

The Parenthood Pay Divide: Why Mothers Earn Less Than Fathers in the US

The State-by-State Wage Gap for Parents by Race/Ethnicity

Key Findings:

- **Nationally, employed mothers were paid 61.8 cents per dollar paid to fathers.** Mothers who worked full-time year-round were paid 74.3 cents per dollar compared to fathers in 2023, meaning mothers earned \$19,000 less for a year of full-time work.¹ This total earnings gap is larger than the annual cost of center-based infant care for families, which can go up to \$19,040.²
- **Among all workers with earnings, mothers in Utah faced the largest wage gap at 43.9 cents per dollar, earning less than half of what fathers were paid.** When considering full-time year-round workers, mothers in **Louisiana** faced the biggest wage gap, receiving only 62.1 cents per dollar paid to fathers. Mothers in **Vermont** faced the lowest wage gap, receiving 76.0 cents per dollar paid to fathers for all with earnings, and 85.7 cents per dollar for full-time year-round workers.
- **Mothers of color face a larger parental racial earnings gap than White fathers.** Nationally, in 2023, Latina³ mothers earned 42.7 cents, Native American mothers earned 48.2 cents, Black mothers earned 48.8 cents, other/multiracial mothers earned 61.0 cents, White mothers earned 62.2 cents, and Asian American, Native Hawaiian, and Pacific Islander (AANHPI) mothers earned 73.2 cents for each dollar earned by White⁴ fathers for with all earnings.
- **Discrimination, insufficient work-family support, and an unequal division of child and family care work reduce mothers' earnings and make it harder to fully participate in paid work.** Mothers face the motherhood penalty, where they earn less than fathers and childless workers due to unfair biases and discrimination in the workplace.
- **Mothers need actionable policies to address the intersectional motherhood penalty they face.** Mothers need policies that help them manage caregiving responsibilities, access child care, and receive equal pay protections.



Introduction

Mothers' earnings are crucial for their own and their families' economic security. At the same time, mothers are much more likely than fathers to take on greater responsibility for child and family care, which can reduce the time they have available for paid work.⁵ However, mothers are more likely than ever to be in the labor market: Almost three-quarters (73.7 percent) of prime working-age (25–54) mothers of children under 13 were employed or looking for work in 2024, a higher rate than before the COVID-19 pandemic (71.9 percent).⁶ And, in every state, at least half of all mothers worked full-time year-round, giving them the greatest opportunity for earnings to support themselves and their families.



Yet, whether they work full-time year-round or not, nationally and in every state, mothers earn substantially less than fathers. In 2023, the median annual earnings for mothers amounted to just 61.8 cents on the dollar paid to fathers for all with earnings—\$26,000 less in a single year. And for those who worked full-time year-round, mothers made just 74.3 cents on the dollar paid to fathers—\$19,000 less.⁷ These are substantially worse than the earnings ratios between all women and men with earnings (74.8 cents on the dollar) and all women and men full-time year-round workers (82.7 cents per dollar).⁸ The gaps in earnings are even worse for mothers of color and their families (Figure 1). Mothers' lower earnings contribute to high poverty rates among single mothers.⁹

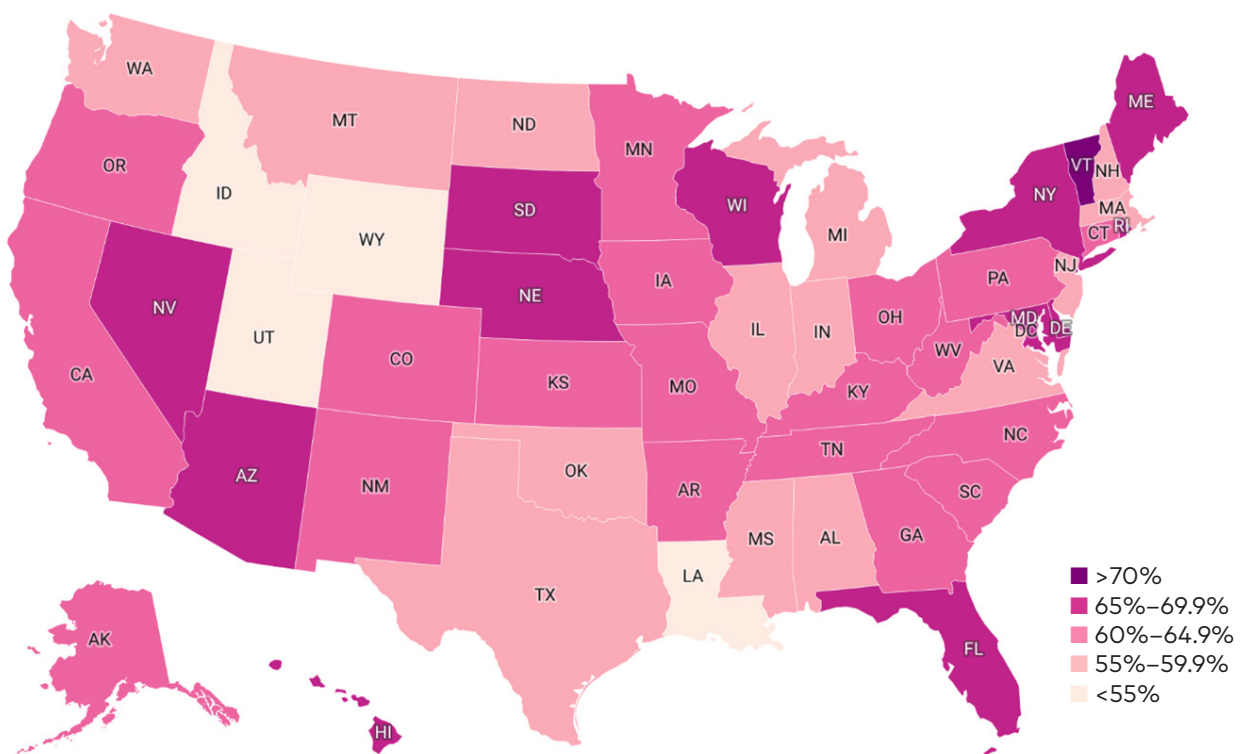
This fact sheet provides national and state-by-state median annual earnings data for mothers and fathers of children younger than 18 years old and highlights parental earnings gaps by race and ethnicity.¹⁰ Median annual earnings are provided in two ways: for all mothers and fathers with earnings, irrespective of how many hours they worked, and for mothers and fathers who worked full-time year-round.¹¹ State-level data are based on the most recently available state-level earnings data from the American Community Survey (ACS) 2019–2023.¹² National data for earnings of mothers and fathers of the largest racial and ethnic groups are based on the 2023 Current Population Survey Annual Social and Economic Supplement (CPS-ASEC).¹³

Mothers Earn Less than Fathers Across All States

Mothers' annual earnings were less than fathers' in every single state and the District of Columbia in 2023 (Table 1 and Map 1).

