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ABSTRACT

The Transmission of Women's Fertility, Human Capital and Work Orientation across Immigrant Generations*

Using 1995–2006 Current Population Survey and 1970–2000 Census data, we study the intergenerational transmission of fertility, human capital and work orientation of immigrants to their US-born children. We find that second-generation women's fertility and labor supply are significantly positively affected by the immigrant generation's fertility and labor supply respectively, with the effect of mother's fertility and labor supply larger than that of women from the father's source country. The second generation's education levels are also significantly positively affected by that of their parents, with a stronger effect of father's than mother's education. Second-generation women's schooling levels are negatively affected by immigrant fertility, suggesting a quality-quantity tradeoff for immigrant families. We find higher transmission rates for immigrant fertility to the second generation than we do for labor supply or education: after one generation, 40-65% of any immigrant excess fertility will remain, but only 12-18% of any immigrant annual hours shortfall and 18-36% of any immigrant educational shortfall. These results suggest a considerable amount of assimilation across generations toward native levels of schooling and labor supply, although fertility effects show more persistence.

JEL Classification: D10, J16, J22, J24, J61

Keywords: immigration, second generation, gender, labor supply, fertility, human capital

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I. Introduction

A steady flow of new immigration has resulted in an increase in the foreign-born share of the US population from 4.8 percent in 1970 to 11.1 percent in 2000, with a further increase to 12.5 percent in 2006. Perhaps more dramatically, the percentage of the foreign-born population that came from Europe or North America fell from 70.4 to 18.5 percent between 1970 and 2000, with a corresponding increase in the Asian and Latin American share from 28.3 to 78.2 percent (US Bureau of the Census web site: http://www.census.gov). As we have shown in earlier work (Blau, Kahn and Papps 2008), this change in the source country distribution has resulted in an immigrant population that increasingly comes from poorer countries with lower levels of education, and, less frequently noted, from countries with a more traditional division of labor by gender than the United States. While the gender gap in labor supply among immigrants in 1980 was about the same as it was for natives, over the 1980–2000 period, the gender gap in labor supply narrowed much more for natives than for immigrants. Immigrant women also tend to have more children than native-born women do, although the difference is declining among recent immigrants as fertility levels around the world fall.

As the share of the population that is foreign-born rises, an increasing share of the population in future years will consist of individuals with parents who were born in other countries. If the more traditional division of labor by gender among immigrants is transmitted to their children, the growing immigrant share in the population and the increasing shift toward a more traditional division of labor among immigrants (relative to natives) can have substantial effects on the future labor supply and fertility behavior of women born in the United States. However, second-generation immigrants (i.e., individuals born in the United States with at least one foreign-born parent) may assimilate toward native levels of labor supply and fertility as they become acculturated to work norms in the United States or as they respond to job opportunities here. If so, then the current immigrant-native gaps in these outcomes will not have large long-term effects.

Intergenerational transmission of values and behavior also has potential implications for the kind of society we will have in the future. Again, as the share of the US population born in other, particularly non-European, countries rises, our population becomes more culturally diverse. On the one hand, such a development means that people living in the United States may increasingly have opportunities to learn about the world through contact with these newly-arriving immigrants and their children. This can enhance our own lives as well as our understanding of people elsewhere. On the other hand, as implied by Alesina, Glaeser and Sacerdote's (2001) analysis of racial diversity, increasing cultural diversity may make it more difficult for the US political system to enact or maintain social insurance programs or to produce agreement on supplying public goods if groups increasingly see their interests as diverging from each other. This could be the case if immigrants and their descendants increasingly behave differently from the native population. Thus, the degree to which the children of immigrants behave more like their parents rather than third and higher generation Americans may help determine whether in the long run the country becomes culturally and politically Balkanized.

In this paper, we study the transmission of first-generation immigrants' education, labor supply and fertility behavior to second-generation women. We focus on women due to the salience of the gender role issue. Our research design uses the March Current Population Surveys (CPS) from 1995 to 2006, which contain information on each respondent's country of birth and the country of birth of each of her parents. For each US-born woman with a foreign-born mother or father, we retrieve Census data on the labor supply, fertility and schooling of immigrants from the indicated country (in the case of one foreign-born parent or two foreign-born parents born in the same country) or countries (in the case of immigrant parents born in different countries). We use Census data from 1970, 1980, 1990 or 2000 depending on the age of the second-generation woman in order to attach information on immigrants who were likely to be her parents' ages. Using this information on immigrants as explanatory variables, we then estimate regression models of fertility, schooling and labor supply for second-generation women where we seek to determine the strength of the intergenerational transmission of these outcomes. As pointed out by Card, DiNardo and Estes (2000), such a measure of the characteristics of the

preceding generation captures the combined effect of (i) parental behavior per se and (ii) the ethnic capital associated with the characteristics and behavior of one's nationality group more broadly. Using this approach, we cannot distinguish between these two types of effects. It might be argued, however, that this combined effect is the most relevant "bottom line" from a policy perspective.

Overall, we find that second-generation women's fertility and labor supply are significantly positively affected by the immigrant generation's fertility and labor supply respectively, with the effect of mother's fertility and labor supply larger than that of women from the father's source country. Their education levels are significantly positively affected by that of both of their parents, with a stronger effect of father's than mother's education. Moreover, second-generation women's schooling levels are negatively affected by immigrant fertility, suggesting a quality-quantity tradeoff for immigrant families. We find stronger transmission of immigrant fertility to the second generation than we do for labor supply or education. In particular, an increase in immigrant fertility by one child per woman raises the second generation's fertility level by about 0.40 children relative to natives, controlling for race and ethnicity, and by at most 0.65 when we do not control for these factors. At these rates of transmission, after two generations 16%–42% of any immigrant excess fertility will be left. The effects for labor supply and education are smaller: after two generations, only at most 3–4% of any immigrant shortfall in labor supply and 4–13% of any education shortfall will remain. These results suggest a considerable amount of assimilation across generations toward native levels of schooling and labor supply, although fertility effects show more persistence.

II. Relationship to Previous Literature

Our analysis builds on some recent papers that have studied the impact of source country or parental characteristics on the labor supply, education or fertility of immigrants' descendants. Using the 1990 Census, Antecol (2000) found that source country female labor force participation rates (measured as of 1990) were weakly positively correlated with US labor force

participation among "second and higher generation" individuals, defined by their answer to the Census question on ancestry. (Effects on first generation immigrants' labor supply were found to be stronger.) Similarly, using 1970 Census data on US-born women with foreign-born fathers, Fernández and Fogli (2007) found that source country female labor supply and fertility each had a positive effect on the corresponding outcome of second-generation women in the United States. (The 1970 Census was the last to collect data on foreign parentage.)

Using methods similar to ours, Card, DiNardo and Estes (2000) examined the intergenerational transmission of earnings, education and marital assimilation. They matched two groups of native-born individuals with foreign-born fathers to characteristics of their parental generation in earlier Censuses. Second-generation individuals from the 1970 Census were matched to 1940 immigrant data on men from the father's birth country. Similarly, second-generation individuals from the 1994–1996 CPS were matched to 1970 Census data on immigrant men. In each case, the authors found that there was significant intergenerational transmission of education and wages, with a roughly similar rate of intergenerational transmission in each case. In an earlier study, Borjas (1993) found similar results correlating wages of 1940 immigrant fathers with second-generation sons in the 1970 Census.

Finally, in earlier work (Blau and Kahn 2007), we analyzed the intergenerational assimilation of Mexican-American women's schooling, labor supply and fertility in the United States during the 1994–2003 period. Although this research focused on only one origin country, Mexico, it is noteworthy since Mexico has a relatively traditional gender division of labor in the family, with relatively low female labor participation rates and high fertility levels. Mexico is also the largest source of immigrants to the United States. We found that Mexican immigrant women had far lower levels of schooling and labor supply, as well as higher fertility levels, than native non-Hispanic whites. However, second-generation Mexican women had education and labor supply outcomes much closer to those of the native women: the schooling and labor supply gaps of second-generation women relative to natives were only about 0.21–0.25 times as large as for immigrants. The fertility gap, while also indicating assimilation, was 0.55 times as large for

the second generation.[1] While these differences across generations were measured at the same time (and therefore many of the immigrants we studied were not likely to be among the cohort of parents of the second-generation women in our sample), they suggest considerable assimilation in the second generation, an issue we will pursue in this paper.

We contribute to the literature on gender and intergenerational transmission of immigrant behavior in several ways. First, unlike Antecol (2000), who used data on self-reported ancestry of US-born respondents, we use information on where the respondent's parents were actually born. Data on self-reported ancestry are less precise in that they include information on second *and* higher order generations. Further, Duncan and Trejo's (2007) study of Mexican-Americans suggests that more successfully-assimilated native-born individuals are less likely to report a foreign ancestry. The direct data on parents' countries of birth available in the CPS thus allow for a more valid test of the strength of intergenerational transmission. While Fernandez and Fogli (2007), Card, DiNardo, and Estes (2000) and Borjas (1993) also use data on parents' countries of birth, they are only able to match second-generation individuals with their fathers, due to incomplete Census data on the birthplace of foreign-born mothers.[2] In contrast, we use information on both the mother's and father's country of birth and are thus able to distinguish individuals with two foreign-born parents from those with only one.[3] In this way and unlike earlier work, we will be able to gauge the strength of intergenerational transmission between these two different second-generation family types as well as the relative importance of the characteristics of immigrant mothers versus immigrant fathers. Moreover, our current data from the 1995–2006 CPS provide an updated consideration of these issues compared to the 1970 Census data employed by Fernandez and Fogli (2007), and our CPS data set includes many more observations on second-generation individuals than were available to Card, DiNardo and Estes

[1] Specifically, the natives had 4.7 more years of schooling, worked 528 more hours per year (including those who did not have jobs) and had 0.7 fewer children than Mexican immigrants. Second generation Mexican immigrants had only 1.2 fewer years of schooling, worked only 110 hours less, and had 0.4 more children than native, non-Hispanic white women.

[2] In particular, the 1960 and 1970 Censuses only reported the father's country of birth in thoses instances when both parents were foreign-born. The Census stopped collecting data on parents' birth country as of the 1980 Census.

[3] While Card, DiNardo and Estes (2000) used the same CPS data we do (although for fewer years) and thus had access to information on both parents' countries of birth, they used only information on the father's country of birth in order to make their analyses of 1970 to 1994–1996 assimilation consistent with their 1940 to 1970 analyses. In the 1970 Census, only information on father's country of birth is available.

(2000) from the 1994–1996 CPS; this has the further advantage of enabling us to distinguish a far greater number of source countries. Further, Card, DiNardo and Estes did not examine the variables of primary interest here, fertility and labor supply.

Second, earlier research on intergenerational transmission among immigrants used a single date on which to compute parental characteristics. For example, Fernandez and Fogli (2007) used 1950 source country information to match with 1970 second-generation individuals, although they also experimented with 1960 source country data. In contrast, we use information on the age of second-generation individuals in the 1995–2006 CPS to form an estimate of their parents' age. We then find the Census closest to the age when the parents would have been 40 years old, using interpolation between adjacent decennial Censuses if, for example, we estimate that a person's parents would have been 40 years old during a year in which there was no decennial Census such as 1984. In this way we can more closely match second-generation individuals with their parents than previous studies have been able to do.

Third, while Blau and Kahn (2007) showed that second-generation Mexican-American women had educational and labor supply outcomes much closer to native outcomes than was the case for contemporaneous immigrants, this did not provide a direct test of the strength of intergenerational transmission. To investigate this idea, one needs variation in the behavior of immigrants, and our research design exploits the considerable diversity of labor supply, fertility and educational outcomes among immigrants from different parts of the world.

