Women in the New Economy: How Are They Faring?

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PREFACE

This RAND report contains results of a study of women’s experiences and status in the U.S. labor market. It provides a comprehensive overview of women’s position in the current economy with descriptions of women’s employment resources, opportunities, and returns and their outlook for the near future. The analysis compares subgroups of women based on race-ethnicity and education, contemporary women with contemporary men, and contemporary women with women from a generation ago. It tabulates individual level data from the Current Population Survey, the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, the National Longitudinal Survey of Young Women, and the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

This report should be of interest to policymakers, researchers, and general readers interested in women’s current position in the labor market. It is intended to inform and provide a national context for a qualitative study of women’s experiences in the current economy to be conducted by the American Association of University Women’s Educational Foundation (AAUWEF).

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

INTRODUCTION

The U.S. economy experienced major industrial shifts over the last three decades. Manufacturing, once the economy’s dominant industry, gave way to a rising service sector and, most recently, the information-related sectors of the economy have grown. Paralleling these shifts are changes in the occupational distribution of the labor force, with jobs in information and service occupations growing the most. Many of the service occupations are female-dominated, and their increase meant a rising demand for women’s labor that helped draw many women into the paid labor force. At the same time, the recent growth of the information-related occupations has raised concern about women’s economic positions, because these better paying occupations tend to be male-dominated.

While changes in the economy may have drawn many women into the paid labor force, their growing presence is unlikely to diminish because of a growing need among them for financial self-sufficiency. Women today tend to spend less of their lives married—and therefore connected to men’s earnings—than women a generation ago. In addition, there has been a growing reliance on women’s employment, especially among cohabiting and married couples, because men’s wages have fallen while women’s have risen. Finally, in the late 1990s, welfare reform also raised the need for women to find employment by placing a lifetime limit of five years of cash assistance for families with dependent children and by requiring employment.

These continuing changes raise the question of how women are faring in today’s economy, and racial-ethnic and educational inequalities mean that the answer is different for different groups of women. How women are faring is affected by their characteristics, including their need for earnings, their earnings capacity, and the amount that they work, and by labor market characteristics, including the prevalence of work-based family policies and the occupational structure of the labor market. This report investigates the situation of women in the economy today, comparing women by race-ethnicity and education level, comparing women today with men today, and comparing women today with women twenty years ago. It concludes with an examination of occupational projections and women’s fields of concentration in college to gain insight into their outlook in the near future.

WOMEN’S PROSPECTS IN TODAY’S ECONOMY

The report examines four general areas of women’s labor market positions today: individual characteristics (education level and marital status), participation in the paid labor force (participation rate, number of hours, part time work), flexible work schedules and arrangements (flexitime and telecommuting), and occupational segregation. Findings for each are summarized below.

Individual Characteristics

On average, women have slightly more than a high school education. Only Latina women average less than a high school education, and white and Asian American women have the most schooling. Women and men have similar levels of education overall and similar levels
within racial-ethnic groups. Women’s education has risen markedly since 1980, when only white women averaged more than high school.

Almost half of all working age women are not married, but rates vary widely across racial-ethnic and education groups. By race-ethnicity, African American women are the most likely not to be married, while white women are the least likely. By education level, women with less than a high school education are most likely not to be married, while women with a college education are the least likely. Women today are more likely not to be married than women a generation ago. Rates of nonmarriage rose the most among African American and Latina women and among women with less than a high school education. Women who have completed more than college are the only group less likely not to be married in 2000 than in 1980.

**Participation in the Paid Labor Force**

Overall, two-thirds of women are in the paid labor force (i.e., they are either employed or actively looking for work). White and African American women have the highest rates of participation by race-ethnicity. By education, women are more likely to participate in the paid labor force the more education they have; nearly twice as many women are employed or looking for work at the highest levels of education than at the lowest levels. Women continue to have lower rates of participation than men, both overall and within racial-ethnic and education groups. Gender differences in paid labor force participation are widest among Latinos and those who have a high school education or less, and they are narrowest among African Americans and those with at least some college. Women today have higher rates of paid labor force participation than women had in 1980. Rates rose substantially among all groups of women, especially African Americans and women with some college or a college degree.

Among those who are employed, women worked an average of 22 hours per week. This rate is relatively stable across racial-ethnic groups of women. It is more varied across education groups—women with more than college work about three times as many hours as women with less than a high school education. Although women’s paid labor force participation has become much closer to men’s, the number of hours women work is markedly lower than the number men work. Gender differences in the number of hours employed are widest among Latinos and among those with the least education; they are narrowest among African Americans and those with the most education. Compared to women a generation ago, women work more hours today than they used to work. The increase occurs across all racial-ethnic and education groups. It is largest among African American women, white women, and women with some college or a college education.

About one-third of women work part time. Part time employment is the most common among white women and the least common among African American women. Women with less than high school and women with some college also have higher rates of part time work, and women with a college education or more and women with a high school diploma have lower rates of part time work. Women are nearly twice as likely as men to work part time. Their higher rates of part time work are evident within racial-ethnic and education groups. Compared to women in 1980, women are less likely to work part time today. Among African American and college educated women, part time employment fell the most, while among Latina women and women with less than high school, it remained the most stable.
Flexible Work Schedules and Arrangements

About one-third of employed women have some option to vary the beginning and ending times of their workday. This option is more available to white, Asian American, and Native American women and to women with more education. It is less available to African American and Latina women and to women with less education. Women have similar but slightly lower rates of flextime options than men. This gender difference is most evident at the higher education levels.

Telecommuting, or the ability to work at home, is still a rare phenomenon. Less than five percent of women reported telecommuting in 1997. White women, followed by Asian American women, are the most likely to telecommute. It is a far more common practice among those at the highest education levels than among those at lower levels. Women have higher rates of telecommuting than men at all but the highest education level.

Occupational Segregation

Occupational segregation refers to the concentration of groups into particular occupations. Women’s segregation into particular occupations affects their employment experiences and employment returns. Women remain highly segregated by occupation; more than one-fourth are concentrated in just ten of the 500-plus civilian occupations. Within racial-ethnic groups, occupational segregation is higher—at least 30 percent of women in each racial-ethnic group are concentrated in the ten most common occupations for that group. Segregation is also higher within education groups, and it is highest for those with the least and the most education. Women are more concentrated in the labor market than men, as about one-fifth of men are concentrated in their ten most common occupations. Gender differences are most evident among whites, African Americans, Latinos, and those with at least some college. Finally, occupational segregation is lower today than in 1980, when 38 percent of women worked in ten occupations. Women in all racial-ethnic groups and at all but the lowest education level work in a wider array of occupations today. Women with less than a high school education have the same level of occupational segregation in 2000 and 1980.

Among these ten most common occupations for women, two are managerial and professional specialty occupations, which tend to have the highest income and benefits and the greatest amounts of autonomy. Two of the ten most common are in sales, three are in administrative support, and three are in service occupations. Asian American and white women are the most likely to be concentrated in managerial and professional specialty occupations. Latina and African American women are the most likely to be in service occupations, and Native American women are most often in administrative support occupations. By education level, service occupations are the most common at the lowest education levels, administrative support occupations are most common at middle education levels, and managerial and professional specialty occupations are most common at the highest education levels. Women’s occupational distributions have changed only slightly since 1980.

Men’s occupational distribution looks quite different, with many men holding jobs in operator, fabricator, and labor occupations and precision production, craft, and repair occupations. Men also work in sales and in managerial and professional specialty occupations. Service occupations are common among both women and men.
HOW WOMEN ARE FARING IN GROWING OCCUPATIONS

As noted, service and information-related occupations increasingly characterize the U.S. labor market. This section examines how well women are positioned in the current labor market to take advantage of these changes, examining women’s presence in the fastest growing occupations, women’s presence in the occupations with the largest projected growth, and the fields of study of women who recently attended college.

The Fastest Growing Occupations

The 20 occupations that are projected to grow at the fastest rate include none of women’s ten most common occupations. They include one of the top ten occupations for men. Workers in the fastest growing occupations are more likely to have a college education and to be male, especially Asian American male, than workers in general.

The fastest growing occupations employ about one in nine women. Asian American and white women are the most likely to work in these occupations, while Native American and Latina women are the least likely. By education, women with some college and women with a college education are the most likely to work in the fastest growing occupations, and women with less than high school are the least likely. Overall, women are slightly less likely than men to work in the fastest growing occupations, but this gender difference is only evident among Asian Americans, whites, and those with a college education or more.

Thirteen of the 20 fastest growing occupations have higher than average wages. Among these higher paying occupations, racial-ethnic and education differences among women are greater. Asian American and white women are even more likely than women in other racial-ethnic groups to work in the better paying occupations, and women with a college education are six times as likely as women with less than high school to work in them. The difference between women and men is also greater in the better paying fastest growing occupations. Nearly one-fourth of men with a college education were employed in these occupations, compared to 11 percent of women with a college education and to eight percent of women overall.

Occupations with the Projected Largest Growth

The 20 occupations that are projected to have the largest number of new jobs include five of women’s top ten occupations and three of men’s top ten occupations. Workers in the occupations with the projected largest growth are more likely to be female and to have less education than workers in general.

More than one-fourth of women work in the 20 occupations with the projected largest growth. Native American and African American women are the most likely to work in these occupations, and white women are the least likely. Differences by education level are striking for these occupations; 39 percent of women with less than high school work in them, while only 15 percent of women with more than college do so. Women are about half again as likely as men to work in occupations with the projected largest growth. This gender difference is wider among those with less education and narrower among those with more education.