- **Utah** has the largest wage gap between parents with all earnings. Mothers in Utah were paid only 43.9 cents per dollar paid to fathers, a parental wage gap of 56.1 percent.
- **The District of Columbia** has the highest earnings for parents, but also the largest absolute gap in parents' annual earnings. Mothers earned \$80,000 and fathers earned \$125,000—a wage gap of 64.0 percent. Mothers earned \$45,000 less than fathers.
- **Vermont** has the highest earnings ratio for mothers compared to fathers. Mothers were paid 76.0 cents per dollar that fathers were paid. Mothers in Vermont also had the lowest absolute gap, earning only \$14,417 less than fathers.

Map 1: The Earnings Ratio for Mothers' and Fathers' Median Annual Earnings by State: All Workers with Earnings



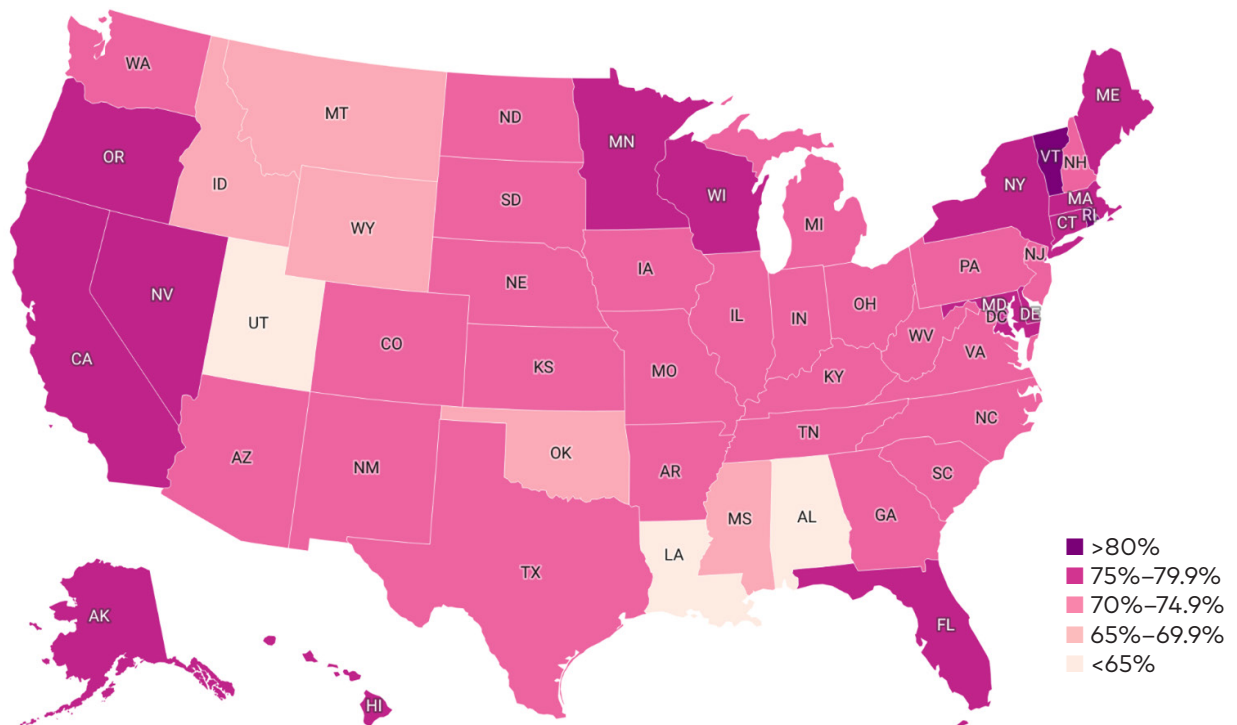
Source: IWPR analysis of 2019–2023 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series Version 16.0; IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org).

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

Mothers who worked full-time year-round also faced lower annual earnings compared to fathers across each state and the District of Columbia (Table 2 and Map 2).

- **Louisiana** has the largest wage gap for mothers compared to fathers working full-time year-round. Mothers earned 62.1 cents per dollar compared to fathers.
- Mothers who worked full-time year-round in the **District of Columbia** face the highest absolute earnings gap. While they earned the most out of every state, they still made \$39,710 less than fathers, earning only 71.6 cents per dollar.
- Mothers in **Vermont** have the highest earnings ratio and the lowest absolute earnings gap per year. They were paid 85.7 cents per dollar compared to fathers and earned \$9,681 less.

Map 2: The Earnings Ratio for Mothers' and Fathers' Median Annual Earnings by State: Full-Time Year-Round Workers



Source: IWPR analysis of 2019–2023 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series Version 16.0; IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org).

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

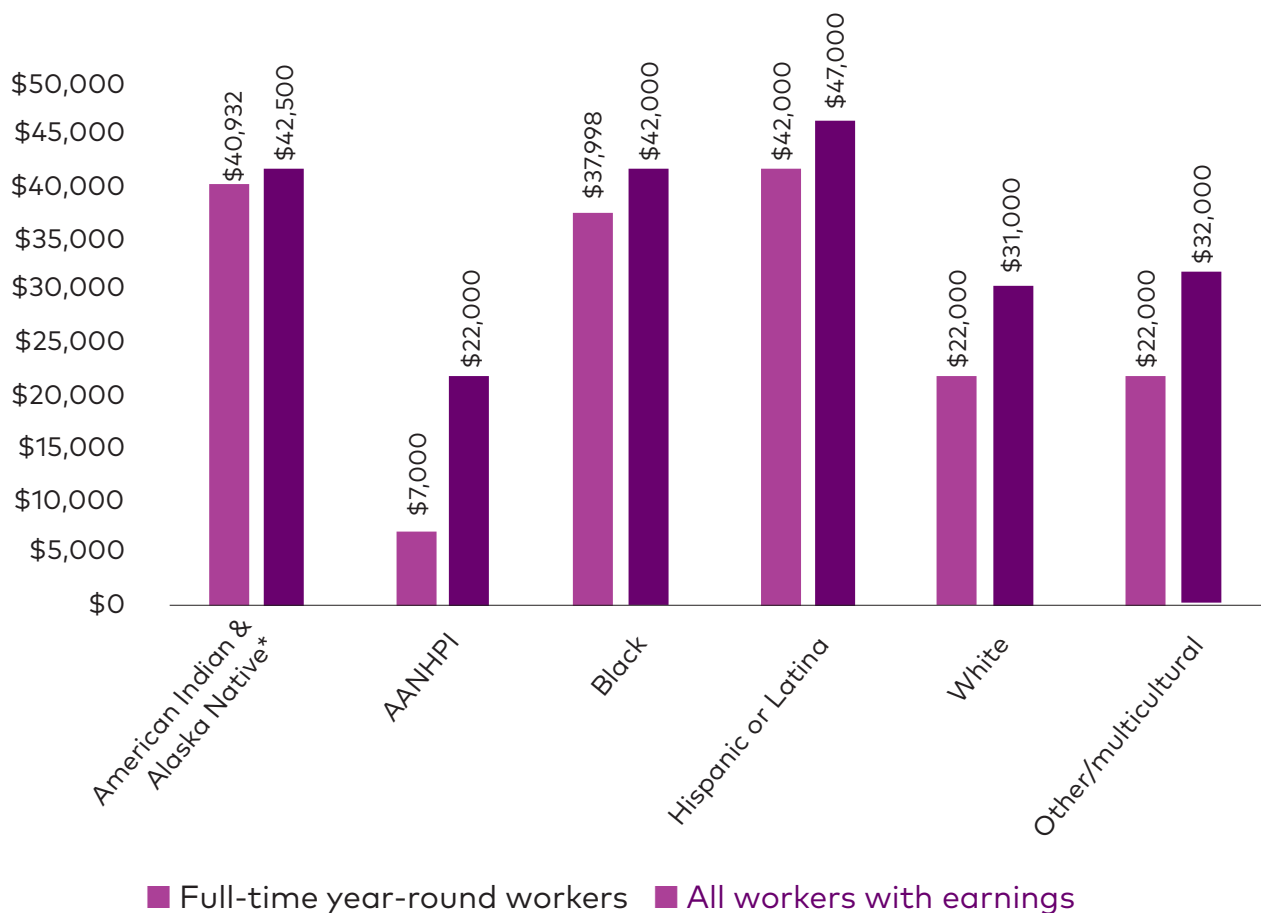
With a rate of 76.0 cents per dollar, **Vermont** was the only state where mothers made more than 70.0 cents per dollar compared to fathers when looking at all with earnings. And only two states—**Vermont** at 85.7 cents and **Rhode Island** at 82.6 cents—saw mothers who worked full-time year-round earn more than 80.0 cents per dollar compared to fathers.

