

# State by State, Mothers Are Paid Much Less Than Fathers

## The Gender Wage Gap between Mothers and Fathers by State and by Race and Ethnicity

### RESEARCH HIGHLIGHTS

- **Nationally, in 2021 working moms of kids younger than 18 years made just 61.7 cents on the dollar compared to working fathers** when all with earnings are counted, irrespective of whether they worked full-time, part-time year-round, or part-year. They made just 73.5 cents when working full-time year-round.
- **Mothers were paid less than fathers in every single state and the District of Columbia**, irrespective of whether they worked full-time year-round or whether all parents with earnings are counted.
- **Utah had the worst earnings gap for all mothers and fathers**; mothers were paid just 44.9 cents per dollar earned by fathers. **Vermont had the best earnings gap**; mothers were paid 75.8 cents per dollar paid to fathers.
- **The majority of mothers worked full-time year-round in all states** but the differences in mothers' and fathers' likelihood of working full-time year-round varied widely. In the most unequal state, **Utah**, fathers were 72 percent more likely than mothers to work full-time year-round.
- **Race and ethnicity dramatically widen earnings differences between parents.** Nationally in 2021, Native mothers earned just 37.1 cents, Hispanic or Latina mothers 40 cents, Black mothers 45.7 cents, White mothers 64.3 cents, and Asian and Pacific Islander mothers 75.7 cents for each dollar earned by White fathers for all with earnings. Earnings differences by race and ethnicity and parenthood for full-time year-round workers are slightly smaller but still substantial.



This factsheet uses the most recently available state-level earnings data from the American Community Survey (ACS) 2017-2021 to analyze the size of the wage gap for mothers and fathers of children younger than 18 years. In each of the five years of the date, it includes data for the median annual earnings of all mothers and fathers with earnings irrespective of whether they worked full-time, part-time, year-round, or part-year, and data for mothers and fathers who worked full-time year-round.<sup>1</sup> National data for earnings of mothers and fathers of the largest racial and ethnic groups are based 2021 Current Population Survey Annual Social and Economic Supplement (CPS-ASEC).<sup>2</sup>

Mothers earned less than fathers prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, during the pandemic, and as the economy began to recover from the pandemic. In 2021, the most recently available annual earnings data, the median annual earnings for mothers amounted to just 61.7 cents on the dollar paid to fathers for all with earnings, and for mothers who worked full-time year-round just 73.5 cents on the dollar paid to fathers working full-time year-round.<sup>3</sup> The wage gap between mothers and fathers is substantially wider than the wage gap between all women and all men.<sup>4</sup>

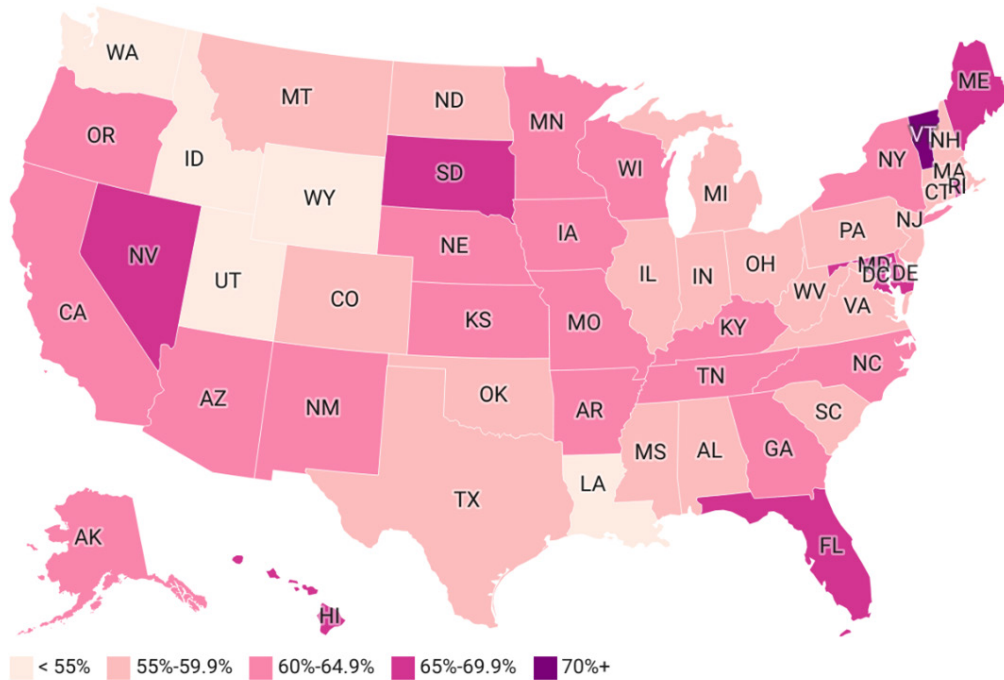
## Mothers' Earnings Were Lower Than Fathers' Across all States

Mothers' median annual earnings were lower than fathers in every state and the District of Columbia regardless of whether all mothers and fathers with earnings were included in the calculations, or only full-time year-round workers (Appendix Tables 1 and 2).

- **Utah** is the state with the worst median annual earnings ratio for all mothers and fathers with earnings: mothers were paid just 44.9 cents on the dollar paid to fathers (a wage gap of 55.1 percent).
- **Louisiana** is the state with the worst median annual earnings ratio for mothers and fathers who worked full-time year-round: mothers were paid just 61.4 cents on the dollar paid to fathers (a wage gap of 38.6 percent).
- **Vermont** is the state where mothers face the 'best' wage gap, both among all parents with earnings—mothers were paid 75.8 cents per dollar paid to all fathers with earnings (a wage gap of 24.2 percent), and for full-time-year-round workers—mothers working full-time year-round were paid 87.3 cents per dollar paid to fathers (a wage gap of 12.7 percent).
- **New Jersey** is the state where the wage gap translates into the highest losses for mothers. Working mothers in New Jersey were paid \$35,922 less than fathers, followed closely by the **District of Columbia** with a gap of \$35,843.