III. Data and Descriptive Patterns

Our basic data source is the 1995-2006 March CPS files. From these files, we select for analysis individuals who were born in the United States with both parents also born in the United States ("natives") or with at least one parent born in an identifiable foreign country (the "second generation"). Among the second generation, we distinguish those with only one immigrant parent (father or mother) from those with two immigrant parents. Based on tabulations of average age differences between immigrant parents and their resident children in the 1970

Census, we assume that second-generation individuals were 27 years younger than their immigrant mothers and 31 years younger than their immigrant fathers.[4] We then use the information on the respondent's current age, the year of the CPS in which they are observed (i.e., between 1995 and 2006), and these assumptions about the parent-child age gap to locate the Censuses between 1970 and 2000 that were conducted closest to the time the immigrant parents would have been 40 years old. Suppose, for example, that an immigrant parent would have been 40 years old in 1984; then we give the CPS respondent the weighted average of the Census-based outcomes (i.e., schooling, labor supply, and fertility) of immigrants from the parent's country of origin for 1980 and 1990, with a 0.6 weight for 1980 and a 0.4 weight for 1990, in effect linearly interpolating. These Census-based outcomes are themselves age-adjusted (in a procedure described in the Appendix) in order to take into account compositional effects among immigrants. For example, immigrants from a particular country in, say, 1980 may be especially young; their current labor supply may thus not be representative of their lifetime behavior. Age-adjusting the immigrant outcomes makes our measures more representative.[5] Because the 1960 Census data is relatively poor for matching source countries, we go back only to 1970 in collecting immigrant characteristics and therefore restrict our CPS sample to ages 18–49.[6]

Appendix Tables A1 and A2 show the incidence of parent's countries of birth among women whose mothers were immigrants (Table A1) and women whose fathers were immigrants (Table A2). We are able to construct 69 country groups,[7] a far larger sample than Card, DiNardo and Estes (2000), who were able to isolate 33 countries using the 1994–1996 CPS files. The incidence of women with both parents foreign born is about the same as the incidence of women with only one foreign-born parent; the latter category is roughly equally divided between mother only and father only foreign born. Thus, previous work which focuses on individuals whose father was foreign-born (Fernandez and Fogli 2007; Card, DiNardo and Estes 2000; Borjas 1993) misses about 25% of the potential sample of second-generation individuals—i.e., those whose

[4] Tabulations of average age differences were for (single and married) immigrant mothers and (married) immigrant fathers and their resident children.

[5] Card, DiNardo and Estes (2000) also age-adjusted immigrant and second generation outcomes for similar reasons.

[6] Results were very similar, however, when we used 18–65 year olds in the CPS and matched the older individuals to parents in the 1970 Census.

[7] Although Puerto Rico is a US territory, it is treated as a foreign birth place for the purposes of our analyses.

mothers are immigrants and whose fathers are natives. If gender role transmission from mother to daughter is especially strong, this omission could be particularly important for a study of gender roles and assimilation. Another distinction that is missed by focusing on fathers only is the possibility that two immigrant parents may come from different source countries, although, among second-generation women with both parents foreign-born, the parents come from the same source country in the vast majority (85–90%) of the cases.

An additional notable feature of Tables A1 and A2 relative to previous work is that, compared to 1970, second-generation individuals during the 1995–2006 period were much less likely to have European parents. For example, in the 1970 sample of second-generation women analyzed by Fernandez and Fogli (2007), fully 71% had fathers born in Europe. Italy was by far the largest source country with 28% of the sample or about 40% of those with European-born fathers, while Mexico accounted for only 12% of the sample. In contrast, our CPS data show that among contemporary US-born women whose fathers were foreign born, only 28% of the fathers came from Europe (of the total sample of US-born women with foreign-born fathers, 6% of the fathers came from Italy, and 23% of the European-born fathers came from Italy), while 27% of fathers came from Mexico.[8] We obtained similar percentages for second-generation women with foreign-born mothers. Thus, over the 1970–2006 period, the origins of the second generation have changed in ways dictated by the changing source countries of immigrants. As the source countries for immigrants have continued to shift toward Latin America and Asia, the second generation will in the future reflect these further developments. For example, in our CPS data, the number of immigrant women from Mexico as of 1995–2006 was about 3 times as large as the number of US-born women who had at least one parent born in Mexico. This difference suggests that in the future an increasing share of the US resident population of women will consist of second-generation women who had Mexican parents.

Tables 1 and 2 provide mean values for selected demographic outcome variables for natives, the second generation, and immigrants for women and men. Results are presented separately for various categories of second-generation family types, including all those with only

[8] These percentages were obtained using the CPS sampling weights adjusted so that each CPS year received the same weight.

one immigrant parent (tabulations are also shown separately for those with mother only and father only immigrant) and those with both parents foreign born.

In terms of base line demographics, we first note that the various groups are about the same age (averaging 32–34 years old) except for second-generation individuals with both parents foreign-born who are a bit younger (29–30 years average age). This latter difference could reflect different time patterns of immigration for the different immigrant family types or perhaps delayed fertility among immigrant women married to immigrant men as in the family migration model (Baker and Benjamin 1997) or due to the disrupting effect of immigration fertility for such couples (Blau 1992).[9] Below, we present results in which we correct for these age differences. Second, reflecting immigrant-native differences and the shifting composition of immigrants over time, the share of Hispanics and Asians is highest among immigrants, and higher among the second generation than among natives. The share of blacks is also lower both among immigrants and the second generation than among natives. Within the second generation, the share of Hispanics and Asians is considerably higher among those with both parents foreign-born. These pattern likely reflect true differences in origin across these second-generation groups, but, particularly for Hispanics, may also reflect tendencies in self-reporting which result in more assimilated individuals being less likely to report foreign heritage (Duncan and Trejo 2007).[10] There is also a somewhat greater tendency of those with only immigrant fathers than those with only immigrant mothers to report Hispanic origin. This may be due to intermarriage patterns of the parents but could also reflect reporting bias if father's ethnicity has a stronger impact on self-perception of ethnicity than mother's.

In terms of marriage and fertility outcomes, we see that immigrants exhibit more traditional patterns than natives, with a considerably higher incidence of marriage and a somewhat larger number of children present for immigrant than for native women. Immigrant men are also more likely to be married than native men, though the difference is not as large. (Number of children present is not tabulated for men since the results would be misleading as an

[9] We do not however find evidence of such delay in Blau, Kahn, and Papps (2008).
[10] As noted above, Duncan and Trejo (2007) focused on Mexican heritage.

indicator of fertility.[11]) In contrast to these immigrant-native differences, second-generation individuals with one foreign-born parent have about the same marriage incidence and fertility as natives. The second-generation group with both parents foreign-born actually has a lower incidence of marriage and number of children than natives, although this may simply reflect the fact that they are younger. Turning to education, we again see substantial immigrant-native differences, with immigrants lagging about 1.4 years behind, but roughly similar levels of schooling for natives and the second generation.

Finally, immigrant-native differences in labor supply vary between men and women, reflecting a more traditional gender division of labor among immigrants. Immigrant women have substantially lower employment rates and annual work hours than native women, while, among men, labor supply is fairly similar for immigrants and natives. The patterns for the second generation are again much closer to natives. Second-generation women and men with one foreign-born parent have roughly similar employment rates and annual work hours as natives. However, among both men and women, those with two immigrant parents do have lower labor supply. In the case of women, this group of second-generation individuals still has considerably higher work activity than immigrants; however, among men, those with both parents foreign born work substantially less than immigrants. Taking these results together, we see that in the raw data, the gender gap in labor supply among second-generation individuals of all types is much smaller than it is for immigrants and is in fact similar to that for natives. For example, the hours gender gap for natives is 477 (or about 35% of women's hours), while for immigrants it is 685 hours (62% of women's hours), and for the second-generation it is 353–512 hours (29%–38% of women's hours), depending on which parent(s) was (were) foreign-born.

Tables 1 and 2 indicate some differences between work behavior and fertility among second-generation individuals, depending on whether one or both parents were foreign-born. Focusing on women, Tables 3 and A3 show that these differences are entirely due to the younger age of the group with two foreign-born parents. Table 3 shows age-adjusted fertility, education and work hours among immigrant, native, and second-generation women. The age adjustment is

[11] Women generally retain custody of children when a marriage breaks up or children are born out of wedlock.

accomplished by regressing each outcome for each subgroup on age, age squared, and a series of year dummies. The figures in Table 3 show the predicted values for age 40 in the year 2000. In order to examine intergenerational trends, the Table also shows similarly computed age-adjusted means for the immigrant mothers of the second-generation women and native women from the corresponding period. The 1970–2000 Censuses were used to estimate the figures for the immigrant mothers by matching the CPS second-generation women to immigrants in their mothers' generation as described above.

The Table shows that second-generation women of all types have similar fertility levels to and slightly higher work effort and education than natives.[12] For example, second-generation women work 12–37 (1–2%) more hours per year than natives. In contrast, after age adjustment, immigrants continue to have higher fertility and lower labor supply than native and second-generation women. For example, immigrants work 271 hours (17%) less than natives. Interestingly, Table 3 also shows that in the parents' generation, the native-immigrant fertility gap was very small, while immigrants worked 97 hours (11%) less than natives. Thus, across the two generations immigrants' fertility has risen and their labor supply has fallen relative to natives.[13] Finally, both generations of immigrants are less well educated than natives, with a somewhat larger shortfall among current immigrants: 1.64 years (11.9%) for current immigrants versus 1.77 years (14.8%) for immigrants in the parents' generation.

Table A3 shows similar age-corrected patterns for the various second-generation parent types to the data shown in Table 3 but uses an alternative age adjustment. In Table A3, we reweight all of our non-native samples to have native age and year weights using the reweighting procedure developed by DiNardo, Fortin and Lemieux (1996). In effect, we show the means for each group assuming they had the same age and year distribution as native-born women with both parents born in the US. Like Table 3, Table A3 shows that the age (and year)-corrected

[12] The predicted work hours are higher in Table 3 than the raw figures in Table 1 because the former are predicted for age 40, a prime, largely post-childbearing, working age.

[13] While Table 3 shows that fertility among the stock of immigrants has risen relative to natives, our earlier work (Blau, Kahn and Papps 2008) showed declining relative fertility among recent immigrants over the 1980–2000 period. Thus, fertility patterns are sensitive to whether one is measuring the stock or the flow. However, even among recent immigrants, we found sharply falling relative labor supply; thus for both the stock and the flow of immigrants, the native-immigrant gap in women's labor supply is growing.

education, fertility and labor supply of the various categories of second-generation women are very similar to those of natives, while immigrants continue to have higher fertility levels and much lower labor supply.

Tables 1–3 and A3 together show that once we adjust for the age and year composition of immigrants, natives and the second generation, *on average*, the immigrant-native shortfalls in education and labor supply that existed among past immigrant women have disappeared in one generation. That is, while the immigrant mothers of current second-generation women were less well educated and worked less than natives, current second-generation women have similar outcomes on these dimensions to those of current native women. Furthermore, fertility, which did not differ between immigrants and natives in the parents' generation, is also similar for second-generation women and natives. However, while on average these outcomes are similar, our research will study the variation in labor supply, fertility and education among second-generation women as it relates to their parents' characteristics. Although the second generation has roughly converged to native levels this does not rule out the possibility that there is considerable variation in the behavior of second-generation individuals, with some groups behaving considerably differently from natives. Moreover, the current population of immigrant women has much lower relative labor supply than natives, while the education gap has persisted. Our empirical analysis seeks to determine whether the behavior of immigrant parents is transmitted to their US-born children. To the extent that it is, the decline in immigrant labor supply relative to natives across immigrant generations will have implications for the future second generation to come.

As an indication of the simple correlation across generations in schooling, fertility and work behavior, Figures 1–4 show the simple relationship between each of these outcomes for second generation women in the CPS and the corresponding values for the immigrant women in their mothers' generation in the Census. In each case, the outcomes are age-adjusted as described in the Appendix, and we have already described how we matched the second-generation women to earlier immigrant women in the Census. Each data point corresponds to a source country, and, for legibility, we have included only the top 25 source countries with respect to the immigrant

mothers of the second-generation women; the trend lines in the figures are, however, based on all 69 countries in our sample. Figures 1 and 2 respectively show strong positive relationships between immigrant and second-generation fertility (Figure 1) and education (Figure 2). The Figures show, for example, that Mexican immigrant and second-generation women both have high fertility and low education levels, while immigrant and second-generation women from India both have low fertility and high education levels.

In contrast to the positive correlations across generations for education and fertility, Figures 3 and 4 show little relationship for labor supply, whether work activity is measured as the employment rate (fraction of weeks worked in the year) (Figure 3) or annual work hours (Figure 4). It might thus appear that there is little intergenerational transmission of work behavior. However, mother's labor supply may be correlated with other factors that influence the respondent's own labor supply. For example, mothers who do not work may tend to be married to fathers with high income and education levels. Their daughter may then attain higher schooling levels and, as a result, have good job opportunities, thus obscuring a direct effect of their mother's lower labor supply. This may characterize second-generation Japanese women, who have high schooling levels and high employment levels, despite their mothers' relatively low labor supply. A more valid test of intergenerational transmission can be implemented by controlling for the other characteristics of the immigrant parent(s), as well as standardizing for age and race/ethnicity. Thus, we now turn to a research design that more systematically examines this relationship.