Mother's Wage Gap Across States and Race/Ethnicity

All mothers—regardless of race or ethnicity—earned less than White fathers, but earning differences were disproportionately high for Native, Black, and Latina mothers (Figure 1) when looking at the median for all mothers compared to all fathers. Nationally, Latina mothers only earned 42.7 cents, Native American mothers earned 48.2 cents, and Black mothers earned 48.8 cents per dollar compared to what White fathers made for all with earnings.

Gender racial earnings differences among parents are still relatively high when considering full-time year-round workers. Native American mothers earned less than half, at 49.5 cents per dollar, and Latina and Black mothers earned slightly above half a dollar when compared to White fathers, making 51.7 cents and 56.3 cents, respectively.

Figure 1. The Median Annual Earnings Ratio for Mothers of the Largest Racial/Ethnic Groups (compared to White fathers)



Source: IWPR analysis of 2023 CPS-ASEC IPUMS microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series, Version 12.0; IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, <https://www.ipums.org>) and 2019–2023 ACS IPUMS microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series Version 16.0; IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, <https://www.ipums.org>).

Notes: Mothers and fathers are 16 years and older and defined as having at least one child under 18. Race categories are non-Latina; Latinas may be of any race. Fathers are White, non-Latino. Full-time is at least 35 hours per week; year-round is at least 50 weeks per year. All workers include full-time, part-time, year-round, and part-year workers.

*American Indian and Alaska Native had an insufficient sample size to calculate the national wage gap for Native American mothers. In this analysis, we used the ACS 5-year data to calculate the earnings ratio of Native American mothers who worked full-time year-round only.

The earnings gap for mothers of color compared to White fathers is so large that these mothers lose more in a year than what they earn in wages.¹⁴ When we consider all with earnings, in 2023:

- **Native American mothers** earned \$39,500, making \$42,500 less than White fathers.
- **AANHPI mothers** earned \$60,000, which was \$22,000 less than White fathers.
- **Black mothers** earned \$40,000, but White fathers earned an additional \$42,000.
- **Latina mothers** earned the least—only \$35,000. Latina mothers faced the largest earnings gap, making \$47,000 less than White fathers.
- **White mothers** earned \$51,000, but White fathers earned an additional \$31,000.

When we consider full-time year-round workers, mothers of color lose almost as much as they earn when compared to White fathers' earnings:

- **Native American mothers** earned \$40,068, but White fathers earned an additional \$40,932.
- **AANHPI mothers** earned \$80,000, thus facing the smallest earnings gap because White fathers only earned an additional \$7,000.
- **Black mothers** earned \$49,002, and White fathers earned an additional \$37,998.
- **Latina mothers** earned \$45,000, facing the largest earnings gap compared to White fathers, who earned an additional \$42,000.
- **White mothers** earned \$65,000, while White fathers earned an additional \$22,000.



Racial and ethnic parental earnings are even more unequal across states (Table 3). Among all workers with earnings, compared to White fathers:

- **Native American mothers** face the biggest earnings gap in **Utah**, where they made only 35.4 cents per dollar. Native mothers face the least bad earnings differences in **Oregon** at 59.7 cents per dollar.
- **AANHPI mothers** face the largest wage gap in **Louisiana**, where they were paid only 38.1 cents per dollar. AANHPI mothers have the lowest wage gap in **Delaware** at 92.3 cents per dollar.
- **Black mothers** have the lowest earnings ratio in the **District of Columbia** at 31.4 cents per dollar. Black mothers have the highest earnings ratio in **Missouri** at 54.4 cents per dollar.
- **Latina mothers** in **New Jersey** have the lowest earnings ratio, where they made only 29.8 cents per dollar. Latina mothers earned the most in **West Virginia** at 66.1 cents per dollar.
- **White mothers** in **Utah** have the lowest earnings ratio, where they were paid only 40.4 cents per dollar. White mothers face the lowest wage gap in the **District of Columbia** at 81.7 cents per dollar.

Among full-time year-round workers, the parental gender racial wage gap is smaller but remains substantial in every state and the District of Columbia (Table 4). Compared to White fathers:

- **Native American mothers** have the lowest earnings ratio in **Minnesota**, where they made 44.9 cents per dollar. Native American mothers have the highest earnings ratio in **Oregon** at 64.5 cents per dollar.
- **AANHPI mothers** face the largest wage gap in **Louisiana**, where they were paid 50.7 cents per dollar. AANHPI mothers outearned White fathers in four states: **Delaware, Michigan, North Carolina, and Virginia**. AANHPI mothers earned the most in **Delaware** at 112.5 cents per dollar.
- **Black mothers** earned the least in the **District of Columbia**, making only 37.5 cents per dollar. Black mothers have the lowest wage gap in **Nebraska** at 62.5 cents per dollar.
- **Latina mothers** face the largest earnings gap, where they earned only 37.4 cents per dollar in **California**. Latina mothers have the highest earnings ratio in **Hawaii** at 57.8 cents per dollar.
- **White mothers** face the largest wage gap in **Utah** at 62.9 cents per dollar. White mothers have the lowest wage gap in the **District of Columbia** at 87.8 cents per dollar.



