

The Occupational Attainment of Mid-Career Childless Women, 1980-2012¹

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¹ This paper is released to inform interested parties of ongoing research and to encourage discussion of work in progress. The views expressed on statistical, methodological, or technical issues are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the U.S. Census Bureau.

INTRODUCTION

Although the “motherhood penalty” is well-documented (Kahn, Garcia-Mangano, Bianchi, 2014), less is known about the extent to which there is a non-mother “bonus.” In this paper, we examine the labor market outcomes of childless women, focusing on occupational attainment over time. Research suggests that childless women are more highly represented in management positions than are mothers, perhaps as a result of having more time to invest in their careers (Amuedo-Dorantes & Kimmel, 2005). We examine whether this effect extends to employment as a whole, and whether similar patterns can be seen for other occupations. We also examine changes over time to further explain differences in occupational attainment between mothers and childless women.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Recent research has documented an increase in childlessness; among women aged 40 to 44, the percent who were childless increased from 10.2 percent in 1976 to 15.1 percent in 2012 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014a). Over the same time period, women’s labor force participation has increased, and more women have moved into managerial positions (U.S. Department of Labor, n.d.; U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.(a); Wood & Newton, 2006). Women have also increased their educational attainment (U.S. Census Bureau, n.d.(b)), and the age at first birth has increased (Matthews & Hamilton, 2009). Increases in non-marital fertility, demographic changes in the population of the United States, and macro-economic factors have also shaped the way that women experience the overlapping demands of work and family (Hayford, 2013; Spain & Bianchi, 1996).

Women’s childbearing and their labor force attachment are highly correlated. Childbearing usually removes women from the labor force for at least some time, and there is evidence that women with children, and particularly young children, have lower labor force attachment than those who do not (Spain & Bianchi, 1996). The lower labor force attachment of mothers has been posited to be a contributing factor in women’s underrepresentation in corporate positions of power (Gangl & Ziefle, 2009).

Although there is a large literature examining the labor market consequences of motherhood, less is understood about the labor market outcomes of childless women. Researchers have found that women who opt out of motherhood have better economic outcomes than those who are involuntarily childless, suggesting one benefit of choosing work over motherhood (Hayford, 2013; Abma & Martinez, 2006; Kahn, Garcia-Mangano, Bianchi, 2014). In general, studies have shown that childless women are more

likely to be in managerial positions and have both higher earnings and higher levels of wealth in later life than do women who have children (Plotnick, 2009; also see Wood & Newton, 2006, for a review).

Although better labor market outcomes for childless women are likely in part due to the motherhood “penalty,” these outcomes may also be linked to other factors, such as educational attainment. About one in five women 40 or older with at least a bachelor’s degree was childless in 2012 compared to 13 percent of those with a high school diploma (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014b). Higher rates of childlessness among highly educated women may reflect the greater opportunity cost of their educational investment (Wu & MacNeill, 2002; Amuedo-Dorantes & Kimmel, 2005).

DATA AND METHODS

In this paper, we use data from the Current Population Survey (CPS) covering the period from 1980 to 2012 to examine the labor market outcomes of childless women over time, focusing specifically on occupational attainment, net of demographic factors. The CPS is a monthly survey of households conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau for the Bureau of Labor Statistics. It provides a comprehensive body of data on the labor force, employment, unemployment, persons not in the labor force, hours of work, earnings, and other demographic and labor force characteristics. The population represented by the CPS is the civilian noninstitutionalized population living in the United States, and in addition to economic measures, the CPS also includes regularly administered supplements on a variety of subjects, from housing to disability to fertility.²

This analysis uses both occupation data collected as part of the CPS Basic survey, as well as information from the Fertility Supplement. The CPS Fertility Supplement has been administered roughly every other June since 1976 to women aged 15 to 44, and asks about several key fertility indicators.³ In this paper, we utilize data from the 1980, 1982, 1984, 1986, 1988, 1990, 1992, 1994, 1995, 1998, 2000, 2002, 2004, 2006, 2008, 2010, and 2012 June CPS data.^{4,5}

² For more details about the Current Population Survey, including its sample size and questions, see <http://www.census.gov/cps/methodology/>.

³ The age range was expanded to women up to age 50 in 2012; however, we limit our analysis to the age group present in each survey.

⁴ The 2014 data are not included because we were unable to obtain the occupation data for that sample in time for these analyses.

⁵ For more information about the CPS, including the source and accuracy statement, see the technical documentation accessible at: <http://www.census.gov/cps/methodology/>.

We ask the following research questions:

- (1) How has the occupational distribution for childless women and mothers changed since 1980?
- (2) Do childless women have better labor market outcomes than mothers in terms of employment and occupational attainment?
- (3) How have the employment and occupational attainment of childless women changed over time?

To do this, we use responses to the Fertility Supplement question about the number of children ever born to identify childlessness. Women who identify as never having given birth to any children are classified as childless, while women who have given birth to one or more children are classified as mothers.⁶ We then use these same women's responses to Basic CPS questions regarding their occupation to examine the intersection of (non)-fertility and occupational attainment.

More specifically, we use several decades of CPS data to disentangle the role of childlessness from other temporal changes in predicting women's labor market outcomes. Our pooled sample includes women aged 40 to 44 years at the time of each survey. As few births occur to women over 40, we presume that women's fertility status at 40 likely represents their completed fertility (Hamilton et. al., 2015). Additionally, focusing on women in their 40s allows us to examine women who are established in their career trajectories.

Occupational attainment is categorized into five broad occupational categories: (1) Management; (2) non-Management Professional; (3) STEM; (4) Service and Production; (5) Technicians. Management includes CEOs, operations managers, and similar occupations. Non-management professionals include women in jobs such as teaching and administrative support. STEM occupations include jobs in engineering or computer science; we separate STEM occupations from other professional occupations since women have historically been underrepresented in STEM occupations (Bilimoria & Lord, 2014), and it may be that women who chose STEM careers have different parity than those who do not. Service and Production occupations include women who work in food preparation or service, and health care support, among other occupations. Technician occupations include jobs such as the maintenance of technical equipment and technical support work; however, we do not examine Technicians as an outcome variable due to the small sample size.