IV. Empirical Procedures and Basic Regression Results

We analyze intergenerational transmission of fertility, labor supply and education for second-generation women by first pooling natives (those born in the United States with US-born parents) and second-generation women (US-born women with one or both parents born in another country) from the 1995–2006 March CPS files. We then estimate models of the following form:

(1) $y_{it} = B'Z_{it} + \Sigma a_c X_{cit} + u_{it}$,

where for each woman i in year t, y is an outcome variable including number of children present, years of schooling, fraction of the weeks worked (employment rate), or annual work hours (including those with zero work hours); Z is a vector of controls to be discussed shortly, X is a vector of immigrant parent characteristics, and u is a disturbance term.[14]

The vector X includes, for second-generation women, age-adjusted characteristics of immigrants in the parents' generation; these variables are zero for natives. Variables associated with traditional gender roles, fertility and labor supply, are included to measure the effects both of the home environment and cultural attitudes. For this reason we include controls both for the characteristics of immigrant women from the source country of the respondent's mother *and* from the respondent's father. Labor supply of immigrant women is measured by employment rate in the employment rate equation and annual work hours in the hours equation. To control further for the home environment and for the socio-economic status of the respondent's family, we include controls for immigrant mother's and immigrant father's education levels. As described in the Appendix, these variables are simulated for age 40 for immigrants from each source country. As noted, we assume that mothers are 27 years older and fathers 31 years older than respondents and locate the Census (Censuses) nearest the parental age of 40, interpolating between Censuses where necessary. Thus, second-generation CPS respondents from the same origin country can have different values for these variables depending on their age: older respondents will be matched with immigrants from earlier Censuses.

The vector X includes all three types of immigrant behavior for which we have measures: fertility, labor supply and schooling. An alternative is to include only the immigrant outcomes for the same behavior as the dependent variable (i.e., fertility in the second-generation fertility equation, etc.). The specification including measures of all three types of behavior simultaneously may be appropriate in that it reduces the likelihood of spurious correlation. So for example, a positive association between first- and second-generation fertility might be due to lower education levels of women in both generations rather than to intergenerational

[14] Beginning in 1994, the CPS coded education in categories, as did the 2000 Census. We mapped these into years of schooling attained by using Jaeger's (1997) suggested algorithm.

transmission of fertility per se. On the other hand, immigrant fertility (or plans for family size), for example, may be the fundamental cause of immigrant schooling and immigrant labor supply levels. If so, then including immigrant labor supply and schooling in the fertility equation could lead us to underestimate the full impact of immigrant fertility on the second generation. Therefore, we also present models with only the matching behavior on the right hand side.

The vector Z includes three dummy variables among the four possible parent combinations in our regression sample: (i) immigrant father and native mother, (ii) immigrant mother and native father and (iii) both parents immigrants (the omitted category is both parents natives); race and ethnicity dummies (black, non-Hispanic; Asian or Pacific Islander, non-Hispanic; and Hispanic (of any race); the omitted category is white non-Hispanic),[15] age, age squared, and year dummies. Note that we do not include the respondent's marital status, education or location variables. Part of the assimilation process involves children's marriage, education and location decisions; therefore, by excluding these variables, we are allowing the full effects of parental behavior to be observed. For example, more assimilated second-generation individuals may be less likely to continue to live in ethnic enclaves.

Note that we include in X a vector of race and ethnicity indicators. We believe that this is an appropriate specification because minority individuals may face discrimination or other barriers in labor markets or in education that could affect decisions about fertility, schooling or labor supply. Since minority immigrants tend to come from particular source country areas such as Asia and Latin America, failure to control for race and ethnicity could induce a spurious correlation between parental and child behavior that could instead be due the common treatment in the United States of members of minority groups. On the other hand, race and ethnicity may be proxies for "regional" ethnic capital (for example the Latin American region) and thus one might also want to estimate the extent of intergenerational correlation not controlling for race and ethnicity. Therefore, in addition to our basic specification, we also discuss results from models that exclude race and ethnicity.

[15] A small number of non-Hispanic individuals of other races (mostly native Americans) were omitted from the sample.

Table 4 contains some preliminary regression results for the second-generation immigrant family type dummy variables where we do not include the X variables describing the parent characteristics. We show results both excluding and including the race and ethnicity variables. The former show raw (age and year-adjusted) differentials by family type, which may confound the impact of race or ethnicity, since, as suggested, immigrants and second-generation individuals are more likely than natives to be Hispanic and Asian, and less likely to be black (see Tables 1 and 2). The latter show the differentials in outcomes by family type controlling for race and ethnicity, a perhaps more focused test of the impact of being a second-generation immigrant relative to natives of the same race and ethnicity (as well as age and year).

Beginning with fertility, Table 4, Column (1) shows that, not controlling for race and ethnicity, there are only very small and insignificant differences in fertility between second-generation women and natives; there are also small and insignificant differences between each pair of second-generation family type coefficients. This is perhaps not surprising in that there was virtually no difference between the fertility of immigrants and natives in the parents' generation, again not controlling for race and ethnicity (Table 3). It thus appears that, while today's immigrants tend to have somewhat more children than natives (Table 1), the second generation has similar fertility levels to natives, not controlling for race and ethnicity. Interestingly, controlling for race and ethnicity (Table 4, Column (2)) suggests that the second generation tends to have smaller families than native women of the same race and ethnicity. For those with one foreign-born parent the effects are modest; coefficients range between -0.03 and -0.04 (depending on which parent is foreign-born) and are each about 1.5 times their standard error in absolute value. However, coming from a family where both parents were foreign-born is now associated with 0.09 fewer children (about 10% of the native fertility level), an effect that is both highly significant and also significantly different from the coefficients for the one foreign parent family types.

Second, Table 4 shows that second-generation women have education levels at least as high as native levels, not controlling for race and ethnicity, and significantly higher levels, when we add these controls. Not controlling for these factors, all three family types have positive

effects relative to natives, with women having foreign-born mothers only being significantly more highly educated than natives by 0.36 years. Controlling for race and ethnicity, each second-generation family type has significantly more education than natives, with differentials ranging from 0.4 to 0.5 years. With returns to schooling averaging about 10% in the United States (Card 1999), this corresponds to a 4–5% wage effect. The education findings are of particular note in that the immigrant parents' generation had an educational shortfall of 10 percent relative to natives, only slightly lower than the current gap between contemporary immigrants and natives.

It is interesting to compare our results with Card, DiNardo and Estes (2000) who used 1994–1996 CPS data. They found that second-generation women, defined as having a foreign-born father (regardless of the nativity of their mother), had comparable levels of schooling to natives, not controlling for any other factors that could affect schooling. Results are similar in our first specification (excluding controls for race and ethnicity) for the two categories that include immigrant fathers (father only and both parents immigrants) where we find insignificant differences in education relative to natives.[16]

Third, with respect to the labor supply of second-generation women, Table 4 shows no significant differences between natives and second-generation women with one foreign-born parent, regardless of whether or not we include controls for race and ethnicity. Labor supply differences are found only for women with two foreign-born parents. They work significantly less than natives, not controlling for race and ethnicity, but the effects are quantitatively small, amounting to 6% of the average native fraction of weeks worked of 0.7 and 5% of average native work hours of 1367. Moreover, these second-generation effects become much smaller in magnitude when we control for race and ethnicity: the effect of having both parents foreign-born on the employment rate falls in magnitude to -1.7 percentage points, a marginally significant effect that is only -2% of the native average, while the impact on annual work hours is now only -33 hours, an insignificant effect that is also only -2% of the native work hours.

[16] The point estimates are: 0.21 years for foreign-born father only, a category which comprises about 1/3 of the second generation women with foreign-born fathers, and 0.05 years for both parents foreign-born, a category which comprises about 2/3 of the second generation women with foreign-born fathers.

Table 4 thus shows a high degree of similarity between the education, fertility and labor supply of second-generation women and both white natives and natives of the same race or ethnic group. Indeed, we find that, if anything, second generation women have lower fertility and higher levels of education than natives of the same race or ethnicity. It is possible that the second generation is especially highly-motivated and well-qualified relative to subsequent generations of the same race and ethnicity. It may also be the case that there is a reporting bias, with "third+ generation" women with more traditional family structures and lower education levels more likely to self-identify as Hispanic.

The findings of second-generation assimilation relative to white natives would appear to be inconsistent with the expectations of scholars such as Perlmann and Waldinger (1997) and Portes and Zhou (1993), who predicted that the children of post-1965 immigrants might well have more trouble assimilating than previous generations. This expectation, formed before the availability of representative survey data on the second generation in the form of the CPS files we use here, was based on the relatively disadvantaged status of Latin American immigrants post-1965. In contrast to these predictions, Card, DiNardo and Estes (2000) found relatively high levels of second-generation assimilation in wages and education in the 1990s (as well as similar levels of assimilation to those of the children of immigrants from the 1940 Census). Our results reinforce the conclusions of Card, DiNardo and Estes, using updated and more comprehensive CPS data for a larger number of source countries and explicitly examining variables associated with the gender roles of second-generation women.

The results in Table 4 show only average age-corrected differentials between second-generation women and natives. We now turn to analyses of intergenerational transmission that reveal considerable heterogeneity in the behavior of the second generation depending upon the characteristics of their immigrant parents. These results are shown in Tables 5–8. We first show results pooling all second-generation family types. These illustrate average effects of parental behavior. Next, we stratify our samples by second-generation family type and ask whether the impact of parent behavior differs according to whether (i) mother only was foreign-born, (ii) father only was foreign-born, or (iii) both parents were foreign-born. This disaggregation of the

impact of family type represents a departure from earlier work on second-generation outcomes, which, as we have seen, defined the second generation only in terms of father's place of birth or generalized ancestry. The tables present regression coefficients and hypothesis tests for the impact of parental generation behavior. As discussed above, we present two specifications. The first specification examines the impact of only the matching parental behavior on the dependent variable (e.g., fertility of immigrants from the mother's and father's source country on the respondent's fertility). The second specification includes measures of all three types of behavior. As noted in the tables, we control for race and ethnicity, year, age, age squared, and, where relevant, the three second-generation family type variables.[17] We also briefly compare our results to those from regressions not controlling for race and ethnicity (see Tables A4-A7).

Table 5 shows results of these analyses for current fertility. Looking first at the results for the full sample ("Natives and Women With One or Two Parents Foreign-Born"), we see that the fertility of the female immigrants from the mother's source country ("mother's fertility") and father's country of birth both positively affect second-generation fertility. These effects are both significant in the specification in which only these matching variables are included. The effect of mother's fertility remains significant and of comparable magnitude when we also control for immigrant parents' education and the U.S. labor supply of immigrant women from the parents' origin country(ies), while the effect of the fertility of women from the father's source country becomes small, negative and insignificant. In both specifications, the effect of mother's fertility is larger than that of women from the father's source country (0.307 versus 0.108 and 0.423 versus -0.023), and this difference is statistically significant. It thus appears that mother's fertility has a stronger effect than the fertility of immigrant women from the father's home country. However, since we are pooling all second generation family types in Columns (1) and (2) of Table 5, the effects of mother's fertility, for example, are in fact the average over two family types: both parents immigrants and mother only immigrant. Below, we discuss results for each of these family types separately, which will shed more light on the relative importance of mothers and fathers.

[17] We include all three of the family type variables in the "One or Two Parents Foreign-Born" samples, but of course only one of them when we stratify by family type.

The sum of the two fertility effects in the pooled sample is an estimate of the impact of one additional child in the first generation on the fertility of second-generation women with both parents foreign born and from the same source country. The effect is positive, highly significant, and of comparable magnitude in both specifications: 0.400 to 0.415.[18] Overall, the results for immigrant parents' fertility based on the full sample of all family types suggest a transmission coefficient of about 0.4 (taking the sum of the two coefficients).

To further illustrate the magnitude of the intergenerational transmission of fertility, we computed the mean and standard deviation of the fertility of immigrant mothers aged 35–45 in the 1980 Census (an age group centered around the 40 year figure used to construct the parental generation explanatory variables and a Census year in which many of the immigrants would have been surveyed). We found that among this group, fertility averaged 2.32 children with a standard deviation of 1.26. Therefore, according to our regression estimate, a one standard deviation increase in immigrant fertility leads to roughly a 0.50 child increase in second-generation women's fertility relative to natives. However, if the intergenerational transmission effect stays at 0.40 from the second to the third generation, then the initial one standard deviation increase in immigrant fertility (1.26 children) falls to about 0.20 children for the grandchildren's generation. This implies that even high fertility immigrants will have grandchildren that have assimilated most of the way to the native fertility level, since only about 16% of any excess immigrant fertility remains two generations later (i.e., 0.4*0.4=0.16). We may also consider the estimated intergenerational transmission effects when we omit controls for race/ethnicity (Table A4). Excluding these controls, as well as controls for the first generation's schooling and labor supply, the average transmission effect of fertility is a highly significant 0.65, implying that after two generations, 42% (.65*.65=.4225) of excess immigrant fertility would remain, instead of about 16–17%. However, when we control for immigrant schooling and labor supply, we obtain similar transmission results whether or not we control for race and ethnicity, i.e. 0.38 (significant at 11%) not controlling and 0.40 controlling for these factors.