Eight of the 20 occupations with the largest projected growth have higher than average wages. Compared to all of the largest growth occupations, women are less likely to work in these better paying occupations. Racial-ethnic, education, and gender differences reverse for
those in the higher paying of the largest projected growth occupations. Asian American and white women are over twice as likely as Latinas to work in the higher paying occupations, and women with a college education or more are much more likely than women with less education to work in one of them. Women are less likely to have job in one of the higher paying largest growth occupations than men are. This gender difference is largest among Latinos and African Americans, and it only holds for those at lower education levels; women with at least a college education are more likely than their male counterparts to work in one of these occupations.

Field of Study

Substantive area of schooling is a key contributor to workers’ abilities to capitalize on new jobs. One-fourth of women majored in a field related to the fastest growing or largest growth occupations. African American and Latina women concentrated in these fields slightly more than white women. However, women were less likely than men to major in a field related to high growth occupations, overall and among whites and Latinos. In addition, women in 1998 were less likely than women in 1980 to major in a field related to the high growth occupations.

CONCLUSIONS

In general, women are faring well in the current economy, though not as well as men on many indicators, and some groups of women are faring better than others. Women are becoming better educated, and they tend to live more on their own, although both of these trends vary substantially among women. Women’s paid labor force participation and the amount of time that they are at the job have also risen, though both remain lower than men’s. Most trends in the amount of work and in family policies vary substantially by race-ethnicity and education. Women are more concentrated in particular occupations than men are, and the concentration is greater within racial-ethnic and education groups than for women overall. At the same time, women work in a wider array of occupations today than women worked in 1980.

The story is also mixed with regard to the outlook for the future. In terms of simply getting a job, the future looks positive for many women and may even be better than for men. African American, Latina, and Native American women and women with less education appear particularly well positioned to fill many of the new jobs that are projected for the near future. Given the lower labor market position observed among these groups currently, this is good news. However, this enthusiasm must be tempered because these less advantaged groups are underrepresented among the higher paying growing occupations. The quality of many of the jobs that women in general are likely to fill, especially women who already hold lower labor market positions, is questionable.

In short, the resources that women bring to the market, combined with the continued growth of service occupations bodes well for women’s participation in the paid labor force. At the same time, however, women are less represented in and less prepared for the growth of the information-related occupations than for the lower status service occupations. Women appear less well positioned than men to access the emerging information related segment of the labor market, which comprises much of the better paying part of the new economy.
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Any errors remaining are solely the responsibility of the author, and all of the analyses and opinions presented here are the position of the author and do not necessarily represent the position of RAND or its sponsors.
CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION: WOMEN IN THE NEW ECONOMY

INTRODUCTION

Over the last few decades, the American economy has undergone significant transformations. One of the predominant structural shifts has been its move from an economy centered on manufacturing to one rooted in less tangible commodities, such as services and, most recently, information. Rapid changes in technology have accelerated this shift and the ensuing emergence of a dynamic, volatile, and global economy often referred to as “the new economy.”

In response to this transition from the industrial to the information age, the American Association of University Women Educational Foundation (AAUWEF) established a ten year research agenda to explore the relationships among women’s education, employment, and income. The implications of the new economy may be different for women than for men and for women in different racial-ethnic and education groups, and the AAUWEF committed itself to a better understanding of these relationships.

As part of this research agenda, the AAUWEF commissioned RAND to describe women’s positions in the U.S. economy today. This report investigates this issue, focusing on two questions, what are women’s labor market prospects today and what might their future prospects be? It uses national level data to compare contemporary women with each other, with contemporary men, and with women of a generation ago.

WHAT’S NEW ABOUT THE NEW ECONOMY?

Changes in Labor Demand

The U.S. economy experienced major industrial shifts during the last three decades. Manufacturing--once the economy’s dominant industry--gave way to a rising service sector. Jobs in manufacturing industries fell from 26.4 percent of all jobs in 1970 to 15.8 percent in 1998. At the same time, jobs in service industries grew from 25.9 percent of all jobs in 1970 to 35.9 percent in 1998. Most recently, the information related sectors of the economy grew substantially, and although jobs in computer and data processing industries still represent a small share of all jobs, these industries have more than doubled from 1990 to 1998 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1999).

Changes in the occupational distribution of the labor force paralleled the shift from industrial manufacturing to service and information sectors. Jobs in service occupations have been among the fastest growing, while those in manufacturing occupations have grown more slowly. In 1998, eight of the 10 occupations with the projected fastest job growth were information and service occupations. Today, adults in information and service occupations have better chances for continued employment than do adults in slower growing occupations, such as agriculture and manufacturing (Braddock, 1999).

Much has been written about these economic changes and about the nature of service jobs and the consequence of their growth for workers (see, for example, Bluestone & Harrison, 1982; Smith, 1984; Wilson, 1987; Kasarda, 1995). Research shows that while service industries
contain jobs with a range of requirements, status, and employment returns, most service occupations (e.g., food preparation, health services, personal service occupations) are characterized by relatively low wages, few benefits, and job instability (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1999-2000). Since many service occupations are female-dominated, women are likely to be highly affected by characteristics of this new economy. Information related occupations (e.g., database administrators, computer systems analysts) are male-dominated and generally characterized by higher status and higher salaries and benefits than are service occupations (Hadlock, Hecker, & Gannon, 1991).

In fact, researchers have identified the rise of service occupations as a primary reason for the dramatic increase in women’s participation in the paid labor force during the past several decades (Oppenheimer, 1970; Cotter, DeFiore, Hermsen, Kowalewski, & Vanneman, 1998). The increase in employment has been especially great among women with historically lower levels of participation in the paid labor force--married women with children, white women, and middle-class women. Furthermore, as women’s employment has grown, so has their human capital (i.e., their nonmaterial resources, such as education and employment experience, that are used in the production of wealth). Women today have more education and employment experience than ever before (Bianchi, 1995; Mare, 1995).

Changes in the Workplace

Changes in the demand for labor along with an increasingly female supply of labor also led to changes in the culture of the work force. In particular, there is growing attention being paid to the balance—or tension—between work and family responsibilities. The rise in women’s employment, in the context of a rise in dual-earner and single-parent families, means more workers today have minor children at home than did workers a generation ago and fewer workers have stay-at-home spouses to shoulder child care responsibilities. Similarly, as life expectancy continues to rise and baby boomers approach retirement, caring for parents can increase family responsibilities further. Balancing these responsibilities with the requirements of a paid job is a difficult issue for women more often than for men because women bear family responsibilities disproportionately (see, for example, Bird, 1999; Presser, 1994). Partly in response, employers today more frequently offer programs such as flextime, telecommuting, and family leave (Presser, 1989; Hyland, 1990; Hofferth, 1996).

Changes in Labor Supply

Even if originally induced by employer demand and then encouraged by employer policies, women’s growing presence in the paid labor force is unlikely to diminish because of an increasing need among women for financial self-sufficiency. During the past few decades, major changes in family structure have meant that women today tend to spend less of their lives married—and economically tied to men—than did women a generation ago. Both the age at marriage and the likelihood of divorce rose in the 1980s, and the age at marriage continued to rise in the 1990s (Cherlin, 1992; Cox, Hermsen, & Klerman, forthcoming; McLanahan & Casper, 1995).

In addition to these changes in family structure, there has been a growing reliance on women’s employment income, especially for married and cohabiting couples. Men’s average wages have declined while women’s have risen. Between 1980 and 1990, wages for men with a high school
diploma or less fell by 9 percent, while wages for their female counterparts rose by 6 percent. Similarly, although the wages of men with at least a college degree rose by 8 percent, the wages of their female counterparts rose by 28 percent (Bianchi, 1995).

Finally, welfare reform has also raised the need for women to find employment to sustain their families. The Personal Responsibility and Work Opportunity Reconciliation Act, which became effective in 1997, placed a lifetime limit of five years of cash assistance for families with dependent children and requires parents to find permanent employment.

**WHAT DO THESE CHANGES MEAN FOR WOMEN?**

These changes—in the kinds of jobs available, in the workplace, and in women’s circumstances—raise the question of how women are faring in the economy today. This report examines the issue by compiling national level data on women and the labor market. We examine women’s characteristics and labor market characteristics that affect women’s experiences in the current economy.

**Analysis Approach**

In particular, we ask two questions:

1. What are women’s prospects in the economy today?
2. What are women’s future prospects in the labor market likely to be?

Women’s prospects stem from a combination of the resources that they bring to the market and the opportunities and constraints that they face in the market. We answer the first question by examining factors that are relevant to women’s labor market success. These include women’s education and marital status, their involvement in the paid labor force, the prevalence of work-based family policies, and the occupational structure of the market. For the second question, we examine the most recent trends in occupational growth and, combined with women’s preparation for occupations where growth is projected to be high, we analyze what such trends might mean for women in the near future.

Throughout the report, we compare women today across racial-ethnic and education groups, women today with men today, and women today with women in 1980. Changes in the economy and in women’s circumstances will be experienced differently among women because the labor market is patterned by race-ethnicity and education as well as by gender. These racial-ethnic and educational inequalities that are manifest in the labor market are drawing growing attention to diversity in the workplace (Amott & Matthaei, 1996; Presser & Cox, 1997; U.S. Department of Labor, 1995). While not new, they are highly visible in today’s economy, as women work in a broader range of occupations and as welfare reform draws attention to the earnings capacity of lower skilled women.

**Data and Methodology**

The analyses that follow tabulate data from several surveys. Data on field of study, for women’s future labor market prospects, come from the 1980 *National Longitudinal Survey of Young Women* (NLS-YW) and from the 1998 *National Longitudinal Survey of Youth—1979 Cohort* (NLS-Y79), which are conducted by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. The data on work-
based family policies come from the May 1997 Current Population Survey (CPS), which is conducted by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics for the U.S. Census Bureau. All remaining tabulations are derived from two other waves of the CPS, March 1980 and March 2000.