The Majority of Mothers Work Full-Time Year-Round, but Are Much Less Likely to Do So than Fathers in Every State

Mothers are much more likely than fathers to take on greater responsibility for child and family care, which can reduce the time they have available for paid work.¹⁵ Women spend 37 percent more time on household and care work compared to their male counterparts.¹⁶ Yet, in every state, at least half of all mothers worked full-time year-round. The likelihood of mothers working full-time year-round varied from just over half (51.0 percent) in **Utah** to almost three-quarters (72.8 percent) in the **District of Columbia** (Table 5). Mothers in **Utah, Idaho, and Washington** are least likely to work full-time year-round. Mothers in the **District of Columbia, Louisiana, and Hawaii** are most likely to work full-time year-round. Policies within each state can impact mothers' ability to work full-time. For example, the District of Columbia offers universal pre-K, with an enrollment of 84 percent of all four-year-olds in 2019–2020, the highest level of enrollment in the country. Utah does not offer universal pre-K, and just 3 percent of four-year-olds are enrolled.¹⁷



Reasons Behind Mothers' Lower Earnings

Having and caring for children impacts women's lives, including their work hours, as previously noted, and their opportunities in the labor market. Research has demonstrated a clear "motherhood penalty" that begins upon the birth of a first child and continues throughout mothers' lives. This earnings penalty exists both compared to fathers, as data here show, and compared to childless women,¹⁸ even when controlling for factors that affect earnings like education and occupation. These lower earnings are critical to family economic security, as women's earnings are the single most important factor that has maintained family incomes in recent decades.¹⁹ Understanding both the causes and consequences of the motherhood penalty is core to developing solutions to put women with children on equal ground compared to other workers in the labor market *and* to ensure families have income to support their well-being.

Disproportionate Care Responsibilities

Caregiving for children takes a considerable amount of time in families, particularly for young children who require intensive monitoring. Mothers spend more time on caregiving activities than fathers. On average,

mothers of children aged 12 or younger spent 2.5 hours primarily on child care compared to 1.6 hours a day by fathers. Additionally, mothers spent many more hours supervising and being with children while doing other tasks (such as cooking, cleaning, or working from home), adding 6.5 hours per day on average for mothers, compared with 5 hours for fathers. Paying mothers at the median wage rate for women for their unpaid time spent exclusively on caregiving would result in \$450 billion of additional economic activity per year in the United States.²⁰

This unequal distribution of unpaid work limits women's paid work opportunities and results in mothers being more likely to work part-time or not work at all. When considering all family caregiving that women take the primary responsibility for, recent estimates have found that mothers lose \$237,000 in lifetime earnings.²¹ While child care offers intrinsic rewards, the bind mothers face often makes this a constrained choice and limits their labor market experience.

Labor Market Experience

One primary factor that influences mothers' earnings disparities compared to fathers and other women is whether having children has shaped their labor market experience, including both their working hours and time spent away from the labor market. Table 5 shows that mothers are substantially more likely to work part-time compared to fathers in every state. Controlling for labor market experience reveals that reduced years of work leads to lower earnings for high-income White women but less so for mothers of color.²² Yet, women of color face higher wage gaps compared to White men, which is reflected in the larger pay gap for mothers of color.

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Number of Children

The number of children a mother has also impacts the wage penalties she faces. As fertility rates have declined in the United States,²³ the penalty associated with having just one child has increased, and the penalty associated with having two or more children has decreased,²⁴ compared to earlier eras where the number of children was positively associated with a greater wage penalty. This is perhaps counterintuitive, as the number of hours mothers spend caregiving increases with the number of children.²⁵ However, there are so-called fixed costs associated with raising children, such as where one lives and work schedule limitations, that can shape labor market choices and thus opportunities, regardless of the number of children one has.



Other factors, like the average age of having one's first child and fertility differences by location²⁶ and income level,²⁷ may affect this new trend on the impact of the number of children. For example, the absolute earnings loss between mothers and fathers who work full-time year-round is the greatest in the District of Columbia, where mothers also earn the most and where median incomes for all workers are the highest in the United States.²⁸ Washington, DC, also has one of the lowest fertility rates.²⁹

Discrimination and Biases Against Mothers

Another significant factor that causes the motherhood penalty is discrimination against mothers regardless of labor market experience and productivity in the workplace. There is a bias against mothers in the workplace due to a perception that they may be less productive³⁰ than childless workers and fathers. These biases are stronger in jobs that are defined by having greater time pressures, need for teamwork, and travel expectations—regardless of professional status between managerial and non-managerial jobs.³¹ Even when controlling for objective measures of job skills and productivity, women with children still can't win: Mothers who demonstrate unambiguous high performance were associated with lower likability in the workplace in one experimental study.³² Additionally, research has found that fathers earn a "fatherhood bonus,"³³ where their wages increase after having children compared to mothers and men without children.

Impact of the COVID-19 Pandemic

Finally, as the COVID-19 pandemic shook up the entire labor market and exacerbated caregiving responsibilities within families, mothers' employment was also impacted. Fathers were less likely to be laid off compared to mothers and childless workers.³⁴ Within the first year of the pandemic, mothers with young children had greater reductions in their employment-to-population ratio compared to fathers, with no impact on childless workers.³⁵ For more educated mothers, there was an increase in the motherhood wage penalty in the first few years of the pandemic, compared to less educated mothers.³⁶ However, research from the Institute for Women's Policy Research found that mothers' employment recovered by 2023, as child care centers also recovered from the impact of early pandemic closures.³⁷ IWPR's research also found that the disparity in caregiving time between mothers and fathers lessened through the pandemic, but was not eliminated.³⁸

Mothers and Their Families Need Policies to Tackle the Motherhood Penalty

Caregiving responsibilities and attitudes about motherhood are two primary factors that contribute to the persistence of the motherhood penalty in the United States. Policies that help families navigate and access care and promote more gender equity in caregiving in heteronormative families can help mothers overcome wage penalties and promote family economic well-being. Addressing the myriad of ways that gender discrimination impacts women can help alleviate biases toward mothers in the labor market.

Improve Access to Paid Family Leave, Paid Sick Time, and Fair Scheduling

The ability for mothers to manage both workplace responsibilities and child care is dependent on their ability to take time off as needed for caregiving while maintaining their job and income. Paid family and medical leave (with a sustainable funding source) and a guarantee for paid sick time would allow workers to not have to choose between caring for their children and supporting their families. Establishing these as universal workplace benefits—accessible to mothers and fathers alike—would help balance caregiving between parents and reduce discrimination against mothers, whom employers may believe are more likely to take time off.



Mothers also need to be able to rely on fair scheduling practices to ensure they can meet their caregiving responsibilities. Advance notice from employers on their work schedule and the ability to control one's own schedule are helpful tools for mothers to be able to manage child care. Legislation is needed to both prevent unfair scheduling practices and promote flexible scheduling practices across workplaces so mothers have greater access to opportunities.