[18] However, we note that these estimates are based on a sample which includes all family types.

Results for samples disaggregated by second-generation immigrant family type, also shown in Table 5, confirm that there is a positive effect of immigrant fertility on the fertility of the second generation and that the effect of an immigrant mother is larger than of women from an immigrant father's source country. Looking first at the results for women with both parents foreign-born in Columns (3) and (4), we see that they are qualitatively similar to those for the full sample. The effect of mother's fertility is about 0.3 and is much larger in magnitude than the effects of immigrant women from the father's country. The two effects are hard to distinguish statistically since, as noted above, in about 85–90% of the cases where both parents were foreign-born, they came from the same source country. However, the sum of the two fertility effects is 0.3 to 0.4, similar to the full sample results, and is significant at the 0.01–13% level. The results are broadly similar when we do not control for race and ethnicity, although the results including only the matching immigrant fertility variables do suggest larger transmission for this specification. The last four columns of Table 5 show results where only one parent is an immigrant. In each case, there is positive and statistically significant fertility transmission. Here we see unambiguously that the effects through an immigrant mother are much larger (0.387 to 0.630) than through the women from an immigrant father's source country (0.163 to 0.232). Nonetheless, the latter finding suggests that even in the case of a respondent with a native mother and an immigrant father, there is positive fertility transmission from the father's source country. Effects are even larger when we do not control for race and ethnicity. Table A4 shows statistically significant fertility transmission effects of 0.555 to 0.742 for mother only foreign and 0.354 in both specifications for father only foreign.

Other fertility results in Table 5 include significantly negative effects of immigrant mothers' labor supply on fertility in the full sample and for women with both parents immigrants, with opposing positive and insignificant effects for the labor supply of immigrant women from the father's source country. The sum of the two employment rate effects is negative for both samples but significantly so only for women with both parents immigrants. While these results suggest that immigrant mothers' employment may have a negative effect on second-generation women's fertility, we note that no significant effects are obtained for this variable when only the

mother is an immigrant. In contrast, we do find significant positive effects of mother's education on fertility across all samples where the variable is included, although in the pooled sample and the sample of women with both parents immigrants, this effect is largely offset by significant negative effects of the education of women from the father's source country. While the significant positive effect of mother's education may seem surprising, note that, while the education variables may affect women's wage offers, they could also influence their family income through assortative mating. Further, the regression also controls for first generation women's fertility and labor supply. And, finally, the estimated education effects are small as even a four year difference in immigrant mothers' education raises fertility by only 0.2–0.3 children, even disregarding the offsetting effect of father's education where relevant.

Table 6, which shows regression results for the determinants of education levels, indicates that, like fertility, there is positive transmission of immigrant education to the second generation. In this case, effects are stronger through immigrant fathers than through immigrant mothers. Specifically, the immigrant fathers' education effect is always significantly positive. In contrast, the immigrant mother's education effect is sometimes positive and sometimes negative, sometimes significant and sometimes not. It is possible that the education level of immigrant fathers better captures the socio-economic status of the family than the immigrant mother's schooling level. The largest positive assimilation effect is a statistically significant 0.179, which is obtained when we add both parents' effects for the pooled sample (in column 1). This is a small effect implying that a four year difference in parental education leads to only a 0.7 year second-generation difference. By the next generation, at the same rate of transmission, the effect is nearly gone. The other estimates in Table 6 are even smaller than this.

In earlier work, Card, DiNardo and Estes (2000) found intergenerational transmission coefficients for schooling between 1970 immigrant parents and second-generation men or women in the 1994–1996 CPS to be on the order of 0.4. Recall that their definition of second generation was having a foreign-born father. Moreover, their sample included a smaller number of countries and matched the second generation to their immigrant parents using only the 1970 Census. A further difference is that, unlike Card, DiNardo and Estes (2000), we control for race

and ethnicity in Table 6. In fact, when we exclude the race and ethnicity variables, the effect of parents' education becomes stronger, as shown in Table A5. For example, when we pool all family types and add the mother's and father's education coefficients, the transmission parameters range from 0.21 to 0.36. The latter result, which is very close to Card, DiNardo and Estes' (2000) estimate of 0.42, also corresponds to their specification in that it does not control for immigrant fertility or labor supply. From our earlier discussion on the advisability of controlling for race and ethnicity, as well as the other parental outcomes, the 0.36 estimate is likely to be an upper bound for the true assimilation effect.

Returning to Table 6, a robust result across family types and specifications is that higher levels of fertility of immigrant mothers lead to lower levels of second-generation education. (Effects for the fertility of immigrant women from the father's country are small in magnitude and insignificant.) This result for immigrant mothers is consistent with a quality-quantity tradeoff with respect to the children of immigrants. The magnitude of such effects is large. Specifically, when we add the mother's fertility effect to that for immigrant women from the father's country (Columns (2) and (4)) or when we use the mother's fertility coefficient in the mother only foreign-born sample (Column (6)), the effects of a one standard deviation increase in immigrant fertility (as mentioned earlier, 1.26 children in 1980) lowers second-generation education by 0.97 to 1.38 years. This is an economically important effect that is statistically significant.[19] In earlier work (Blau, Kahn and Papps 2008), we noted falling immigrant fertility levels for recent cohorts, as fertility has been declining sharply around the world. If this lower level continues or further decreases occur, the results in Table 6 predict important increases in the education levels of second-generation immigrants.

The effect of first-generation employment of women on the education obtained by the second generation varies across family types.[20] Adding the employment effects in the full sample or for the both parents foreign-born sample leads to an insignificantly negative impact on schooling. In the mother or father only specifications, the effects of immigrant mother's

[19] For the specifications with two fertility variables, these estimates and significance levels refer to the sum of the two fertility variable coefficients.

[20] The fertility and employment effects on education were similar to those in Table 6 when we did not control for race and ethnicity (see Table A6).

employment or the employment rate for women from the immigrant father's country are negative and significant at 1–10% levels. The negative effects in these two specifications may reflect income effects that have a negative impact on mothers' propensity to work and positive effects on children's education, with the employment variables picking up income effects.[21]

Finally, Tables 7 and 8 show assimilation results for second-generation women's annual work hours and employment rate respectively. Since the results are very similar, we focus our discussion on annual work hours, because this variable more fully measures labor supply than the fraction of weeks worked. In these analyses, which are shown in Table 7, we are most interested in the intergenerational transmission of work activity. We do not see strong evidence for such a result in the models that control only for the matching variables, i.e., the immigrant generation's labor supply. (Recall that Figures 3 and 4 also showed little evidence of a simple bivariate relationship between immigrant mother's labor supply and second-generation women's labor supply.) No significant effects are obtained for the samples in which only one parent is an immigrant. For the samples where both parents may be an immigrant (the full sample and both parents foreign-born), mothers' labor supply does have a significant positive effect but the impact of women from the fathers' source country is negative (and significantly so for the both parent sample). Further, the sum of the two labor supply effects is only 0.041 (full sample) and 0.037 (both parents immigrants), and neither sum is statistically significant.

When we control for fertility and education, however, we observe positive transmission across generations in work hours for the full sample and the both parent immigrant sample. In both of these instances, the effects of mother's labor supply are significantly positive, while the effects of the labor supply of immigrant women from the father's source country are negative and insignificant, and in the case where both parents were immigrants, the two coefficients are significantly different from each other. The finding that second-generation women's labor supply is more responsive to their immigrant mother's labor supply than to the labor supply of

[21] These results are unlikely to reflect the impact of mothers' time inputs on child quality since the coefficient on mothers' employment taken separately is positive for the full sample and that in which both parents are foreign born (significantly so in the latter case). Further, when one parent only is an immigrant, while the effect of immigrant mother's employment is now negative (possibly indicating an effect of mother's time allocation), the negative effects of female employment are larger in magnitude for women from the fathers' source country than for immigrant mothers themselves.

immigrant women from their father's source country is similar to our findings for the impact of immigrant fertility on second-generation fertility.

The magnitude of the labor supply effects is fairly modest. The sum of the two labor supply coefficients is 0.118 (pooled sample) and 0.180 (both parent immigrant sample), although only the latter effect is significant. In the 1980 Census, the mean annual work hours of immigrant mothers 35–45 years old was 867 (with a standard deviation of 943). For the sample with both parents immigrants, then, a one standard deviation increase in immigrant labor supply (i.e. a very large increase of 943 hours) leads to roughly a 111 to 170 hour increase in second-generation women's annual hours relative to natives. While there is positive hours transmission associated with both parents migrating from the same country, hours assimilation becomes nearly complete after two generations: we obtain a maximum of 18% transmission in one generation, implying roughly 3–4% in two generations. Recall too that in the cases where only one parent is an immigrant, there is no evidence of intergenerational transmission of female labor supply. Thus, intergenerational transmission of women's labor supply, while positive in some instances, is much weaker than it is for fertility.

From our earlier work (Blau, Kahn and Papps 2008), we know that between 1980 and 2000, immigrant women's labor supply fell relative to natives. Our estimates can be used to forecast the impact of this decrease on the labor supply of future second-generation women. Specifically, in 1980, married immigrant women worked on average 823 hours (including those with 0 hours), while married native women worked 887 hours, or 8% above the immigrant level; by 2000, these figures had risen to 983 for immigrants and 1302 for natives, or 32% higher work hours for natives. Suppose instead that immigrant women's work hours had risen by the same percentage as those of natives during this period. Then immigrant work hours in 2000 would have averaged 1208 instead of only 983. We would predict that this additional 225 hours of immigrant labor supply would raise second-generation women's labor supply by at most 41 hours (using our highest transmission effect of 0.180 from Table 7, Column (4)), or by about 3% of the average. Put differently, we expect the fall in immigrants' relative labor supply between 1980 and 2000, which was indeed substantial, to have only minor consequences for second-generation

women's relative labor supply. The other major results in Table 7 show that there is little overall transmission from mother's fertility or fertility of immigrant women from the father's source country to second-generation labor supply. None of the fertility coefficients is significant individually, and in the cases where there are two fertility coefficients, their sum is small and insignificant. While the immigrant parental education variables are usually significant individually, their sums in the cases with two such coefficients are small in magnitude (-13 to -30 hours) and only significant for women with both parents foreign-born. Among the samples with only one immigrant parent, the impact of immigrant men's schooling from the father's source country is significantly positive, although at 21 hours per additional year of education (Table 7, Column (8)), it is small in magnitude.[22]

V. Alternative Specifications

The basic findings we have reported in Tables 4-8 were robust with respect to several alternative specifications and to the use of alternative samples. For example, we obtained similar results when we controlled for Census region or the respondent's own educational attainment (in the fertility and labor supply regressions). As noted, we have excluded these variables from our basic specifications because they are likely to be endogenous. In addition, the results were similar when we used all women age 18–65 or when we used a focused sample of 35–45 year olds.[23] Moreover, the results were similar when we excluded countries that needed to be aggregated in order to consistently define them across Censuses, as well as when we restricted our analyses to the top 25 origin countries. Finally, we obtained similar findings about assimilation when we restricted our attention to married women and controlled for spouse personal characteristics.

[22] Tables A6 and A7 show the estimated intergenerational transmission of labor supply to be similar when we do not control for race and ethnicity. Specifically, similar to the maximal 0.18 estimate when we controlled for these factors, Table A6 shows a maximum transmission effect of 0.17 not controlling for race and ethnicity .

[23] When we included the full 18-65 age range, we were forced to use 1970 immigrant characteristics for all individuals 50 years of age and older.

VI. Conclusions

In this paper, we have studied the transmission of first generation immigrant women's education, labor supply and fertility behavior to the second generation. Our research design used the March Current Population Surveys (CPS) from 1995 to 2006, which contain information on each woman's country of birth and the country of birth of each of her parents. We then used Census data from 1970, 1980, 1990 or 2000, depending on the age of the second-generation woman, in order to attach information on labor supply, fertility and schooling of immigrants from the relevant source country(ies) who were likely to be her parents' ages. Using this information on immigrants as explanatory variables, we estimated regression models of the fertility, schooling and labor supply of second-generation women.