In five states- **Idaho, Louisiana, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming**- the median annual earnings of all mothers with earnings were less than 55 percent of fathers. Only four states- **Maine, Nevada, Rhode Island, and Vermont**- had median annual earnings that reached at least 65 percent of fathers' earnings for all workers with earnings (Map 1).

**MAP 1. The Earnings Ratio for Mothers' and Fathers' Median Annual Earnings by State for All Workers with Earnings**



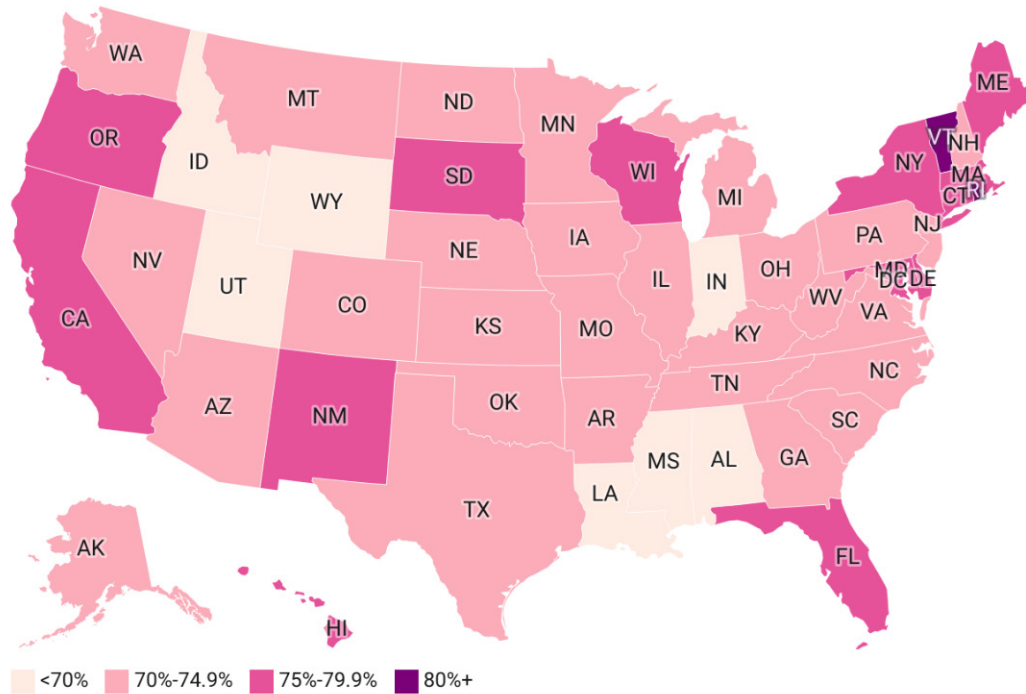
**Notes:** Mothers and fathers are ages 16 years and older and defined as having at least one child under the age of 18. All workers include full-time, part-time, year-round, and part-year workers.

**Source:** IWPR analysis of 2017-2021 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 13.0).

### Full-Time Year-Round Work Does Not Eliminate the Wage Gap

The gender earnings ratio is narrower, and the gender wage gap smaller, between mothers and fathers who work full-time year-round. Yet full-time year-round work does not eliminate the wage gap. In only two states- **Rhode Island** and **Vermont**—mothers working full-time year-round were paid at least 80 cents on the dollar earned by fathers. In seven states- **Alabama, Idaho, Indiana, Louisiana, Mississippi, Utah, and Wyoming**- mothers who worked full-time year-round were paid less than 70 cents on the dollar paid to fathers (Map 2).

## MAP 2. The Earnings Ratio for Mothers' and Fathers' Median Annual Earnings by State for Full-time Year-Round Workers



**Notes:** Mothers and fathers are ages 16 years and older and are defined as having at least one child under the age of 18. Full-time is at least 35 hours per week; year-round is at least 50 weeks per year.

**Source:** IWPR analysis of 2017-2021 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 13.0).

### The Majority of Mothers Worked Full-time Year-round But Mothers Were Less Likely to Do So than Fathers

The majority of mothers in each state worked full-time year-round, ranging from 50.8 percent of mothers in Utah to 71.9 percent of mothers in the District of Columbia. While fathers in every state were substantially more likely than mothers to work full-time year-round, the size of the parental gap in full-time year-round work varied widely between states (Appendix Table 3). Utah was the most unequal state when it comes to full-time work; fathers in Utah were 72 percent more likely than mothers to work full-time year-round; in Idaho, the next most gender unequal state, full-time year-round work was 52 percent more likely for fathers than mothers. In the least unequal states, the District of Columbia and Hawaii, fathers were 'just' 20 and 21 percent respectively more likely than mothers to work full-time.<sup>5</sup>