Expand Access to Affordable Child Care

Many families rely on paid child care to allow parents to work, but these costs are prohibitively expensive for most families. Subsidies to low-income families for child care do not meet the needs of all families who need support due to a lack of federal investments. The cost of child care and inadequacy of existing programs are particularly harmful for Black, Latino, and Native American families, whose lower earnings make paid child care even harder to afford. A wide variety of policies are needed to expand access to child care so that mothers can increase their labor force participation and spend less of their income on child care, including investing in the child care workforce and protecting and expanding funding to existing programs like Head Start and the Child Care Development Fund.

Ensure and Enforce Pay Equity

Mothers deserve equal pay, but inadequate antidiscrimination protections and unfair pay practices mean that disparities persist. Relying on salary history to set pay levels may be particularly harmful for mothers, who are more likely to take time out of the labor force for caregiving. Existing equal pay protections can be improved and better enforced, and new policies that promote women's ability to bargain for fair earnings, like salary history bans and salary transparency laws, should work together to ensure mothers are on equal footing with fathers and workers without children. It is also important to collect and disaggregate salary data to ensure federal agencies can enforce laws that promote fair pay. Improving information is a critical tool to push back against the biases that harm mothers in the workplace.

To learn more about IWPR's federal policy recommendations on Equal Pay, Better Workplaces, Paid Leave, and Promoting Access to Care, go to iwpr.org/federalpolicyagenda/.

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Table 1. Median Annual Earnings for Mothers and Fathers: All Workers with Earnings

State	Mothers	Fathers	Earnings gap each year	Earnings ratio	Ranking of earnings ratio
Alabama	\$33,308	\$60,000	\$26,693	55.5%	47
Alaska	\$41,650	\$69,000	\$27,350	60.4%	29
Arizona	\$39,393	\$60,000	\$20,607	65.7%	11
Arkansas	\$33,320	\$52,063	\$18,743	64.0%	17
California	\$42,000	\$68,000	\$26,000	61.8%	25
Colorado	\$45,000	\$75,000	\$30,000	60.0%	31
Connecticut	\$49,980	\$80,000	\$30,020	62.5%	24
Delaware	\$43,733	\$66,074	\$22,341	66.2%	8
District of Columbia	\$80,000	\$125,000	\$45,000	64.0%	17
Florida	\$36,444	\$55,000	\$18,556	66.3%	7
Georgia	\$38,000	\$60,000	\$22,000	63.3%	19
Hawaii	\$43,895	\$67,000	\$23,105	65.5%	13
Idaho	\$32,000	\$60,000	\$28,000	53.3%	49
Illinois	\$41,650	\$70,793	\$29,143	58.8%	40
Indiana	\$36,444	\$61,903	\$25,459	58.9%	39
Iowa	\$40,000	\$62,000	\$22,000	64.5%	16
Kansas	\$37,797	\$61,903	\$24,106	61.1%	28
Kentucky	\$35,397	\$56,275	\$20,878	62.9%	22
Louisiana	\$33,320	\$62,475	\$29,155	53.3%	49
Maine	\$41,129	\$60,777	\$19,648	67.7%	3
Maryland	\$53,095	\$80,000	\$26,905	66.4%	6
Massachusetts	\$52,063	\$87,465	\$35,402	59.5%	36
Michigan	\$37,756	\$64,894	\$27,138	58.2%	44
Minnesota	\$47,195	\$72,888	\$25,693	64.8%	15
Mississippi	\$31,238	\$53,095	\$21,857	58.8%	40
Missouri	\$38,006	\$60,000	\$21,994	63.3%	19
Montana	\$35,397	\$60,000	\$24,603	59.0%	38
Nebraska	\$41,081	\$62,475	\$21,394	65.8%	9
Nevada	\$37,142	\$55,186	\$18,044	67.3%	4
New Hampshire	\$47,500	\$80,000	\$32,500	59.4%	37
New Jersey	\$50,000	\$85,000	\$35,000	58.8%	40
New Mexico	\$33,765	\$52,063	\$18,298	64.9%	14
New York	\$46,000	\$70,000	\$24,000	65.7%	11
North Carolina	\$37,756	\$59,652	\$21,896	63.3%	19
North Dakota	\$40,518	\$70,000	\$29,482	57.9%	45
Ohio	\$38,936	\$64,894	\$25,958	60.0%	31
Oklahoma	\$33,000	\$55,219	\$22,219	59.8%	34
Oregon	\$40,000	\$65,000	\$25,000	61.5%	26
Pennsylvania	\$41,296	\$68,723	\$27,427	60.1%	30
Rhode Island	\$46,146	\$67,681	\$21,535	68.2%	2
South Carolina	\$36,000	\$60,000	\$24,000	60.0%	31
South Dakota	\$39,500	\$58,994	\$19,494	67.0%	5
Tennessee	\$35,397	\$56,275	\$20,878	62.9%	22
Texas	\$36,300	\$61,903	\$25,603	58.6%	43
Utah	\$32,000	\$72,888	\$40,888	43.9%	51
Vermont	\$45,583	\$60,000	\$14,417	76.0%	1
Virginia	\$45,020	\$75,513	\$30,493	59.6%	35
Washington	\$43,669	\$78,094	\$34,425	55.9%	46
West Virginia	\$33,745	\$55,000	\$21,255	61.4%	27
Wisconsin	\$42,769	\$65,000	\$22,231	65.8%	9
Wyoming	\$35,397	\$65,000	\$29,603	54.5%	48
All (2019–2023)	\$40,000	\$65,000	\$25,000	61.5%	n/a

Source: IWPR analysis of 2019–2023 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series Version 16.0; IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org).