All tabulations were created for contemporary women, for contemporary men, and for women from 1980. Within each of these groups, data were also tabulated by race-ethnicity and educational level for comparisons along those dimensions. Racial-ethnic groups include Anglo white, non-Hispanic African American, Latina/o, non-Hispanic Native Americans, and Asian Americans. Limitations of the national data prevented separate tabulations of some racial-ethnic groups for some analyses. For the 1980 CPS tabulations, data limitations required Native Americans and Asian Americans to be considered together, and the NLS tabulations examine only African Americans, Latinas, and whites. Educational levels are defined as less than a high school diploma, high school graduate, some college or vocational school, a bachelor’s degree or four years of college, and more than college. The March 1980 CPS specifies degree received, and the May 1997 and March 2000 CPS specify years of completed school. Finally, the analyses were restricted to persons age 16 to 70 to maintain the labor market focus.

Finally, field of study, for the analysis of women’s future prospects, was measured in the following manner. From the list of 24 fields in Appendix 1, we first identified fields of study representing the occupations with projected high growth. In 1998, these were computer and information sciences, education, engineering, health professions, and law; in 1980, they also included data processing technologies, health services and paramedical technologies, mechanical and engineering technologies, and natural science technologies. Note that in both years, the potential fields of study are relatively general and thus likely overestimate the number of people concentrating in a field related to the high growth occupations. After identifying relevant fields, we tabulated the number of persons majoring in these fields among respondents in their thirties who were currently or recently (within three years) enrolled in college. Although data on all college students would be preferable, the NLS surveys allow us to compare women in 1980 with women today, and the respondents in these surveys were in their thirties in 1980 and 1998.

ORGANIZATION OF DOCUMENT

The remainder of this report describes the results of our analyses. Chapter 2 presents the tabulations related to women’s prospects in today’s economy. Chapter 3 presents the tabulations related to women’s future prospects. Chapter 4 summarizes the results and draws conclusions.
CHAPTER 2 – WOMEN’S PROSPECTS IN TODAY’S ECONOMY

This chapter presents findings about factors that are relevant to women’s labor market success that operate at the individual and labor market level. These factors fall into four categories: individual characteristics, participation in the paid labor force, work-based family policies, and occupational segregation. Individual characteristics include education and marital status; paid labor force participation includes the labor force participation rate, the number of hours worked, and the part time employment rate; work-based family policies include flexible scheduling and telecommuting, and occupational segregation includes degree of segregation and type of common occupations. The analyses examine women overall and by race-ethnicity and level of education, and they compare women today with men today and with women from 1980. Except where noted, all tabulations in this chapter use data from the March 1980 and March 2000 Current Population Surveys.

Figure 2.1 presents the breakdown by race-ethnicity and level of education for women in 1980 and 2000 and men in 2000. As noted above, limitations of the data prevented examining Native and Asian Americans separately in 1980.

Table 2.1. Racial-ethnic and Education Groups, by Gender and Year.

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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
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<table>
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<tr>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Includes Native Americans


1 The declining proportion of White women between 1980 and 2000 reflects the overall trend in the population of a decline in the non-Hispanic White population.
INDIVIDUAL CHARACTERISTICS

Education

We consider education level first, since education and labor market position are so intimately tied together (see, for example, Bianchi 1995, Wetzel 1995). Job choice, earnings, or occupational prestige are just some ways that education can increase labor market position. We found that, among women, white and Asian American women have the most education and Latina women have the least. In general, women in 2000 have similar amounts of education as men in 2000 but higher amounts than women had in 1980.

The graphs reflect the average number of completed years of schooling for members of each group. Figure 2.1 shows the mean years of school for women and men in 2000, by race-ethnicity; Figure 2.2 shows the same information for women in 2000 and women 1980.

![Bar chart showing mean years of schooling by gender and race-ethnicity]

**Figure 2.1 - Mean Years of Schooling, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity**

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

*Women average slightly more than a high school education.*

Although women on average have more than a high school education, they have only about one year more. White and Asian American women have the most schooling. Only Latinas average less than a high school education, putting them at an important disadvantage in the labor market.
Women and men today have similar levels of education overall, and they have similar levels within racial-ethnic groups.

Education differs more across racial-ethnic groups than between women and men. The largest gender difference within a racial-ethnic group is among Asian Americans, where Asian American men average one-half year more of school.

![Bar chart showing mean years of schooling for women by year and race-ethnicity]

**Figure 2.2 - Mean Years of Schooling for Women, by Year and Race-Ethnicity**


Women are more educated today than women were in 1980.

Women’s level of schooling has risen markedly since 1980. Only white women averaged more than a high school education 20 years ago; in 2000, only Latinas averaged less than a high school education.

**Marital Status**

Women’s labor market position depends partly on their need to earn income, and the proportion of women who are not married is one indicator of this need. Although married women also may need to earn income, nonmarried women lack the access to men’s income that married women tend to have. The percentage of a particular group that is not married thus provides one gauge of women’s relative economic needs.

We find that nearly half of women in 2000 were not married, although this rate varies across racial-ethnic and education groups. African American women and women with less than a high
school education are the most likely to be nonmarried, while white and Asian American women and women with at least a college education are the least likely to be nonmarried. Women and men have similar rates of nonmarriage, except among African Americans, Asian Americans, and persons with more than a college education. Finally, women are more likely to be nonmarried today than women were in 1980, except among women with more than a college education.

Nonmarried women include those who are single (i.e., never married), separated, divorced, or widowed. Figure 2.3 presents the percentage of women and men in 2000 who were nonmarried, by race-ethnicity, and Figure 2.4 presents the same information by education level. Figures 2.5 and 2.6 compare the percentages of women who were nonmarried in 2000 and 1980, with Figure 2.5 tabulated separately by race-ethnicity and Figure 2.6 separately by education level.

![Figure 2.3 - Percentage of Nonmarried Adults, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity](image)

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

Although almost half of women overall are not married, rates vary widely across racial-ethnic groups and are much higher for African American women.

Seventy percent of African American women are not married, and less than half of Latina, Asian American, and white women are not married. White women are the most likely to be married.
Figure 2.4 - Percentage of Nonmarried Adults, by Gender and Level of Education

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

*Marital status varies widely by education as well.*

Nearly two-thirds of women with less than a high school education and nearly one-half of women with some college or vocational school are not married. Women with at least a college degree are the most likely to be married; only one-third of women with more than a college education are not married.
Figure 2.5 - Percentage of Nonmarried Women, by Year and Race-Ethnicity


Fewer women are married today than were women in 1980. More women today are not married than was the case 20 years ago, suggesting a greater need for women today to do well in the labor market.
The increase in nonmarriage occurred among women with less education. Women with less than a high school education showed the largest percentage point increases in the rate of nonmarriage. Women with a college education today are only slightly more likely not to be married. Women with more than a college education are actually less likely than their 1980 counterparts to be single today, the only group for whom this is true.

PARTICIPATION IN THE PAID LABOR FORCE

One measure of how women might be faring in the new economy is their degree of participation in it. The amount of participation can be measured in several ways. The next three sets of graphs examine participation, first with the labor force participation rate, second with the number of hours worked, and finally with the part time employment rate. Together, the results give a clearer picture of women’s participation in the new economy than any one measure could separately provide.

Labor Force Participation Rate

Women’s labor force participation rate has risen during the last two decades while men’s has declined, with both trends more evident among some subgroups than others (Bianchi, 1995; Wilson, 1987). We find that currently the participation rate is highest among white and African
American women and women with more education. Although women’s participation has risen markedly since 1980, it remains lower than men’s in 2000.

The labor force participation rate used here is the definition used by the U.S. Department of Labor. It is the number of people who are either employed or have looked for work within the past four weeks divided by the total number of people. Figure 2.7 shows the participation rate for women and men in 2000 by race-ethnicity, and Figure 2.8 shows the same information by education level. Figures 2.9 and 2.10 show labor force participation rates for women in 2000 and women in 1980, first by race-ethnicity and then by education level.

**Figure 2.7 - Percentage of Adults Participating in the Paid Labor Force, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity**

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

_White women participate the most; Latinas participate the least._

Although two-thirds of women overall participate in the paid labor force, the rate varies among groups of women. A larger percentage of white and African American women participate than do other racial-ethnic groups.

_Men participate more than women do, and this gender difference is greatest among Latinos._ Although gender differences used to be wider (Bianchi, 1995), they remain noticeable today. Women continue to have lower rates of participation in the paid labor force than do men, both overall and within racial-ethnic groups.
Gender differences within racial-ethnic groups are widest among Latinos, with men nearly half again as likely as women to participate in the paid labor force, and narrowest among African Americans. Part of this difference is the result of education differences among racial-ethnic groups. Compared to white women, who have the highest rates of participation in the paid labor force, African American women actually have higher participation at all education levels except less than a high school diploma. Because African American women outnumber white women with less than a high school diploma, the two groups have similar overall participation rates.

Similarly, Latinas and white women have comparable rates of participation in the paid labor force at different education levels; however, Latinas tend to have less education than do white women, and participation tends to be lower among those with less education. In the same manner, Asian American women’s participation is lower at most education levels than is white women’s participation, but because there are relatively more Asian American women at higher education levels (where participation is also higher), their overall rates of participation are similar. When compared to white women, Native American women have slightly lower rates of participation at most education levels, which explains their slightly lower overall rate.

