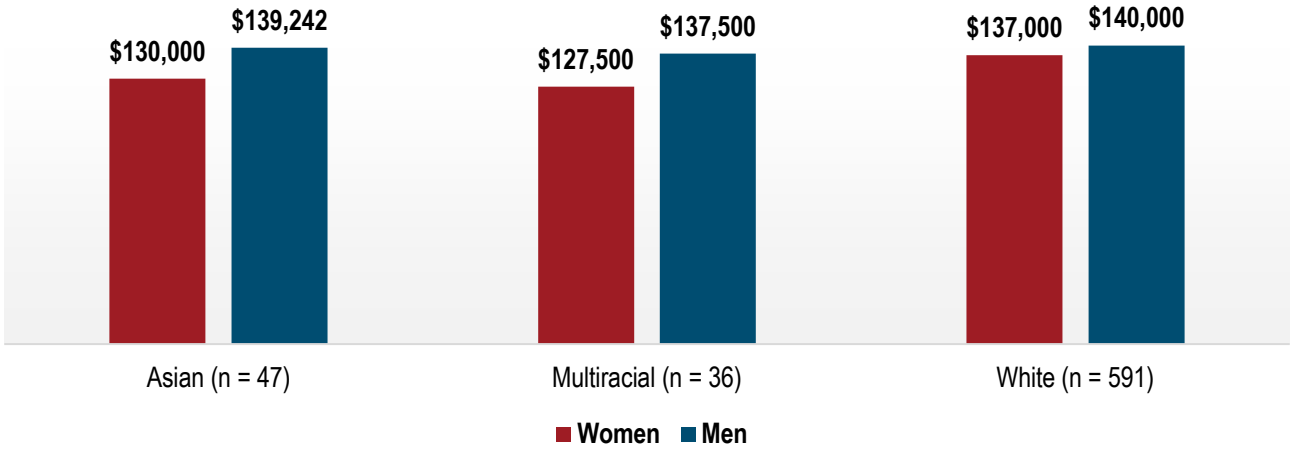


Race by Gender

We examined gender pay gaps within race/ethnicity categories where sample size allowed (Figure 31). Although doctorate-level Asian men and doctorate-level multiracial men earned more than their female counterparts, these differences were not significant. This is likely in part due to the small group sizes at this level of analysis, along with substantial variation in salaries within subgroups.

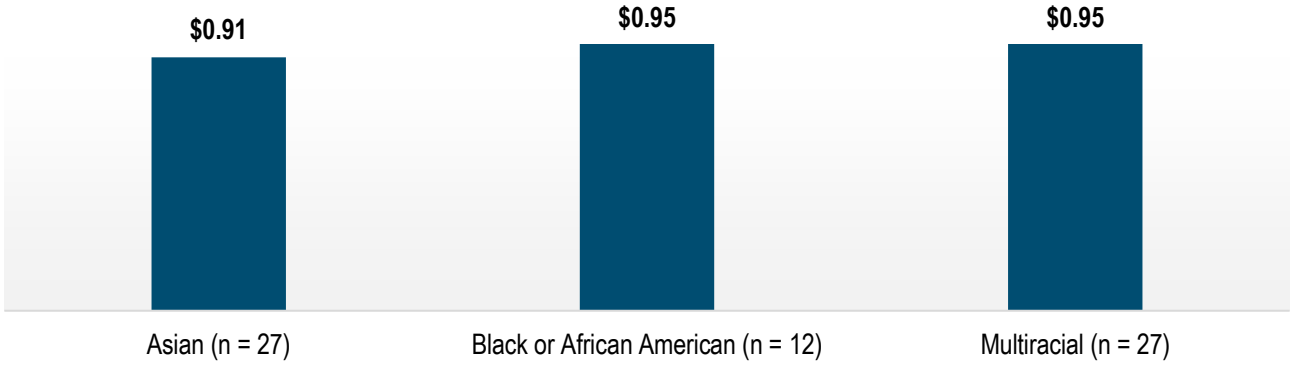
For the Black or African American group, male sample sizes were too small to allow comparisons between salaries for men and women. We compared women's salaries in this group to their overall group median. Black or African American women earned a median salary of $125,000 compared to the overall median salary for the African American group of $110,500. However, due in part to the small group sizes, the difference in mean salary was not statistically significant. For the Hispanic/Latinx/Spanish group, the women's sample size was too small to make credible comparisons with Hispanic/Latinx/Spanish men's salaries or with the overall racial group.

