Online Appendix for: "Gender-Specific Occupational Following and Gender Differences in Occupational Choice"

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January 8, 2026

Contents

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1 More Literature

There has also been scholarship in sociology and other disciplines regarding gender differences in occupational status. For example, Zhu and Grusky (2022) use data from the General Social Survey in the United States and consider how gender occupational segregation in the United States has changed over time. They find that while occupations became more integrated from 1970 to 2000, that integration has paused and even reversed since 2000. They find that nearly half of this change is due to differences in gender-specific occupational transmission.

Other work that has investigated how gender segregation has changed over time include Blau et al. (2013). Levanon and Grusky (2016); Polavieja and Platt (2014) consider the mechanisms underlying gender segregation, focusing on the roles of preferences and skills. Levanon and Grusky (2016), for instance and building on Charles and Grusky (2005), find that comparative advantages in skills lead men into more manual occupations and women into more sociable occupations. Charles (1992) looks at gender segregation across countries, while Charles and Bradley (2009) looks at gender segregation in field of study across countries. Many more papers consider gender differences in occupational attainment beyond those cited here. Finally, for additional review articles on gender differences in the labor market, see Altonji and Blank (1999); Blau and Kahn (2017); Goldin (2014).

2 Comparing the United States with Finland

I complement the analysis in Finland with an analysis using data in the United States, using data from the General Social Survey (GSS). I make the same sample restrictions as in Finland and consider individuals born between 1975 and 1990 and ages 21 to 64. I also limit the sample to all individuals in the labor force, with both parents also having a reported occupation.

Table 1 reports sample summary statistics in both the United States and in Finland. The samples are very similar, in terms of age, when the individuals were born, and educational achievement. The occupational data for parents is slightly more complete in Finland compared to the United States, but this is largely because I consider the parent's most-experienced occupation in Finland but only the parent's current occupation in the United States. While the most-experienced occupation is preferable in order to better capture the child's exposure as well as to reduce measurement error, it is not feasible to obtain in the GSS data.[1]

[1] I also use the native occupational classification for each country: the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) in Finland and the Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) in the United States.

Table 1: Summary Statistics

Covariate	US	Finland
Age	32.63	29.86
Male	0.45	0.51
Year of birth	1981.50	1982.45
Has college	0.35	0.44
Has occupation	0.79	0.73
Father has occupation	0.62	0.79
Mother has occupation	0.58	0.84
Income	29746.94	27123.22
N	8,665	1,136,997

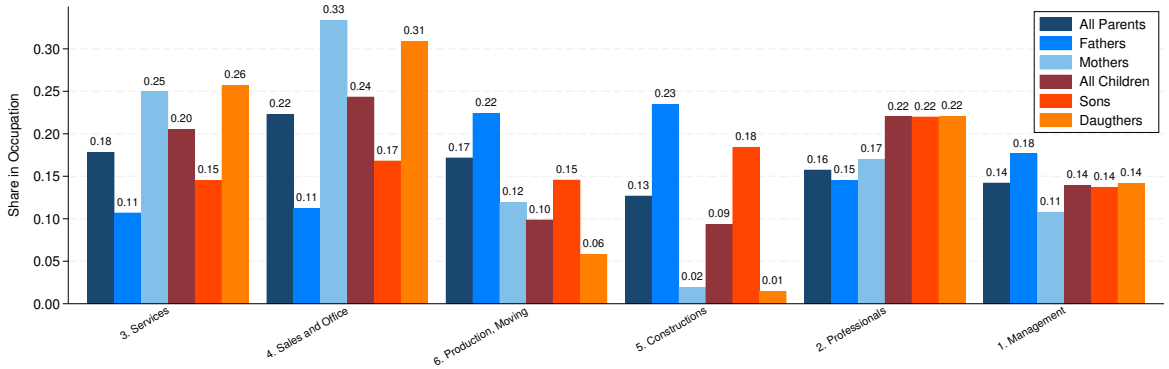
Notes: Table shows sample summary statistics in both the U.S. sample and the Finnish sample.