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

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

State	Mothers	Fathers	Earnings gap each year	Earnings ratio	Ranking of earnings ratio
Alabama	\$41,650	\$64,894	\$23,244	64.2%	49
Alaska	\$58,310	\$74,000	\$15,690	78.8%	4
Arizona	\$49,555	\$67,000	\$17,445	74.0%	19
Arkansas	\$41,200	\$56,275	\$15,075	73.2%	28
California	\$60,000	\$78,094	\$18,094	76.8%	10
Colorado	\$60,000	\$82,162	\$22,162	73.0%	30
Connecticut	\$69,781	\$90,000	\$20,219	77.5%	8
Delaware	\$56,000	\$72,888	\$16,888	76.8%	10
District of Columbia	\$100,290	\$140,000	\$39,710	71.6%	36
Florida	\$46,200	\$60,000	\$13,800	77.0%	9
Georgia	\$47,785	\$66,074	\$18,289	72.3%	34
Hawaii	\$56,000	\$72,032	\$16,032	77.7%	7
Idaho	\$44,982	\$65,000	\$20,018	69.2%	46
Illinois	\$56,000	\$78,785	\$22,785	71.1%	42
Indiana	\$47,195	\$65,599	\$18,404	71.9%	35
Iowa	\$49,980	\$67,000	\$17,020	74.6%	17
Kansas	\$47,800	\$67,000	\$19,200	71.3%	41
Kentucky	\$45,000	\$61,903	\$16,903	72.7%	32
Louisiana	\$42,000	\$67,681	\$25,681	62.1%	51
Maine	\$52,063	\$66,744	\$14,681	78.0%	6
Maryland	\$70,000	\$88,506	\$18,506	79.1%	3
Massachusetts	\$75,000	\$98,919	\$23,919	75.8%	14
Michigan	\$51,773	\$70,793	\$19,020	73.1%	29
Minnesota	\$60,000	\$79,135	\$19,135	75.8%	14
Mississippi	\$39,393	\$58,994	\$19,601	66.8%	48
Missouri	\$47,195	\$65,000	\$17,805	72.6%	33
Montana	\$46,146	\$66,000	\$19,854	69.9%	44
Nebraska	\$50,000	\$67,530	\$17,530	74.0%	19
Nevada	\$47,195	\$62,475	\$15,280	75.5%	16
New Hampshire	\$61,903	\$84,413	\$22,510	73.3%	25
New Jersey	\$70,000	\$95,000	\$25,000	73.7%	23
New Mexico	\$43,895	\$58,994	\$15,099	74.4%	18
New York	\$63,028	\$80,000	\$16,972	78.8%	4
North Carolina	\$48,000	\$65,000	\$17,000	73.8%	21
North Dakota	\$50,735	\$71,846	\$21,111	70.6%	43
Ohio	\$51,325	\$70,000	\$18,675	73.3%	25
Oklahoma	\$41,650	\$60,000	\$18,350	69.4%	45
Oregon	\$56,000	\$73,158	\$17,158	76.5%	12
Pennsylvania	\$55,000	\$75,000	\$20,000	73.3%	25
Rhode Island	\$60,393	\$73,158	\$12,765	82.6%	2
South Carolina	\$45,000	\$63,000	\$18,000	71.4%	39
South Dakota	\$45,426	\$61,903	\$16,477	73.4%	24
Tennessee	\$45,000	\$61,000	\$16,000	73.8%	21
Texas	\$48,397	\$67,681	\$19,284	71.5%	38
Utah	\$49,980	\$78,000	\$28,020	64.1%	50
Vermont	\$58,000	\$67,681	\$9,681	85.7%	1
Virginia	\$59,000	\$82,592	\$23,592	71.4%	39
Washington	\$62,475	\$87,311	\$24,836	71.6%	36
West Virginia	\$43,733	\$60,000	\$16,267	72.9%	31
Wisconsin	\$53,104	\$70,000	\$16,896	75.9%	13
Wyoming	\$46,856	\$69,781	\$22,925	67.1%	47
All (2019–2023)	\$52,063	\$71,973	\$19,910	72.3%	n/a

Source: IWPR analysis of 2019–2023 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series Version 16.0; IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org).

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

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Table 3. Wage Gap by State for Mothers by Race/Ethnicity (compared to White fathers): All Workers with Earnings

State	American Indian & Alaska Native	AANHPI	Black	Hispanic/Latina	White	Other/multiracial
Alabama	n/a	65.9%	44.4%	39.6%	55.6%	45.7%
Alaska	43.5%	48.0%	n/a	40.4%	58.7%	57.6%
Arizona	41.8%	64.9%	49.4%	41.6%	59.4%	59.7%
Arkansas	n/a	59.2%	50.5%	49.3%	62.7%	58.0%
California	42.0%	65.0%	43.7%	31.2%	60.0%	52.1%
Colorado	n/a	53.1%	35.3%	37.6%	58.5%	51.1%
Connecticut	n/a	73.7%	40.8%	31.5%	65.8%	47.4%
Delaware	n/a	92.3%	45.6%	36.9%	67.9%	53.8%
District of Columbia	n/a	76.5%	31.4%	42.4%	81.7%	n/a
Florida	56.3%	61.1%	46.6%	44.6%	62.0%	52.9%
Georgia	n/a	69.4%	49.2%	39.1%	59.7%	54.2%
Hawaii	n/a	53.1%	n/a	50.0%	61.9%	57.3%
Idaho	n/a	57.7%	n/a	41.6%	50.8%	52.3%
Illinois	n/a	75.6%	42.4%	38.7%	58.1%	50.4%
Indiana	n/a	63.3%	46.3%	45.2%	59.6%	55.0%
Iowa	n/a	56.1%	40.0%	46.2%	65.3%	59.4%
Kansas	n/a	66.6%	47.2%	42.9%	60.1%	53.3%
Kentucky	n/a	61.8%	50.1%	47.7%	61.8%	50.4%
Louisiana	38.1%	38.1%	38.1%	33.9%	56.5%	44.1%
Maine	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	66.7%	50.0%
Maryland	n/a	73.0%	49.0%	32.0%	64.4%	55.0%
Massachusetts	n/a	65.0%	41.3%	30.4%	63.3%	39.0%
Michigan	44.3%	81.3%	46.2%	44.3%	59.1%	52.3%
Minnesota	36.6%	58.6%	37.9%	38.0%	65.1%	52.1%
Mississippi	n/a	72.9%	45.1%	38.3%	60.7%	55.0%
Missouri	n/a	66.1%	54.4%	48.0%	64.0%	56.0%
Montana	49.7%	n/a	n/a	53.0%	59.6%	38.7%
Nebraska	n/a	50.0%	48.6%	45.7%	64.3%	51.4%
Nevada	47.8%	56.5%	47.8%	42.2%	60.8%	48.7%
New Hampshire	n/a	85.4%	n/a	40.9%	60.4%	58.5%
New Jersey	n/a	81.0%	40.5%	29.8%	60.2%	46.3%
New Mexico	42.9%	81.4%	n/a	44.6%	57.1%	46.1%
New York	43.5%	55.5%	49.0%	38.3%	65.2%	51.8%
North Carolina	44.1%	81.5%	49.1%	37.8%	61.8%	52.3%
North Dakota	44.6%	n/a	n/a	n/a	59.9%	42.9%
Ohio	n/a	67.7%	46.2%	43.1%	61.0%	50.2%
Oklahoma	50.4%	50.0%	48.4%	41.9%	58.1%	53.3%
Oregon	59.7%	69.4%	49.2%	41.0%	59.7%	55.0%
Pennsylvania	n/a	71.2%	48.4%	40.3%	61.5%	49.8%
Rhode Island	n/a	60.6%	52.0%	35.1%	67.5%	44.3%
South Carolina	n/a	69.4%	45.3%	36.8%	61.5%	48.5%
South Dakota	47.7%	n/a	n/a	49.8%	67.3%	43.6%
Tennessee	n/a	72.4%	50.9%	40.4%	60.7%	58.2%
Texas	46.6%	65.7%	43.5%	33.6%	56.4%	51.3%
Utah	35.4%	46.8%	n/a	35.2%	40.4%	45.0%
Vermont	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	74.0%	n/a
Virginia	n/a	82.4%	44.7%	36.8%	58.9%	58.9%
Washington	40.5%	68.6%	44.5%	35.1%	54.1%	51.2%
West Virginia	n/a	n/a	53.6%	66.1%	60.3%	44.6%
Wisconsin	41.0%	57.1%	45.7%	45.5%	65.7%	52.1%
Wyoming	n/a	n/a	n/a	50.0%	53.5%	32.4%
All 2019–2023	42.7%	74.7%	46.7%	40.0%	60.0%	53.3%

Source: IWPR analysis of 2019–2023 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series Version 16.0; IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org).