![Chart depicting gender differences in labor force participation by education level.](chart_image)

**Figure 2.8 - Percentage of Adults Participating in the Paid Labor Force, by Gender and Level of Education**

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

*Women with more education are more likely to participate in the paid labor force.*

Nearly twice as many women are employed or looking for work at the highest levels of education than are women at the lowest levels. The participation rates of women with different
amounts of education dramatically show the importance of education in today’s economy: Only 45.1 percent of women with less than a high school diploma were in the paid labor force compared to two-thirds of women with a high school diploma, three-fourths of women with some college or a college degree, and more than 80 percent of women with more than college.

*Across all education levels, men are more likely to participate in the labor force than are women.*

Gender differences also are striking by education level. In fact, male high school graduates are more likely to participate in the paid labor force (82.9 percent) than are women in any education group. Within education groups, the difference between men’s and women’s participation is greatest for those with a high school education or less. Rates are more similar for women and men with at least some college.

![Figure 2.9 - Percentage of Women Participating in the Paid Labor Force, by Year and Race-Ethnicity](image)

*Source Data: March 2000 and March 1980 Current Population Surveys (U.S. Census Bureau)*

*More women are participating today than were women in 1980.*

Despite the fact that women participate in the labor force less than men do, women’s rates today are much higher than they were in 1980 and exceed 60 percent in all racial-ethnic groups. While participation rose substantially for all groups, it rose most among African American women and least among Native and Asian American women.
Figure 2.10 - Percentage of Women Participating in the Paid Labor Force, by Year and Level of Education


Women’s participation increased at all education levels. The increase was lowest among women with more than a college education and highest among women with a bachelor’s degree or four years of college.

Hours of Paid Work

The second component of participation in the labor market is the number of hours worked per week. While being employed is the first requirement for any success in the labor market, the number of hours women work also directly influences their chances to succeed. Full time employment is critical to earnings levels and is usually linked with jobs that have more security and better benefits.

The pattern for the number of hours employed mirrors the pattern for the labor force participation rate. White and African American women tended to work more hours while Latina and Native American women tended to work fewer, as did women with less education. On average, women continue to work fewer hours in 2000 than men work, but they work more hours than they worked in 1980.

The next set of graphs show the average (mean) number of hours per week that women were employed, among women with a paid job. Figure 2.11 shows the average number of hours employed for women and men by race-ethnicity, and Figure 2.12 shows the same information by
education level. Figure 2.13 shows the average number of hours employed for women in 1980 and 2000 by race-ethnicity, and Figure 2.14 shows the same information by education level.

Figure 2.11 - Mean Hours of Adult Employment Per Week, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

Women in different racial-ethnic groups are employed similar amounts.
In 2000, women worked in the paid labor force an average of 22.3 hours per week.

Overall, women work markedly fewer hours than do men.
This gender difference is evident within racial-ethnic groups as well, although it is greater in some groups than in others. Gender differences are greatest among Latinos and smallest among African Americans.
Women’s work hours increase as their level of education increases.
A wider range of participation exists across education groups than across racial-ethnic groups. Women with less than a high school education work the fewest hours (11.2). Women in the next group--those with a high school diploma--work nearly twice as many hours (22), and women with more than a college education work more than three times as many hours (39.7).

Women in each level of education average fewer hours per week than do their male counterparts.
Gender differences in hours of employment are widest among those with the least education; women and men become more similar as education levels increase. At the lowest level of education, men with less than a high school education work 19 hours on average, compared to 11 hours among women. At the highest level--more than college--men work 40 hours on average, compared to 32 hours among women.
Figure 2.13 - Mean Hours of Female Employment Per Week, by Year and Race-Ethnicity


Women work more hours per week today than they did in 1980. Compared to women a generation ago, employed women today work an average of five hours more per week. The increase occurs across racial-ethnic groups and is greatest among African American and white women.
**Figure 2.14 - Mean Hours of Female Employment Per Week, by Year and Level of Education**


*Women’s hours of employment per week increased from 1980 across all education levels.*

From 1980 to 2000, the number of hours worked rises only one hour per week among women with less than high school but more than four hours per week among women with some college or a college education.

**Part Time Work**

Part time work is the third component of participation examined here. It can reflect disadvantage, in that it is often associated with less job security, fewer benefits, and underemployment. However, part time work can reflect advantage as well, in that it can be associated with additional family income and a choice to work less.

These different meanings are reflected in the rates of part time employment shown in the next set of charts. Consistent with the results for the labor force participation rate and the number of hours worked, women in 2000 were more likely to work part time the less education they have. Similarly, women were more likely to work part time than men, and they were less likely to work part time than they used to be. In contrast to the earlier results about participation, part time employment follows a different racial-ethnic pattern; it is most common among white women and least common among African American women.
The next four graphs show the percentage of employed women who work part time, or less than 35 hours per week. Figure 2.15 presents the percentages of women and men working part time, by race-ethnicity, and Figure 2.16 presents this information by education level. Figure 2.17 compares part time rates for women in 1980 and women in 2000 by race-ethnicity; Figure 2.18 compares the same by education level.

Figure 2.15 - Percentage of Adults Employed Part Time, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

About one-third of women overall work part time, although this rate varies across racial-ethnic groups.
Part-time employment is most common among white women and least common among African American women.

Nearly twice as many employed women work part time than do employed men.
While this gender difference exists among all racial-ethnic groups, it is greatest among whites and smallest among African Americans.
Figure 2.16 - Percentage of Adults Employed Part Time, by Gender and Level of Education

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

Part-time work varies greatly by education level.
Part-time employment is by far the most common among women with less than a high school education. In contrast with overall participation rates, rates of part-time work do not decline directly as education rises. The rate of part-time work is highest at the low end of the education scale (nearly half of women with less than a high school education work part time) and lowest at the high end (less than one-fourth of women with a college education or more work part time).

Women are more likely to work part time than are men at the same level of education.
The rate for women is about 15 percentage points higher than the rate for men at each level.
**Figure 2.17 - Percentage of Women Employed Part Time, by Year and Race-Ethnicity**


*Women today are less likely to work part time than their 1980 counterparts were.* Consistent with the average number of hours worked, African American women saw the biggest change in part-time employment. Part-time rates changed the least among Latinas.
From 1980 to today, part-time rates declined across all levels of education. By education level, part-time rates fell the most for women with a bachelor’s degree or four years of college. They remained almost unchanged for women with less than a high school education.

FLEXIBLE WORK SCHEDULES AND ARRANGEMENTS

Employer policies such as flextime and telecommuting are identified with the flexibility and innovation often associated with the new economy. Although used for a variety of reasons, employer policies such as flextime and telecommuting are often hailed as family- and women-friendly because they allow job responsibilities to be more responsive to family needs. Because family responsibilities continue to be women’s work more than men’s, flextime, or the ability to delay the start of the workday without penalty, and telecommuting, or the ability to work from home if necessary, can be highly important to women’s labor market experiences. To the extent that such policies are available, they are therefore associated with greater opportunity, especially for women.

Flextime

We find that flextime is most available to white women and to women with more education; it is least available to African American and Latina women and to women with less education.
Women have similar but slightly lower rates of flextime benefits than men, both overall and within racial-ethnic groups. Across education groups, men with a college education or more are by far the most likely to have flextime available.

Results presented here are tabulated from the May 1997 CPS. Comparable data do not exist for 1980. Figure 2.19 presents the percentages of employed women and men who report being able to alter the start and end times of their work schedule by race-ethnicity, and Figure 2.20 presents this information by education level.

Figure 2.19 - Percentage of Adults with a Flextime Option, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity

Source Data: May 1997 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

Among women, flextime options are more available to white women. One-third of employed women overall have some ability to vary the start and end times of their workday. About one-third of white, Asian American, and Native American women have a flextime option, while only about one-quarter of African American women and Latinas report a flextime option.

Women have slightly lower rates of flextime options than do men. Racial-ethnic differences are greater than gender differences in flextime availability, with African Americans and Latinos having noticeably lower rates among both women and men.
Men and women at higher education levels are more likely to have flextime options. Women at the highest education level (more than college) are half again as likely to be able to use flextime women than are women with the lowest level (less than high school).

Gender differences in the availability of flextime are most evident at the higher education levels. Among women with some college education or less, women are about as likely as men to have a flextime option. Among those with a college education or more, men have markedly higher rates of flextime than do women. At least half of the men in these higher education levels have the option of flextime, compared to less than 40 percent of women.

Telecommuting

Telecommuting is still a rare phenomenon, though its importance is likely growing as new technologies increase its effectiveness and the information economy continues to develop. Presently there are stark differences by race-ethnicity and education in the use of telecommuting. White women, Asian American women, and women with more education are the most likely to telecommute, and women are more likely to telecommute than men.

Telecommuting results are also derived from the May 1997 CPS, and comparable data do not exist for 1980. Telecommuting is defined as working at home under a formal arrangement with one’s employer (versus simply taking work home at the end of the day) in the week prior to the
survey. Figure 2.21 shows the percentages of employed women and men who reported telecommuting by race-ethnicity, and Figure 2.22 presents this information by education level.

Figure 2.21 - Percentage of Adults with a Telecommuting Option, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity

Source Data: May 1997 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

*Women telecommute more than do men, and white women telecommute the most.* Very few women (less than 4 percent overall) work at home under a formal arrangement with their employer. White women, followed by Asian American women, are the most likely to telecommute.
Telecommuting increases with level of education.

Telecommuting is much more common among those at higher education levels. Whereas only a few women (1.4 percent) with less than a high school education work at home, this rate rises to 6.2 percent among women with a bachelor’s degree or four years of college. At all but the highest education level, women have higher rates of telecommuting than do men.

OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION

Women’s participation in the paid labor force and their access to friendly work-family policies are closely related to the kinds of jobs they tend to have. Resulting from a web of different factors, women’s segregation in particular occupations affects their employment prospects and experiences (see, for example, Cotter et al 1998, 1995, Jacobs 1989, Oppenheimer 1970, Reskin and Roos 1990). Occupational segregation refers to the concentration of a group in particular occupations.

Two key elements of occupational segregation help illustrate women’s position in the current economy: how concentrated or dispersed they are across occupations and the types of occupations that they tend to have. The more concentrated women or men are in particular occupations, the slower they may be as a group to respond to changes in the economy. For example, when male-dominated manufacturing occupations declined in the 1970s and 1980s and
female-dominated service occupations grew, men’s overall employment rates dropped and women’s rose. The gender segregation in the labor market and the concentration of men in manufacturing occupations meant that it was easier for more women to enter the paid labor force than for many men to shift into new occupations.

Despite growing career opportunities, the tables that follow show that women’s occupational segregation continues. Educational and career opportunities for women have increased greatly since the early 1970s, yet women continue to be highly concentrated in specific occupations. Women with low and high levels of education tend to be more concentrated than are those with middle levels of education. Although women’s occupational distribution has become less concentrated in recent decades, it remains more concentrated than does men’s. Women tend to be in administrative support, service, and, to a lesser degree, sales and managerial/professional specialty occupations, but differences in these distributions occur by race-ethnicity and level of education. With the exception of service occupations, women and men tend to be in different types of occupations. Common occupations for women are quite similar to what they were 20 years ago, especially among white and African American women and within education groups.

The U.S. Bureau of the Census identifies more than 500 different civilian occupations. Table 2.2 presents the 10 most common of all occupations for employed women in 2000 by race-ethnicity. Table 2.3 presents the 10 most common occupations among employed women by education group. Tables 2.4 and 2.5 present the same information for employed men in 2000, and Tables 2.6 and 2.7 present it for employed women in 1980.

**Degree of Concentration**

*More than one-fourth of all women in the paid labor force are concentrated in 10 occupations.*

Although the many occupations defined by the Census Bureau vary greatly in size, 28.3 percent of women are concentrated in just 10 of them today. This high concentration within a small number of occupations reflects the concentration of women in the labor market as well as a relative lack of detail with regard to the classification of certain predominantly female occupations.

*Occupational segregation by both gender and race-ethnicity contributes to greater concentrations within each racial-ethnic group.*

Within racial-ethnic groups, the concentration is even greater, demonstrating the racial-ethnic segregation of the labor market as well. Within all racial-ethnic groups except white women, at least 30 percent of women are in the 10 most common occupations for that group. Native American women are slightly more concentrated than are other groups of women, with 34.1 percent in just 10 occupations.

*Occupational segregation for women is highest among those with the most and least education.*

Within education groups, the concentration is even higher than it is among women overall: Just more than 40 percent of women in the lowest education group (less than high school) and almost half the women in the highest education group (more than college) work in just 10 occupations.
<table>
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<th>All Women</th>
<th>%</th>
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<th>%</th>
<th>African American</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Latina</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Native American</th>
<th>%</th>
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<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Bookkeepers</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school teachers</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Elementary school teachers</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Maids and housemen</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Private household cleaners, servants</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>General office clerks</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Bookkeeping, accounting, auditing clerks</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Social workers</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookkeeping, accounting, auditing clerks</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Registered nurses</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Textile sewing machine operators</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Elementary school teachers</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Secretaries, stenographers, typists</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Maids and housemen</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Teachers’ aides</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Managers, food service and lodging</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptionists</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Receptionists</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Bookkeeping, accounting, auditing clerks</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Receptionists</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Hairdressers and cosmetologists</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Secondary teachers</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Bookkeeping, accounting, auditing clerks</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Bookkeeping, accounting, auditing clerks</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total percent</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>All Women</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Less than High School Diploma</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>High School Graduate</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Some College</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>College Graduate</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>More than College</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secretaries, stenographers, typists</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Secretaries, stenographers, typists</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Secretaries, stenographers, typists</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>Elementary school teachers</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>Elementary school teachers</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookkeepers</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Bookkeepers</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>Registered nurses</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Registered nurses</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Bookkeeping, accounting, auditing clerks</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>Accountants and auditors</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered nurses</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school teachers</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Bookkeeping, accounting, auditing clerks</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Cashiers</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Secondary teachers</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Maids and housemen</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Receptionists</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Computer systems analysts and scientists</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookkeeping, accounting, auditing clerks</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Textile sewing machine operators</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Waiting</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Social workers</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>Private household cleaners and servants</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Receptionists</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Prekindergarten and kindergarten teachers</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptionists</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
<td>Assemblers</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Hairdresser and cosmetologists</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Investigators and adjuster, except insurance</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Secretaries, stenographers, typists</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Child care and private household</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Teachers' aides</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Bookkeeping, accounting, auditing clerks</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total percent</td>
<td>28.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>41.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td></td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)
Men are less concentrated in the labor market than are women.

A comparison of Tables 2.2 and 2.4 shows that more than one-fourth (28.3 percent) of women overall work in just 10 occupations, compared to slightly more than one-fifth (21.5 percent) of men. Men also are less concentrated than are their female counterparts among whites (20.5 percent of men, 29.3 percent of women), African Americans (27.4 percent of men, 30.5 percent of women), and Native Americans (27 percent of men, 33.8 percent of women). Rates are similar among Latinos (31.1 percent of men, 30.4 percent of women), and Asian Americans (30.5 percent of men, 30.2 percent of women).

Men at all education levels are less concentrated than are women.

Women’s greater occupational segregation is most evident among people with at least some college. About one-third to one-half of women at the three highest education levels work in 10 occupations, compared to about one-fifth to one-third of men at the same levels.
Table 2.4 - The 10 Most Common Occupations for Men in 2000, by Race-Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All Men</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>African American</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Latino</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Native American</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Asian American</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>Computer systems analysts and scientists</td>
<td>6.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>Laborers, not construction</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Carpenters</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Carpenters</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpenters</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Sales representatives, not retail</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Guards and private police</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Farm workers</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Managers, food service and lodging</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Construction laborers</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>Physicians</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer systems analysts and scientists</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Computer systems analysts and scientists</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Laborers, not construction</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Construction laborers</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>Industrial truck and tractor operators</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Electrical engineer</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laborers, not construction</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Supervisors, production</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Industrial truck and tractor operators</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Groundskeepers and gardeners</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>Assemblers</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales representatives, not retail</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Laborers not construction</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Construction laborers</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Carpenters</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Guards and private police</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Cashiers</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction laborers</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Auto mechanics</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Stock handlers and baggers</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Laborers, not construction</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Farmers, not horticultural</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Computer programmers</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auto mechanics</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Computer systems analysts and scientists</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Painters, construction</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Bus drivers</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Accountants and auditors</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total percent</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)
Table 2.5 - The 10 Most Common Occupations for Men in 2000, by Level of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All Men</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Less than High School Diploma</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>High School Graduate</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Some College</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>College Graduate</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>More than College</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>Lawyers and judges</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Computer systems analysts and scientists</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>Physicians</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Sales representatives, not retail</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Sales representatives, not retail</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>Secondary teachers</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carpenters</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Carpenters</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Carpenters</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Janitors and cleaners</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Accountants and auditors</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Computer systems analysts and scientists</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Construction laborers</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Laborers, not construction laborers</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Electricians</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Electrical engineers</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Education administrators</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer systems analysts and scientists</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Stock handlers and baggers</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Construction laborers</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Electrical and electronic technicians</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Managers of marketing, advertising, public relations</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Clergy</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laborers, not construction</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Farm workers</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Carpenters</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Secondary teachers</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Electrical engineer</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales representatives, not retail</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Groundskeepers and gardeners</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Supervisors, production</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Managers, food service and lodging</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Computer programmers</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Supervisors and proprietors, sales</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction laborers</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Laborers, not construction</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Auto mechanics</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Securities and financial services sales</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Accountants and auditors</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auto mechanics</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>Cashiers</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Assemblers</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Computer systems analysts and scientists</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>Financial managers</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>Dentists</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total percent</strong></td>
<td><strong>21.5</strong></td>
<td><strong>37.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>28.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>21.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>28.4</strong></td>
<td><strong>37.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>37.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>37.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>37.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>37.7</strong></td>
<td><strong>37.7</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)
**Women work in a wider array of occupations today than did women in 1980.**

Although women tend to be more concentrated in the occupational distribution than men are, women work in a wider array of occupations today than they did 20 years ago. In 1980, 38 percent of women worked in 10 occupations, compared to 28.3 percent in 2000. This change is evident in each racial-ethnic group as well, with the top 10 occupations containing about 10 percentage points fewer women in 2000 as in 1980.