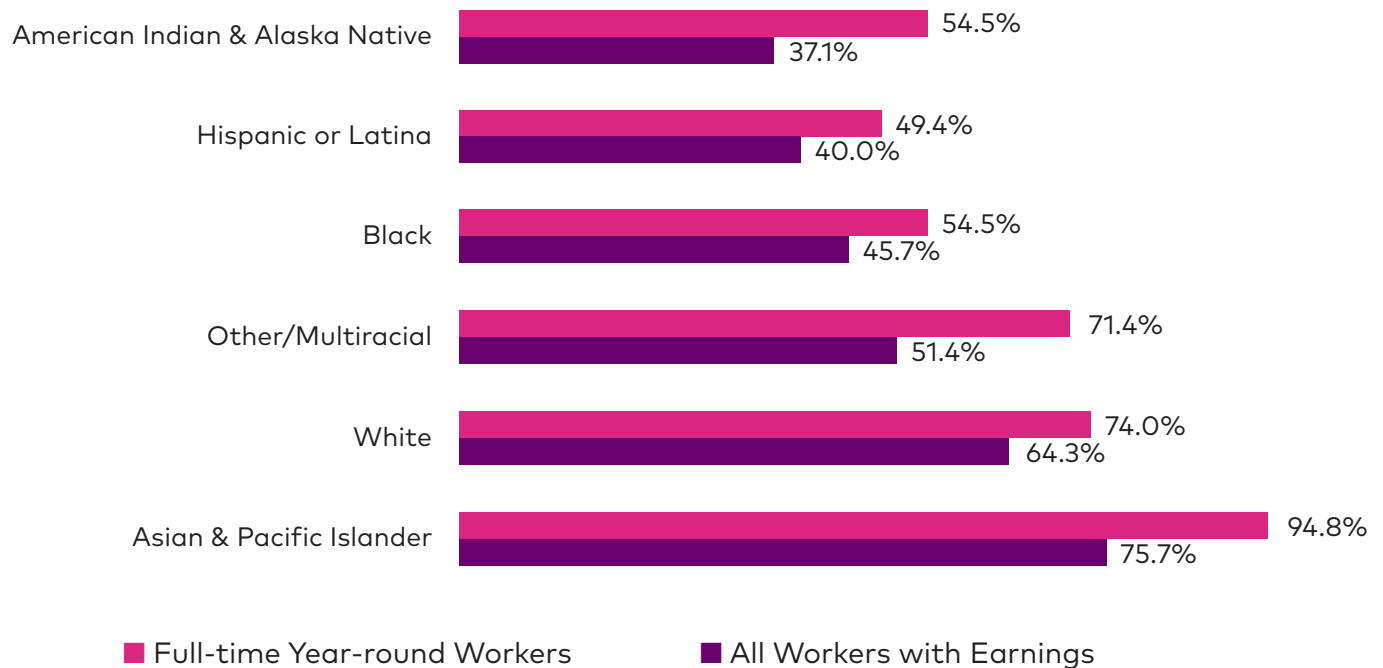
### Race and Ethnicity Dramatically Widen Earnings Differences between Mothers and Fathers

Native, Hispanic or Latina, and Black mothers faced particularly large wage gaps when their earnings were compared with those of White fathers. The median annual earnings of all Native women were barely one third (37.1 percent) of White fathers' earnings, and the median annual earnings of Latinas and Black mothers were well below half of White men's earnings (40.0 and 45.7 percent respectively; Figure 1). Among those working full-time year-round, Latina mothers did not even make half of what White fathers made, and Native and Black mothers' full-time year-round earnings were only slightly above half (54.5 percent; Figure 1). At the same time, Black, Latina, and Native women were also more

likely to be the sole or main breadwinner in their families, and their lower earnings are more likely to severely impact the economic security and well-being of their families.<sup>6</sup>

### FIGURE 1. The Earnings Gap between Mothers and Fathers Widens by Race and Ethnicity

The Median Annual Earnings Ratio for Mothers of the Largest Racial/ Ethnic Groups and White non-Hispanic Fathers



**Notes.** Mothers and fathers are 16 years and older and defined as having at least one child under the age of 18. Race categories are non-Hispanic; Hispanic or Latinas may be of any race. Fathers are White non-Hispanic. Full-time is at least 35 hours per week; year-round is at least 50 weeks per year. All workers include full-time, part-time, year-round, and part-year workers. **Source:** IWPR analysis of 2021 CPS-ASEC IPUMS microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 13.0).

### Irrespective of Race and Ethnicity, Mothers Face Higher Wage Gaps than All Women

Irrespective of race or ethnicity, the median annual earnings ratio for mothers compared to White fathers was worse than the earnings ratio for all women compared to White men. For example, on average in 2021 Black women working full-time year-round were paid 67.2 cents per dollar paid to White men yet Black mothers who worked full-time year-round were paid just 54.5 cents per dollar paid to White fathers (Figure 1).<sup>7</sup>

Mothers are not the lowest paid workers but face the highest gender pay gaps. Both mothers and fathers of children under 18 tend to have higher median annual earnings than other workers because the latter include a higher number of younger workers at the beginning of their careers. Yet, while fathers get a fatherhood premium compared to other men, mothers do not get a motherhood premium compared to other women, and instead may face a motherhood penalty.<sup>8</sup> Nationally, when counting all workers with earnings irrespective of whether they work full-time year-round, the earnings of mothers of children under 18 years are 11 percent higher than those of other women but the earnings of fathers of children under 18 years are 43 percent higher than those of other men.<sup>9</sup> To some extent, this reflects that fathers are less likely to work part-time than other men<sup>10</sup> yet when only full-time year-round

workers are counted, the median annual earnings of fathers were still 27.3 percent higher than those of other full-time year-round working men. There was no difference, however, between the full-time year-round earnings of mothers and other women.<sup>11</sup>

## **Mothers and their Families Need Policies and Investments to Tackle the Motherhood Wage Gap**

Three years after the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic, mothers' employment rates are back at pre-pandemic levels, and the large majority of mothers are employed.<sup>12</sup> In addition to paid work, mothers do the majority of unpaid family work.<sup>13</sup> Yet, although progress is being made at state and local level<sup>14</sup>, many have to do this without basic work-family supports such as paid parental and family leave; paid sick time; accessible, affordable, and quality child care; rights to part-time equity; and control over scheduling. The consequences of the lack of comprehensive work-family supports are large gender and racial gaps in parental earnings and economic security.