Figure 1 shows the occupational distributions of both the parent and child generations, as well as by gender. The gender split by occupation is broadly similar in both the United States and Finland. In both countries, the managerial and professional occupations are relatively evenly split between males and females, for both generations. Similarly in both countries, there are more males in the more manual occupations of construction and production (in the U.S. classification) and trades and plant and machine operators (in the Finnish classification). Finally, there are more females in the sales, services, and clerical support occupations in both countries.

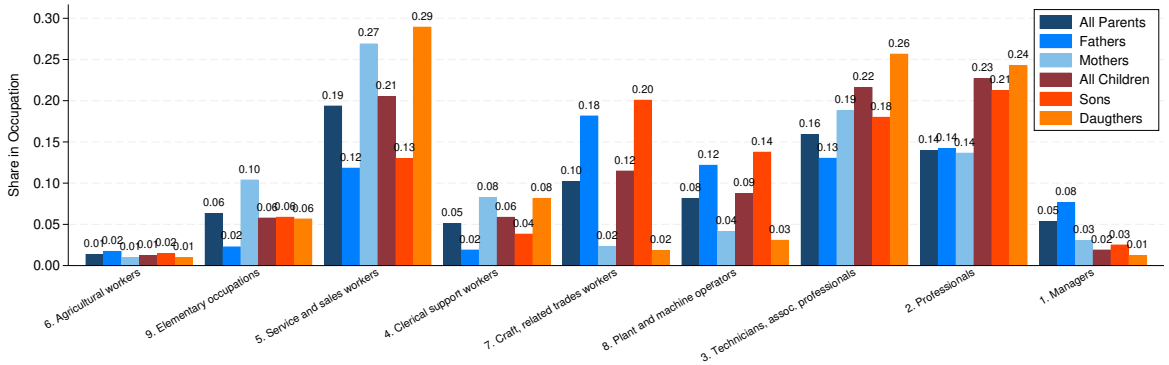
Figure 2 replicates Figure 1 from the main paper, but with the GSS data. Given the smaller sample size, I only show estimates up until the 2-digit occupational level. The main takeaways are very similar to the main paper: children are more likely to choose an occupation held by either parent, they are more likely to choose the occupation held by their same-sex parent, and occupations are transmitted more strongly to sons than daughters in general. The numerical estimates are also relatively similar to the estimates with the Finnish data.

The smaller sample size of the GSS also makes all corresponding estimates of Figure 2 from the main paper too noisy to draw any conclusions, as shown in Figure 3 below. Finally, Figure 4 shows that the gender-specific advantage in occupational following shows a similar pattern in the US as in Finland: the male-specific relative advantage is strongest in female-dominated occupations, while the female-specific relative advantage is strongest in male-dominated occupations.