Notes: Mothers and fathers are 16 years and older and defined as having at least one child under the age of 18. Race categories are non-Latina; Latina may be of any race. Fathers are White, non-Hispanic. All workers include full-time, part-time, year-round, and part-year workers.

Sample sizes insufficient for calculating median annual earnings are indicated with n/a.

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Table 4. Wage Gap by State for Mothers by Race/Ethnicity (compared to White fathers): Full-Time Year-Round Workers

State	American Indian & Alaska Native	AANHPI	Black	Hispanic/Latina	White	Other/multiracial
Alabama	n/a	74.4%	50.0%	48.2%	65.5%	64.3%
Alaska	58.3%	51.3%	n/a	n/a	79.8%	58.3%
Arizona	47.5%	84.3%	51.8%	48.2%	71.1%	66.3%
Arkansas	n/a	78.1%	58.7%	51.4%	73.3%	63.6%
California	46.7%	79.0%	50.3%	37.4%	74.8%	70.0%
Colorado	n/a	71.1%	47.4%	47.4%	71.2%	67.1%
Connecticut	n/a	89.8%	49.9%	41.5%	80.0%	67.1%
Delaware	n/a	112.5%	55.1%	56.0%	77.4%	n/a
District of Columbia	n/a	n/a	37.5%	54.5%	87.8%	n/a
Florida	n/a	77.7%	52.0%	53.3%	70.7%	63.0%
Georgia	n/a	96.3%	55.3%	44.4%	72.4%	65.8%
Hawaii	n/a	57.7%	n/a	57.8%	71.3%	66.7%
Idaho	n/a	n/a	n/a	50.0%	67.5%	63.4%
Illinois	n/a	89.5%	50.3%	46.1%	69.8%	65.9%
Indiana	n/a	77.2%	57.1%	52.3%	71.4%	65.9%
Iowa	n/a	74.3%	49.6%	51.4%	74.3%	67.1%
Kansas	n/a	73.2%	56.5%	52.1%	71.3%	63.4%
Kentucky	n/a	70.6%	58.6%	54.5%	71.6%	58.6%
Louisiana	n/a	50.7%	46.1%	47.2%	63.9%	60.0%
Maine	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	79.2%	n/a
Maryland	n/a	86.5%	56.7%	40.3%	76.8%	73.5%
Massachusetts	n/a	85.1%	47.0%	42.6%	77.1%	53.7%
Michigan	56.9%	103.9%	57.4%	56.9%	75.2%	66.2%
Minnesota	44.9%	64.9%	52.1%	48.9%	76.9%	65.2%
Mississippi	n/a	n/a	51.6%	45.7%	69.7%	63.5%
Missouri	n/a	88.4%	60.4%	56.3%	74.0%	66.6%
Montana	53.2%	n/a	n/a	n/a	70.9%	n/a
Nebraska	n/a	65.5%	62.5%	53.1%	75.0%	65.5%
Nevada	n/a	67.7%	49.3%	46.6%	70.5%	61.6%
New Hampshire	n/a	n/a	n/a	47.3%	72.6%	72.1%
New Jersey	n/a	90.1%	47.2%	37.8%	72.0%	63.0%
New Mexico	50.0%	77.1%	n/a	50.8%	69.8%	61.3%
New York	n/a	75.5%	56.2%	51.2%	78.1%	64.0%
North Carolina	50.6%	108.1%	56.9%	45.8%	74.0%	65.6%
North Dakota	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	72.0%	n/a
Ohio	n/a	84.9%	54.9%	57.6%	75.5%	66.4%
Oklahoma	58.0%	66.9%	58.6%	47.6%	66.9%	65.4%
Oregon	64.5%	76.0%	59.0%	50.0%	75.0%	70.3%
Pennsylvania	n/a	93.9%	55.8%	48.9%	76.2%	63.5%
Rhode Island	n/a	72.0%	n/a	45.9%	83.8%	60.0%
South Carolina	n/a	82.7%	50.8%	49.4%	72.2%	61.7%
South Dakota	57.8%	n/a	n/a	n/a	76.2%	n/a
Tennessee	n/a	94.5%	60.0%	48.0%	70.8%	67.5%
Texas	59.0%	81.3%	50.0%	40.6%	66.3%	62.5%
Utah	n/a	60.4%	n/a	44.4%	62.9%	59.2%
Vermont	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	84.8%	n/a
Virginia	n/a	104.9%	51.0%	49.7%	71.3%	72.9%
Washington	48.3%	87.1%	50.9%	42.9%	71.7%	67.8%
West Virginia	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	71.3%	77.0%
Wisconsin	n/a	75.5%	55.6%	56.7%	77.2%	66.4%
Wyoming	n/a	n/a	n/a	55.9%	69.2%	n/a
All 2019–2023	49.5%	94.7%	52.8%	49.4%	72.8%	67.9%

Source: IWPR analysis of 2019–2023 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series Version 16.0; IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org).

Notes: Mothers and fathers are 16 years and older and defined as having at least one child under the age of 18. Race categories are non-Latina; Latina may be of any race. Fathers are White, non-Hispanic. Full-time is at least 35 hours per week; year-round is at least 50 weeks per year.

Sample sizes insufficient for calculating median annual earnings are indicated with n/a.