**The lack of statutory rights to parental and family leave reduces mothers' economic security and worsens economic and racial inequality between families.**<sup>15</sup> The United States is one of less than a handful of countries in the world without a statutory right to paid maternity leave, and one of very few high-income countries without statutory rights to at least some paid paternity leave.<sup>16</sup> A strong body of research shows that access to paid parental leave increases mothers' employment continuity and hours at work, as well as improving maternal and infant health outcomes.<sup>17</sup>

**The child care crisis disproportionately impacts mothers' employment.** The COVID-19 pandemic deepened the pre-existing crisis in access to quality affordable child care which had forced many women to cut back their time in paid employment.<sup>18</sup> When child care centers and schools closed because of COVID-19, families of color were particularly impacted.<sup>19</sup> Mothers were more likely than fathers to leave work in response to the child care crisis, to cut back their hours of work, and- whether they continued to be in paid work or not—to take on more child care related tasks.<sup>20</sup>

**The underfunding of child care and undervaluation of child care workers reduce the availability of quality child care.** The child care sector continues to lag behind the post-COVID-19 recovery of the general economy.<sup>21</sup> Low earnings and reimbursement rates in the child care and early education sector lead to staffing shortages, and, particularly for family day care centers, to a shrinking supply of child care slots.<sup>22</sup> State funding per child enrolled in a child care program is still at the same low level as it was two decades ago.<sup>23</sup> While funding under the American Rescue Plan led to a temporary stabilization of child care availability, this funding will end in September 2023; a recent study estimates that the loss of this funding will lead to the likely closure of 70,000 child care centers and related loss of 3.2 million child care slots.<sup>24</sup>

**The uneven access to flexible working options worsens earnings inequality between parents.** Schedule adjustments and access to remote working can help parents manage work and care responsibilities yet access to such supports is often tenuous and varies by gender, race, and class.<sup>25</sup> Working time adjustments, including remote work, are much more likely to be available to women working in professional and managerial occupations than to women in lower paid jobs.<sup>26</sup> Lower paid jobs in retail, hotels, restaurants, and leisure services, moreover, are much more likely to vary, cut or increase hours of work at short notice, and women of color are at an even higher risk of experiencing such employer-centered harmful flexibility.<sup>27</sup> Unpredictable schedules make it even harder to access stable child care.<sup>28</sup>

**Mothers face pay and employment discrimination, including when working part-time.** The mere fact – or even prospect – of motherhood can lead to bias and discrimination during recruitment, compensation, lay-offs, and promotion decisions.<sup>29</sup> Additionally, mothers who are working part-time (and mothers are substantially more likely to do so than fathers<sup>30</sup>) are triply penalized: they earn less than fathers when they take on part-time work to do more unpaid care work; working part-time often means shifting to lower paid jobs because part-time work is not offered in many higher level jobs; and when they do work part-time they may not qualify for benefits such as paid time-off, health care insurance, or retirement contributions, and may be paid less pay per hour than a comparable full-time worker.<sup>31</sup>

**In conclusion, mothers and their families deserve comprehensive investments in work-family supports,** including universal access to quality child care, paid family leave and sick time, employee-focused workplace flexibility, and protection from pay discrimination. Such investments will benefit families and enhance economic growth while the lack of such investments will perpetuate gender and racial inequality into future generations and harm the U.S. economy.<sup>32</sup>

*This fact sheet was prepared by Ariane Hegewisch, Cristy Mendoza, Miranda Peterson, and Martha Susana Jaimes. It was made possible with the support of the Kresge Foundation and the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation.*

**Table 1. Median Annual Earnings for Mothers and Fathers: Anyone with Earnings**

State	Mothers	Fathers	Earnings Gap Each Year	Earnings Ratio	Ranking of Earnings Ratio
Alabama	\$30,947	\$55,263	\$24,316	56.0%	44
Alaska	\$38,684	\$64,105	\$25,421	60.3%	27
Arizona	\$34,541	\$55,000	\$20,459	62.8%	17
Arkansas	\$31,401	\$48,553	\$17,152	64.7%	10
California	\$38,684	\$63,586	\$24,902	60.8%	24
Colorado	\$39,789	\$66,988	\$27,199	59.4%	31
Connecticut	\$44,510	\$77,368	\$32,858	57.5%	40
Delaware	\$39,774	\$61,501	\$21,727	64.7%	10
District of Columbia	\$70,133	\$105,976	\$35,843	66.2%	6
Florida	\$33,000	\$50,241	\$17,241	65.7%	8
Georgia	\$34,527	\$56,106	\$21,579	61.5%	21
Hawaii	\$40,121	\$60,789	\$20,668	66.0%	7
Idaho	\$27,632	\$53,948	\$26,316	51.2%	49
Illinois	\$37,764	\$65,942	\$28,178	57.3%	41
Indiana	\$32,853	\$57,568	\$24,715	57.1%	42
Iowa	\$36,685	\$58,264	\$21,579	63.0%	16
Kansas	\$34,527	\$57,185	\$22,658	60.4%	26
Kentucky	\$32,369	\$52,869	\$20,500	61.2%	22
Louisiana	\$30,947	\$60,000	\$29,053	51.6%	48
Maine	\$37,764	\$55,475	\$17,711	68.1%	3
Maryland	\$50,000	\$76,263	\$26,263	65.6%	9
Massachusetts	\$48,553	\$82,895	\$34,342	58.6%	35
Michigan	\$33,382	\$60,406	\$27,024	55.3%	46
Minnesota	\$43,158	\$68,035	\$24,877	63.4%	15
Mississippi	\$29,143	\$50,000	\$20,857	58.3%	37
Missouri	\$34,527	\$55,475	\$20,948	62.2%	20
Montana	\$31,611	\$52,988	\$21,377	59.7%	28
Nebraska	\$36,948	\$57,474	\$20,526	64.3%	13
Nevada	\$34,153	\$50,241	\$16,088	68.0%	4
New Hampshire	\$42,390	\$74,183	\$31,793	57.1%	42
New Jersey	\$45,000	\$80,922	\$35,922	55.6%	45
New Mexico	\$30,947	\$49,300	\$18,353	62.8%	17
New York	\$42,390	\$65,705	\$23,315	64.5%	12
North Carolina	\$34,527	\$55,108	\$20,581	62.7%	19
North Dakota	\$37,764	\$63,586	\$25,822	59.4%	31
Ohio	\$34,855	\$59,684	\$24,829	58.4%	36
Oklahoma	\$30,733	\$52,000	\$21,267	59.1%	34
Oregon	\$36,685	\$60,000	\$23,315	61.1%	23
Pennsylvania	\$37,764	\$63,586	\$25,822	59.4%	31
Rhode Island	\$42,000	\$61,501	\$19,501	68.3%	2
South Carolina	\$32,369	\$54,428	\$22,059	59.5%	30
South Dakota	\$36,200	\$54,428	\$18,228	66.5%	5
Tennessee	\$31,793	\$52,335	\$20,542	60.7%	25
Texas	\$33,494	\$57,568	\$24,074	58.2%	38
Utah	\$29,037	\$64,738	\$35,701	44.9%	51
Vermont	\$41,868	\$55,263	\$13,395	75.8%	1
Virginia	\$41,868	\$70,129	\$28,261	59.7%	28
Washington	\$38,000	\$71,175	\$33,175	53.4%	47
West Virginia	\$30,000	\$51,947	\$21,947	57.8%	39
Wisconsin	\$38,843	\$60,789	\$21,946	63.9%	14
Wyoming	\$32,053	\$62,802	\$30,749	51.0%	50
U.S. All (2017-2021)	\$36,474	\$60,708	\$24,234	60.1%	N/A