Overall, we found that second-generation women's fertility and labor supply are significantly positively affected by the immigrant generation's fertility and labor supply respectively, with the effect of mother's fertility and labor supply larger than that of women from the father's source country. And their education levels are significantly positively affected by that of their parents, with a stronger effect of father's than mother's education. Moreover, second-generation women's schooling levels are negatively affected by immigrant fertility, suggesting a quality-quantity tradeoff for immigrant families. We find stronger transmission of immigrant fertility to the second generation than we do for labor supply or education. In particular, an increase in immigrant fertility by one child per woman raises the second generation's fertility level by about 0.40 children relative to natives, controlling for race and ethnicity, and by at most 0.65 when we do not control for these factors. At these rates of transmission, after two generations 16%–42% of any immigrant excess fertility will be left. The effects for labor supply and education are smaller: after two generations, only at most 3–4% of any immigrant shortfall in labor supply and 4–13% of any education shortfall is left. These results suggest a considerable amount of assimilation across generations toward native levels of schooling and labor supply, although fertility effects show more persistence.

The findings here mirror those in our earlier study of Mexican-American women, for whom we found much greater convergence in the second generation's education and labor supply than in their fertility (Blau and Kahn 2007). The results of both of these studies suggest that fertility is a more persistent outcome across generations than schooling and labor supply. However, since the fertility of immigrant women is rapidly falling relative to natives in recent immigrant cohorts (Blau, Kahn and Papps 2008), little future excess fertility in the second generation is anticipated. And even though immigrant women's labor supply has decreased relative to natives, our relatively low estimates of intergenerational transmission suggest that this reduction will not have major consequences for the second generation of the future.

Data Appendix

The data on second-generation and third- and higher-generation immigrants come from the 1995–2006 March Supplements of the Current Population Survey (CPS), which contains information on the birth place of respondents and their parents. Data were also available for 1994; however, we did not include 1994 in our analysis because the respondent's report place of birth was based on a condensed set of source countries. The sample consists of native-born women between ages 18 and 49, excluding people reporting other race (i.e. other than the categories of white, black, or Asian/Pacific Islander) or people with an allocated source country, mother's source country, or father's source country. We also exclude women from regional residual categories for countries of birth in the Census and the CPS. We combine countries in the CPS and the Census when necessary to align the set of countries available as places of birth. For example, we combine England, Scotland, Wales, United Kingdom, ns, and Northern Ireland in the Census and match it to Great Britain, England, Scotland, and Northern Ireland in the CPS. A total of 69 countries of origin are represented in our CPS data set. Although Puerto Rico is a US territory, it is treated as a foreign birth place for the purposes of these analyses. (See Tables A1 and A2 for a listing of countries and their frequency in our sample.) In all analyses, CPS sampling weights are taken into account, and the CPS data are re-weighted so the sums of the sampling weights in each year are equal.

We estimate immigrant parent characteristics by source country using the 1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000 Census public use microdata samples. The 1970 data is the combination of the 1 percent Form 1 state sample, the 1 percent Form 1 metropolitan area sample, the Form 2 state sample, and the Form 2 metropolitan area sample. The 1980, 1990, and 2000 data are the 5 percent state samples. We take a 1 percent random sample of households where all members are white and native-born and retain the full sample of all other respondents. Regression-adjusted means of parent characteristics for each Census year are based on a model including source country fixed effects, age, age squared, the interaction of immigrant and age, and the interaction of immigrant and age squared. The regression sample for mothers (fathers) consists of women (men) between ages 18 and 64, excluding people of other race, with an allocated source country, or from a country that does not correspond to the set of countries available in the CPS.

We match second-generation immigrants in the CPS to their immigrant "parents" in the Census by source country. We assume that mothers are 27 years older than their children based on estimates from the single and married immigrant women in the 1970 Census regression sample with at least one child. Similar calculations for married men underlie our assumption that fathers are 31 years older than their children. We assign parent characteristics based on the year when the immigrant parent is 40 years old. If this year is exactly a Census year (1970, 1980, 1990, or 2000), we use data from that particular Census. If it is an interior year, we use linear interpolation to compute a weighted average between the two nearest Censuses. For example, if the immigrant parent is 40 years old in 1984, then the parent characteristics would be a weighted average of the estimates from 1980 (.6 weight) and 1990 (.4 weight). If immigrant parents are 40 years old before 1970 (after 2000), we use immigrant parent characteristics from 1970 (2000).

Starting with the 2003 CPS, respondents can report multiple races, whereas in earlier years respondents were able to select only one race. Over the 2003-2006 period, 1.3 percent of the sample selected two named races. In coding race for these years, we defined (i) whites as those who listed their race as white alone, (ii) blacks as those who listed their race as black alone or in combination with another race, (iii) Asians or Pacific Islanders as those who listed their race as Asian or Pacific Islander alone or in combination with another race (except black), (iv) Others as all others, including American Indian or Alaskan Native alone or in combination with white, as well as those who designated multiple races without specifying them, or more than two named races. Non-Hispanics of "other" race were dropped from the sample due to their low representation (0.9 percent of the sample).

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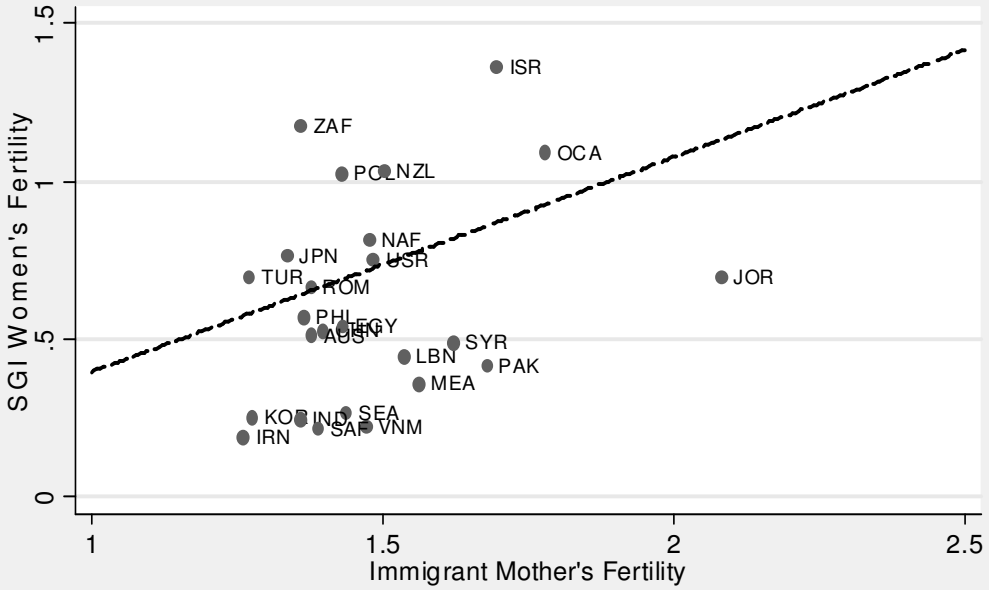
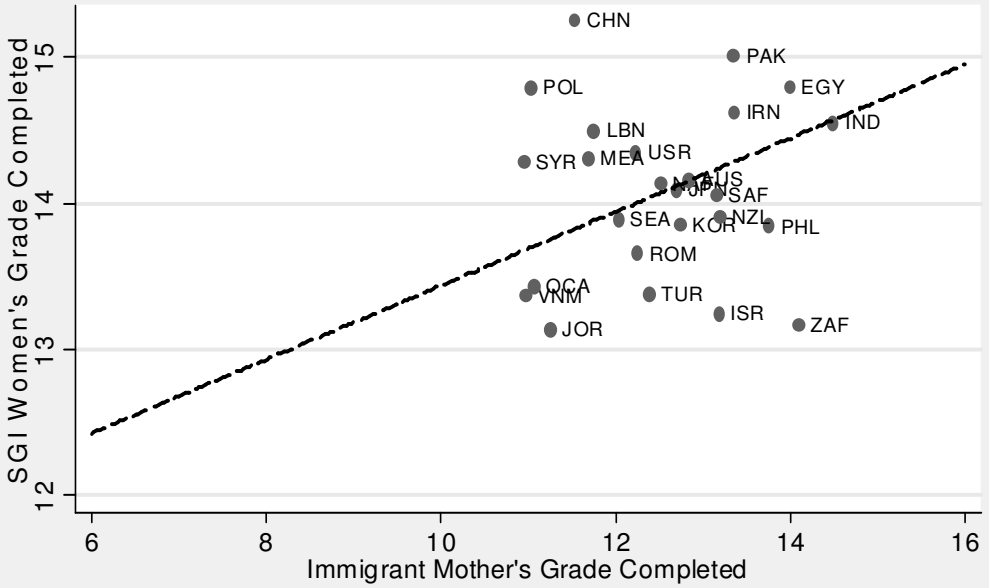
Figure 1. Intergenerational Transmission of Fertility, Top 25 Source Countries



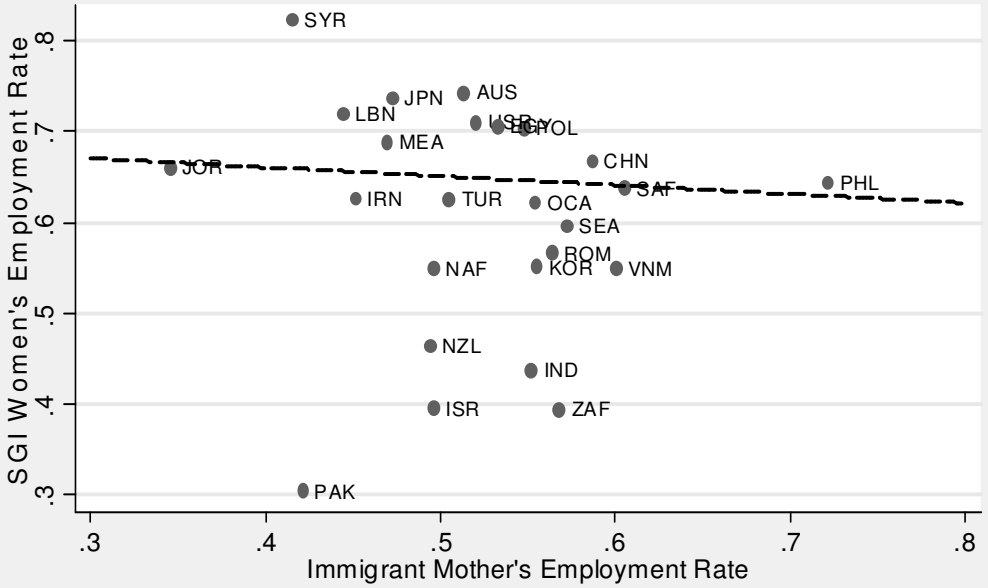
Notes: The sample consists of second-generation immigrant women with a foreign-born mother from the Current Population Survey. The trendline for all 69 source countries has slope 0.679 with standard error 0.203. CZE consists of Czech Republic and Slovakia, USR consists former USSR countries, and SEA consists of Hong Kong, Taiwan, Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand.

Figure 2. Intergenerational Transmission of Grade Completed, Top 25 Source Countries



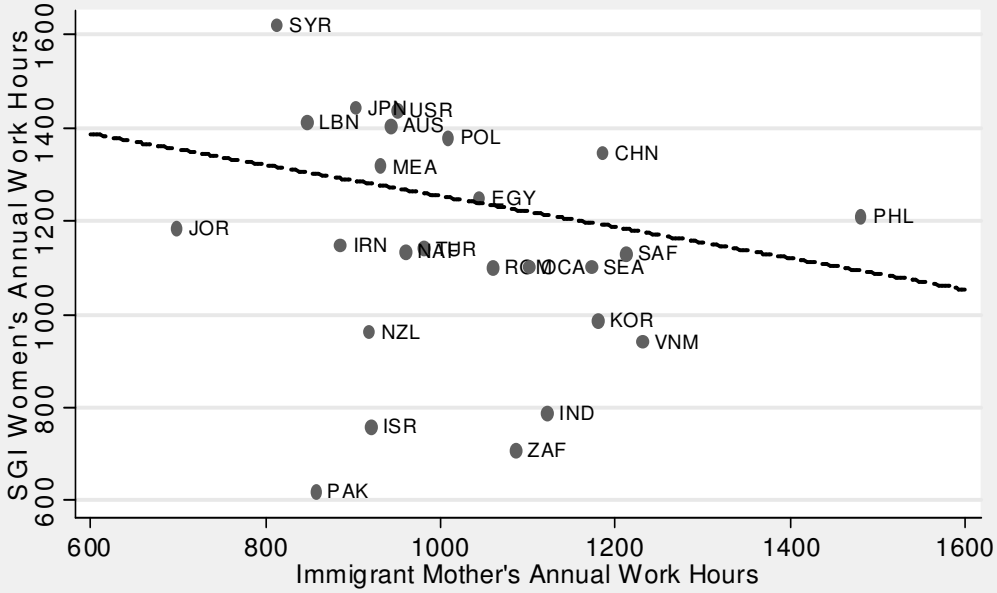
Notes: The sample consists of second-generation immigrant women with a foreign-born mother from the Current Population Survey. The trendline for all 69 source countries has slope 0.252 with standard error 0.053. CZE consists of Czech Republic and Slovakia, USR consists former USSR countries, and SEA consists of Hong Kong, Taiwan, Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand.