**Across all levels of education, women today work in a wider array of occupations.**

The same decline in concentration is evident in every education group except those with less than a high school education. About 41 percent of women in this lowest education group were in the 10 most common occupations in both 1980 and 2000. At higher education levels, women are less segregated in 2000 than women were in 1980. The change is greatest among women with some college or a college degree who have moved into a wider array of occupations during the past two decades than have women at other education levels.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>All Women</th>
<th>White</th>
<th>African American</th>
<th>Latina</th>
<th>Native and Asian American</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secretaries, stenographers, typists</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookkeepers</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail sales clerks</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cashiers</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered nurses</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school teachers</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sewers and stitchers</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total percent</strong></td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source Data: March 1980 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All Women</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Less than High School Diploma</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>High School Graduate</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Some College</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>College Graduate</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>More than College</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Secretaries,</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>Secretaries,</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>Secretaries,</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>Elementary school teachers</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>Elementary school teachers</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stenographers,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>stenographers,</td>
<td></td>
<td>stenographers,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>typists</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>typists</td>
<td></td>
<td>typists</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bookkeepers</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Sewers and stitchers</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Bookkeepers</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>Registered nurses</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>Secondary teachers</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>Secondary teachers</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail sales clerks</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Retail sales clerks</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Retail sales clerks</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>Bookkeepers</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Secretaries,</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>Registered nurses</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail sales clerks</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>stenographers,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cashiers</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>Cashiers</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>Cashiers</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>Retail sales clerks</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>Registered nurses</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>Social workers</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>Bookkeepers</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>Librarians</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered nurses</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies,</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Nursing aides,</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Cashiers</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>Pre-kindergarten and kindergarten teachers</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>Vocational and educational counselors</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary school teachers</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Maids and servants, private household</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Receptionists, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, attendants</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Accountants</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>School administrators, elementary and secondary</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing aides,</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Assemblers</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>Assemblers</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Receptionists</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Retail sales clerks</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Pre-kindergarten and kindergarten teachers</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orderlies,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attendants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sewers and stitchers</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>Cleaners and charwomen</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>Sewers and stitchers</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Licensed practical nurses</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>Social workers</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Physicians</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooks</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>Child care, private household</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>Hairdressers and cosmetologists</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>Teacher aides</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>Therapists</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Therapists</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total percent</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>44.8</td>
<td>50.2</td>
<td>53.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source Data: March 1980 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)
Types of Occupations

Of the 10 most common occupations for women, two are managerial and professional specialty (registered nurses and elementary school teachers, Tables 2.2 and 2.3). Managerial and professional specialty occupations tend to have the highest income and benefits and the greatest amounts of autonomy compared to other occupations. Two of the 10 most common occupations are in sales (supervisors and proprietors of sales occupations), and three are in administrative support (secretaries, bookkeeping clerks, and receptionists). The last three are service occupations (nursing aides, waiters, cooks), which have some of the lowest economic returns.

Compared to women overall, Asian American and white women are more concentrated in managerial and professional specialty occupations, such as bookkeepers, registered nurses, and elementary school teachers. African American and, especially Latinas most often fill service occupations, such as nursing aids, orderlies and attendants, janitors and cleaners, maids, and private household cleaners and servants. Native American women are most often in administrative support occupations, such as secretaries, stenographers, typists, general office clerks, and receptionists.

The close association between education and occupational prestige is evident in Table 2.3, which shows that service occupations dominate the jobs for women with less than a high school education. As education rises, service occupations become less common and are replaced first by administrative support occupations and eventually by managerial and professional specialty occupations. Seven of the 10 most common occupations among college graduates and all 10 among women with more than a college education are managerial or professional specialty.

Men’s occupational distribution looks quite different. Whereas many women work in administrative support occupations and, to a lesser degree, in sales and professional and managerial occupations, many men have jobs in operator, fabricator, and labor and precision production, craft, and repair occupations. To a lesser degree, men also work in sales and managerial and professional specialty occupations. Service occupations are common for both women and men. Of the 10 most common occupations, women’s are slightly more likely to be in managerial and professional specialty occupations--overall, within racial-ethnic groups (except among Asian Americans), and within the two highest education groups (bachelor’s degree or four years of college and more than college).

The occupational distribution for women in 2000 is similar to the distribution in 1980. Eight of women’s 10 most common occupations today are among the 10 most common occupations for women 20 years ago.

The distribution for white and African American women remained the most similar, with only two occupations changing for white women and three occupations changing for African American women. In contrast, about half of the occupations for Latinas and Native American and Asian American women changed between 1980 and 2000. Latinas moved away from labor occupations and into service occupations, while Native and Asian American women are more likely to be in managerial and professional specialty occupations in 2000.

Within education groups, women’s occupations have not changed significantly since 1980. In each education group, seven to eight of the 10 most common occupations in 2000 were among the 10 most common in 1980. At the same time, new occupations are found in each group, and
fewer women work in the top 10 occupations today than worked in the top 10 occupations in 1980 (i.e., there is less concentration today).

Finally, although women’s labor force participation has become more similar to that of men, women continue to be more concentrated in certain occupations than men are. Women’s entry into a widening array of occupations during the past two decades has resulted in less segregation into traditionally female occupations. However, most women and men continue to work in separate occupations. For example, today the highest proportion of women with a college education are elementary school teachers (8.8 percent) and registered nurses (6.9 percent), neither of which appeared among the 10 most common occupations for college educated men. Although women were represented in some of the most common occupations among men, far fewer women than men were employed in these occupations. For example, proprietors, and sales occupations employed 6.1 percent of men and 3.3 percent of women, and computer systems analysts and scientists employed 4.6 percent of men and 2.2 percent of women.

CONCLUSIONS

In general, women appear to be faring well in the current economy, though not so well as men on many indicators, and some groups of women are faring better than others. Women are becoming better educated, and they tend to live more on their own, although both of these trends vary substantially among groups of women.

Given these findings, it is not surprising that the rates of women’s participation in the paid labor force and the amount of time that they work are also on the rise, though both remain lower than men’s. Most of the trends in labor force participation and work-family policies vary substantially by race-ethnicity and education. Finally, women continue to face a labor market that is highly gender segregated, although less so than it was 20 years ago. Women are more concentrated within occupations than men are, and they are more concentrated within racial-ethnic and education groups than overall.
CHAPTER 3 – HOW WOMEN ARE FARING IN GROWING OCCUPATIONS

This chapter builds on the findings regarding women’s current labor market experiences to suggest where women’s labor market positions may be headed in the near future. It does so by examining occupational forecasts published by the U.S. Department of Labor. As noted previously, service occupations and rapidly growing high-tech and information occupations increasingly characterize the U.S. labor market. Are these changes beneficial to women? How well are women positioned in the current labor market to take advantage of the changes?

Three analyses help answer these questions: women’s presence in the fastest growing occupations, women’s presence in the occupations with the projected largest growth in terms of numbers of jobs, and the fields of study of women who recently attended college, in comparison with these high growth occupations. Together with what we have found about women’s current employment, the results here suggest how well positioned women are for the economy of the twenty-first century.

OCCUPATIONAL OUTLOOK

Occupational change is an effective way to measure economic change and how changes in the broader economy may affect individual workers. Projections of occupational change indicate where the economy is moving and where new jobs are likely to be. Two types of occupational projections are analyzed here: occupations with the fastest projected growth and occupations with the projected largest growth (Braddock, 1999).

The fastest growing occupations are those that are projected to grow the most rapidly between 1998 and 2008. Whereas the average growth rate for occupations is 14 percent during this period, growth averages 41 to 108 percent among the fastest growing occupations. The fastest growing occupations are often precursors to longer term changes in the economy, but they also often have an impact on fewer people in the short term.

The occupations with the projected largest growth are those expected to have the largest number of new jobs from 1998 through 2008. For these occupations, job growth averages between 247,000 and 577,000 jobs, compared to an average change of 40,000 jobs among all occupations during this time period. The occupations with the projected largest growth reflect labor market changes that are noticeable more quickly because they involve so many workers. Note that the same occupation can appear in both projections; some occupations may be among the fastest growing and among those with the projected largest growth.

The 20 Fastest Growing Occupations

The 20 fastest growing occupations include none of the 10 most common for women.

The 20 fastest growing occupations include none of women’s most common occupations and only one of men’s ten most common occupations (see Tables 2.2 and 2.4).
Table 3.1 - Occupations with the Projected Fastest Growth from 1998-2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Projected Growth %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computer engineers</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer support specialists</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems analysts</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Database administrators</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desktop publishing specialists</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paralegals and legal assistants</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical assistants</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal care and home health aides</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social and human service assistants</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physician assistants</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data processing equipment repairers</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residential counselors</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electronic semiconductor processors</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical records and health information technicians</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical therapy assistants and aides</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering, natural science, and computer and information systems managers</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respiratory therapists</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dental assistants</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Surgical technologists</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Braddock 1999

Figures 3.1 through 3.8 examine these top 20 fastest growing occupations. Figures 3.1 through 3.4 compare workers in the fastest growing occupations with all workers; figures 3.5 through 3.8 examine how many women and men work in these occupations.
Figure 3.1 - Women’s Share of the 20 Fastest Growing Occupations and of All Occupations, by Race-Ethnicity

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

*Women make up a smaller percentage of the work force in the 20 fastest growing occupations than of the total labor force.*

This is also true within racial-ethnic groups except Asian Americans, who comprise about as much of the work force in the fastest growing occupations as in all occupations.
**Figure 3.2 - Women’s Share of the 20 Fastest Growing Occupations and of All Occupations, by Level of Education**

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

Women working in the 20 fastest growing occupations are more likely to have a college education and less likely to have the highest or lowest levels of education.

Women with less than a high school education, a high school education, or more than college have a lower presence in the 20 fastest growing occupations than they do in all occupations. Women with a bachelor’s degree or four years of college are the only educational group represented more often in the fastest growing occupations than in all occupations.
In contrast to the trends for women, workers in the 20 fastest growing occupations include a higher percentage of males than do occupations overall.

White men make up half (49.2 percent) of those in the fastest growing occupations but only 38.9 percent of those in all occupations. This contrasts with women, for whom no racial-ethnic group was represented more in the fastest growing occupations than in occupations in general. The 20 fastest growing occupations also are more likely to be filled by Asian American men than are occupations in general, but they are less likely to be filled by African American, Latino, and Native American men than are occupations in general.
Figure 3.4 - Men’s Share of the 20 Fastest Growing Occupations and of All Occupations, by Level of Education

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

The fastest growing occupations have many more men with some college or more than do occupations in general.