⁶ We recognize that these classifications are limited to biological motherhood, and therefore likely include some number of adoptive and step mothers. However, as the majority of both adoptive parents (Jones, 2009; Kreider & Lofquist, 2014) and stepparents (Stewart, 2001) also have biological children, we believe that the impact of any miscategorization is likely to be minimal.

Our analysis assumes that management and STEM jobs are the most prestigious, and that service and production jobs are the least, based on the literature on occupational attainment. Although much of the research on occupational prestige is dated, occupations differ in terms of status based on earnings, working conditions, and educational or skill requirements. For example, rankings of occupational prestige by NORC suggest a hierarchy of occupations with managerial and professional jobs scoring higher than other occupations, with higher ratings indicating greater prestige (Nakao & Treas 1992; see also Hauser & Warren 1996).

Our models control for women's demographic characteristics related to both employment and childbearing, including race (White vs. not; Roscigno, Garcia, & Bobbitt-Zeher, 2007), ethnicity (Hispanic vs. not, regardless of race; Bean & Bell-Rose, 1999), marital status (ever married vs. not; Hayford, 2013), educational attainment (see Layne, 2013, for a review of the literature), and survey year. The limited nature these controls is both a function of sample size and of standardizing measures across multiple years of the CPS.

We first present descriptive results comparing changes in the labor force attachment and occupational attainment of childless women and mothers from 1980 to 2012. Next, we use logistic regression to model the same relationships while controlling for demographic characteristics of both mothers and childless women to test the robustness of these associations. Finally, we interact childlessness with the panel years in additional logistic regressions to examine how the associations between childlessness and occupational attainment have changed over time. We expect that childlessness will be positively associated with a greater likelihood of women being employed in historically male-dominated occupations at the top of the career ladder, although given the role of other social and demographic changes (Hayford, 2013), we expect that the effect will decline over time.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows frequency distributions for the sample. Roughly 17 percent of the pooled sample are childless, while 83 percent have given birth to at least one child. The two groups of women differ in occupational attainment and by demographic characteristics. For example, there are differences between mothers and non-mothers in the percent distribution of the four occupations examined in this paper: management, non-management professionals, service and production occupations, and STEM occupations. Childless women are more likely to be in management, and less likely to be in service or

production jobs, for example. There are also differences by marital status (ever married women are more likely to be mothers), and Hispanic ethnicity (Hispanic women are less likely to be childless). Childless women are also more likely to have a college degree, and less likely to be in any of the other educational categories, than are mothers.

Figure 1 shows both the well-documented growth of women's labor force participation over the past 30 or so years, as well as trends delineated by women's status as mothers or not. Between 1980 and 2012, there was a roughly 15 percentage point increase in the number of employed women aged 40 to 44, with a concomitant roughly 20 percentage point decrease in the number of women who were not in the labor force among all women in this age group.⁷

Given that the majority of women in their 40s have had children, it is not surprising that trends for mothers follow those of the population as a whole. However, trends for childless women diverge from those of mothers, and from the population of women as a whole, in significant ways. For example, across the entire period, childless women are consistently more likely to be employed, and less likely to be out of the labor force, than are mothers.

These differences extend to some occupations. Figures 2-5 show the trends over time by occupation and fertility. Due to constraints of sample size, panels are pooled into roughly 4-year blocks in these figures.^{8,9} Figure 2, which illustrates patterns for management occupations, shows significant divergences between mothers and childless women in pooled panels from 1998 to 2006, with childless women consistently more likely to be in management positions. In contrast, Figures 3 and 4 show the trends for non-management professional occupations and STEM occupations. In neither case are there significant differences between mothers and childless women. Figure 5, however, shows the trends for service and production occupations, and here there are consistent differences over time but in a different direction than those seen for management occupations. In the case of service and production occupations, childless women are significantly *less* likely than mothers to hold such positions, and this is true in all observed years.

Given demographic differences between childless women and mothers, we also run logistic regressions predicting occupation based on fertility, while controlling for the demographic characteristics available to

⁷ The percent of women in this age group who were unemployed increased by roughly 4 percent over this period.

⁸ The direction and magnitude of our results is generally consistent when we use each panel independently; however, we lose statistical significance. We pool the panels in order to have sufficient sample to be able to discuss differences by fertility and occupation over time.

⁹ All other data presented here uses each CPS panel independently.

us. Table 2 shows that, net of demographic controls and a measure of the panel from which the observation comes, childlessness is significantly associated with both employment within the full sample, and with each of the occupational categories examined among women who are employed. Childless women are more likely than mothers to be employed, and among women who are employed, they are more likely to be in management occupations. In contrast, childless women are less likely to be in service and production occupations, as well as non-management professional occupations and STEM occupations (although the magnitude of the effect is small for these final two occupational groupings), than are mothers.

To isolate the effect of childlessness from historical changes in women's occupational attainment, we also ran logistic regressions in which we interacted childlessness with the year group from which the observation comes; see Table 3. In predicting employment, we find that the childlessness is still significantly associated with increased likelihood of employment, but that the effect declines slightly over time. Notably, once interactions are included in the model, childlessness independent of a time effect is still positively associated with management occupations, but the coefficient for the interaction effect is no longer significant, indicating that this relationship does not change over time. Additionally, including the interaction with time in the model only increases the magnitude of the negative association between childlessness and occupations in service and production. However, this negative association is reduced over time, while the coefficient on the interaction term in the model predicting STEM occupations suggests that the negative association between childlessness and these jobs has grown stronger over time.