**Notes:** Mothers and fathers are ages 16 years and older and are defined as having at least one child under the age of 18. All workers with earnings include full-time, part-time, year-round, part-year workers.

**Source:** IWPR analysis of 2017-2021 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 13.0)



**Table 2. Median Annual Earnings for Mothers and Fathers: Full-Time Year-Round Workers**

State	Mothers	Fathers	Earnings Gap Each Year	Earnings Ratio	Ranking of Earnings Ratio
Alabama	\$39,211	\$60,000	\$20,789	65.4%	48
Alaska	\$53,053	\$72,290	\$19,237	73.4%	21
Arizona	\$43,158	\$60,000	\$16,842	71.9%	26
Arkansas	\$38,684	\$52,335	\$13,651	73.9%	19
California	\$54,428	\$71,842	\$17,414	75.8%	10
Colorado	\$53,053	\$74,183	\$21,130	71.5%	33
Connecticut	\$64,105	\$85,000	\$20,895	75.4%	14
Delaware	\$50,290	\$66,316	\$16,026	75.8%	10
District of Columbia	\$90,000	\$120,000	\$30,000	75.0%	16
Florida	\$42,000	\$55,108	\$13,108	76.2%	8
Georgia	\$43,662	\$61,000	\$17,338	71.6%	32
Hawaii	\$50,000	\$66,000	\$16,000	75.8%	10
Idaho	\$40,000	\$58,615	\$18,615	68.2%	45
Illinois	\$50,975	\$72,000	\$21,025	70.8%	37
Indiana	\$42,390	\$62,580	\$20,190	67.7%	46
Iowa	\$45,000	\$61,895	\$16,895	72.7%	25
Kansas	\$44,211	\$61,466	\$17,255	71.9%	26
Kentucky	\$42,000	\$57,227	\$15,227	73.4%	21
Louisiana	\$39,774	\$64,738	\$24,964	61.4%	51
Maine	\$47,689	\$60,708	\$13,019	78.6%	3
Maryland	\$65,705	\$83,736	\$18,031	78.5%	4
Massachusetts	\$70,000	\$90,080	\$20,080	77.7%	5
Michigan	\$47,101	\$66,316	\$19,215	71.0%	35
Minnesota	\$55,000	\$74,183	\$19,183	74.1%	18
Mississippi	\$35,606	\$52,988	\$17,382	67.2%	47
Missouri	\$43,158	\$60,708	\$17,550	71.1%	34
Montana	\$42,900	\$59,684	\$16,784	71.9%	26
Nebraska	\$45,316	\$61,466	\$16,150	73.7%	20
Nevada	\$42,705	\$57,000	\$14,295	74.9%	17
New Hampshire	\$55,263	\$79,000	\$23,737	70.0%	43
New Jersey	\$64,000	\$89,000	\$25,000	71.9%	26
New Mexico	\$40,000	\$53,000	\$13,000	75.5%	13
New York	\$57,568	\$74,183	\$16,615	77.6%	6
North Carolina	\$43,961	\$60,000	\$16,039	73.3%	23
North Dakota	\$47,101	\$66,316	\$19,215	71.0%	35
Ohio	\$46,421	\$64,738	\$18,317	71.7%	31
Oklahoma	\$38,684	\$55,108	\$16,424	70.2%	41
Oregon	\$50,000	\$66,316	\$16,316	75.4%	14
Pennsylvania	\$50,241	\$69,000	\$18,759	72.8%	24
Rhode Island	\$54,048	\$67,000	\$12,952	80.7%	2
South Carolina	\$40,801	\$58,287	\$17,486	70.0%	43
South Dakota	\$42,914	\$56,106	\$13,192	76.5%	7
Tennessee	\$40,271	\$56,000	\$15,729	71.9%	26
Texas	\$44,211	\$62,802	\$18,591	70.4%	40
Utah	\$43,961	\$70,000	\$26,039	62.8%	50
Vermont	\$52,352	\$60,000	\$7,648	87.3%	1
Virginia	\$53,384	\$75,527	\$22,143	70.7%	38
Washington	\$55,108	\$78,502	\$23,394	70.2%	41
West Virginia	\$39,789	\$56,368	\$16,579	70.6%	39
Wisconsin	\$49,201	\$64,738	\$15,537	76.0%	9
Wyoming	\$42,390	\$65,705	\$23,315	64.5%	49
U.S. All (2017-2021)	\$47,689	\$66,316	\$18,627	71.9%	N/A

**Notes:** Mothers and fathers are ages 16 years and older and are defined as having at least one child under the age of 18. Full-time is at least 35 hours per week; year-round is at least 50 weeks per year.