Figure 31. Doctorate-level Median Income by Gender and Race



When comparing the salaries of women across racial categories, using the median salary of women in the white racial group as the reference point, Black or African American and multiracial women make 95 cents on the dollar compared to white women. Asian women make less than their counterparts in the other race categories (Figure 32), earning 91 cents on the dollar compared to white women.

Figure 32. Doctorate-level Median Income for Women by Racial Category as a Percent of White Women's Income



Degree Type

The percentage of doctorate degrees and master's degrees of those in the white racial category (73% and 27%, respectively) was nearly equal to those in the non-white category (72% and 28%, respectively). The difference in median income for doctorate holders and master's degree holders decreased from 40.6% in 2018 to 37% in 2021 (Table 36).

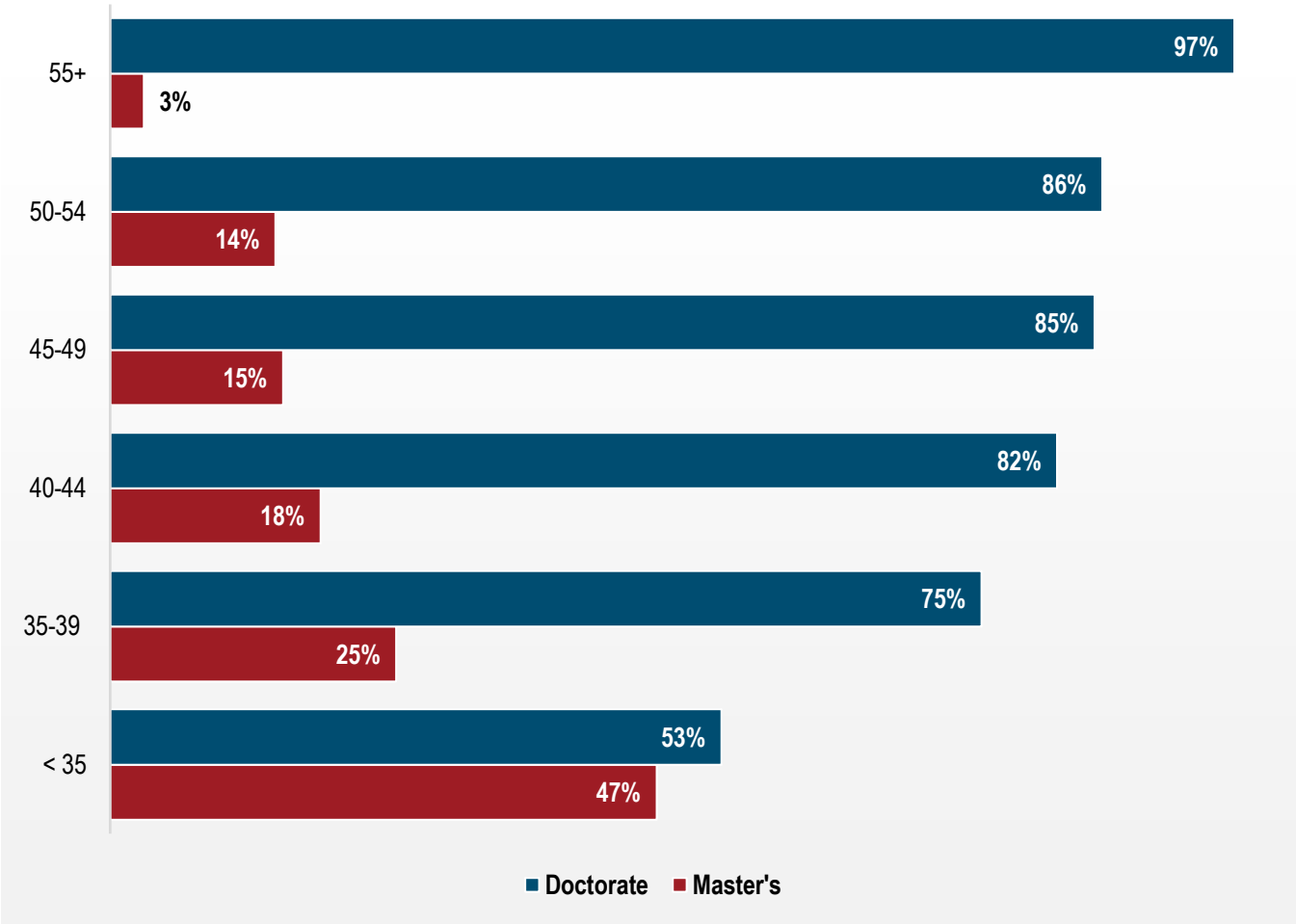
Overall, men held a greater proportion of doctorate degrees compared to master's degrees (76% doctorate holders and 24% master's degree holders) than did their female counterparts (70% doctorate holders and 30% master's degree holders).