DISCUSSION

Since 1980, both childlessness and women's labor force participation have risen. In this paper, we sought to examine the relationship between the two, while accounting for changing preferences, norms, and demographics over time. We see clear and persistent patterns in terms of labor market involvement by maternity, with mothers less likely to be in the labor force than non-mothers. We also see changes in occupational attainment. For example, women held more management positions in 2012 than in 1980, while the proportion of women in service or production jobs fell. And we see the expected trends for childless women, with childless women generally holding more management positions across the time period than do mothers, for example.

That childlessness continues to predict employment in our interacted model, independent of a time effect, speaks to the intersection of motherhood and work. However, the declining importance over time suggests either changing norms or increased work supports for working parents - or both. Per Laughlin (2011), “flexible work schedules, employment-based child care benefits, and maternity leave emerged as issues during the 1980s,” leading to new policies at both a governmental and individual employer level. Increased work supports and accommodations for parents may be partly responsible for the declining importance of childlessness for women’s employment. Additionally, changes in social welfare programs such as the end of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) in 1996, and the creation of Temporary Assistance to Needy Families (TANF, which mandated work in exchange for a welfare check) as its replacement, likely also shifted the work profile of mothers away from staying home with children and into the workforce.

However, this period also saw social changes. For example, the number of single mothers more than doubled, and cohabiting families changed from a rarity to a fairly common family form (McLanahan & Jencks, 2015). As more women had children without a spouse present, more mothers needed to work in order to support their children. Moreover, as cohabitation has been shown to be less financially secure and less stable over time than marriage, even “single” mothers who had children with a cohabiting partner may face greater pressure to be employed.

Policy changes in support of motherhood may help to explain the negative association between childlessness and STEM occupations. A minority of all women are in STEM careers, but white-collar jobs such as these are the ones most likely to offer supports like paid maternity leave, sick leave, health insurance, and child care centers (Gornick & Meyers, 2003). As these and other programs have facilitated working motherhood among high-prestige workers, it is understandable that the small number of women who have these careers might not perceive the motherhood burden that women in other occupations do.

However, the fact that the association between childlessness and management occupations remains positive and significant in our interacted models, and that we find no change over time, suggests the limits to such policies. Even those these are also the types of jobs most likely to offer work supports, the fact that childless women continue to be overrepresented in management occupations over time suggests that other factors are likely also at work.

The analysis of other professional occupations also did not show a substantive time trend. Although the negative relationship between childlessness and other professional occupations is heightened by the

inclusion of the interaction of childlessness and year, the coefficient on the interaction term, despite being statistically significant, is so small as to be functionally null. For these occupations, the primary relationship seems to be between fertility and occupation, without significant time trends.

Service or production occupations, however, are more complicated. When the host of controls is included, including the interaction of childlessness and panel year, being childless is significantly associated with a decreased likelihood of having a service or production occupation. However, this effect declines over time. The time trends (see Figure 5) suggest that this is because mothers are moving away from service or production jobs; there is a significant decline between 1980 and 2012 in the percent of mothers holding such jobs, but no such change for childless women between these two time points.

These results confirm our hypotheses that childless women would be more likely to hold high-prestige occupations (such as management), even net of demographic differences between mothers and childless women. Additionally, we find a reduced likelihood that childless women will hold service or production jobs, which, as low prestige occupations, further supports our hypothesis. We also find that, as expected, the association between childlessness and occupation is reduced over time for service and production jobs. However, we did not find the expected change for other occupational categories. In fact, we find increasing importance of childlessness in predicting STEM occupations. More research is needed to tease out these results.

Moreover, although there are both clear distinctions between the occupational attainment of childless women and mothers, and clear changes over time in the occupational paths of both childless women and mothers, we do not see evidence of a changing importance of childlessness for professional occupations (both managerial and non-managerial). This suggests not only that the childlessness remains a predictor of both labor force attachment and occupational attainment, but that the policy changes of the last several decades have changed this relationship only incrementally.

LIMITATIONS

This analysis is limited by the number of variables common across 30 years of CPS surveys; we are well aware that more nuanced measures of race would likely influence these results. Similarly, any measure of nativity would likely benefit this analysis, as would more nuanced measures of marital history and

educational pathways.¹⁰ We had also aspired to do an income analysis, but income and earnings variables are limited and not consistently available across our pooled datasets.¹¹

NEXT STEPS

In future iterations of this work, we hope to add data from both 1976 and 2014 to the analysis. We would also like to add multinomial logit models to our analysis, to examine comparative differences in occupation by fertility. We would also like to look at whether changes in both the demographic portrait of the U.S. population, and that of childless women more specifically, might help to explain any of the differences seen here.

We would also like to explore gender differences. Although the CPS does not ask men about their fertility, there is high concordance (94 percent agreement) between women's report of childlessness and whether they live with any children. Therefore, we would like to use a measure of children in the household as a proxy for fertility to explore differences in occupational attainment for men and women, and to examine how gender interacts with parenthood over time.

Future iterations of this research will address these issues.

¹⁰ The education measure available from the CPS in the years of our study captures only the highest education achieved; it does not capture education in process, or professional certifications and licensures. Data on professional certifications and licensures began to be collected in CPS in 2015.

¹¹ The CPS includes an in-depth economic supplement, the ASEC, in March of each year, but the fertility questions are asked in June. Unfortunately, while there are some respondents in common across the March and June supplements, only about a quarter of the women in the Fertility Supplement sample also have ASEC data so we are unable to effectively combine the two supplements to better inform an economic analysis.