**Source:** IWPR analysis of 2017-2021 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 13.0).

**TABLE 3. Full-Time Year-Round Workers as Percent of All Workers with Earnings for Mothers and Fathers, by State**

State	% of Mothers Working FTYR	% of Fathers working FTYR	Percentage Point Difference	Rank of Difference
Alabama	66.7%	87.9%	21.3%	28
Alaska	58.6%	73.9%	15.3%	4
Arizona	64.7%	85.1%	20.4%	20
Arkansas	69.1%	85.7%	16.6%	6
California	61.3%	82.8%	21.4%	29
Colorado	62.0%	85.4%	23.5%	43
Connecticut	61.3%	83.3%	22.0%	34
Delaware	68.8%	85.6%	16.8%	7
District of Columbia	71.9%	86.0%	14.1%	1
Florida	67.2%	84.9%	17.7%	10
Georgia	68.2%	86.8%	18.7%	13
Hawaii	68.5%	82.6%	14.1%	1
Idaho	55.5%	84.6%	29.0%	50
Illinois	64.1%	85.0%	20.9%	24
Indiana	61.6%	85.7%	24.1%	46
Iowa	66.7%	87.2%	20.6%	21
Kansas	66.0%	87.1%	21.1%	27
Kentucky	64.7%	84.7%	20.0%	19
Louisiana	68.3%	83.4%	15.2%	3
Maine	63.2%	84.7%	21.5%	30
Maryland	68.6%	86.9%	18.3%	11
Massachusetts	60.3%	84.7%	24.3%	47
Michigan	59.1%	82.7%	23.6%	45
Minnesota	62.6%	84.5%	21.8%	31
Mississippi	68.9%	86.3%	17.5%	8
Missouri	67.1%	86.2%	19.1%	15
Montana	57.0%	79.7%	22.7%	40
Nebraska	67.5%	88.2%	20.7%	22
Nevada	64.5%	81.0%	16.5%	5
New Hampshire	62.5%	87.4%	24.9%	48
New Jersey	62.7%	84.8%	22.1%	36
New Mexico	64.1%	84.0%	19.8%	18
New York	63.6%	82.6%	19.0%	14
North Carolina	64.7%	86.6%	22.0%	34
North Dakota	65.2%	85.8%	20.7%	22
Ohio	63.2%	85.0%	21.8%	31
Oklahoma	66.6%	86.0%	19.3%	16
Oregon	59.0%	82.1%	23.1%	42
Pennsylvania	63.3%	85.4%	22.1%	36
Rhode Island	62.6%	84.9%	22.3%	39
South Carolina	66.4%	87.2%	20.9%	24
South Dakota	67.1%	89.9%	22.8%	41
Tennessee	64.8%	86.6%	21.8%	31
Texas	67.7%	86.1%	18.4%	12
Utah	50.8%	87.3%	36.6%	51
Vermont	62.8%	82.4%	19.6%	17
Virginia	67.1%	88.0%	20.9%	24
Washington	57.3%	82.8%	25.5%	49
West Virginia	64.6%	82.1%	17.5%	8
Wisconsin	63.8%	87.3%	23.5%	43
Wyoming	60.5%	82.7%	22.2%	38
U.S. All (2017-2021)	64.1%	84.9%	20.8%	N/A

**Notes:** Mothers and fathers are ages 16 years and older and are defined as having at least one child under the age of 18. Full-time is at least 35 hours per week; full-year is at least 50 weeks per year. All workers with earnings include full-time, part-time, year-round, part-year workers.

**Source:** IWPR analysis of 2017-2021 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 13.0).

## ENDNOTES

<sup>1</sup> Median annual earnings are the midpoint of the earnings distribution at which about half earn less, and half more earn more than the median; full-time is 35 or more hours per week, full-year at least 50 weeks per year. Analysis of 2017 -2021 American Community Survey microdata, as made available by Steven Ruggles, Sarah Flood, Matthew Sobek, Danika Brockman, Grace Cooper, Stephanie Richards, and Megan Schouweiler. IPUMS USA: Version 13.0 [dataset]. Minneapolis, MN: IPUMS, 2023.

<sup>2</sup> Source of ACS and CPS-ASEC microdata are Ruggles et al. as note 1.

<sup>3</sup> Analysis of 2021 American Community Survey microdata, as made available by Steven Ruggles et al., see note 1 above. In 2021, based on an analysis of the 2021 Current Population Survey Annual Social and Economic Supplement (CPS ASEC; see also Jessica Semega and Melissa Kollar, *Income in the United States: 2021. Current Population Reports P60-276*; U.S. Census Bureau, 2022), the gender earnings ratio was 76.9% for all workers with earnings, and 83.7% for full-time year-round workers compared with a median annual earnings ratio for all mothers and fathers with earnings of 65.0%, and median annual earnings of mothers and fathers who work full-time year-round of 71.4 percent. Because data for the CPS ASEC and the ACS are collected at different periods of the year, estimates of annual earnings, and hence of earnings ratios, can differ slightly, particularly in a year such as 2021 when the economy was changing rapidly as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. The ACS has a larger sample and is particularly suited for state and local analysis while the CPS-ASEC is specifically designed to capture employment-related data

<sup>4</sup> As note 3 above.

<sup>5</sup> IWPR calculation based on Appendix Table 3.

<sup>6</sup> Elyse Shaw, C. Nicole Mason, Valerie Lacarte, and Erika Jauregui, "Holding up half the sky: Mothers as workers, primary caregivers, & breadwinners during COVID-19." (Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2020). <<https://iwpr.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/07/Holding-Up-Half-the-Sky-Mothers-as-Breadwinners.pdf>>.

<sup>7</sup> See Ariane Hegewisch and Lucie Prewitt, "Gender and Racial Wage Gaps Persist as the Economy Recovers." IWPR Factsheet #C513 (Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2022) <<https://iwpr.org/gender-and-racial-wage-gaps-persist-as-the-economy-recovers/>>. It should be noted that compared to pre-COVID-19 years, the wage gap for Black women was lower because the COVID-19 pandemic had a disproportionate impact on lower wage jobs; with fewer low paid women among full-time workers, average earnings rose; this effect was less marked for White and Asian women because they were more likely to work in professional and managerial jobs less impacted by the pandemic.