Figure 1: Occupational Distributions of Parents and Children



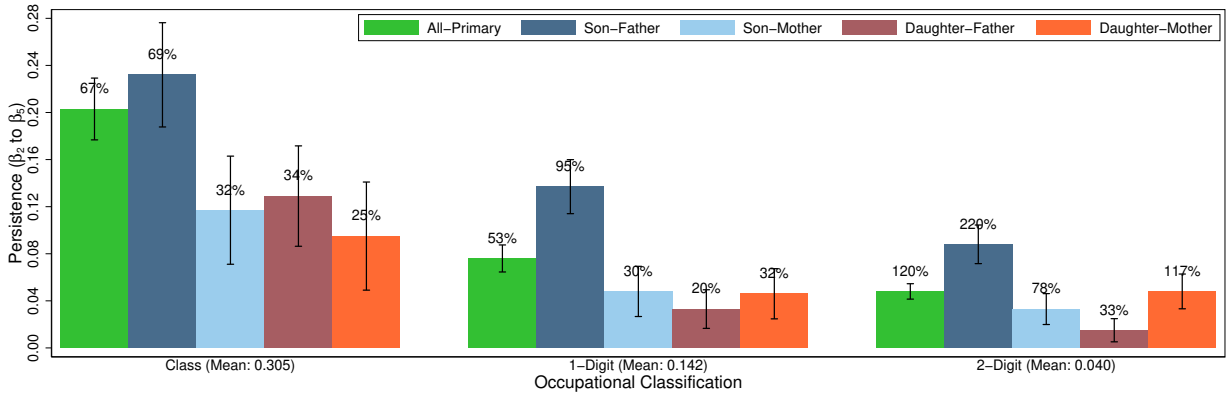
(a) United States



(b) Finland

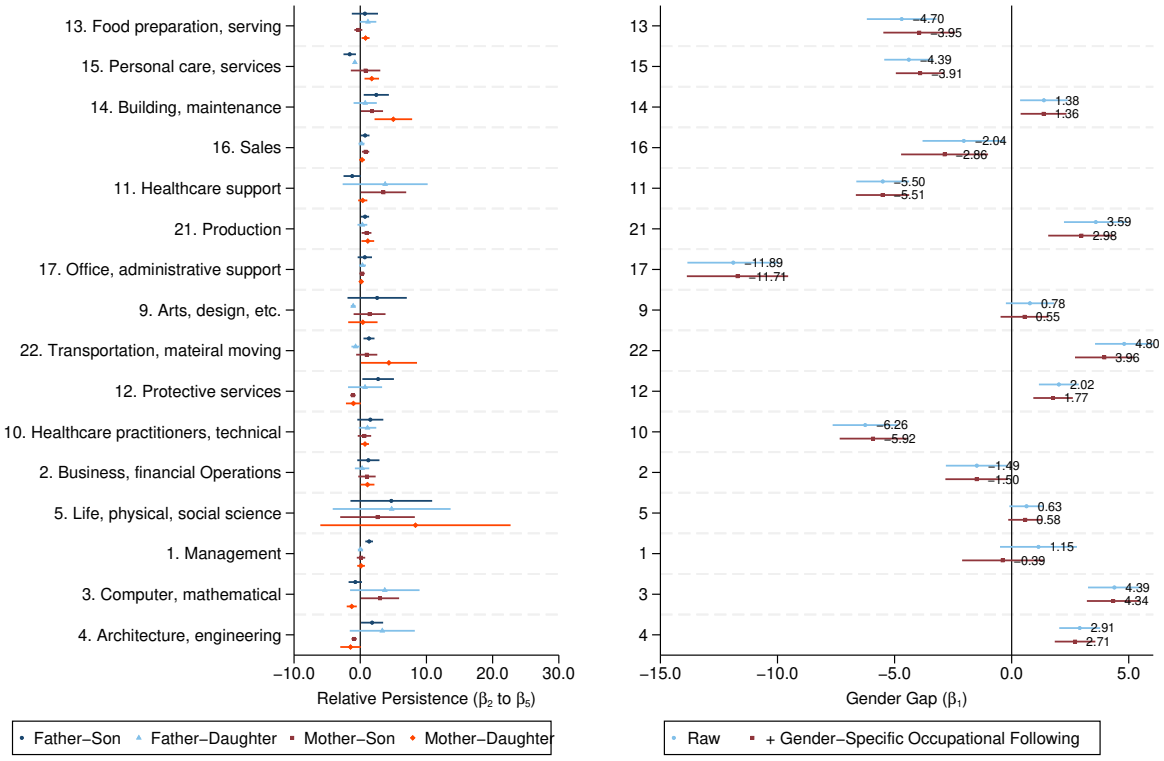
Notes: Occupations are sorted by occupation-specific average income. Sample limited to children with both parents working. Shown at one-digit level.

Figure 2: Gender-Specific Occupational Following in the U.S.



Notes: Figure replicates Figure 1 from the main paper, using GSS data from the U.S.

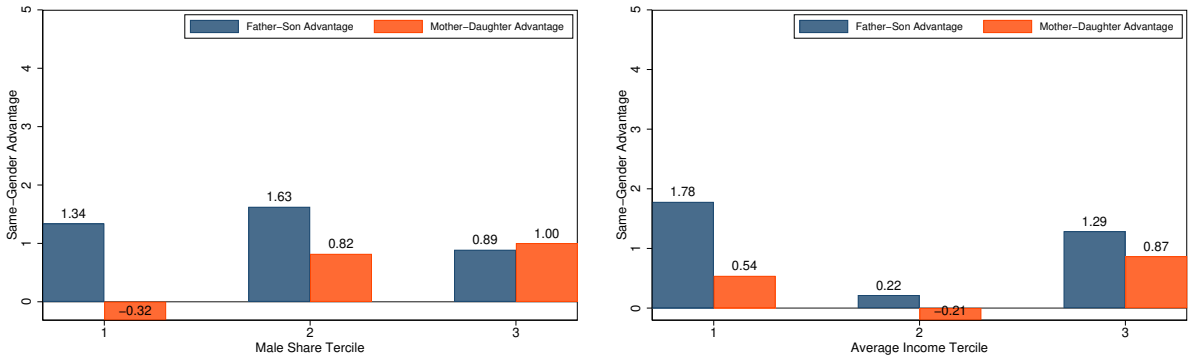
Figure 3: Gender-Specific Occupational Following and Occupational Segregation in the U.S.



