This article looks at the determinants of job turnover among mothers of infants, using intentions to change jobs or exit the labor force assessed at 1 year postpartum among a sample of 246 employed mothers. Hypotheses were that exit intentions should be more influenced by household factors determining labor supply and other personal characteristics indicating job attachment. Additionally, whereas both types of turnover intentions should decrease as workplace supports for mothers increase, child care satisfaction should affect exit intentions more than intentions to change jobs. Results showed support for the notion that labor force exits are more strongly influenced by child care problems and measures of job attachment than are job changes, though models correcting for selectivity reveal that the child care problems are not directly influencing exit intentions. Supervisor and co-worker support impede intentions to both exit the labor force and change jobs. However, other dimensions of workplace support affected intentions to exit and intentions to change jobs differently.

Workplace Support, Child Care, and Turnover Intentions among Employed Mothers of Infants

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Studies of women's job mobility and the gender gap in wages frequently allude to the importance of childbearing interruptions in explaining women's inferior position in the labor force. Labor force intermittency is thought to reduce women's wages by reducing their job experience, opportunities for training and placement within firm internal labor markets, and possibly depreciating their human capital. Although recent studies show a significant drop in the extent to which women leave the labor force to bear children (DeSai & Waite, 1991; Waite, Haggstrom, & Kanouse, 1985), child care responsibilities continue to exert a significant influence on women's labor force continuity. Investigations of women's job mobility frequently focus on the period immediately following birth; in contrast, the present study will focus on the future work intentions of

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those women who maintained labor force participation during the 1st year postpartum. The reason for this shift in emphasis is twofold: (a) Most job quits by women of childbearing age do not occur in conjunction with a birth but do occur more often among women with young children (Felmlee, 1984; Glass, 1988), and (b) studies of child care and women's labor force participation show that child care problems and job-family conflicts often force women to leave employment for varying periods of time until scheduling or child care problems can be resolved (Love, Galinsky, & Hughes, 1987; Presser & Baldwin, 1980).

Earlier research using the data presented here analyzed the determinants of labor force withdrawals and job changes following childbirth (Glass & Riley, 1994) and found that over 80% of respondents returned to some form of employment during their 1st year postpartum. However, 11% of these workers reported that they were likely to quit the labor force in the coming year, whereas another 25% intended to change jobs in the near future. Clearly, these figures indicate that a substantial amount of job turnover and labor force intermittency may occur even for individuals who maintained labor force participation across a childbearing event. Therefore, this article will focus on the determinants of future work intentions among employed mothers of infants.

BACKGROUND

The most important demographic shift in the labor force over the past century has been the increasing labor force participation of mothers. In recent decades, the most dramatic shift has been the increasing labor force participation of mothers of young children, infants in particular (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992), and the failure of childbearing to begin a period of labor force withdrawal for the majority of employed women (DeSai & Waite, 1991; O'Connell, 1990). Yet this notable increase in women's labor force attachment masks the still considerable difficulties faced by employed mothers of young children in the management of job and family responsibilities (Hewlett, 1987; Hochschild, 1989) and the extent to which this increase in labor supply has been involuntary. For example, attitudinal surveys show that most American mothers prefer that their children be cared for by a parent rather than substitute provider (Mason & Kuhlthau, 1989) and that substantial numbers of mothers of infants are employed because they are single, divorced, or partnered to men whose earnings are low (O'Connell, 1990).

In the data used here, 28% of the sample of pregnant employees preferred to withdraw from the labor force postpartum but actually continued employment. Another 31% wanted to work only part-time, but planned full-time employment postpartum. Thus the general increase in mothers' labor force participation has been accompanied by increasing pressure on mothers to provide financially for their families despite their professed desires to also care for their own children. Coupled with shortages of high quality affordable child care (Hofferth & Phillips, 1987; Presser, 1989) and work environments that are not especially hospitable for mothers of infants (Glass & Camarigg, 1992), it should not be surprising that substantial numbers of employed mothers of very young children express intentions to change jobs or quit the labor force entirely if they can.