Table 36. Median Income by Survey Year for Doctorate and Master's Degree Holders

	Doctorate		Master's		Percent Difference
Year	n	Income	n	Income	
1982	844	$42,850	96	$43,000	-0.4%
1988	1448	$60,000	171	$51,500	16.5%
1994	1124	$71,000	104	$59,500	19.3%
1997	1231	$80,000	99	$55,000	45.5%
1999	882	$83,000	117	$58,000	43.1%
2000	905	$90,000	126	$67,000	34.3%
2002	904	$83,750	131	$60,000	39.6%
2003	922	$87,714	133	$65,000	34.9%
2005	931	$92,000	139	$68,000	35.3%
2006	942	$98,500	141	$72,000	36.8%
2008	869	$102,000	141	$72,000	41.7%
2009	904	$105,000	148	$74,500	40.9%
2011	921	$110,000	175	$75,000	46.7%
2012	938	$113,200	182	$80,750	40.2%
2014	802	$112,000	238	$76,650	46.1%
2015	817	$118,818	246	$84,500	40.6%
2018	1067	$125,000	318	$88,900	40.6%
2021	733	$137,000	275	$100,000	37.0%

When examining degree type by age, younger I-Os are more likely to have a master's degree than are their older counterparts, particularly for those under 35. The percentage of respondents under 35 who hold a master's degree is nearly double that of the 35-to-39-year-old cohort (Figure 33).

Figure 33. Degree Type by Age Group



CONCLUSION

This report provides an overview of the current state of income and employment for those working in the field of industrial-organizational psychology. Several findings from past reports still hold true. Doctorate-level I-Os have a higher median income than do master's level I-Os. Practitioner salaries are higher on average than the salaries of those in academia. And among academics, those working in business schools or departments have a higher median income than those in psychology departments. The median income for women is still less than that of men, although the gender pay gap has shrunk.

COVID-19 was a major market disruption in 2020 and 2021, but I-Os generally fared well through the pandemic. A small percentage of members experienced income or employment loss in 2020, and this percentage decreased by about half in 2021. Many employers of I-Os acknowledged the pandemic challenges by offering additional time off or more flexible work arrangements.

The results of this most recent survey provide students preparing for a career in this field, I-Os newly entering the job market, and experienced I-Os seeking a job change or renegotiating with current employers with information that can be leveraged to inform job choice and aid in making decisions about individual career growth. Industrial-organizational psychologists continue to contribute to organizations in a wide variety of industries and across job sectors, and their value to the world of work is reflected in the steady employment and income trends reported here.

APPENDIX

Subgroup sizes in the sample limited the analyses we were able to conduct. In our sample, the following race/ethnicity groups were of sufficient size to report overall salary information for: White (n = 860), Asian (n = 67), Black or African American (n = 28), Hispanic, Latinx, or Spanish (n = 30), bi-racial or multi-racial (n = 57), Prefer not to respond (n = 21). Other race/ethnicity categories with under 10 respondents: American Indian or Alaska Native, East European Jewish, Saami, and Middle Eastern North African. Regarding age, the median age in the sample was 38 (M = 41.3, SD = 11.4, min. = 24, max. = 81). The sample included 29 I-Os who identified as military veterans.