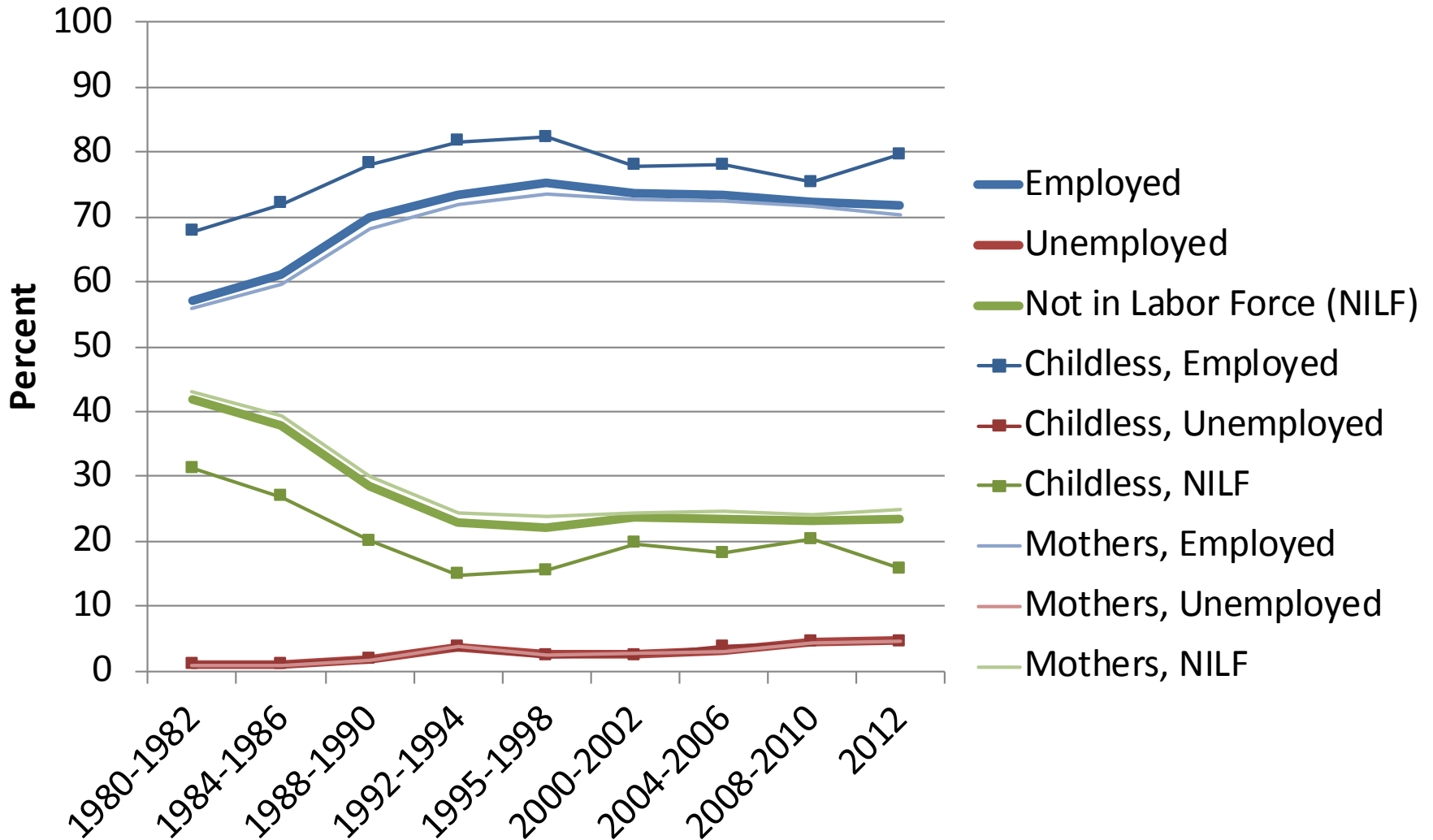
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- U.S. Census Bureau. (2014b). Table 6: Completed Fertility for Women age 40 to 50 Years Old – Selected Characteristics: June 2012. Downloaded August 4, 2014 from <http://www.census.gov/hhes/fertility/data/cps/2012.html>.
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- U.S. Census Bureau. (n.d.(b)). Figure 3: Percent Change from 2003 to 2013 in the Number of Men and Women 25 and Over Who Have Completed Selected Levels of Education. Downloaded August 4, 2014 from <http://www.census.gov/hhes/socdemo/education/data/cps/historical/fig3.jpg>.
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FIGURE 1

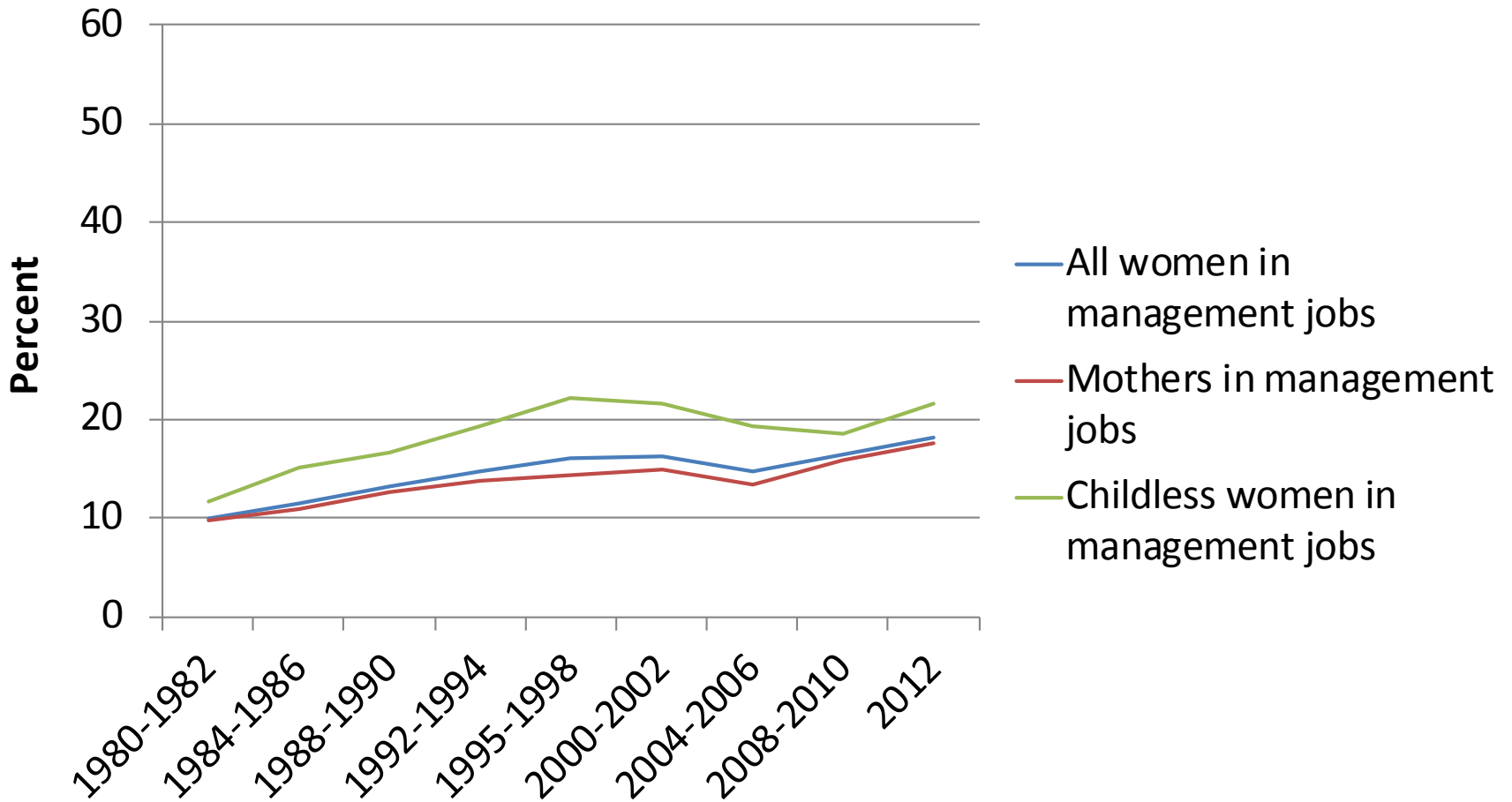
Women's Labor Force Participation by Motherhood (All Women, 40-44)