<sup>8</sup> There is considerable research confirming a motherhood penalty for mothers compared to other women with the same level of education and experience but the timing and size of the penalty varies substantially for women of different racial and ethnic groups; some research find penalties to be more pronounced for White women, possibly because White women are more likely to work in professional occupations with higher wage progression than Black or Hispanic women, and higher penalties for time out of the labor market and less than full-time work; see for example Zachary Van Winkle, and Anette Eva Fasang, "Parenthood wage gaps across the life course: A comparison by gender and race." *Journal of Marriage and Family* 82, no. 5 (2020): 1515-1533; Eunjeong Paek, "Does Overwork Attenuate the Motherhood Earnings Penalty among Full-Time Workers?" *Work, Employment and Society* 37, no. 1 (2023): 78-96. Other research finds that women of color – particularly Black and Native women—face higher penalties; see Julie Kashen and Jessica Milli, *The Build Back Better Plan Would Reduce the Motherhood Penalty*. (New York City: The Century Foundation, 2021). <<https://tcf.org/content/report/build-back-better-plan-reduce-motherhood-penalty/>>. Recent research on mothers working in STEM fields, finds a marriage premium for mothers; Anne Beutel & Cyrus Schleifer, "Family Structure, Gender, and Wages in STEM Work". *Sociological Perspectives*, 65(4), 790–819.

<sup>9</sup> IWPR analysis of 2021 CPS-ASEC Microdata not shown elsewhere; data made available by Ruggles et al., see note 1.

<sup>10</sup> Ariane Hegewisch & Valerie Lacarte, *Gender inequality, work hours, and the future of work*. (Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2019). <[https://iwpr.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/07/C486\\_FOW-Work-Hours-Report.pdf](https://iwpr.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/07/C486_FOW-Work-Hours-Report.pdf)>.

<sup>11</sup> IWPR analysis of 2021 CPS-ASEC Microdata not shown elsewhere; data made available by Ruggles et al., see note 1.

<sup>12</sup> While employment rates for mothers of kids under age 18, including for mothers of kids under 6, in February 2023 were back to at least 100% of their February 2020 levels, the employment rates of Black mothers, as well as of those who have less than a bachelor's degree, were still slightly below pre-COVID-19 levels; see Liana Christin Landivar, "Mothers' Employment Three Years Later: An Assessment of Employment Loss and Recovery During the COVID-19 Pandemic." May. (U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau, 2023) <<https://www.dol.gov/sites/dolgov/files/WB/media/Mothers-employment-3-years-later-Final.pdf>>; Landivar suggests that lower access to remote work may be one of the reasons for these differences.

<sup>13</sup> See, for example, Cynthia Hess, Tanima Ahmed, and Jeff Hayes, *Providing unpaid household and care work in the United States: Uncovering inequality*. Briefing Paper IWPR #C487 (Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2020). <<https://iwpr.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/01/IWPR-Providing-Unpaid-Household-and-Care-Work-in-the-United-States-Uncovering-Inequality.pdf>>.

<sup>14</sup> See, for example, Shannon Emmet, "Maine's Latest Budget Establishes State's First Paid Leave Program and Boosts Child Care." IWPR In-the-Lead Blog (Institute for Women's Policy Research, July 14, 2023 ). <<https://iwpr.org/maines-latest-budget-establishes-states-first-paid-leave-program-and-boosts-child-care/>>; Adam Uzialko, "What You Need to Know About Predictive Scheduling and the Law." *Business News Daily*, July 28, 2023. <<https://www.businessnewsdaily.com/15008-predictive-scheduling-and-the-law.html>>.

<sup>15</sup> See for example Ann P. Bartel, Soohyun Kim, and Jaehyun Nam, "Racial and ethnic disparities in access to and use of paid family and medical leave: Evidence from four nationally representative datasets." *Monthly Labor Review* 142 (2019): 1; Julia M. Goodman, Connor Williams, and William H. Dow, "Racial/ethnic inequities in paid parental leave access." *Health Equity* 5, no. 1 (2021): 738-749; Chantel Boyens, Michael Karpman, and Jack Smalligan, "Access to Paid Leave Is Lowest among

Workers with the Greatest Needs." (Washington, DC: Urban Institute, 2022).

<sup>16</sup> For comprehensive reviews of paid leave laws internationally, including the United States, see Alison Koslowski, Sonja Blum, Ivana Dobrotić, Gayle Kaufman and Peter Moss (Eds.), *18th International Review of Leave Policies and Related Research 2022*. (Hagen, Germany: Fernuniversitaet, 2022). <[https://www.oif.ac.at/fileadmin/user\\_upload/k\\_leavenetwork/annual\\_reviews/2022/Koslowski\\_et\\_al\\_Leave\\_Policies\\_2022.pdf](https://www.oif.ac.at/fileadmin/user_upload/k_leavenetwork/annual_reviews/2022/Koslowski_et_al_Leave_Policies_2022.pdf)>; and Les Dunseith, "How Laws and Policies Can Close — or Widen — Gender Gaps" (Los Angeles: UCLA Luskin School World Policy Analysis Center, 2023 February 28) <<https://luskin.ucla.edu/how-laws-and-policies-can-close-or-widen-gender-gaps>>.

<sup>17</sup> See Kelly Jones and Britni Wilder, "Reducing maternal labor market detachment: A role for paid family leave." Working Paper (Washington DC: Washington Center for Equitable Growth, 2020). <<https://equitablegrowth.org/working-papers/reducing-maternal-labor-market-detachment-a-role-for-paid-family-leave/>>; Maya Rosslyn-Slater and Lindsey Uniat, "Paid Family Leave Policies and Population Health," *Health Affairs Health Policy Brief*, March 28, 2019. DOI: 10.1377/hpb20190301.484936, for reviews.

<sup>18</sup> Leila Schochet, "The Child Care Crisis Is Keeping Women Out of the Workforce." (Washington DC: Center for American Progress, March 28, 2019). <<https://www.americanprogress.org/article/child-care-crisis-keeping-women-workforce/>>.