Historical Comparisons

Table 37. Sample Characteristics Across Prior Survey Administrations

	1982	1988	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2012	2015	2018	2021
Gender												
Men	84%	79%	71%	67%	65%	58%	58%	54%	56%	51%	48%	46%
Women	16%	21%	29%	33%	35%	42%	42%	46%	45%	49%	52%	53%
Other	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0%	1%
Membership Type												
Associate	N/A	10%	6%	7%	10%	12%	14%	14%	15%	17%	17%	22%
Member	N/A	82%	86%	86%	83%	82%	80%	80%	79%	74%	75%	71%
Fellow	N/A	8%	9%	7%	7%	6%	6%	6%	6%	6%	7%	7%
Employment Status												
Full-time	N/A	87%	89%	86%	86%	95%	97%	95%	95%	96%	97%	96%
Part-time	N/A	5%	3%	8%	9%	5%	3%	.05%	500%	4%	3%	4%
Location												
New York area	4%	14%	11%	10%	11%	7%	8%	7%	6%	6%	4%	4%
D.C. area	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	10%	10%
Elsewhere	86%	86%	89%	90%	89%	93%	92%	93%	94%	94%	86%	86%

	1982	1988	1994	1997	2000	2003	2006	2009	2012	2015	2018	2021
Years since doctorate												
<2	N/A	N/A	8%	11%	2%	11%	8%	9%	9%	5%	7%	4%
2 to 4	N/A	N/A	12%	13%	14%	19%	20%	16%	17%	18%	17%	18%
5 to 9	23%	24%	19%	18%	19%	25%	24%	22%	22%	20%	22%	26%
10 to 14	19%	22%	18%	14%	15%	13%	16%	18%	15%	16%	14%	14%
15 to 19	14%	18%	14%	14%	13%	10%	10%	10%	14%	11%	12%	12%
20 to 24	N/A	N/A	14%	12%	14%	8%	7%	9%	7%	12%	11%	9%
25+	N/A	N/A	15%	19%	25%	14%	15%	16%	18%	18%	15%	16%
Years since master's												
<2	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	7%	8%	7%
2 to 4	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	30%	35%	31%
5 to 9	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	30%	22%	33%
10 to 14	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	17%	15%	13%
15 to 19	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	7%	8%	8%
20 to 24	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	4%	5%	6%
25+	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	5%	6%	2%
Highest degree												
Doctorate	N/A	N/A	N/A	92%	88%	87%	87%	86%	83%	77%	77%	72%
Master's	N/A	N/A	N/A	7%	12%	13%	13%	14%	17%	23%	22%	27%
Other	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	1%	1%

Table 38. Median Income by Report Year for Men and Women

	Men		Women		Women's Salary as % of Men's
Year	Income	n	Income	n	
1982	$44,250	811	$36,000	150	81.4%
1988	$62,000	1,290	$50,000	342	80.6%
1994	$75,000	954	$58,500	394	78.0%
1997	$83,000	858	$65,000	428	78.3%
1999	$85,000	637	$70,000	341	82.4%
2000	$93,000	653	$77,000	357	82.8%
2002	$86,250	605	$72,000	428	83.5%
2003	$92,000	609	$76,000	444	82.6%
2005	$95,000	626	$78,000	436	82.1%
2006	$100,000	626	$85,000	449	85.0%
2008	$108,000	556	$90,000	451	83.3%
2009	$110,000	569	$92,000	480	83.6%
2011	$110,800	613	$94,000	475	84.8%
2012	$113,800	624	$100,000	490	87.9%
2014	$110,000	521	$97,008	513	88.2%
2015	$116,779	536	$104,750	522	89.7%
2018	$125,000	658	$108,575	712	86.9%
2021	$130,195	460	$121,900	540	94.0%

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The Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP) is an international professional association with an annual membership of nearly 10,000 industrial-organizational (I-O) psychology practitioners, educators, and students who study and apply scientific principles to work. SIOP's mission is to enhance human well-being and performance in organizational and work settings by promoting the science, practice, and teaching of I-O psychology.

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Human Resources Research Organization (HumRRO) is a nationally recognized, nonprofit applied research and consulting organization, established in 1951 and headquartered in Alexandria, Virginia, with offices in Louisville, Kentucky; Minneapolis, Minnesota; and Monterey, California. We provide our clients with customized solutions for complex business, HR, educational, and organizational challenges. Our areas of expertise include human capital management, hiring and promotion, education research and evaluation, credentialing, measurement and analytics, and leadership assessment.

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