Theoretically, these facts lead to the conclusion that patterns of intermittency and job mobility in mothers' employment may not disappear as mothers' labor force attachment grows but may change dramatically in character. In previous decades, work interruptions were structured by normative constraints against the employment of mothers of infants (including employer discrimination) and the lack of child care services for very young children. This normative pattern was bolstered by relatively high wages for men, lower wages for women, and lower rates of divorce and out-of-wedlock childbearing. In contrast, mothers today may face greater financial constraints and marital instability, which would make labor force withdrawals contingent on the availability of unearned income or other family support. Thus withdrawals would be less predictable in their timing and duration and less likely to occur in conjunction with childbirth per se. Moreover, withdrawals of long duration should diminish significantly and job changes (perhaps with a period of brief unemployment in between) should increase. Both withdrawals and job changes should be increasingly structured by the absence of workplace supports and dissatisfaction with child care arrangements. Finally, job moves should be more dependent on mothers' wage rates and less dependent on family composition or partner's income (trends that have been demonstrated empirically in Mroz, 1987; Klerman & Leibowitz, 1994).

Similarly, the normative climate of support for full-time mothering in the early years of life has disintegrated into a number of competing maternal ideologies that each claim substantial numbers of adherents (Glass, 1992). Some women remain traditional in their desire to stay home full-time to devote themselves to child care, whereas others support shared parenting and full-time employment for mothers. Somewhere in the

middle lies a substantial portion of women torn between these two polarities, who prefer some type of employment but are suspicious of nonmaternal child care in the first few years of life (Greenstein, 1986).

In the present study, we will draw on the preceding analysis to focus specifically on workplace support and child care satisfaction as factors that should differentiate movers and stayers among employed mothers, controlling for family composition and partner's income. We separate intentions to quit the labor force from intentions to change jobs, hypothesizing that intentions to quit the labor force should be more closely related to family characteristics and income opportunities for the mother and father, as well as mothers' traditionalism and preference for homemaking. However, we believe that both intentions to change jobs and to leave the labor force should be affected by workplace policies and child care arrangements. Specifically, benefits or personnel policies that reduce job-family conflict should decrease quit intentions, as should social support from supervisors and co-workers. Satisfying, affordable child care arrangements should also decrease quit intentions, although we suspect these might have stronger effects on intentions to leave the labor force than intentions to change jobs. Because most child care arrangements are independent of any particular job, difficulties with child care may not be resolved by taking a different job (unless, of course, the work schedule of the current job is causing the child care difficulty). However, leaving the labor force is sure to eliminate problems with substitute care.

DATA AND METHODS

The data analyzed here come from a longitudinal sample of 324 women employed at least 20 hrs a week during the first trimester of pregnancy. Respondents were recruited from prenatal hospital records in northern Indiana in 1991 and 1992. Area hospitals served an approximate 60-mile radius, including southwest lower Michigan and north central Indiana, and provided an exhaustive sampling frame because they were the only sources of maternity care in the county and drew significant numbers of women from surrounding rural counties. Any bias in the sample is likely to stem from the disproportionate omission of poor, marginally employed, or transient respondents. The survey had an effective response rate of 70% of those in the initial sampling frame, 81% of those successfully contacted for an interview. At the time of the initial interview, respondents were either in their last trimester of pregnancy or, occasionally, their 1st month postpartum.

Descriptive statistics indicate that the mean age of the sample was 28, 51% were experiencing a first birth, 10% listed a non-White ethnicity, and 91% were married or living with their partner. Regular hours at work averaged 38.6 per week for the sample, and respondents reported mean annual earnings of $18,451. These statistics are quite close to national large sample estimates for women employed the year prior to the birth of a child (Garrett, Lubeck, & Wenk, 1991).

The prenatal interview contained extensive information on the respondent's primary job or last job held, the respondent's family situation, and demographic variables, as well as future work preferences and intentions. Respondents were then recontacted at 6 and 12 months postpartum to ascertain their current job status and child care arrangements. The 6- and 12-month follow-ups captured 94% and 93% of the original sample, respectively. Data on child care and working conditions for the job held at 12 months postpartum were used for this study. After deleting 11 cases with missing data, 246 cases of mothers employed at 12 months postpartum were available for analysis.

MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES

Quit Intention

Future work intentions measured at 1 year postpartum were assessed by the following questions: How likely is it you will make a genuine effort to find a new job with another employer in the next year? and How likely is it that you will leave your present job to become a full-time homemaker in the next year? Response categories for both questions were 1 (*not at all likely*), 2 (*somewhat likely*) and 3 (*very likely*), but for purposes of analysis they were combined into 0 (*not likely*) and 1 (*somewhat or very likely*). The categories of 2 and 3 were combined for two reasons. The *n*s for the separate categories were too small to accommodate separate analyses (for exit intentions, the *n*s were 5 and 21, whereas for change intentions the *n*s were 35 and 33). Additionally, it makes more substantive sense to include the category of somewhat likely with those likely to quit than to group them with respondents indicating no intention of quitting their current job. Responses to both questions were then combined into one 3-category variable representing the respondent's future work intention—same job, new job, or homemaker. In six cases, respondents indicated that they were likely to both change jobs and quit the labor force entirely. These six cases were allocated according to their strongest preference; if both destination

statuses were equally likely, they were randomly assigned to one status or the other. The resulting distribution for the dependent variable given in Table 1 shows that there were 65 women indicating an intention to change jobs, 26 women indicating an intention to quit the labor force, and 155 women who intended to stay in the same job.