SOURCE: CPS June Basic data and Fertility Supplement data, 1980-2012

FIGURE 2

Management Occupations by Motherhood (Employed Women, 40-44)

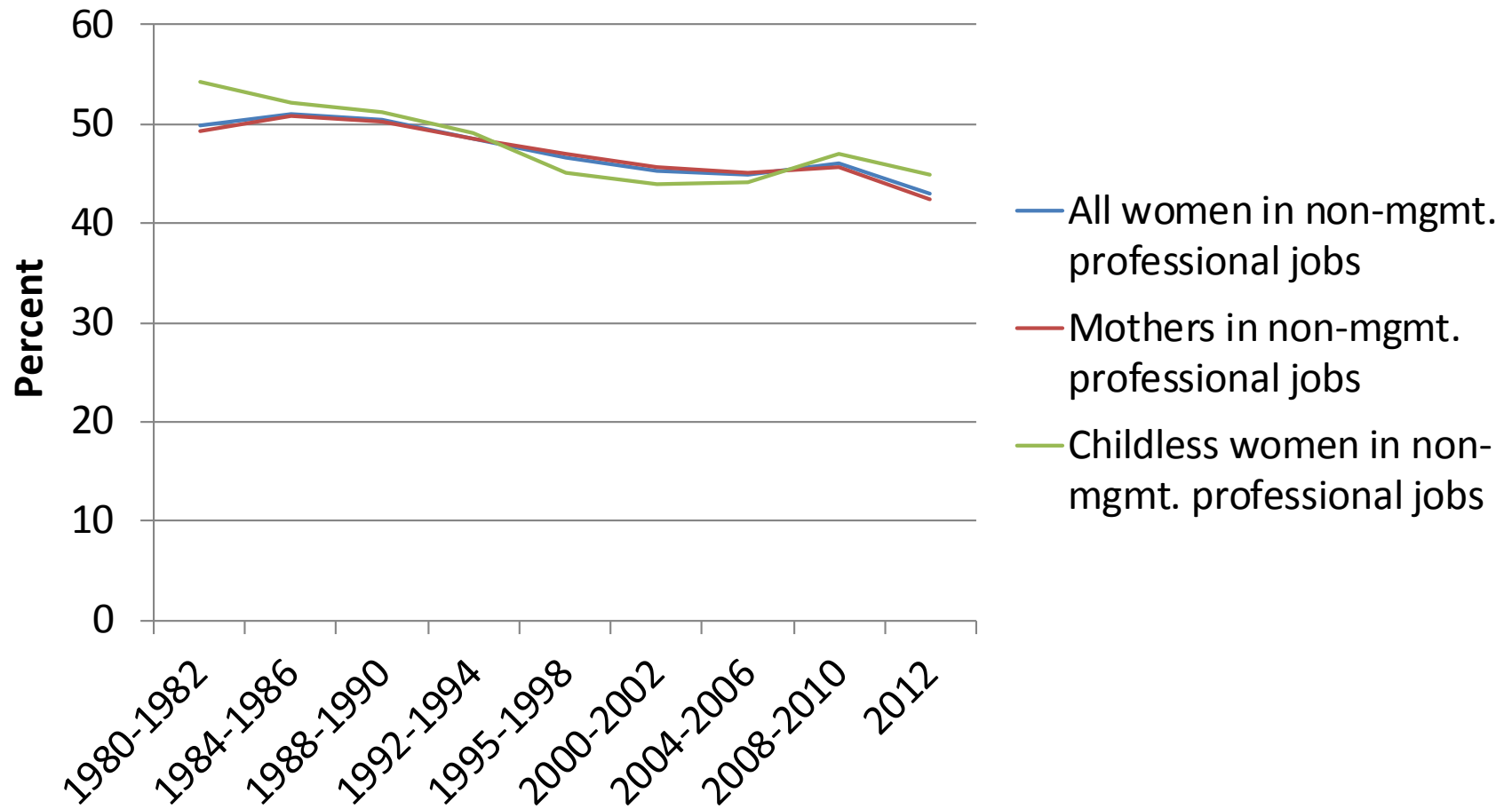


SOURCE: CPS June Basic data and Fertility Supplement data, 1980-2012

FIGURE 3

Non-Management Professional Occupations by Motherhood

(Employed Women, 40-44)