Figure 3. Intergenerational Transmission of Employment Rate, Top 25 Source Countries



Notes: The sample consists of second-generation immigrant women with a foreign-born mother from the Current Population Survey. The trendline for all 69 source countries has slope -0.098 with standard error 0.171. CZE consists of Czech Republic and Slovakia, USR consists former USSR countries, and SEA consists of Hong Kong, Taiwan, Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand.

Figure 4. Intergenerational Transmission of Annual Work Hours, Top 25 Source Countries



Notes: The sample consists of second-generation immigrant women with a foreign-born mother from the Current Population Survey. The trendline for all 69 source countries has slope -0.334 with standard error 0.156. CZE consists of Czech Republic and Slovakia, USR consists former USSR countries, and SEA consists of Hong Kong, Taiwan, Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand.

Table 1. Selected Means for Women: Natives, Second Generation Individuals and Immigrants, 1995-2006

		Second Generation Type:				
Variable	**Natives**	**Immigrant Mother Native Father**	**Immigrant Father Native Mother**	**Exactly One Immigrant Parent**	**Both Parents Immigrants**	**Immigrants**
Age	34.151	33.291	32.851	33.072	29.561	34.149
Asian, NonHispanic	0.005	0.052	0.038	0.045	0.122	0.236
Black, NonHispanic	0.158	0.040	0.044	0.042	0.046	0.063
Hispanic	0.039	0.209	0.292	0.251	0.542	0.492
White, NonHispanic	0.798	0.699	0.626	0.663	0.289	0.209
Married	0.531	0.518	0.483	0.501	0.394	0.617
Number of Children	0.960	0.928	0.891	0.909	0.831	1.186
Years of Schooling	13.373	13.689	13.506	13.598	13.255	11.996
Employment Rate	0.702	0.694	0.685	0.689	0.629	0.562
Annual Work Hours	1366.919	1333.984	1321.837	1327.939	1202.046	1109.103
Total Sample Size	351736	7662	7716	15378	15793	72334

Source, 1995-2006 March CPS. Sample consists of women age 18-49 excluding those with allocated or unmatched birthplace, allocated or unmatched parent birthplace, and those with "other" race. Means are weighted using CPS sampling weights adjusted so that each year receives equal weight. Natives are individuals born in the US with both parents also US-born. Labor supply variables include all individuals. The employment rate is weeks worked last year divided by 52.

Table 2. Selected Means for Men: Natives, Second Generation Individuals and Immigrants, 1995-2006

		Second Generation Type:				
Variable	**Natives**	**Immigrant Mother Native Father**	**Immigrant Father Native Mother**	**Exactly One Immigrant Parent**	**Both Parents Immigrants**	**Immigrants**
Age	34.070	33.546	32.976	33.271	29.431	33.593
Asian, NonHispanic	0.005	0.059	0.035	0.047	0.135	0.202
Black, NonHispanic	0.135	0.037	0.037	0.037	0.044	0.058
Hispanic	0.038	0.204	0.287	0.244	0.519	0.546
White, NonHispanic	0.822	0.700	0.641	0.672	0.303	0.195
Married	0.499	0.462	0.452	0.457	0.331	0.521
Years of Schooling	13.240	13.578	13.444	13.513	13.142	11.736
Employment Rate	0.820	0.823	0.795	0.810	0.726	0.816
Annual Work Hours	1844.023	1846.280	1770.209	1809.593	1555.430	1794.287
Total Sample Size	321390	7269	6867	14136	14593	71426

Source, 1995-2006 March CPS. Sample consists of women age 18-49 excluding those with allocated or unmatched birthplace, allocated or unmatched parent birthplace, and those with other race. Means are weighted using CPS sampling weights adjusted so that each year receives equal weight. Natives are individuals born in the US with both parents also US-born. Labor supply variables include all individuals. The employment rate is weeks worked last year divided by 52.

Table 3. Age Adjusted Means for Women (Evaluated at Age 40)

Variable	Mean	Immigrants - Natives[a]
I. Second Generation		
Foreign Born Mother, US Born Father		
Number of Children	1.27	-0.02
Years of Schooling	13.98	0.25
Emplyment Rate	0.802	0.03
Annual Work Hours	1617.24	36.62
Both Parents Foreign Born		
Number of Children	1.29	0.00
Years of Schooling	13.80	0.07
Emplyment Rate	0.781	0.01
Annual Work Hours	1592.93	12.31
All Women with Foreign Born Mother		
Number of Children	1.28	-0.02
Years of Schooling	13.90	0.17
Emplyment Rate	0.792	0.02
Annual Work Hours	1607.86	27.24
II. Immigrants		
Number of Children	1.49	0.19
Years of Schooling	12.09	-1.64
Emplyment Rate	0.643	-0.13
Annual Work Hours	1309.81	-270.80
III. Natives		
Number of Children	1.30	na
Years of Schooling	13.73	na
Emplyment Rate	0.773	na
Annual Work Hours	1580.62	na
IV. Immigrant Mothers (of Second Generation)		
Number of Children	1.78	0.05
Years of Schooling	10.17	-1.77
Emplyment Rate	0.444	-0.06
Annual Work Hours	800.33	-96.78
V. Natives (Contemporaneous with Immigrant Mothers)		
Number of Children	1.72	na
Years of Schooling	11.94	na
Emplyment Rate	0.500	na
Annual Work Hours	897.10	na

[a]Second generation and immgrants relative to "Natives". Immigrant mothers relative to "Natives (Contemporaneous with Immigrant Mothers)".
CPS sample consists of women age 18 to 49 excluding those with allocated or unmatched birthplace, allocated or unmatched parent birthplace, and those of other race. Each year is equally weighted. Regression includes age, age squared, and year fixed effects. Means are evaluated for 40 year olds in 2000. For selection of immigrant and contemporaneous native women, see text.

Table 4: Regression Results for Models Including Only Family Type and Basic Controls

	Dependent Variable							
	Fertility	**Fertility**	**Education**	**Education**	**Employment Rate**	**Employment Rate**	**Annual Work Hours**	**Annual Work Hours**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Family composition:								
Foreign-born mother only (mom_sgionly)	-0.010	-0.032	0.355**	0.451***	-0.002	0.002	-14.228	-6.519
	(0.046)	(0.021)	(0.165)	(0.060)	(0.010)	(0.005)	(16.868)	(13.826)
Foreign-born father only (dad_sgionly)	0.007	-0.038	0.213	0.416***	-0.004	0.004	-5.442	8.382
	(0.061)	(0.025)	(0.256)	(0.090)	(0.014)	(0.008)	(20.268)	(14.271)
Two foreign-born parents (sgi2)	-0.001	-0.092***	0.054	0.500***	-0.040***	-0.017*	-63.907***	-32.771
	(0.077)	(0.031)	(0.332)	(0.137)	(0.011)	(0.010)	(21.567)	(21.133)
Other controls:								
Age	0.392***	0.392***	0.313***	0.312***	0.041***	0.041***	125.553***	125.423***
	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.010)	(0.009)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(4.787)	(4.715)
Age^2	-0.006***	-0.006***	-0.004***	-0.004***	-0.001***	-0.001***	-1.594***	-1.594***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.067)	(0.067)
Black		0.104***		-0.680***		-0.048***		-37.357***
		(0.002)		(0.010)		(0.000)		(0.662)
Hispanic		0.244***		-1.177***		-0.055***		-72.230***
		(0.022)		(0.095)		(0.003)		(9.559)
Asian / Pacific Islander		-0.162***		0.491***		-0.015		2.149
		(0.039)		(0.148)		(0.016)		(30.744)
r-squared	0.153	0.157	0.043	0.069	0.030	0.033	0.052	0.052
N	382907	382907	382907	382907	382907	382907	382907	382907
p(mom_sgionly=dad_sgionly)	0.529	0.795	0.241	0.722	0.774	0.814	0.667	0.464
p(mom_sgionly=sgi2)	0.837	0.018	0.125	0.702	0.003	0.094	0.066	0.298
p(dad_sgionly=sgi2)	0.821	0.036	0.176	0.299	0.018	0.119	0.041	0.116

Notes: * p<.10, ** p<.05, *** p<.01. Clustered standard errors by sgi source country (mom then dad). The sample consists of native-born women, ages 18 to 49, of any marital status, and from all matched countries. Regressions include year fixed effects.

Table 5: Effect of Immigrant Parent Characteristics on Second Generation Women's Fertility

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mother's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility(mom_fe_nchild0017)	0.307***	0.423***	0.268	0.330	0.387***	0.630***		
	(0.072)	(0.146)	(0.254)	(0.321)	(0.081)	(0.158)		
Female grade completed (mom_fe_gradecomp)		0.044***		0.080***		0.049***		
		(0.014)		(0.023)		(0.018)		
Female employment rate (mom_fe_emprate)		-0.515**		-1.098***		-0.176		
		(0.236)		(0.366)		(0.327)		
Father's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (dad_fe_nchild0017)	0.108***	-0.023	0.099	-0.067			0.163***	0.232*
	(0.034)	(0.099)	(0.195)	(0.210)			(0.050)	(0.138)
Male grade completed (dad_ma_gradecomp)		-0.032***		-0.068***				-0.008
		(0.011)		(0.018)				(0.016)
Female employment rate (dad_fe_emprate)		0.236		0.546				0.461
		(0.263)		(0.459)				(0.323)
Other controls:								
Black	0.104***	0.104***	0.104***	0.104***	0.104***	0.105***	0.105***	0.105***
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.000)
Hispanic	0.208***	0.209***	0.215***	0.213***	0.215***	0.219***	0.226***	0.224***
	(0.018)	(0.016)	(0.013)	(0.014)	(0.012)	(0.008)	(0.004)	(0.004)
Asian / Pacific Islander	-0.113***	-0.105***	-0.125***	-0.103***	-0.083***	-0.083***	-0.099***	-0.099***
	(0.030)	(0.023)	(0.031)	(0.018)	(0.019)	(0.018)	(0.012)	(0.011)
r-squared	0.157	0.158	0.157	0.157	0.155	0.155	0.155	0.155
N	382907	382907	367529	367529	359398	359398	359452	359452
Sample: Natives and Women With:	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born
p(mom_fe_nchild0017-dad_fe_nchild0017=0)	0.027	0.015	0.707	0.443				
p(mom_fe_nchild0017+dad_fe_nchild0017=0)	0.000	0.026	0.000	0.133				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp-dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.001		0.000				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp+dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.314		0.365				
p(mom_fe_emprate-dad_fe_emprate=0)		0.062		0.037				
p(mom_fe_emprate+dad_fe_emprate=0)		0.364		0.076				

Notes: * p<.10, ** p<.05, *** p<.01. Clustered standard errors by sgi source country (mom then dad). The sample consists of native-born women, ages 18 to 49, of any marital status, and from all matched countries. Parent characteristics model is quadratic. Parent characteristics timing is at age 40. Regressions include age (quadratic), dummies for foreign-born mother only, foreign-born father only, and two foreign-born parents parents (as applicable), and year fixed effects.