The independent variables represent the three key areas of (a) family status and personal background, (b) child care arrangements, and (c) workplace support, subdivided into macrolevel organizational characteristics and microlevel working conditions and interpersonal support.

Family Status and Personal Background Variables

Respondent's age, marital status (married or living with partner), partner's income, respondent's hourly wage, number of children, and presence of other preschool-aged children were all included as family or sociodemographic controls.[1] In addition, a measure of traditional family ideology (agreement that it is best for all concerned if the man earns the money and the wife stays home to care for the home and children) was included here as a way of tapping belief systems about the appropriateness of mothers' employment. Prenatal work preference (to be a homemaker or change jobs postpartum, as opposed to staying at one's current job) was also used here to augment the measurement of mother's job commitment. A years of education measure was added to control levels of individual human capital.

Child Care Variables

The three basic dimensions of child care that are thought to affect turnover are amount, cost, and quality. Although we asked respondents to provide the total number of hours their new child spent in nonfamilial care, that variable was highly correlated with mother's hours of employment, so it was dropped from the analysis. We did, however, test a dummy variable measuring whether their infant spent more than 40 hrs a week in nonmaternal care in several models. Cost was measured in dollars per week (for all children requiring care), and quality was ascertained by asking respondents to rank their satisfaction with their present child care arrangement on a scale from 1 to 4. Additionally, a variable measuring the number of different types of child care respondents utilized (father care, relative care in home or out, formal care in home or out, and other) was created, under the assumption that multiple forms of care are both more difficult to coordinate and more susceptible to breakdown. Finally,

TABLE 1
Means and Standard Deviations for Variables in the Analysis

	Mean	*Standard Deviation*
Age	28.96	4.49
Education	14.55	2.58
Married/living together	.92	.27
Child under 6 (1 = *present*)	.34	.47
Hourly wage	10.91	5.67
Partner's income (in thousands)	25.55	16.92
Gender traditionalism (1 = *low*, 4 = *high traditionalism*)	1.73	.81
Prefer change postpartum	.20	.40
Prefer home postpartum	.33	.47
Child care satisfaction (1 = *dissatisfied*, 4 = *very satisfied*)	3.56	.74
Child care cost (in dollars)	53.26	45.082
Father provides child care	.18	.38
Percentage of mothers in job category	20.44	26.51
Job flexibility (1 = *any form*)	.87	.34
Work at home possible	.24	.43
Social support (1 = *low*, 5 = *high support*)	2.89	.88
Sick leave available	.70	.46
Frequencies for the dependent variable and its components		
Intentions to change jobs		
1 = *very likely*	1 = 35	
2 = *somewhat likely*	2 = 33	
3 = *not at all likely*	3 = 176	
Intentions to leave labor force		
1 = *very likely*	1 = 5	
2 = *somewhat likely*	2 = 21	
3 = *not at all likely*	3 = 220	
Quit intentions		
0 = *stay in job*	0 = 155	
1 = *change jobs*	1 = 63	
2 = *exit labor force*	2 = 26	

NOTE: $N = 246$.

dummy variables representing each mother's primary form of child care were constructed (father care, relative care, formal care, and other).

Workplace Support Variables

These variables were subdivided into those organizational and occupational variables that might affect the extent to which workers' family needs would be supported by the employing organization and job level variables measuring on-site working conditions and social support from supervisors and coworkers. On the organizational side, measures of work-

place size (number of employees), unionization (whether respondents's job was represented by a labor union), percentage of females in the respondent's job category, and percentage of mothers in the respondent's job category were the four variables used to indicate whether employers had any motivation or capacity to attend to the job and family conflicts of employees. We also included occupational and industry categorical variables to test for any gross effects of occupational sector or industry location.