By level of education, the fastest growing occupations have fewer men with a high school education or less than do occupations in general. However, men with a college education appear to be the most able to take advantage of these occupations since more than twice as many of them work in the fastest growing occupations than in all occupations.
Figure 3.5 - Percentage of Adults Employed in the 20 Fastest Growing Occupations, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

*Only one in nine employed women works in the 20 fastest growing occupations.*
Asian American and white women are the most likely to work in the fastest growing occupations, and Latinas and Native American women are the least likely.

*Women are less likely than men to work in the fastest growing occupations overall, but not within every racial-ethnic group.*
Overall, women are only slightly less likely than are men to be employed in the fastest growing occupations. Men’s higher representation in these occupations is evident only among Asian Americans and whites (consistent with Figure 3.3). Among Latinos, Native Americans, and African Americans, women are more likely than men to work in the fastest growing occupations.
Figure 3.6 - Percentage of Adults Employed in the 20 Fastest Growing Occupations, by Gender and Level of Education

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

Women at the lowest and highest education levels are less likely than other women to work in the fastest growing occupations.

Women with some college and women with a bachelor’s degree or four years of college are the most likely to work in the fastest growing occupations.

Only men at the highest education levels are more likely than women to work in the fastest growing occupations.

Among those with a college education or more, men are far more likely than women to work in the fastest growing occupations. Among those with less than a college education, women are more likely to work in the fastest growing occupations.

These gender differences suggest two possibilities. First, compared to men, women in the fastest growing occupations more frequently may occupy lower status occupations. Second, women and men may be in the same occupations but have jobs of different statuses. Even at this level of detail, the occupations listed mask specificities and differences among jobs within each occupation (i.e., by rank, specific tasks, industrial setting). Women and men entering the same occupations listed here may still have important differences between their jobs.
The 13 Fastest Growing Occupations that Have Higher than Average Wages

Thirteen of the 20 occupations listed in Table 3.1 have above average earnings: computer engineers; computer support specialists; systems analysts; database administrators; desktop publishing specialists; paralegals and legal assistants; physician assistants; data processing equipment repairers; electronic semiconductor processors; engineering, natural science, and computer and information systems managers; respiratory therapists; surgical technologists; and securities, commodities, and financial services sales agents. Figures 3.7 and 3.8 focus on these 13 occupations.

**Figure 3.7 - Percentage of Adults Employed in the 13 Fastest Growing Occupations with Higher than Average Wages, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity**

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

*Racial-ethnic differences among women are greater in the higher paying occupations.*

Most of the women working in the 20 fastest growing occupations work in the 13 higher paying ones. This is especially true for Asian American and white women, and the disparity between them and the other three racial-ethnic groups is greater in the higher paying occupations than in the 20 fastest growing occupations.

*Men are about half again more likely to work in these occupations than are women.*

Although women are only slightly less likely than men to work in one of the fastest growing occupations, women are substantially less likely than men to work in one of the better paying,
Asian American and white men are by far the most likely racial-ethnic groups to work in these occupations. Within racial-ethnic groups, only Latinas and Native American women are employed in the higher paying occupations more than are their male counterparts.

**Figure 3.8 - Percentage of Adults Employed in the 13 Fastest Growing Occupations with Higher than Average Wages, by Gender and Level of Education**

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

*Education differences among women are greater in the higher paying occupations.*

Women with a bachelor’s degree or four years of college are the most likely to work in the higher paying occupations. They are six times more likely to work in them than are those with less than high school (the least likely).

*Men are more likely than women to work in the higher paying occupations at all education levels.*

Men with a bachelor’s degree or four years of college or more than a college education are the most likely groups to work in the higher paying occupations. Nearly one-fourth of men with a bachelor’s degree or four years of college are employed in these occupations today compared to 11.8 percent of women with a bachelor’s degree or four years of college and 8 percent of women overall.
The 20 Occupations with the Projected Largest Growth

The 20 occupations projected to have the largest number of new jobs from 1998 through 2008 are listed in Table 3.2. Five of these 20 occupations are among the top 10 occupations for women (see Table 2.2), and three are among the top 10 occupations for men (see Table 2.4).

Table 3.2 - Occupations with the Projected Largest Growth from 1998-2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Projected Increase (thousands of jobs)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Systems analysts</td>
<td>577</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retail salespersons</td>
<td>563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cashiers</td>
<td>556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General managers and top executives</td>
<td>551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Truck drivers</td>
<td>493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General office clerks</td>
<td>463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered nurses</td>
<td>451</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer support specialists</td>
<td>439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal care and home health aides</td>
<td>433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher assistants</td>
<td>375</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Janitors and cleaners, including maids and housekeeping cleaners</td>
<td>365</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nursing aides, orderlies, and attendants</td>
<td>325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer engineers</td>
<td>323</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary school teachers</td>
<td>322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office and administrative support supervisors and managers</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptionists and information clerks</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Waiters</td>
<td>303</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guards</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing and sales worker supervisors</td>
<td>263</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food counter, fountain, and related workers</td>
<td>247</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Braddock 1999
Figure 3.9 - Women’s Share of the 20 Projected Largest Growth Occupations and of All Occupations, by Race-Ethnicity

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

*Women make up a higher percentage of the work force in the projected largest growth occupations than in the work force in general.*

In contrast to the 20 fastest growing occupations and occupations overall, the projected largest growth occupations include a higher percentage of women. The greater presence of women in these occupations holds across all racial-ethnic groups as well. The projected largest growth occupations have more white, African American, and Latina women and about the same shares of Native American and Asian American women as do occupations in general.
Figure 3.10 - Women’s Share of the 20 Projected Largest Growth Occupations and of All Occupations, by Level of Education

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

*The work force in the projected largest growth occupations is less educated than is the work force in general.*

The projected largest growth occupations are more likely to be filled by women with less than a college education than are occupations in general. Rates are similar for women with a college education, and the projected largest growth occupations are less likely than is the work force in general to be filled by women with more than a college education.
Figure 3.11 - Men’s Share of the 20 Projected Largest Growth Occupations and of All Occupations, by Race-Ethnicity

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

Unlike women, men make up a higher percentage of the work force in general than in the projected largest growth occupations.

The projected largest growth occupations have smaller proportions of white men and Latinos and similar proportions of African American, Native American, and Asian American men than do occupations in general.
Figure 3.12 - Men’s Share of the 20 Projected Largest Growth Occupations and of All Occupations, by Level of Education

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

Across all levels of education, workers in the largest growth occupations are less likely to be male than are workers in occupations in general. This disparity is highest among men with more than a college education and lowest among those with less than a high school education.
Figures 3.13 - Percentage of Adults Employed in the 20 Projected Largest Growth Occupations, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

One-fourth of women work in the 20 occupations with the projected largest growth. Rates differ somewhat by race-ethnicity, although not so widely as in the 20 fastest growing occupations. Native American and African American women are the most likely to work in the projected largest growth occupations, while white women are the least likely, a reverse of the order in the 20 fastest growing occupations.

Overall and across all racial-ethnic groups, women are more likely than men to work in occupations with the projected largest growth. Compared to men, women are half again as likely to work in occupations with the projected largest growth. Although white women are the least likely to work in these occupations, white women are more likely to do so than are African American men, who have the highest rate among men.
Women with less education are more likely to work in these occupations.

In notable contrast to the fastest growing occupations, the projected largest growth occupations employ 39.4 percent of women with less than a high school education but only 14.6 percent of women with more than a college education.

Women are more likely than men to work in the projected largest growth occupations at each education level.

The gender difference is greater among those with less education and smaller among those with more education. Among those with a high school diploma, women are twice as likely as men to work in these occupations, while among those with more than a college education, women are only one-fourth more likely to work in them than are men.

Summary

The relatively large presence of women in the projected largest growth occupations has mixed implications. On one hand, women are well positioned for continued employment in today’s economy, and their labor continues to be in high demand. On the other hand, the characteristics of many of these occupations indicate that women are much less well positioned for self-sufficiency or economic gain.
The Eight Projected Largest Growth Occupations with Higher than Average Wages

When we examine the presence of women in the largest growth occupations that offer higher than average wages, a different story emerges. Eight of the 20 occupations listed in Figure 3.10 have wages higher than the median wage for all occupations. These eight occupations are systems analysts, general managers and top executives, truck drivers, registered nurses, computer support specialists, computer engineers, secondary school teachers, office and administrative support supervisors and managers, and marketing and sales worker supervisors.

![Bar chart showing percentage of adults employed in the eight projected largest growth occupations with higher than average wages, by gender and race-ethnicity.]

**Figure 3.15 - Percentage of Adults Employed in the Eight Projected Largest Growth Occupations with Higher than Average Wages, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity**

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

Racial-ethnic differences among women are larger in occupations with higher than average wages than in the 20 projected largest growth occupations.

In contrast to the 20 projected largest growth occupations, which employ 27.7 percent of women (see Table 3.2), the eight occupations with higher than average wages employ only 8.7 percent of women. Asian American and white women are the most likely to work in these better paying occupations, and they are more than twice as likely to work in them than are Native American women Latinas.

*Within each racial-ethnic group, women are less likely to work in these high paying occupations than are men.*

The gender disparity is largest among Latinos and African Americans.
Figure 3.16 - Percentage of Adults Employed in the Eight Projected Largest Growth Occupations with Higher than Average Wages, by Gender and Level of Education

Source Data: March 2000 Current Population Survey (U.S. Census Bureau)

Women with a bachelor’s degree or four years of college or more are much more likely to work in these better paying occupations than are women with less education.
In contrast to the 20 occupations with the projected largest growth, better educated women are more likely to work in the occupations that have above average wages.