(a) Occupational Following (b) Occupational Segregation

Notes: Figure replicates Figure 2 from the main paper, using GSS data from the U.S.

Figure 4: Heterogeneity in Gender-Specific Occupational Following in the U.S.



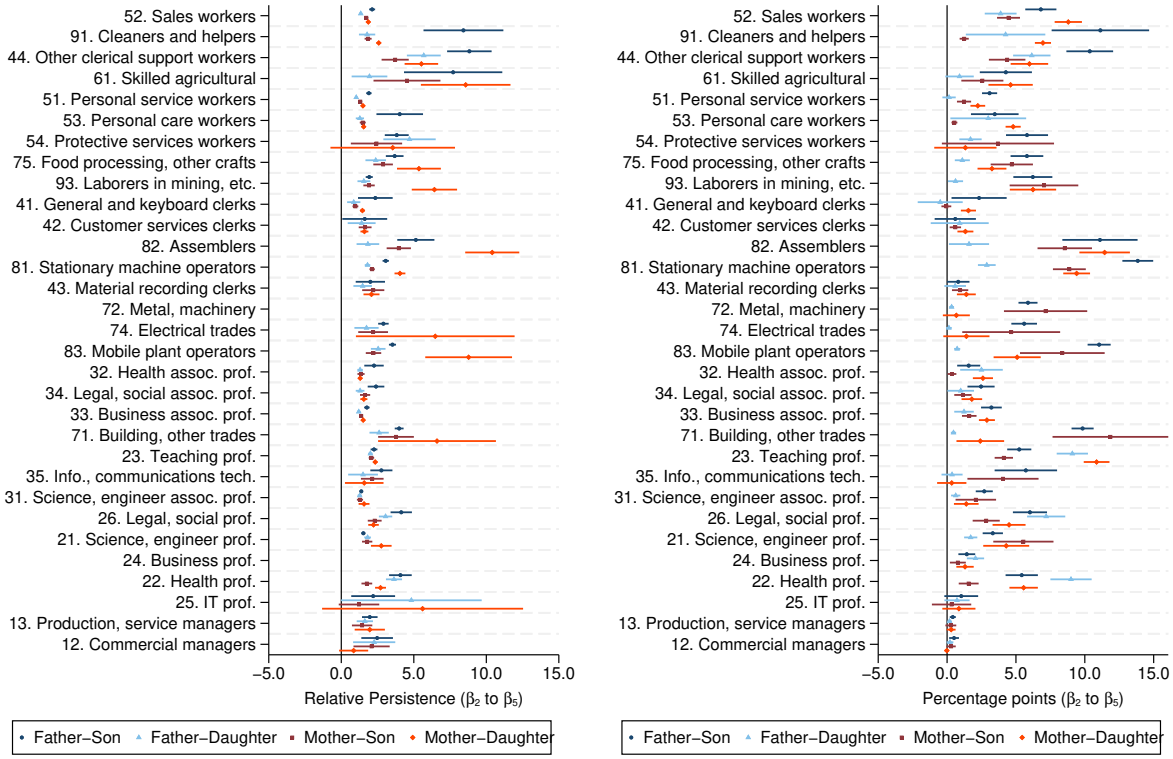
(a) By Gender Share (b) By Average Income

Notes: Figure replicates Figure 3 from the main paper, using GSS data from the U.S.

3 Robustness

Lastly, this section considers robustness checks of results from the main paper. Figure 5 replicates Panel (a) of Figure 2 in the main paper, considering alternative empirical specifications: (i) a logit choice model and (ii) the raw point estimates from the main empirical specification (not scaled by the control means). Each case yields similar patterns regarding occupational following: occupational following is strongest along gender lines.