The most direct measures of workplace support came from questions about the respondent's specific job or work site. The following four working conditions were measured with single-item dichotomous questions to assess support for employed mothers: whether the respondent was able to work regular hours at home, whether the respondent could work part-time, whether she had ever received a promotion with her current employer, and whether a future promotion was likely. In addition, social support from supervisors and coworkers was measured with a scale (alpha reliability of .67) combining five items—three dealing with the extent to which supervisors were rated as supportive or mentioned as positive aspects of the respondent's job, and two dealing with the extent to which co-workers were rated as supportive or mentioned as positive aspects of the job. Additionally, unusual work scheduling was measured with a dummy variable indicating the presence of any of the following: an evening or night shift, a rotating shift, or mandatory overtime. A job flexibility variable registered positive responses to any one or more of the following items:

- I decide when I take breaks on my job.
- It would be very hard for me to change the days I wanted to work (reverse coded).
- It would be very hard for me to change the hours I wanted to work (reverse coded).
- It would be very hard for me to take time off during my work day to take care of personal or family matters (reverse coded).

Finally, we also created a summary child care assistance measure coded 1 if the respondent received any form of child care assistance from her employing organization (child care referral and information, child care vouchers or money, or on-site care—all measured as dichotomous variables). To augment that measure, we also included a variable indicating whether the respondent could use sick leave to care for sick family

members. Descriptive statistics for the variables ultimately used in the analyses are listed in Table 1.

Analysis of Data

Multinomial logistic regressions were run to simultaneously model the two important contrasts constituting the dependent variable of future work intention: (a) the log odds of intending to quit the labor force rather than stay with one's current employment and (b) the log odds of moving to a new job rather than staying with one's current employment. First, family status, personal background, and child care variables were entered into the equation as a block. Then, the sets of organizational characteristics and workplace support were added sequentially. Because of the limited sample size and the large number of potential independent variables, the models shown in each block uniformly include only those variables showing statistical significance in any model specification or necessary as sociodemographic controls. The final model for each contrast in column 4 was constructed by entering the variables within each block in stepwise fashion, keeping only those variables showing statistical significance at any point in the stepwise selection process. To check on the robustness of this cross-sectional analysis, the four models were reestimated using a correction for selectivity bias in the sample of employed mothers of infants.

RESULTS

Results for all models are presented in Table 2. Model 1 displays the coefficients for the family background and child care variables only. Model 2 adds the first block of organizational variables, and Model 3 adds the block of working conditions and interpersonal support. Model 4 is the composite model derived from the previous three steps.

Turning first to Model 1, results show that intentions to change jobs were negligibly affected by background and family status variables and were unaffected by child care cost and satisfaction. Age and marital status both served to significantly inhibit change intentions. Presumably, the propensity to change jobs declines as age increases. Thus it follows that change intentions would also decline. Having a partner may impede change intentions because the increased financial responsibility that at-

TABLE 2

Log Odds of Changing Jobs vs. Staying With Same Employer (Change) and of Quitting Labor Force vs. Staying With Same Employer (Exit)