<sup>19</sup> See Emma K. Lee and Zachary Parolin, "The Care Burden during COVID-19: A National Database of Child Care Closures in the United States." *Socius* 7 (2021): 23780231211032028; Yiyu Chen, Kevin Ferreira van Leer, and Lina Guzman, "Many Latino and Black Households Made Costly Work Adjustments in Spring 2021 to Accommodate COVID-Related Child Care Disruptions." *National Research Center on Hispanic Children & Families*, (2021). <<https://www.hispanicresearchcenter.org/research-resources/many-latino-and-black-households-made-costly-work-adjustments-in-spring-2021-to-accommodate-covid-related-child-care-disruptions/>>.

<sup>20</sup> See Liana Christin Landivar, William J. Scarborough, Leah Ruppner, Caitlyn M. Collins, and Lloyd Rouse. "Remote Schooling and Mothers' Employment During the COVID-19 Pandemic by Race, Education, and Marital Status." *RSF: The Russell Sage Foundation Journal of the Social Sciences* 9, no. 3 (2023): 134-158.; Zamarro, Gema, and María J. Prados. "Gender differences in couples' division of childcare, work and mental health during COVID-19." *Review of Economics of the Household* 19, no. 1 (2021): 11-40; Aaron De Smet, Bonnie Dowling, Marino Mugayar-Baldocchi, and Joachim Talloen, 2021, "Married to the job no more: Craving flexibility, parents are quitting to get it." (McKinsey.com, December 3, 2021). <<https://www.mckinsey.com/capabilities/people-and-organizational-performance/our-insights/married-to-the-job-no-more-craving-flexibility-parents-are-quitting-to-get-it>>.

<sup>21</sup> REFERENCE TO LATEST JOBS DAY CHARTS

<sup>22</sup> See for example Georgia Poyatzis, "Fixing The Child Care Staffing Shortage By Making Child Care Jobs "Good Jobs." Briefing Paper IWPR #CS12. (Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2022). <<https://iwpr.org/wp-content/uploads/2022/08/Fixing-the-Child-Care-Staffing-Shortage.pdf>>; Mauren Coffey, "Still Underpaid and Unequal: Early Childhood Educators Face Low Pay and a Worsening Wage Gap;" (Washington DC: Center for American Progress, 2022). <<https://www.americanprogress.org/article/still-underpaid-and-unequal/>>; ChildCare Aware America, *Demanding Change: Repairing our Child Care System*. (Arlington, VA, 2022). <<https://www.childcareaware.org/demanding-change-repairing-our-child-care-system/>>.

<sup>23</sup> Allison H. Friedman-Kraus et al., *The State of Preschool 2022*. (New Brunswick, NJ: The National Institute for Early Education Research, Rutgers University, 2023). <[https://nieer.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/05/YB2022\\_FullReport.pdf](https://nieer.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/05/YB2022_FullReport.pdf)>.

<sup>24</sup> Julie Kashen, Laura Valle Gutierrez, Leah Woods, and Jessica Milli, "Child Care Cliff: 3.2 Million Children Likely to Lose Spots with End of Federal Funds." (The Century Foundation, 2023) <<https://tcf.org/content/report/child-care-cliff/>>.

<sup>25</sup> See Maureen Perry-Jenkins and Naomi Gerstel. "Work and family in the second decade of the 21st century." *Journal of Marriage and Family* 82, no. 1 (2020): 420-453 for a review.

<sup>26</sup> See, for example, Ellen E. Kossek and Brenda A. Lautsch, "Work-life Flexibility for Whom? Occupational Status and Work-life Inequality in Upper, Middle, and Lower Level Jobs." *Academy of Management Annals* 12, no. 1 (2018): 5-36; Dan Clawson and Naomi Gerstel, *Unequal time: Gender, Class, and Family in Employment Schedules*. (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 2014); Anna W. Jacobs, and Irene Padavic. "Hours, Scheduling and Flexibility for Women in the US Low-Wage Labour Force." *Gender, Work & Organization* 22, no. 1 (2015): 67-86.

<sup>27</sup> Adam Storer, Daniel Schneider, and Kristen Harknett, "What explains racial/ethnic inequality in job quality in the service sector?" *American Sociological Review* 85, no. 4 (2020): 537-572.

<sup>28</sup> Dani Carrillo, Kristen Harknett, Allison Logan, Sigrid Luhr, and Daniel Schneider, "Instability of Work and Care: How Work Schedules Shape Child-Care Arrangements for Parents Working in the Service Sector." *Social Service Review* 91:422-455 (2017).

<sup>29</sup> Stephanie Bornstein, Joan C. Williams, and Genevieve R. Painter, "Discrimination against mothers is the strongest form of workplace gender discrimination: Lessons from US Caregiver Discrimination Law." *International Journal of Comparative Labour Law and Industrial Relations* 28, no. 1 (2012); Chabeli Carrazana, "The 'open secret' in most workplaces: Discrimination against moms is still rampant." *The 19th News.org*; April 27, 2023. <<https://19thnews.org/2023/04/workplace-discrimination-mothers-open-secret/>>.

<sup>30</sup> Hegewisch & Lacarte, as note 10 above.

<sup>31</sup> Lonnie Golden, *Part-time workers pay a big-time penalty*. Report. (Washington DC: Economic Policy Institute, 2020). <<https://www.epi.org/publication/part-time-pay-penalty/>>; see also San Mateo Federation of Community College Teachers, "What do we mean by part-time parity?" (aft 1493 Advocate, Mar.-Apr. 2019).

<sup>32</sup> See, for example, Francine D. Blau and Lawrence M. Kahn, "Female Labor Supply: Why is the United States Falling Behind?" *American Economic Review* 103, no. 3 (2013): 251-256; Kathy Hirsh-Pasek and Peg Burchinal, "Supporting families supports the economy: Social nets are economic foundations." Commentary; (Washington DC: Brookings Institution, September 27, 2021) <<https://www.brookings.edu/articles/supporting-families-supports-the-economy-social-nets-are-economic-foundations/>>.

## OUR MISSION

We win economic equity for all women and eliminate barriers to their full participation in society. As a leading national think tank, we build evidence to shape policies that grow women's power and influence, close inequality gaps, and improve the economic well-being of families.