Figure 5: Gender-Specific Occupational Following: Robustness



(a) Logit Choice Model

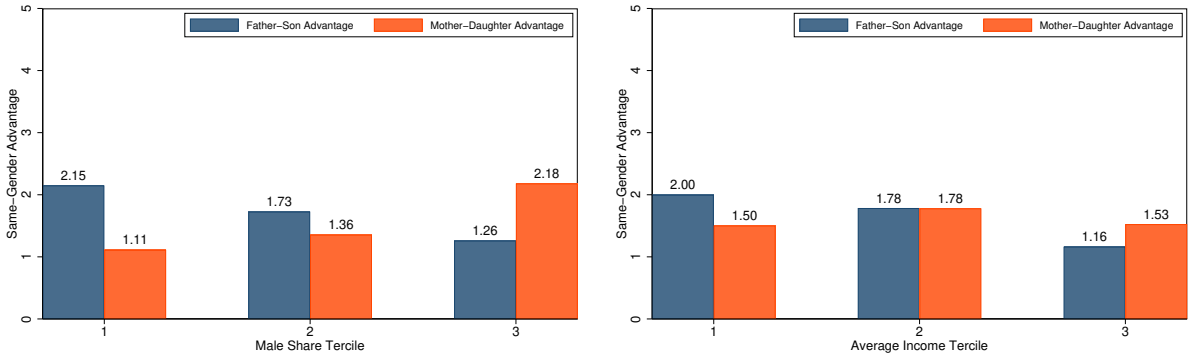
(b) Raw Point Estimates

Notes: Figure replicates Panel (a) of Figure 2 from the main paper, although considers a logit choice model instead of a linear probability choice model in Panel a and considers only the raw point estimates in Panel b.

Figures 6 and 7 show that the qualitative results regarding heterogeneity within gender-specific occupational following across different occupations is robust to the empirical specification used. Figure 6 shows that the same pattern by male share and average occupation-specific income from the main paper holds when considering estimates from a logit choice model, rather than a linear probability choice model. Figure 7 shows that same pattern again holds when considering the degree of same-sex occupational following and not scaling it by the opposite sex, although the relationship between same-sex occupational following

for men with the male share of the occupation seems to flatten.

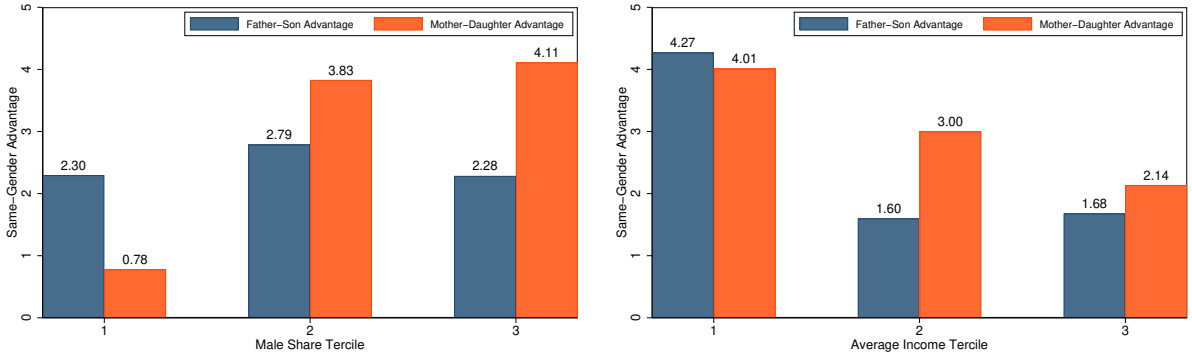
Figure 6: Heterogeneity in Gender-Specific Occupational Following: Logit Choice Model



(a) By Gender Share (b) By Average Income

Notes: Figure replicates Figure 3 from the main paper, although considers a logit choice model instead of a linear probability choice model.

Figure 7: Heterogeneity in Gender-Specific Occupational Following: Same-Sex Only



(a) By Gender Share (b) By Average Income

Notes: Figure replicates Figure 3 from the main paper, although considers the same-sex estimates only (not relative to the opposite-sex estimates).

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