	Model 1—Background Family Status and Child Care Variables		*Model 2—Occupational Characteristics Variables*		*Model 3—Working Conditions and Social Support Variables*		*Model 4—Final Model*	
b (SE)	*Change*	*Exit*	*Change*	*Exit*	*Change*	*Exit*	*Change*	*Exit*
Age	−.078† (.041)	−.041 (.058)	−.082* (.041)	−.035 (.060)	−.094* (.045)	−.047 (.066)	−.096* (.045)	−.046 (.067)
Education	.062 (.079)	.090 (.117)	.047† (.080)	.105 (.119)	.106 (.084)	.165 (.133)	.088 (.085)	.184 (.136)
Married/living together	−1.067† (.606)	9.799 (188.800)	−1.151† (.623)	9.784 (187.300)	−1.169† (.623)	9.590 (187.300)	−1.275* (.642)	9.635 (184.100)
Child under 5	−.315 (.386)	−.536 (.572)	−.132 (.399)	−.749 (.603)	−.387 (.405)	−1.053 (.654)	−.171 (.419)	−1.373† (.717)
Hourly wage	−.029 (.036)	−.055 (.053)	−.018 (.037)	−.070 (.055)	−.038 (.038)	−.061 (.058)	−.024 (.038)	−.073 (.060)
Partner's income (in thousands)	.011 (.012)	.042** (.016)	.012 (.012)	.043** (.016)	.015 (.013)	.047** (.018)	.016 (.013)	.048** (.018)
Gender traditionalism	−.082 (.221)	.794** (.283)	−.055 (.223)	.761** (.286)	.015 (.232)	.920** (.307)	.036 (.234)	.908** (.310)
Prefer change postpartum	1.115** (.414)	−.999 (.817)	1.045* (.418)	−1.067 (.830)	.985* (.429)	−1.179 (.831)	.915* (.433)	−1.289 (.849)
Prefer home postpartum	1.35 (.419)	−.733 (.580)	.192 (.423)	−.727 (.589)	−.003 (.435)	−.815 (630)	.053 (.442)	−.740 (.638)
Child care satisfaction	.036 (.235)	−.543† (.295)	.052 (.235)	−.562† (.301)	.128 (.247)	−.543† (.325)	.144 (.248)	−.550† (.330)
Child care cost	−.007 (.005)	−.011† (.007)	−.006 (.005)	−.012† (.007)	−.008 (.005)	−.011 (.008)	−.007 (.005)	−.012 (.008)
Father provides child care	−.945† (.528)	−.868 (.740)	−.834 (.535)	−.995 (.751)	−1.084* (.549)	−1.238 (.801)	−.992† (.561)	−1.273 (.796)
Percentage of mothers in job category			−.017* (.009)	.011 (.008)			−.020* (.009)	.011 (.009)
Job flexibility					.199 (.497)	1.085 (.874)	.299 (.501)	.855 (.888)
Work at home possible					−.767 (.474)	−1.399* (.696)	−.838† (.479)	−1.377* (.700)
Social support					−.386† (.209)	−.735* (.326)	−.366† (.212)	−.795* (.339)
Sick leave available					−.813* (.372)	−.742 (.549)	−.864* (.377)	−.771 (.558)
R	.15		.17		.20		.22	

NOTE: N = 246.
†p = < .08; *p = < .05; **p = < .01.

tends the birth of a child is better met with two incomes than with one. Because married women have their spouse's income to augment their own, they may have less of a financial impetus to pursue a new job than do unpartnered women.

Prenatal intentions to change jobs were also significantly associated with intentions to change jobs at 12 months postpartum. Perhaps some respondents felt constrained to stay in their prenatal job to obtain medical or leave benefits for childbearing, or perhaps a common response bias affects both prenatal and postpartum quit intentions. However, most of the women with prenatal quit intentions had already quit their prenatal job and were reporting on a new job at 12 months postpartum, indicating their personal propensity to change jobs frequently to search for more satisfactory employment. Finally, father care as the primary child care mode serves to impede job changing. Job changing in this context might disrupt a carefully orchestrated work schedule that makes father care possible.

In contrast, intentions to leave the labor force were associated with partner's income and gender traditionalism (both of which increased the odds of quitting) as well as child care satisfaction and child care cost (which decreased the odds of quitting). Although the inverse relationship between child care cost and odds of quitting the labor force may appear to be counterintuitive, a closer look suggests that individuals who pay more for child care are those in well-paying jobs exhibiting greater job attachment and thus are less likely to quit the labor force. All told, these results provide some support for our original hypothesis that intentions to leave the labor force should be more strongly affected by child care satisfaction, gender traditionalism, and respondent/partner wages than intentions to change jobs. However, respondent's wage did not predict the odds of leaving the labor force, all else equal, nor did the other measures of attachment (prenatal intention to leave the labor force).

Other model specifications that were explored included a dummy variable measuring child care equal to or in excess of 40 hrs a week, a count of the types of child care used, and a series of dummy variables representing father care, relative care, formal care, and other types of care. These variables were not only unrelated to change or quit intentions but their inclusion did not affect the other coefficients in Models 1-4. Thus they were dropped from the analysis. Father care was retained because of its substantive importance (see Maume & Mullin, 1993, for evidence that father care encourages mother's job quitting) and because preliminary analyses showed that its effects on intentions were most different from the other categories of care, although not reaching statistical significance.

Model 2 displays the results for the second specification adding organizational variables thought to increase workplace support. Unionization, firm size, occupation and industry sector, and percentage of females in the respondent's job showed no effects for either form of job leaving and were dropped from further consideration. However, percentage of mothers in the respondent's job category decreased job changing but not intentions to leave the labor force. Because percentage of females did not affect intentions to change jobs, we suspect that the percentage of mothers does not reflect the power of employees in the workplace to mold policy but instead serves as a proxy for social support at the workplace or for unmeasured variables that indicate the compatibility of that job with motherhood.