Table 6: Effect of Immigrant Parent Characteristics on Second Generation Women's Education Levels

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mother's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility(mom_fe_nchild0017)		-0.976**		-1.017		-0.770*		
		(0.388)		(0.641)		(0.425)		
Female grade completed (mom_fe_gradecomp)	0.040	-0.078	-0.041	-0.212***	0.041	-0.004		
	(0.030)	(0.047)	(0.075)	(0.071)	(0.026)	(0.056)		
Female employment rate (mom_fe_emprate)		0.170		2.706**		-1.394*		
		(0.681)		(1.187)		(0.806)		
Father's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (dad_fe_nchild0017)		-0.118		-0.075				-0.271
		(0.318)		(0.477)				(0.368)
Male grade completed (dad_ma_gradecomp)	0.139***	0.155***	0.211***	0.247***			0.115***	0.140***
	(0.016)	(0.034)	(0.057)	(0.066)			(0.016)	(0.039)
Female employment rate (dad_fe_emprate)		-1.369		-3.073*				-2.257**
		(0.945)		(1.618)				(0.928)
Other controls:								
Black	-0.678***	-0.676***	-0.682***	-0.681***	-0.686***	-0.686***	-0.685***	-0.683***
	(0.011)	(0.012)	(0.007)	(0.007)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.004)
Hispanic	-1.035***	-1.034***	-1.049***	-1.049***	-1.064***	-1.060***	-1.074***	-1.072***
	(0.047)	(0.048)	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.017)	(0.021)	(0.010)	(0.010)
Asian / Pacific Islander	0.267	0.292*	0.291	0.310*	0.463***	0.461***	0.489***	0.494***
	(0.199)	(0.170)	(0.188)	(0.167)	(0.091)	(0.092)	(0.084)	(0.075)
r-squared	0.071	0.071	0.068	0.068	0.063	0.063	0.064	0.064
N	382907	382907	367529	367529	359398	359398	359452	359452
Sample: Natives and Women With:	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born
p(mom_fe_nchild0017-dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.113		0.348				
p(mom_fe_nchild0017+dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.022		0.044				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp-dad_ma_gradecomp=0)	0.014	0.002	0.055	0.001				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp+dad_ma_gradecomp=0)	0.000	0.057	0.000	0.437				
p(mom_fe_emprate-dad_fe_emprate=0)		0.159		0.026				
p(mom_fe_emprate+dad_fe_emprate=0)		0.338		0.772				

Notes: * p<.10, ** p<.05, *** p<.01. Clustered standard errors by sgi source country (mom then dad). The sample consists of native-born women, ages 18 to 49, of any marital status, and from all matched countries. Parent characteristics model is quadratic. Parent characteristics timing is at age 40. Regressions include age (quadratic), dummies for foreign-born mother only, foreign-born father only, and two foreign-born parents parents (as applicable), and year fixed effects.

Table 7: Effect of Immigrant Parent Characteristics on Second Generation Women's Annual Work Hours (including those with zero hours)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mother's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility(mom_fe_nchild0017)		-127.220		-105.754		-65.875		
		(80.870)		(126.695)		(129.274)		
Female grade completed (mom_fe_gradecomp)		-30.799***		-69.119***		-3.726		
		(10.357)		(16.850)		(14.419)		
Female annual work hours (mom_fe_annhours)	0.097*	0.130**	0.285***	0.495**	0.056	0.015		
	(0.051)	(0.064)	(0.104)	(0.221)	(0.059)	(0.076)		
Father's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (dad_fe_nchild0017)		132.665		89.663				106.181
		(80.101)		(157.580)				(75.830)
Male grade completed (dad_ma_gradecomp)		17.418**		39.487**				21.409**
		(8.544)		(15.340)				(8.813)
Female annual work hours (dad_fe_annhours)	-0.056	-0.012	-0.248*	-0.315			-0.056	-0.054
	(0.049)	(0.077)	(0.142)	(0.226)			(0.061)	(0.082)
Other controls:								
Black	-37.470***	-37.767***	-37.424***	-37.702***	-37.986***	-37.952***	-37.128***	-36.965***
	(0.665)	(0.704)	(0.619)	(0.567)	(0.546)	(0.500)	(0.627)	(0.756)
Hispanic	-70.925***	-77.100***	-69.133***	-77.009***	-82.217***	-81.386***	-82.584***	-79.538***
	(10.795)	(8.260)	(12.852)	(7.002)	(1.947)	(2.071)	(2.436)	(3.488)
Asian / Pacific Islander	-3.457	-3.151	3.844	6.680	37.090*	37.003*	44.224***	41.057***
	(34.506)	(33.822)	(36.972)	(34.405)	(20.792)	(20.647)	(11.323)	(13.937)
r-squared	0.052	0.052	0.051	0.051	0.048	0.048	0.049	0.049
N	382907	382907	367529	367529	359398	359398	359452	359452
Sample: Natives and Women With:	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born
p(mom_fe_nchild0017-dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.048		0.471				
p(mom_fe_nchild0017+dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.955		0.865				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp-dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.002		0.000				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp+dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.256		0.027				
p(mom_fe_annhours-dad_fe_annhours=0)	0.039	0.210	0.028	0.069				
p(mom_fe_annhours+dad_fe_annhours=0)	0.545	0.172	0.625	0.049				

Notes: * p<.10, ** p<.05, *** p<.01. Clustered standard errors by sgi source country (mom then dad). The sample consists of native-born women, ages 18 to 49, of any marital status, and from all matched countries. Parent characteristics model is quadratic. Parent characteristics timing is at age 40. Regressions include age (quadratic), dummies for foreign-born mother only, foreign-born father only, and two foreign-born parents parents (as applicable), and year fixed effects.

Table 8: Effect of Immigrant Parent Characteristics on Second Generation Women's Employment Rate (fraction of weeks worked)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mother's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility(mom_fe_nchild0017)		-0.024		-0.038		-0.000		
		(0.037)		(0.069)		(0.049)		
Female grade completed (mom_fe_gradecomp)		-0.012***		-0.034***		0.003		
		(0.005)		(0.009)		(0.006)		
Female employment rate (mom_fe_emprate)	0.041	0.150*	0.179*	0.453*	0.023	-0.020		
	(0.057)	(0.090)	(0.100)	(0.246)	(0.056)	(0.078)		
Father's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (dad_fe_nchild0017)		0.043		0.057				0.019
		(0.036)		(0.074)				(0.037)
Male grade completed (dad_ma_gradecomp)		0.007**		0.021***				0.009***
		(0.004)		(0.008)				(0.003)
Female employment rate (dad_fe_emprate)	-0.010	-0.002	-0.164	-0.211			0.014	-0.067
	(0.049)	(0.090)	(0.138)	(0.239)			(0.054)	(0.088)
Other controls:								
Black	-0.048***	-0.049***	-0.048***	-0.049***	-0.048***	-0.048***	-0.048***	-0.048***
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Hispanic	-0.054***	-0.056***	-0.053***	-0.055***	-0.057***	-0.056***	-0.057***	-0.056***
	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Asian / Pacific Islander	-0.016	-0.016	-0.014	-0.014	0.004	0.004	0.012**	0.010*
	(0.018)	(0.017)	(0.019)	(0.019)	(0.011)	(0.011)	(0.005)	(0.005)
r-squared	0.033	0.033	0.032	0.032	0.029	0.029	0.029	0.030
N	382907	382907	367529	367529	359398	359398	359452	359452
Sample: Natives and Women With:	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born
p(mom_fe_nchild0017-dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.233		0.484				
p(mom_fe_nchild0017+dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.687		0.686				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp-dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.001		0.001				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp+dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.391		0.049				
p(mom_fe_emprate-dad_fe_emprate=0)	0.512	0.295	0.132	0.163				
p(mom_fe_emprate+dad_fe_emprate=0)	0.670	0.168	0.863	0.034				

Notes: * p<.10, ** p<.05, *** p<.01. Clustered standard errors by sgi source country (mom then dad). The sample consists of native-born women, ages 18 to 49, of any marital status, and from all matched countries. Parent characteristics model is quadratic. Parent characteristics timing is at age 40. Regressions include age (quadratic), dummies for foreign-born mother only, foreign-born father only, and two foreign-born parents parents (as applicable), and year fixed effects.

Table A1: Source Country Distribution for US Born Women with Foreign Born Mothers

Mother's Source Country	Code	Observations	Weighted Incidence
Puerto Rico	PRI	2965	10.42%
Canada	CAN	1548	6.34%
Mexico	MEX	6328	25.14%
Belize/British Honduras	BLZ	26	0.15%
Costa Rica	CRI	32	0.13%
El Salvador	SLV	402	1.72%
Guatemala	GTM	131	0.49%
Honduras	HND	100	0.38%
Nicaragua	NIC	91	0.36%
Panama	PAN	91	0.36%
Cuba	CUB	670	2.51%
Dominican Republic	DOM	432	1.55%
Haiti	HTI	166	0.97%
Jamaica	JAM	193	1.06%
Trinidad and Tobago	TTO	84	0.45%
West Indies, n.s.	OWI	127	0.67%
Argentina	ARG	84	0.30%
Bolivia	BOL	29	0.11%
Brazil	BRA	57	0.28%
Chile	CHL	35	0.13%
Colombia	COL	253	0.93%
Ecuador	ECU	159	0.59%
Peru	PER	128	0.50%
Uruguay	URY	21	0.10%
Venezuela	VEN	43	0.20%
Denmark	DNK	37	0.13%
Finland	FIN	25	0.08%
Norway	NOR	91	0.42%
Sweden	SWE	69	0.29%
United Kingdom, n.s./ n.e.c.	GBR	975	4.54%
Ireland	IRL	472	2.20%
Belgium	BEL	46	0.21%
France	FRA	169	0.82%
Netherlands	NLD	153	0.74%
Switzerland	CHE	53	0.24%
Greece	CYP	193	1.03%
Yugoslavia	YUG	67	0.42%
Italy	ITA	985	4.78%
Portugal	PRT	255	1.00%
Spain	ESP	110	0.43%
Austria	AUT	88	0.39%
Czechoslovakia	CZE	91	0.50%
Germany	DEU	1414	6.75%
Hungary	HUN	144	0.73%
Poland	POL	331	1.61%
Romania	ROM	38	0.25%
USSR, n.s./n.e.c.	USR	269	1.37%

Table A1: Source Country Distribution for US Born Women with Foreign Born Mothers (ctd)

Mother's Source Country	Code	Observations	Weighted Incidence
China	CHN	376	2.05%
Japan	JPN	387	1.74%
Korea, South Korea, North Korea	KOR	232	1.04%
Philippines	PHL	791	3.33%
Vietnam	VNM	129	0.68%
Other Southeast Asia	SEA	348	1.69%
India	IND	266	1.37%
Pakistan	PAK	24	0.12%
Iran	IRN	52	0.33%
Israel/Palestine	ISR	55	0.28%
Jordan	JOR	54	0.29%
Lebanon	LBN	55	0.34%
Syria	SYR	12	0.06%
Turkey	TUR	28	0.15%
Other Middle East	MEA	80	0.46%
Egypt/United Arab Rep.	EGY	50	0.27%
Other Northern Africa	NAF	37	0.18%
South Africa	ZAF	12	0.06%
Other Africa	SAF	62	0.32%
Australia	AUS	54	0.27%
New Zealand	NZL	8	0.02%
Oceania, n.s./n.e.c.	OCA	74	0.26%

Source: 1995-2006 March CPS.

Notes: The sample consists of women age 18-49 excluding those with allocated or unmatched birthplace, allocated or unmatched parent birthplace, and those of other race. Second-generation individuals are US-born with a foreign-born mother. Incidence is weighted using CPS sampling weights adjusted so that each year receives equal weight. Other Southeast Asia consists of Hong Kong, Taiwan, Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand. Other Middle East consists of Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Sri Lanka, Nepal, Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Yemen. Other Northern Africa consists of Algeria, Libya, Morocco, Sudan, Tunisia. Other Africa consists of Benin, Burkina Faso, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Rwanda, Somalia, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Table A2: Source Country Distribution for US Born Women with Foreign Born Fathers

Father's Source Country	Code	Observations	Weighted Incidence
Puerto Rico	PRI	3227	11.38%
Canada	CAN	1209	4.55%
Mexico	MEX	6894	27.43%
Belize/British Honduras	BLZ	23	0.14%
Costa Rica	CRI	39	0.15%
El Salvador	SLV	375	1.63%
Guatemala	GTM	108	0.39%
Honduras	HND	100	0.41%
Nicaragua	NIC	76	0.32%
Panama	PAN	61	0.26%
Cuba	CUB	731	2.70%
Dominican Republic	DOM	445	1.61%
Haiti	HTI	181	1.04%
Jamaica	JAM	225	1.20%
Trinidad and Tobago	TTO	83	0.41%
West Indies, n.s.	OWI	169	0.93%
Argentina	ARG	93	0.33%
Bolivia	BOL	20	0.08%
Brazil	BRA	23	0.13%
Chile	CHL	39	0.17%
Colombia	COL	248	0.94%
Ecuador	ECU	160	0.58%
Peru	PER	139	0.51%
Uruguay	URY	16	0.06%
Venezuela	VEN	31	0.14%
Denmark	DNK	43	0.21%
Finland	FIN	16	0.08%
Norway	NOR	105	0.46%
Sweden	SWE	73	0.31%
United Kingdom, n.s./ n.e.c.	GBR	549	2.62%
Ireland	IRL	398	1.91%
Belgium	BEL	37	0.20%
France	FRA	124	0.60%
Netherlands	NLD	194	0.83%
Switzerland	CHE	49	0.22%
Greece	CYP	276	1.49%
Yugoslavia	YUG	109	0.65%
Italy	ITA	1298	6.44%
Portugal	PRT	322	1.26%
Spain	ESP	130	0.50%
Austria	AUT	85	0.47%
Czechoslovakia	CZE	107	0.57%
Germany	DEU	923	4.42%
Hungary	HUN	193	0.98%
Poland	POL	396	1.96%
Romania	ROM	35	0.20%
USSR, n.s./n.e.c.	USR	325	1.64%

Table A2: Source Country Distribution for US Born Women with Foreign Born Fathers (ctd)

Father's Source Country	Code	Observations	Weighted Incidence
China	CHN	422	2.24%
Japan	JPN	166	0.76%
Korea, South Korea, North Korea	KOR	143	0.72%
Philippines	PHL	831	3.36%
Vietnam	VNM	103	0.59%
Other Southeast Asia	SEA	278	1.43%
India	IND	305	1.51%
Pakistan	PAK	31	0.16%
Iran	IRN	95	0.59%
Israel/Palestine	ISR	70	0.36%
Jordan	JOR	66	0.36%
Lebanon	LBN	70	0.38%
Syria	SYR	21	0.12%
Turkey	TUR	32	0.16%
Other Middle East	MEA	94	0.50%
Egypt/United Arab Rep.	EGY	52	0.29%
Other Northern Africa	NAF	29	0.16%
South Africa	ZAF	14	0.08%
Other Africa	SAF	84	0.40%
Australia	AUS	19	0.07%
New Zealand	NZL	2	0.01%
Oceania, n.s./n.e.c.	OCA	83	0.27%

Source: 1995-2006 March CPS.