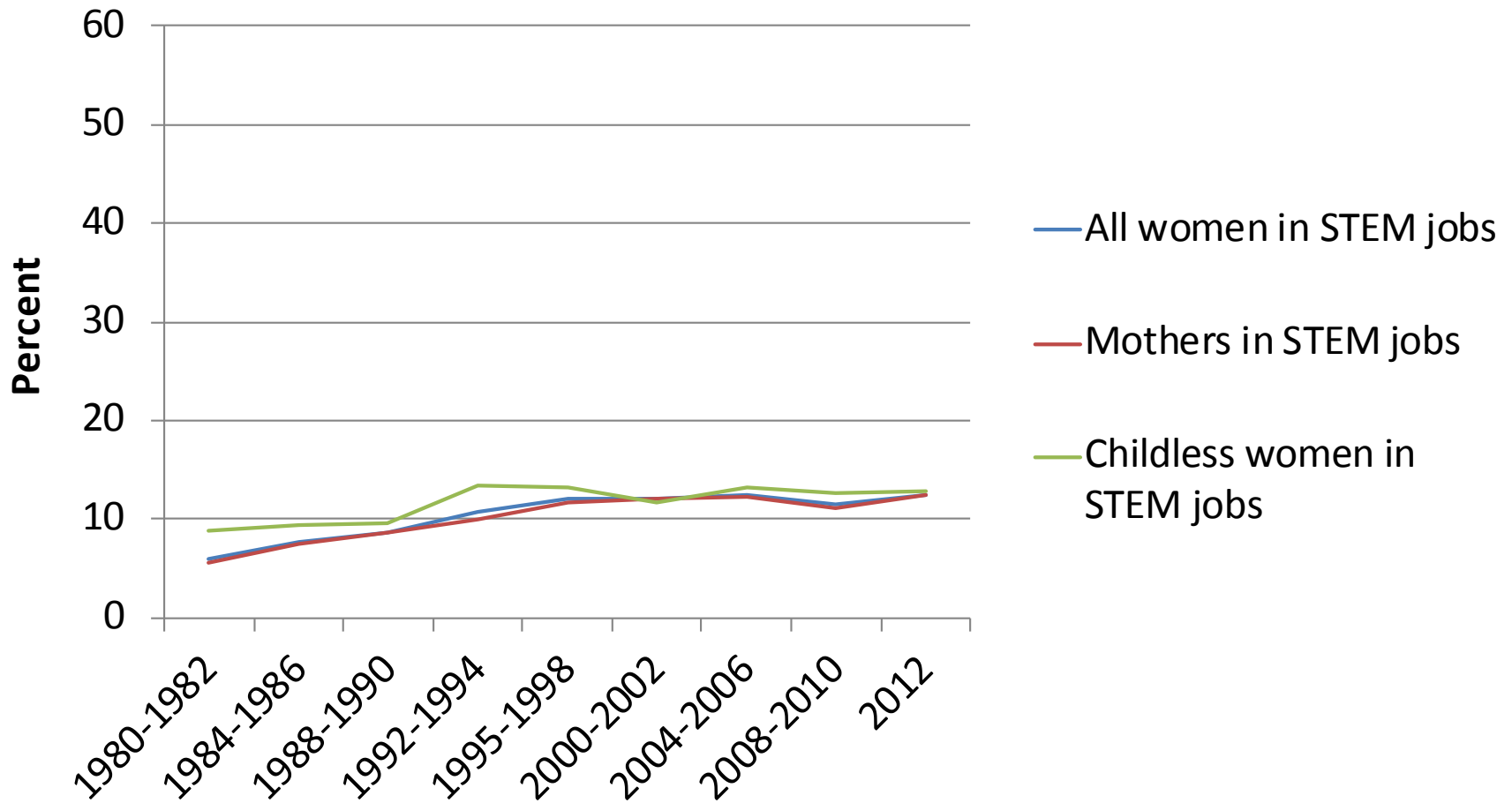


SOURCE: CPS June Basic data and Fertility Supplement data, 1980-2012

FIGURE 4

STEM Occupations by Motherhood

(Employed Women, 40-44)



SOURCE: CPS June Basic data and Fertility Supplement data, 1980-2012

FIGURE 5

Service or Production Occupations by Motherhood (Employed Women, 40-44)