Turning to Model 3, results show that some, but not all, supportive working conditions negatively affected quit intentions. The measures of social support from supervisors and co-workers consistently decreased both intentions to change jobs and withdraw from the labor force. The other determinants of exit and change intentions diverged from here. The ability to work at home decreased exit intentions, and the availability of sick leave for family members decreased change intentions. None of the other workplace supports (child care assistance, ability to work part-time, likelihood of promotion, absence of unusual work hours) affected respondents' work intentions and all were eliminated from consideration. The inclusion of workplace support variables served also to eliminate the effect of child care cost on change intentions. This suggests that supportive working conditions are associated with higher expenditures on child care, again due to the generally positive association between wages and working conditions.

Finally, Model 4 includes all the variables showing effects in stages 1-3. This comprehensive model shows the robustness of most previously specified effects. In this model, the demographic factors of age and marital status, the child care variable of father care, the occupational characteristic variable of percentage of mothers in the job, and the support variables of workplace social support and sick leave for family illness all served to decrease change intentions, whereas prenatal change intentions increased the log odds of change intentions. The ability to work at home emerged as an inhibitor of change intentions in the full model, as well.

Robust effects were also demonstrated in the models of labor force exit intentions. The presence of additional young children, though not significant in Model 1, was significant in the final three models and exerted an inhibiting effect on intentions to exit the labor force. That women with

TABLE 3
Selection Model for Postpartum Labor Force Status

Variables Measured Prenatally	*b* (SE)
Constant	−.026 (.943)
Child under 6	−.435 (.410)
Married/living together	−.686 (.480)
Gender traditionalism	−.103 (.115)
Partner's income	−.011 (.008)
First birth	−.562 (.395)
Education	.101* (.050)
Hourly wage	.044† (.026)
Hours worked per week	.007 (.012)
Temporary job	−.335 (.365)
Employer tenure	−.013 (.031)
Job interest and challenge	.063 (.039)
Received promotion in past	.063 (.215)
Days off for maternity leave	.005 (.004)
Mandatory overtime	−.174 (.252)
Schedule flexibility	.174 (.268)
Sick leave for family members	−.110 (.221)
Social support	.001 (.108)

NOTE: $N = 294$; $R = .12$; chi-square/degrees of freedom = 31.46/17.

more young children were less likely to plan to leave the labor force is consistent with findings of recent research showing that increasing numbers of young children represent added financial responsibility for mothers (Rosenfeld & Spenner, 1992). Additionally, partner's income and gender traditionalism remained positively associated with exit intentions. Finally, child care satisfaction, ability to work at home, and workplace social support all served to decrease exit intentions in this final model.

Working conditions were hypothesized to have similar effects on change and quit intentions. To test the equivalence of these effects, we performed a *t*-test for the difference in coefficients across the change and quit coefficients for social support and the ability to work at home.[2] In line with our hypotheses, these tests revealed that the effects of social support and the ability to work at home on change and quit intentions do not differ in magnitude.

From this, we glean that our original hypotheses concerning the importance of child care for labor force exits, and social support variables for both exiting and changing jobs, are supported. Our expectation that respondents' wages would predict change/exit behavior remains unsubstantiated.

However, these results are biased in that the sample is restricted to women remaining in the labor force following childbirth. The data used here offer a correction to this selectivity bias from the subsample of women who did not return to the labor force following the birth of their child. Using Heckman's correction procedure, we created a lambda variable that measured the respondent's probability of being in the labor force at 12 months postparturm, based on prenatal job and family characteristics. The sample selection equation shows that women in better quality jobs with higher levels of human capital were more likely to continue employment following childbirth. Turnover intention models correcting for sample selection bias are thus adjusting the effects of job and family variables to reflect the behavior of women in lower quality jobs. These models controlling for postpartum labor force status reveal a slightly different story.

Results in Table 4 show that in the selection model for change intentions, the age, marital status, proportion of mothers in job, and available sick-leave effects remained the same, the relationship between prenatal change preferences and preferences at 1 year postpartum weakened, and the effect of workplace social support increased slightly. However, the negative effect of father care on intentions to change jobs disappeared in all but one of the models correcting for selectivity bias.