Gender differences in the likelihood of working in these occupations depend on education level. Women in the lower education groups are less likely than their male counterparts to work in these occupations. Women with at least a college education are more likely to work in these occupations than are men with at least a college education.

FIELD OF STUDY
Most of these high growth occupations require some schooling beyond high school, and nearly all that pay above average wages require it. The vast majority of women today (82.3 percent) have education beyond high school, although Latinas are an important exception: Their average education of less than high school puts them at a serious disadvantage for the better paying new jobs. In addition to the amount of schooling, however, the substantive area of education is also a key contributor to workers’ abilities to capitalize on new jobs. People who have studied in fields
related to the growing occupations, particularly those that pay more, will be better positioned as jobs increase.

The fields of study that represent the fastest growing and projected largest growth occupations today include computer and information sciences, education, engineering, health professions, and law. In 1980, when fields of study were organized differently, they also included data processing technologies, health services and paramedical technologies, mechanical and engineering technologies, and natural science technologies. (See Appendix A for a list of all fields of study.) These general fields of study provide an important indicator of women’s preparation for employment in the current and future economy, compared to men’s preparation and to that of women in 1980.

The highest returns in the high growth occupations will come for those in the professional and technical occupations that require advanced education (e.g., systems analysts, registered nurses, computer engineers) and not from the lower status service occupations that do not require post-secondary schooling (e.g., cashiers, janitors and cleaners, waiters).

Figures 3.17 and 3.18 present the major fields of study among some recent college students by gender and race-ethnicity.

![Bar chart showing the percentage of adults majoring in high growth fields by gender and race-ethnicity.]

**Figure 3.17 - Percentage of Adults Majoring in High Growth Fields, by Gender and Race-Ethnicity**


*One-fourth of women majored in a field related to the high growth occupations.*
More than one-fourth of women in 1998 majored in a field closely linked with the fastest growing or projected largest growth occupations. African American women and Latinas concentrated in these fields slightly more than white women did.

*Overall, fewer women than men majored in a high growth field.*

Men were about half again as likely as women to major in a field related to the high growth occupations. Fewer white women and Latinas majored in a high growth field than did their male counterparts. Among African Americans, women and men were about the same.

![Bar chart showing percentage of women majoring in high growth fields by year and race-ethnicity](chart.png)

**Figure 3.18 - Percentage of Women Majoring in High Growth Fields, by Year and Race-Ethnicity**


*Women were less likely to major in a high growth field in 1998 than in 1980.*

This decline was true for both white and African American women—the two groups with large enough samples to analyze in both years—and the decline was sharper for white women.

**CONCLUSIONS**

When we combine the results of women’s employment in the fastest growing and projected largest growth occupations and their major fields of study, some trends emerge. With regard simply to getting a job, the future looks positive for many women and even better than it does for men. African American, Latina, and Native American women and women with less education
appear particularly well positioned to fill many of the new jobs projected for the near future. Given the lower labor market position observed among these groups in Chapter 2, this is good news.

This enthusiasm needs to be tempered, however, because these less advantaged groups are underrepresented among the higher paying of the growing occupations. The quality of many of the jobs women in general are likely to fill, especially women who already hold lower labor market positions, is questionable. In short, the resources women bring to the market combined with the continued growth of service occupations bodes well for women in terms of finding a job. At the same time, women are less represented in and less prepared for the growth of information-related occupations than for lower status service occupations. Women appear less well positioned than do men to access the emerging information segment of the labor market, which comprises much of the better paying part of the new economy.
CHAPTER 4 – CONCLUSIONS

This report analyzes current, national level data on women in the labor market. It uses both individual and labor market indicators to understand how women are faring in the new economy. It examines women’s position in the labor market, overall and by racial-ethnic and education group, and it compares these positions with the positions of men today and of women from a generation ago. In this chapter, we bring the findings together to draw conclusions about women’s prospects in the economy today and in the near future.

WHAT ARE WOMEN’S PROSPECTS IN THE ECONOMY TODAY?

The findings regarding women’s prospects in the economy today are both important and interesting. The results indicate that prospects for women look strong today, compared to the prospects for women a few decades ago, but they continue to be weaker than the prospects for men. In addition, prospects are not the same among women; they are stronger for some groups, such as white women and women with more education, than for others.

Among women, the racial-ethnic inequalities that exist in the broader society are evident in the labor market as well. White women tend to enjoy somewhat better labor market positions than women in other racial-ethnic groups, at least as reflected by their greater participation in the market, their higher prevalence of work-based family policies, and their wider range of occupations among white women. For other racial-ethnic groups, prospects are less solid. African American have strong participation in the labor market, perhaps because they are also the most likely to be nonmarried, and three of their top ten occupations are professional or managerial. However, African American women are less likely to report the presence or use of work-based family policies. Asian American and Native American women’s positions appear the most mixed, falling between the other groups of women on nearly all indicators. Latina women’s prospects appear the least strong. Latina women have the least education, they report low levels of work-based family policies, and they have only one professional/managerial occupation among their ten most common occupations.

The findings make clear the importance of education for labor market prospects. Women with more education tend to have greater labor market participation, a higher prevalence of work-based family policies, and a broader occupational range than women with less education. Although this trend undoubtedly reflects age and employment experience to a lesser extent (because the less educated women are also the youngest), education is clearly critical to faring well in the new economy.

Compared to men, women continue to have poorer prospects in today’s economy in many ways. At the same time, women’s prospects have increased greatly in recent decades. Compared to men, women participate in the economy less, although the prevalence of work-based family policies is more mixed. Women are slightly less likely than men to report having the benefit of flextime, but they are slightly more likely to report use of telecommuting. Finally, the results are also mixed on their occupational choices. Women are more segregated into a small number of occupations than are men, but they are also more likely to have professional or managerial occupations be among their most common occupations.
Finally, women’s prospects today appear to be brighter than their prospects were a generation ago. Women today have higher levels of education, participate in the economy more, and are in a wider range of occupations than women in 1980. Women are also more likely to be nonmarried today, suggesting that they may have more need for a strong economic position.

WHAT ARE WOMEN’S PROSPECTS IN THE NEAR FUTURE?

We investigated women’s prospects in the near future by analyzing their representation in the occupations that are projected to grow the most. As with today’s labor market prospects, those for the future vary by gender, race-ethnicity, and educational level.

Among women, white and Asian American women appear to have the best prospects for projected job growth. White and Asian American women are the most likely to work in any of the 20 fastest growing occupations, and they are the most likely to work in those fastest and largest growing occupations that have above average wages. The prospects for African American women appear somewhat less positive; they appear well positioned for getting a job but not as well positioned for obtaining one with above average wages. Similarly, Latina and Native American women appear to have lower prospects for the emerging economy. They appear likely to be able to get a job in a high growth occupation, but they are the least likely to get a job in one of the better paying high growth occupations.

By education level, women with some college or with a college degree appear to have the brightest future prospects among all educational groups of women. Women with some college or a college degree are among the groups most likely to obtain a job in any of the high growth occupations and to obtain a job in one of the better paying high growth occupations. Women whose level of education is either lower than some college or higher than a college degree have more mixed prospects. Those with less education have good prospects to obtain jobs in at least some kinds of high growth occupations but are less likely to get jobs in the better paying ones. Those with more than a college degree are less likely to obtain jobs in the high growing occupations but are more likely to obtain jobs in the better paying high growth occupations.

Finally, compared to men, the prospects for women appear mixed for the near future. Women are better positioned than men to obtain any job in some of the high growth occupations, but men are better positioned to get a job in one of the higher paying of those occupations that has above average wages. This is true both for women and men overall and within most racial-ethnic and education subgroups.
REFERENCES


## APPENDIX A

Table A.1 Data Sources and Measurement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis</th>
<th>Data Source</th>
<th>Variable</th>
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<tr>
<td>Years of schooling</td>
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<td>Highest grade completed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital status</td>
<td>CPS: March 1980, March 2000</td>
<td>Married, spouse present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Married, spouse absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Widowed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Divorced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Separated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>In labor force:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Employed full time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Employed part time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unemployed, looking for work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Unemployed, on layoff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of hours</td>
<td>CPS: March 1980, March 2000</td>
<td>Not in labor force:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Part time employment</td>
<td>CPS: March 1980, March 2000</td>
<td>Unpaid and working less than 15 hours</td>
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<tr>
<td>Flextime</td>
<td>CPS: May 1997</td>
<td>Unavailable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Other (retired)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telecommuting</td>
<td>CPS: May 1997</td>
<td>Number of hours worked last week at all jobs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational segregation</td>
<td>CPS: March 1980, March 2000</td>
<td>Number of hours worked last week at all jobs (less than 35)</td>
</tr>
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<td>Fastest growing occupations</td>
<td>Braddock 1999</td>
<td>R has flexible hours that allow R to vary or make changes in the time that s/he begins and ends work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CPS: March 1980, March 2000</td>
<td>R has formal arrangement with employer to be paid for the work that R does at home, versus just taking work home from the job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occupation of job last week</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Occupation of job last week</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Largest growth occupations | Braddock 1999  
CPS: March 1980, March 2000  
Field of study of college degree  
None, General Studies  
Agriculture and Natural Resources  
Architecture and Environmental Design  
Area Studies  
Biological Sciences  
Business and Management  
Communications  
Computer and Information Sciences  
Education  
Engineering  
Fine and Applied Arts  
Foreign Languages  
Health Professions  
Home Economics  
Law  
Letters  
Library Science  
Mathematics  
Military Sciences  
Physical Sciences  
Psychology  
Public Affairs and Services  
Social Sciences  
Theology  
Interdisciplinary Studies |