Notes: The sample consists of women age 18-49 excluding those with allocated or unmatched birthplace, allocated or unmatched parent birthplace, and those of other race. Second-generation individuals are US-born with a foreign-born mother. Incidence is weighted using CPS sampling weights adjusted so that each year receives equal weight. Other Southeast Asia consists of Hong Kong, Taiwan, Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand. Other Middle East consists of Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Myanmar, Sri Lanka, Nepal, Iraq, Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Yemen. Other Northern Africa consists of Algeria, Libya, Morocco, Sudan, Tunisia. Other Africa consists of Benin, Burkina Faso, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Ivory Coast, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone, Togo, Burundi, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Rwanda, Somalia, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, Zimbabwe.

Table A3: Age-Adjusted Means for Women Using Native Age and Year Weights

Variable	Natives	Second Generation Type: Immigrant Mother Native Father	Immigrant Father Native Mother	Exactly One Immigrant Parent	Both Parents Immigrants	Immigrants
Age	34.151	34.155	34.140	34.141	34.186	34.205
Asian, NonHispanic	0.005	0.050	0.037	0.043	0.096	0.235
Black, NonHispanic	0.158	0.038	0.042	0.040	0.037	0.063
Hispanic	0.039	0.204	0.280	0.242	0.502	0.489
White, NonHispanic	0.798	0.707	0.640	0.674	0.365	0.213
Married	0.531	0.537	0.520	0.529	0.489	0.602
Number of Children	0.960	0.955	0.959	0.959	0.987	1.118
Years of Schooling	13.373	13.737	13.622	13.677	13.433	11.931
Employment Rate	0.702	0.701	0.701	0.701	0.671	0.558
Annual Work Hours	1366.919	1353.667	1367.128	1360.242	1309.880	1096.274
Sample Size	351736	7662	7716	15378	15793	72334

Sample consists of women age 18 to 49 excluding those with allocated or unmatched birthplace, allocated or unmatched parent birthplace, and those of other race. Each year is weighted equally. Logistic regression includes age, age squared, and year fixed effects. Non-native samples reweighted to reflect native weights using the technique developed by DiNardo, Fortin and Lemieux (1996).

Table A4: Effect of Immigrant Parent Characteristics on Second Generation Women's Fertility, Not Controlling for Race/Ethnicity

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mother's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (mom_fe_nchild0017)	0.416***	0.442***	0.351	0.367	0.555***	0.742***		
	(0.057)	(0.153)	(0.264)	(0.364)	(0.049)	(0.128)		
Female grade completed (mom_fe_gradecomp)		0.028**		0.084***		0.025		
		(0.013)		(0.029)		(0.015)		
Female employment rate (mom_fe_emprate)		-0.469*		-1.140**		0.142		
		(0.248)		(0.476)		(0.283)		
Father's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (dad_fe_nchild0017)	0.238***	-0.065	0.239	-0.194			0.354***	0.354*
	(0.038)	(0.149)	(0.209)	(0.232)			(0.062)	(0.192)
Male grade completed (dad_ma_gradecomp)		-0.057***		-0.112***				-0.029
		(0.015)		(0.024)				(0.022)
Female employment rate (dad_fe_emprate)		0.175		0.386				0.703*
		(0.347)		(0.535)				(0.398)
r-squared	0.155	0.155	0.155	0.155	0.153	0.153	0.152	0.152
N	382907	382907	367529	367529	359398	359398	359452	359452
Sample: Natives and Women With:	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born
p(mom_fe_nchild0017-dad_fe_nchild0017=0)	0.021	0.010	0.813	0.329				
p(mom_fe_nchild0017+dad_fe_nchild0017=0)	0.000	0.113	0.000	0.426				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp-dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.000		0.000				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp+dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.083		0.066				
p(mom_fe_emprate-dad_fe_emprate=0)		0.125		0.103				
p(mom_fe_emprate+dad_fe_emprate=0)		0.503		0.077				

Notes: * p<.10, ** p<.05, *** p<.01. Clustered standard errors by sgi source country (mom then dad). The sample consists of native-born women, ages 18 to 49, of any marital status, and from all matched countries. Parent characteristics model is quadratic. Parent characteristics timing is at age 40. Regressions include age (quadratic), dummies for foreign-born mother only, foreign-born father only, and two foreign-born parents parents (as applicable), and year fixed effects.

Table A5: Effect of Immigrant Parent Characteristics on Second Generation Women's Education Levels, Not Controlling for Race/Ethnicity

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mother's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (mom_fe_nchild0017)		-1.081**		-1.208		-1.310**		
		(0.463)		(0.837)		(0.532)		
Female grade completed (mom_fe_gradecomp)	0.120***	0.002	-0.034	-0.223**	0.176***	0.117*		
	(0.038)	(0.049)	(0.090)	(0.105)	(0.050)	(0.059)		
Female employment rate (mom_fe_emprate)		-0.177		2.763*		-2.985***		
		(0.889)		(1.520)		(0.890)		
Father's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (dad_fe_nchild0017)		-0.030		0.407				-0.862
		(0.538)		(0.563)				(0.687)
Male grade completed (dad_ma_gradecomp)	0.240***	0.265***	0.365***	0.436***			0.248***	0.240***
	(0.021)	(0.052)	(0.077)	(0.098)			(0.030)	(0.062)
Female employment rate (dad_fe_emprate)		-1.344		-2.583				-3.515**
		(1.367)		(1.654)				(1.484)
r-squared	0.051	0.051	0.047	0.048	0.042	0.042	0.043	0.043
N	382907	382907	367529	367529	359398	359398	359452	359452
Sample: Natives and Women With:	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born
p(mom_fe_nchild0017-dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.126		0.203				
p(mom_fe_nchild0017+dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.138		0.238				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp-dad_ma_gradecomp=0)	0.026	0.004	0.019	0.002				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp+dad_ma_gradecomp=0)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000				
p(mom_fe_emprate-dad_fe_emprate=0)		0.355		0.044				
p(mom_fe_emprate+dad_fe_emprate=0)		0.435		0.922				

Notes: * p<.10, ** p<.05, *** p<.01. Clustered standard errors by sgi source country (mom then dad). The sample consists of native-born women, ages 18 to 49, of any marital status, and from all matched countries. Parent characteristics model is quadratic. Parent characteristics timing is at age 40. Regressions include age (quadratic), dummies for foreign-born mother only, foreign-born father only, and two foreign-born parents parents (as applicable), and year fixed effects.

Table A6: Effect of Immigrant Parent Characteristics on Second Generation Women's Annual Work Hours, Not Controlling for Race/Ethnicity (including those with zero hours)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mother's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (mom_fe_nchild0017)		-141.030*		-119.405		-116.297		
		(79.187)		(127.966)		(121.451)		
Female grade completed (mom_fe_gradecomp)		-25.278**		-68.054***		4.412		
		(10.443)		(17.802)		(13.803)		
Female annual work hours (mom_fe_annhours)	0.118**	0.108	0.330***	0.485**	0.084	-0.041		
	(0.045)	(0.066)	(0.109)	(0.220)	(0.052)	(0.073)		
Father's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (dad_fe_nchild0017)		113.938		97.418				49.633
		(78.465)		(157.145)				(69.345)
Male grade completed (dad_ma_gradecomp)		23.109**		49.722***				27.750***
		(9.198)		(16.943)				(8.287)
Female annual work hours (dad_fe_annhours)	-0.036	-0.034	-0.254*	-0.319			-0.022	-0.107
	(0.048)	(0.073)	(0.152)	(0.224)			(0.063)	(0.074)
r-squared	0.052	0.052	0.051	0.051	0.048	0.048	0.048	0.048
N	382907	382907	367529	367529	359398	359398	359452	359452
Sample: Natives and Women With:	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born
p(mom_fe_nchild0017-dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.050		0.425				
p(mom_fe_nchild0017+dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.771		0.820				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp-dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.002		0.000				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp+dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.861		0.193				
p(mom_fe_annhours-dad_fe_annhours=0)	0.031	0.198	0.025	0.069				
p(mom_fe_annhours+dad_fe_annhours=0)	0.192	0.390	0.285	0.085				

Notes: * p<.10, ** p<.05, *** p<.01. Clustered standard errors by sgi source country (mom then dad). The sample consists of native-born women, ages 18 to 49, of any marital status, and from all matched countries. Parent characteristics model is quadratic. Parent characteristics timing is at age 40. Regressions include age (quadratic), dummies for foreign-born mother only, foreign-born father only, and two foreign-born parents parents (as applicable), and year fixed effects.

Table A7: Effect of Immigrant Parent Characteristics on Second Generation Women's Employment Rate, Not Controlling for Race/Ethnicity (fraction of weeks worked)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mother's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (mom_fe_nchild0017)		-0.030		-0.046		-0.027		
		(0.038)		(0.071)		(0.048)		
Female grade completed (mom_fe_gradecomp)		-0.008		-0.033***		0.010		
		(0.005)		(0.010)		(0.006)		
Female employment rate (mom_fe_emprate)	0.081*	0.118	0.241**	0.442*	0.090	-0.109		
	(0.043)	(0.095)	(0.100)	(0.248)	(0.059)	(0.078)		
Father's immigrant characteristics:								
Female fertility (dad_fe_nchild0017)		0.031		0.059				-0.014
		(0.044)		(0.079)				(0.046)
Male grade completed (dad_ma_gradecomp)		0.011**		0.027***				0.014***
		(0.004)		(0.009)				(0.004)
Female employment rate (dad_fe_emprate)	0.033	-0.035	-0.157	-0.228			0.096	-0.144
	(0.056)	(0.109)	(0.147)	(0.246)			(0.081)	(0.098)
r-squared	0.030	0.030	0.029	0.030	0.027	0.027	0.027	0.027
N	382907	382907	367529	367529	359398	359398	359452	359452
Sample: Natives and Women With:	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	One or Two Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Both Parents Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Mother Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born	Father Only Foreign-Born
p(mom_fe_nchild0017-dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.287		0.454				
p(mom_fe_nchild0017+dad_fe_nchild0017=0)		0.989		0.810				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp-dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.002		0.001				
p(mom_fe_gradecomp+dad_ma_gradecomp=0)		0.722		0.418				
p(mom_fe_emprate-dad_fe_emprate=0)	0.525	0.301	0.100	0.161				
p(mom_fe_emprate+dad_fe_emprate=0)	0.088	0.559	0.299	0.136				

Notes: * p<.10, ** p<.05, *** p<.01. Clustered standard errors by sgi source country (mom then dad). The sample consists of native-born women, ages 18 to 49, of any marital status, and from all matched countries. Parent characteristics model is quadratic. Parent characteristics timing is at age 40. Regressions include age (quadratic), dummies for foreign-born mother only, foreign-born father only, and two foreign-born parents parents (as applicable), and year fixed effects.