Turning to the labor force exit model, the selection correction brought forth one hypothesized relationship and obscured another. Workplace social support remained negatively associated with exit intentions. Partner's income also remained a significant positive influence. However, along the lines of our hypothesis, respondent's hourly wage did show a significant ($p = .057$) negative influence on exit intentions in the final model (column 4). Although the demographic factor of partner's income still played an important role in encouraging intentions to leave, mothers' wages emerged as an important factor in exit intentions once the bias toward high wage earners was corrected.[3] Finally, the insignificant result for child care satisfaction shown in Models 3 and 4 suggests that it may be endogenous with respect to workplace social support. Although the coefficient for child care satisfaction was significant in the first two models, with the addition of support variables in Model 3, the effect of child care satisfaction on labor force exit was attenuated to insignificance. It remained insignificant in the final model. Perhaps child care arrangements for these women are satisfactory in part because they could either alter work to avoid child care problems or could choose the child care they desired because supervisors and co-workers supported whatever schedule changes the mother needed to arrange that care. In this scenario, child care satisfaction remains an important factor with regard to turnover, but child

TABLE 4

Selection Model of Log Odds of Changing Jobs vs. Staying With Same Employer (Change) and of Quitting Labor Force vs. Staying With Same Employer (Exit)

	Model 1—Background Family Status and Child Care Variables		*Model 2—Occupational Characteristics Variables*		*Model 3—Working Conditions and Social Support Variables*		*Model 4—Final Model*	
b (SE)	*Change*	*Exit*	*Change*	*Exit*	*Change*	*Exit*	*Change*	*Exit*
Age	−.070† (.042)	−.043 (.059)	−.075† (.042)	−.366 (.060)	−.082† (.045)	−.032 (.067)	−.089* (.045)	−.028 (.068)
Education	.097 (.083)	.070 (.127)	.075 (.085)	.089 (.129)	.148 (.090)	.121 (.143)	.123 (.092)	.134 (.145)
Married/living together	−1.346* (.659)	9.888 (187.400)	−1.353* (.673)	9.863 (186.200)	−1.587* (.691)	10.006 (179.700)	−1.622* (.711)	10.112 (177.700)
Child under 5	−.358 (.390)	−.581 (.580)	−.188 (.403)	−.787 (.610)	−.313 (402)	−.635 (.610)	−.103 (.417)	−.835 (.646)
Hourly wage	−.018 (.039)	−.073 (.058)	−.014 (.039)	−.085 (.061)	−.025 (.041)	−.102 (.065)	−.017 (.041)	−.115† (.068)
Partner's income (in thousands)	.006 (.013)	.047* (.018)	.008 (.012)	.047* (.019)	.007 (.014)	.052* (.021)	.010 (.014)	.052* (.021)
Gender traditionalism	−.113 (.223)	.802** (.287)	−.082 (.225)	.765** (.289)	−.044 (.235)	.941** (.311)	−.007 (.238)	.898** (.312)
Prefer change postpartum	.962* (.431)	−.977 (.826)	.915* (.435)	−1.058 (.836)	.723 (.451)	−1.310 (.854)	.670 (.457)	−1.356 (.856)
Prefer home postpartum	.034 (.431)	−.679 (.589)	.101 (.435)	−.687 (.595)	−.163 (.449)	−.727 (.640)	−.103 (.457)	−.701 (.643)
Child care satisfaction	.059 (.236)	−.568† (.298)	.072 (.237)	−.579† (.304)	.200 (.249)	−.446 (.317)	.222 (.252)	−.448 (.321)
Child care cost	−.005 (.005)	−.010 (.007)	−.004 (.005)	−.011 (.007)	−.005 (.005)	−.011 (.008)	−.005 (.006)	−.011 (.008)
Father provides child care	−.867 (.532)	−.749 (.741)	−.755 (.537)	−.889 (.754)	−.950† (.549)	−1.117 (.789)	−.844 (.560)	−1.130 (.791)
Percentage of mothers in job category			−.017† (.009)	.011 (.008)			−.020* (.009)	.009 (.009)
Job flexibility					.328 (.517)	1.097 (.893)	.415 (.516)	.874 (.910)
Work at home possible					−.535 (.483)	−1.124† (.684)	−.632 (.489)	−1.108 (.688)
Social support					−.479* (.242)	−.722* (.340)	−.489* (.244)	−.708* (.345)
Sick leave available					−.827* (.388)	−.596 (.555)	−.856* (.389)	−.613 (.563)
Lambda	1.594 (1.332)	−.659 (2.002)	1.260 (1.342)	−.562 (2.076)	2.146 (1.425)	−.958 (1.438)	1.782 (1.438)	−.994 (2.354)
R	.15		.17		.21		.23	

NOTE: $N = 294$.