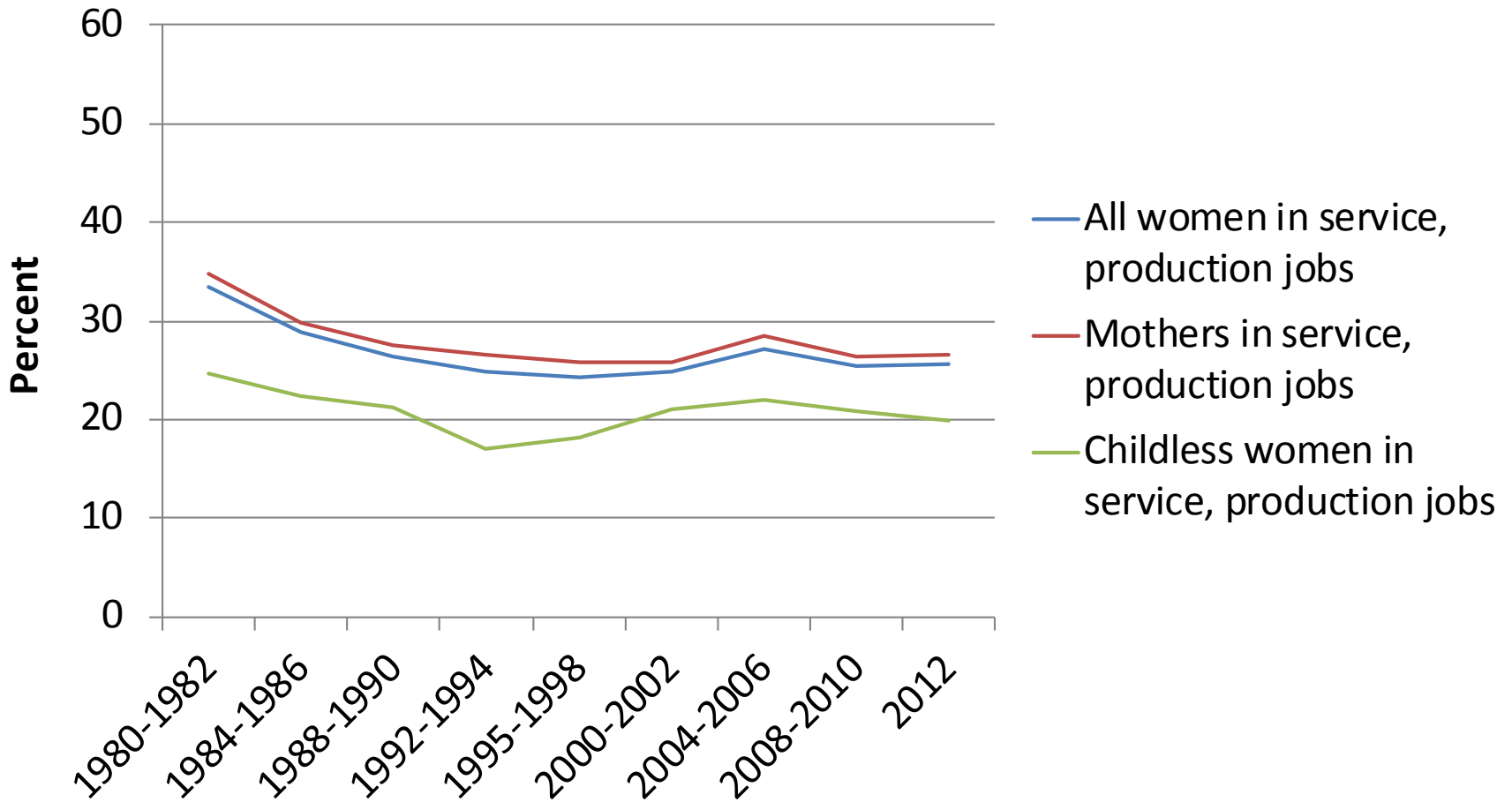


Table 1. Sample Frequencies

| | <u>Women Aged 40-44</u> | | <u>Women Aged 40-44 by Fertility</u> | | Sig. Diff.? |
|---|-------------------------|---------|---------------------------------------|-----------|-------------|
| | Number, in thousands | Percent | Has given birth to at least one child | Childless | |
| | | | Percent | Percent | |
| All Women | 85,813 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |
| FERTILITY | | | | | |
| Has given birth to at least one child | 71,904 | 83.3 | 100.0 | 0.0 | |
| Childless | 13,909 | 16.7 | 0.0 | 100.0 | |
| EMPLOYMENT, OCCUPATION | | | | | |
| Management | 8,923 | 10.6 | 9.7 | 15.1 | * |
| Non-management Professional | 28,850 | 33.3 | 32.7 | 36.5 | * |
| Service, Production | 15,971 | 18.6 | 19.1 | 15.9 | * |
| STEM | 6,331 | 7.7 | 7.3 | 9.5 | * |
| Technician | 609 | 0.7 | 0.7 | 0.9 | |
| Unemployed | 2,224 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 3.0 | |
| Not in Labor Force | 22,905 | 26.4 | 27.8 | 19.1 | * |
| MARITAL STATUS | | | | | |
| Never married | 7,045 | 9.2 | 4.4 | 33.0 | * |
| Ever married | 78,768 | 90.8 | 95.6 | 67.0 | * |
| RACE | | | | | |
| White | 71,660 | 81.7 | 81.5 | 82.6 | |
| Black | 9,203 | 12.7 | 12.8 | 12.1 | |
| Other | 4,950 | 5.6 | 5.7 | 5.3 | |
| ORIGIN | | | | | |
| Not Hispanic | 78,849 | 89.9 | 89.4 | 92.2 | * |
| Hispanic | 6,964 | 10.2 | 10.6 | 7.8 | * |
| EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT | | | | | |
| Less than high school | 12,822 | 14.8 | 15.7 | 10.2 | * |
| High school diploma or equivalent | 28,305 | 32.3 | 33.5 | 26.5 | * |
| Some college, less than a Bachelor's Degree | 23,292 | 27.2 | 27.4 | 26.0 | * |
| At least 4 years of college | 21,394 | 25.8 | 23.5 | 37.3 | * |
| YEAR | | | | | |
| 1980 | 4,610 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 2.2 | * |
| 1982 | 4,319 | 3.9 | 4.2 | 2.6 | * |
| 1984 | 4,567 | 4.3 | 4.6 | 2.8 | * |
| 1986 | 4,571 | 4.5 | 4.7 | 3.5 | * |
| 1988 | 4,780 | 5.0 | 5.2 | 4.4 | * |
| 1990 | 5,347 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 5.3 | |
| 1992 | 5,345 | 5.9 | 5.9 | 5.5 | |
| 1994 | 5,452 | 6.2 | 6.1 | 6.5 | |
| 1995 | 5,665 | 6.3 | 6.3 | 6.6 | |
| 1998 | 5,073 | 6.9 | 6.7 | 7.8 | * |
| 2000 | 5,028 | 7.0 | 6.8 | 8.0 | * |
| 2002 | 6,049 | 7.1 | 7.0 | 7.7 | |
| 2004 | 5,586 | 7.2 | 6.9 | 8.3 | * |
| 2006 | 5,253 | 7.0 | 6.7 | 8.5 | * |
| 2008 | 4,920 | 6.7 | 6.6 | 7.1 | |
| 2010 | 4,705 | 6.4 | 6.3 | 7.2 | * |
| 2012 | 4,543 | 6.5 | 6.7 | 5.9 | * |