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Table 5. Full-Time Year-Round Workers as Percent of All Workers with Earnings for Mothers and Fathers, by State

State	% of mothers working FTYR	% of fathers working FTYR	Percentage point difference	Rank of difference
Alabama	66.7%	86.8%	20.1%	25
Alaska	56.1%	74.2%	18.1%	14
Arizona	64.9%	85.1%	20.2%	26
Arkansas	68.0%	85.7%	17.7%	12
California	61.4%	81.2%	19.8%	21
Colorado	62.2%	84.4%	22.2%	40
Connecticut	62.3%	82.6%	20.3%	27
Delaware	68.6%	84.4%	15.8%	6
District of Columbia	72.8%	83.7%	10.9%	1
Florida	67.4%	84.0%	16.6%	9
Georgia	68.3%	85.8%	17.5%	11
Hawaii	66.1%	81.5%	15.4%	3
Idaho	54.7%	84.0%	29.3%	50
Illinois	65.4%	84.3%	18.9%	20
Indiana	62.5%	85.0%	22.5%	43
Iowa	66.5%	86.3%	19.8%	21
Kansas	66.4%	87.1%	20.7%	31
Kentucky	65.3%	83.6%	18.3%	16
Louisiana	67.7%	83.0%	15.3%	2
Maine	62.5%	83.1%	20.6%	29
Maryland	69.9%	86.2%	16.3%	8
Massachusetts	61.1%	83.5%	22.4%	42
Michigan	59.9%	81.9%	22.0%	39
Minnesota	62.6%	83.9%	21.3%	36
Mississippi	69.8%	85.3%	15.5%	4
Missouri	67.2%	85.8%	18.6%	17
Montana	58.2%	81.7%	23.5%	47
Nebraska	68.4%	88.2%	19.8%	21
Nevada	64.6%	80.1%	15.5%	4
New Hampshire	63.1%	86.4%	23.3%	46
New Jersey	63.1%	83.7%	20.6%	29
New Mexico	63.6%	82.2%	18.6%	17
New York	63.1%	81.2%	18.1%	14
North Carolina	64.9%	85.4%	20.5%	28
North Dakota	64.3%	87.0%	22.7%	44
Ohio	63.1%	84.6%	21.5%	37
Oklahoma	66.2%	84.9%	18.7%	19
Oregon	57.5%	80.2%	22.7%	44
Pennsylvania	64.0%	84.9%	20.9%	33
Rhode Island	63.5%	84.3%	20.8%	32
South Carolina	65.5%	86.5%	21.0%	35
South Dakota	66.9%	88.5%	21.6%	38
Tennessee	64.4%	85.3%	20.9%	33
Texas	67.1%	84.8%	17.7%	12
Utah	51.0%	86.7%	35.7%	51
Vermont	64.4%	80.4%	16.0%	7
Virginia	67.6%	87.5%	19.9%	24
Washington	58.0%	81.8%	23.8%	49
West Virginia	65.5%	82.9%	17.4%	10
Wisconsin	64.2%	86.5%	22.3%	41
Wyoming	60.5%	84.1%	23.6%	48
All 2019–2023	64.3%	84.0%	19.7%	n/a

Source: IWPR analysis of 2019–2023 American Community Survey microdata (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series Version 16.0; IPUMS USA, University of Minnesota, www.ipums.org).

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

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Endnotes

¹ IWPR analysis of American Community Survey (ACS) 1-Year 2023 data.

² Georgia Poyatzis and Gretchen Livingston, "We analyzed 5 years' worth of childcare prices. Here's what we found," blog (Washington DC: US Department of Labor, 2024), <https://blog.dol.gov/2024/09/30/we-analyzed-5-years-worth-of-childcare-prices-heres-what-we-found>.

³ In this fact sheet, we use the term Latina to refer to Latina or Latina women.

⁴ In this fact sheet, White men and women are defined as White, non-Latino/a.

⁵ Ariane Hegewisch and Tanima Ahmed, "Care Work After COVID-19: Men Help More, but Women Still Carry the Load," IWPR quick figure #Q114 (Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2025), <https://iwpr.org/care-work-after-covid-19-men-help-more-but-women-still-carry-the-load/>

⁶ Ariane Hegewisch, Martha Susana Jaimes, Melissa Mahoney, and Cristy Mendoza, "Women at Work Five Years Since the Start of the COVID-19 Pandemic: Any Progress?," IWPR fact sheet #C531 (Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2025), <https://iwpr.org/women-at-work-five-years-since-the-start-of-the-covid-19-pandemic-any-progress-2/>.

⁷ IWPR analysis of ACS 1-Year 2023 data.

⁸ Ariane Hegewisch, Miranda Peterson, and Nina Besser Doorley, "Gender and Racial Wage Gaps Worsened in 2023 and Pay Equity Still Decades Away," IWPR fact sheet #C527 (Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2024), <https://iwpr.org/wp-content/uploads/2024/09/IWPR-National-Wage-Gap-Fact-Sheet-2024.pdf>.

⁹ US Census Bureau, Table S1702, 2023, Poverty Status in the Past 12 months of Families, <https://data.census.gov/table?q=s1702>.

¹⁰ The median provides the pay of the typical worker; it captures the point in the earnings distribution at which half earn less and half earn more.

¹¹ Full-time is at least 35 hours per week; year-round is working at least 50 weeks per year.

¹² Earnings by state are calculated using the INCEARN variable.

¹³ The INCEARN variable does not exist in CPS data, thus we used the sum of INCWAGE, INCBUS, and INCFARM to capture the earnings data and mirror ACS INCEARN variable.

¹⁴ The parental earnings and their respective earnings gap are reflective of the data used in Figure 1.

¹⁵ Hegewisch and Ahmed, "Care Work After COVID-19."

¹⁶ Elyse Shaw, C. Nicole Mason, Valerie Lacarte, and Erika Jauregui, *Holding Up Half the Sky: Mothers as Workers, Primary Caregivers, and Breadwinners During COVID-19*, IWPR report #Q081 (Washington DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2020), <https://iwpr.org/holding-up-half-the-sky-mothers-as-workers-primary-caregivers-breadwinners-during-covid-19-2/>.

¹⁷ Libby Stanford, "Which States Offer Universal Pre-K? It's More Complicated Than You Might Think," *Education Week*, January 25, 2023, <https://www.edweek.org/teaching-learning/which-states-offer-universal-pre-k-its-more-complicated-than-you-might-think/2023/01>.

¹⁸ Michelle J. Budig and Paula England, "The wage penalty for motherhood," *American Sociological Review* 66, no. 2 (2001): 204-225, <https://www.jstor.org/stable/2657415?origin=JSTOR-pdf>; for a recent update, including estimates by race/ethnicity, see Julie Kashen and Jessica Milli, *The Build Back Better Plan Would Reduce the Motherhood Penalty*, report (Washington DC: Century Foundation, 2021), <https://tcf.org/content/report/build-back-better-plan-reduce-motherhood-penalty/>.

¹⁹ Heather Boushey and Kavya Vaghul, "Women have made the difference for family economic security," issue brief (Washington DC: Washington Center for Equitable Growth, 2016), <https://equitablegrowth.org/women-have-made-the-difference-for-family-economic-security/#:~:text=Women%20not%20only%20increased%20their,additional%20hours%20alone%20added%20%241%2C473>.

²⁰ **Ariane Hegewisch and Tanima Ahmed, "Mothers' Unpaid Child Care Work Contributes Billions to the Economy," IWPR quick figure #Q116 (Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research, 2025); <url to come>.**

- ²¹ Richard W. Johnson, Karen E. Smith, and Barbara A. Butrica, "Lifetime employment-related costs to women of providing family care," report (Washington DC: Urban Institute, 2023), <https://www.urban.org/research/publication/lifetime-employment-related-costs-women-providing-family-care>.
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