†$p = .10$; *$p = .05$; **$p = .01$.

care satisfaction itself, like turnover, is affected by workplace social support.

DISCUSSION

This analysis began with the goal of testing several hypotheses about the determinants of mothers' labor force plans at 1 year postpartum. First, we hypothesized that indicators of labor force attachment, such as family status (partner's income, mother's wage, and number and age[s] of children) and traditional gender ideology, should show a stronger relationship to intentions to exit the labor force than intentions to change jobs. Although marital status significantly decreased the odds of change intentions (but not exits), results showed that gender traditionalism, respondent's hourly wage and partner's income showed significant relationships to exit intentions but not job changes. Thus the hypothesis that household and family determinants of labor supply should affect intentions to exit the labor force more than intentions to change jobs is supported.

Our second hypothesis concerned our belief that workplace support should significantly decrease the odds of both types of job turnover, as substantial numbers of women report difficulties managing job and family responsibilities. Workplace support was operationalized at both the macro- and microlevels of operation; the former is indicated by organizational characteristics that raise the visibility of mothers' concerns and the latter by the presence of family responsive personnel policies and social support from supervisors and co-workers. Results here show that only one organizational variable consistently showed a relationship to turnover intentions—the percentage of mothers in the job category had a negative effect on job changing but no effect on labor force exits.

Our measures of family responsive policies and workplace social support fared somewhat better. Social support from supervisors and co-workers and the ability to work at home each decreased the odds of leaving the labor force, and workplace social support and sick leave for family members showed significant negative effects on job change intentions. Although workplace social support is an important determinant of both job change and exit intentions, we can only speculate as to why the other type of support that affected job change and exit intentions differed. If labor force exits are conceptualized as a pathway to meet a mother's desire to be at home, it follows that the ability to work at home might inhibit exit intentions. In this way, women who would like to be at home can accomplish this goal while working. Alternatively, the availability of

sick leave for family members' illness may not be enough home time for those women who may prefer to be at home but may be a valued benefit for those more attached to the labor force. The ability to be at home with sick family members meets a crucial need for mothers who have few options for caring for sick children other than doing it themselves.

It should also be noted here that a variety of job accommodations to family needs showed no effects on quit intentions, including the ability to work part-time and to avoid overtime or irregular work schedules. Variables measuring past promotions and the potential for future promotion at the current job also failed to affect quit intentions among this sample of mothers.

Finally, we hypothesized that child care cost and satisfaction should affect both types of quit intentions—but intentions to exit the labor force more strongly than intentions to change jobs. However, child care cost did not affect turnover intentions of either type, and child care satisfaction significantly decreased only intentions to exit the labor force and this only before controlling for selection bias in postpartum labor force status. The fact that cost did not influence quit intentions in this sample runs counter to prior research on mothers' actual labor force behavior (Maume, 1991) and may reflect the presence of child care satisfaction in this analysis but not earlier research. Child care satisfaction may incorporate satisfaction with the cost of care, as well. Finally, we suspect the attenuated effect of child care satisfaction in the selection models is, in part, a function of satisfaction's endogeneity with regard to working conditions and workplace social support. Though our hypothesis that child care satisfaction should be a stronger determinant of labor force exits than job changes appears to be only weakly supported once sample selection is controlled, viewing child care satisfaction as endogenous to workplace social support directs attention to the way in which job conditions influence mothers' ability to locate and maintain satisfactory child care arrangements.

Although this study showed that certain forms of workplace support did decrease quit intentions and thus increased job stability among employed mothers of infants, drawbacks in this design merit caution in generalizing these results to the population of mothers at large. The dependent variables measure only future work intentions, not actual labor force behavior. These self-reports are reasonably accurate predictors of future behavior based on evidence from our longitudinal records, but some slippage does occur. Nevertheless, these results bolster the contention that job mobility rates among mothers are more job or context dependent than previously suspected, although life cycle stage and family status effects still exist.

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NOTES

1. A measure of hours worked per week was included in early model specifications, but the pattern of effects did not change with hours worked per week held constant nor was the work hours variable itself significant. This variable was therefore excluded from further analysis.

2. This *t*-test uses the following formula:

$$t = \beta_1 - \beta_2 \sqrt{\sigma_1 + \sigma_2 - 2\sigma_{12}}$$

3. This makes good sense because labor force exits should be more sensitive to wages at the low end of the scale than at the high end. An alternative specification using logged wages was tried but did not produce different results in either the corrected or uncorrected turnover models.