SOURCE: CPS June Basic data and Fertility Supplement data, 1980-2012

Table 2. Logistic Regressions Predicting Occupation

| | MODEL 1: Employment | | | Occupations ¹ | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|---------|------------|----------------------------------|---------|------------|---|---------|------------|---|---------|------------|----------------------------|---------|------------|
| | | | | MODEL 2a: Management Occupations | | | MODEL 2b: Non-management Professional Occupations | | | MODEL 2c: Service or Production Occupations | | | MODEL 2d: STEM Occupations | | |
| | β | SE | Pr > ChiSq | β | SE | Pr > ChiSq | β | SE | Pr > ChiSq | β | SE | Pr > ChiSq | β | SE | Pr > ChiSq |
| Childless | 0.367 | 0.00055 | <.0001 | 0.290 | 0.00071 | <.0001 | -0.043 | 0.00054 | <.0001 | -0.173 | 0.00071 | <.0001 | -0.090 | 0.00085 | <.0001 |
| Year | 0.014 | 0.00002 | <.0001 | 0.009 | 0.00003 | <.0001 | -0.012 | 0.00002 | <.0001 | 0.009 | 0.00003 | <.0001 | 0.003 | 0.00004 | <.0001 |
| Ever Married | 0.150 | 0.00069 | <.0001 | 0.173 | 0.00100 | <.0001 | 0.132 | 0.00073 | <.0001 | -0.311 | 0.00089 | <.0001 | 0.052 | 0.00115 | <.0001 |
| White | 0.014 | 0.00047 | <.0001 | 0.242 | 0.00074 | <.0001 | 0.442 | 0.00051 | <.0001 | -0.706 | 0.00059 | <.0001 | -0.113 | 0.00078 | <.0001 |
| Hispanic ² | -0.261 | 0.00058 | <.0001 | -0.381 | 0.00113 | <.0001 | -0.346 | 0.00070 | <.0001 | 0.707 | 0.00077 | <.0001 | -0.527 | 0.00147 | <.0001 |
| Education | 0.316 | 0.00018 | <.0001 | 0.425 | 0.00030 | <.0001 | 0.212 | 0.00020 | <.0001 | -1.046 | 0.00028 | <.0001 | 0.839 | 0.00038 | <.0001 |
| Intercept | -0.349 | 0.00091 | <.0001 | -3.549 | 0.00156 | <.0001 | -0.911 | 0.00104 | <.0001 | 2.232 | 0.00126 | <.0001 | -4.590 | 0.00188 | <.0001 |
| N (in thousands) | 85,836 | | | 60,684 | | | 60,684 | | | 60,684 | | | 60,684 | | |

SOURCE: CPS June Basic data and Fertility Supplement data, 1980-2012

FOOTNOTES:

- (1) Limited to women who are employed.
- (2) Hispanic ethnicity is measured independent of race.

Table 3. Logistic Regressions Predicting Occupation, with Interactions

| | MODEL 3: Employment | | | Occupations ¹ | | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|---------|------------|----------------------------------|---------|------------|---|---------|------------|---|---------|------------|----------------------------|---------|------------|
| | | | | MODEL 4a: Management Occupations | | | MODEL 4b: Non-management Professional Occupations | | | MODEL 4c: Service or Production Occupations | | | MODEL 4d: STEM Occupations | | |
| | β | SE | Pr > ChiSq | β | SE | Pr > ChiSq | β | SE | Pr > ChiSq | β | SE | Pr > ChiSq | β | SE | Pr > ChiSq |
| Childless | 0.593 | 0.00123 | <.0001 | 0.289 | 0.00167 | <.0001 | -0.050 | 0.00124 | <.0001 | -0.211 | 0.00163 | <.0001 | -0.040 | 0.00200 | <.0001 |
| Year | 0.015 | 0.00002 | <.0001 | 0.009 | 0.00004 | <.0001 | -0.012 | 0.00002 | <.0001 | 0.009 | 0.00003 | <.0001 | 0.004 | 0.00004 | <.0001 |
| Childless * Year | -0.012 | 0.00006 | <.0001 | <.0001 | 0.00008 | 0.7287 | <.0001 | 0.00006 | <.0001 | 0.002 | 0.00008 | <.0001 | -0.003 | 0.00009 | <.0001 |
| Ever Married | 0.132 | 0.00069 | <.0001 | 0.173 | 0.00101 | <.0001 | 0.133 | 0.00074 | <.0001 | -0.309 | 0.00090 | <.0001 | 0.048 | 0.00116 | <.0001 |
| White | 0.017 | 0.00047 | <.0001 | 0.242 | 0.00074 | <.0001 | 0.442 | 0.00051 | <.0001 | -0.706 | 0.00059 | <.0001 | -0.113 | 0.00078 | <.0001 |
| Hispanic ² | -0.263 | 0.00058 | <.0001 | -0.381 | 0.00113 | <.0001 | -0.346 | 0.00070 | <.0001 | 0.708 | 0.00077 | <.0001 | -0.528 | 0.00147 | <.0001 |
| Education | 0.315 | 0.00018 | <.0001 | 0.425 | 0.00030 | <.0001 | 0.212 | 0.00020 | <.0001 | -1.046 | 0.00028 | <.0001 | 0.838 | 0.00038 | <.0001 |
| Intercept | -0.358 | 0.00091 | <.0001 | -3.549 | 0.00157 | <.0001 | -0.911 | 0.00105 | <.0001 | 2.234 | 0.00127 | <.0001 | -4.594 | 0.00189 | <.0001 |
| N (in thousands) | 85,836 | | | 60,684 | | | 60,684 | | | 60,684 | | | 60,684 | | |

SOURCE: CPS June Basic data and Fertility Supplement data, 1980-2012

FOOTNOTES:

- (1) Limited to women who are employed.
- (2) Hispanic ethnicity is measured independent of race.