Women, War, and Weak Instruments: A Re-Reassessment of the Role of World War II on Women's Labor Supply*

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February 15, 2026

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Abstract

This paper revisits World War II's effect on female labor force participation (FLFP) using newly available complete count census data from 1940 and 1950. Compared to seminal papers in the literature—such as Acemoglu, Autor, and Lyle (2004) and Goldin and Olivetti (2013)—which rely on 1% census samples and use the state-level military mobilization rate of men as a source of variation in women's labor supply, I find substantially smaller effects of the war on FLFP in the complete count data. The mobilization rate is therefore a weak instrument for growth in FLFP, calling into question estimates that use mobilization to instrument for FLFP's effects on wages. To understand why earlier studies using 1% samples reached different conclusions, I repeat these analyses using 10,000 random 1% subsamples of the complete count data, comparable to those used in earlier work. In all cases, the distribution of estimates varies widely, suggesting that different census samples can generate very different conclusions when estimating the effects of state-level treatment. These findings challenge previous conclusions about WWII's impact on women's labor force participation and highlight broader methodological concerns for research using small census samples.

*I thank James Feigenbaum, Robert Margo, Martin Fiszbein, Danielle Graves Williamson, Grant Goehring, and John Fallon for helpful comments and suggestions.

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1 Introduction

The large-scale mobilization effort for World War II drastically altered the composition of the American labor force, as nearly 15 million men served in the military. Between 1940 and 1945, the female labor force grew from about 14 million to 19 million women, or from 25.4% to 36.1% of the overall labor force. The male labor force meanwhile declined from 41 million to 35 million during this period (United States Department of Labor, 1953). Despite this rapid change in the gender composition of the labor force during the war, many women were displaced from their jobs as the war ended and men returned to their civilian occupations. A key question that has long been of interest to economists and historians is whether WWII was a watershed event that sparked a permanent transition toward higher female labor force participation (FLFP) or instead a temporary shock that faded with the war's end.

I provide new evidence on the effects of WWII on FLFP by leveraging complete count census data from 1940 and 1950. Specifically, I revisit two classic studies on this topic—Acemoglu, Autor, and Lyle (2004) (henceforth AAL) and Goldin and Olivetti (2013) (henceforth GO)—which both relied on 1% samples of the 1940 and 1950 censuses. While these authors used the most comprehensive available data at the time, the subsequent release of the complete count data allow for a more precise investigation into this question. Both studies use variation across states in the share of men mobilized for the war as a source of plausibly exogenous variation in women's labor supply.

When I perform the same analyses in AAL and GO on the complete count data, as opposed to the 1% samples, I find strikingly different results. In contrast to AAL, I find that the mobilization rate does not have a statistically or economically significant effect on FLFP from 1940 to 1950. AAL find that a ten percentage point increase in the mobilization rate is associated with a statistically significant increase of about one week worked for white women, whereas I find a small and insignificant effect of 0.1-0.2 weeks using the complete count data. After showing that the mobilization rate is strongly correlated with the increase in FLFP, AAL then use the mobilization rate as an instrument for the effect of FLFP on female and male earnings. My results using the complete count data show that the mobilization rate is a weak instrument, making any effects on wages difficult to interpret.

I similarly find quite different results in the complete count data when replicating GO, who follow a similar approach as AAL but allow the effects of the mobilization rate to vary separately for women who, during the war, were married with children, married without children, or unmarried. While GO find the largest effects on married women without children, I am unable to replicate this finding in the complete count data. Although some effects for some groups of women are statistically significant, most effects are much smaller than in GO, and married women *with* children seem more affected than those without children. In sum, I do not find support for the notion that the state-level mobilization rate of men had a meaningful effect on FLFP between 1940 and 1950 overall or for any particular subset of women.

To probe these differences between the complete count data and the 1% samples used by AAL and GO, I re-run their specifications using 10,000 different random 1% samples of the complete count data. Each of these samples is therefore similar to the ones used by AAL and GO. Across all specifications, these results generate a wide distribution of estimates. These distributions typically contain the AAL and GO estimates but also contain a range of both positive and negative effects, sometimes including impossibly large and small values. These results suggest that different 1% samples of the census, combined with state-level treatment, can lead to vastly different conclusions depending on the sample. In addition to calling into question previous work using the WWII mobilization rate, my findings therefore suggest that many other studies using small census samples to estimate the effects of state-level treatment may find spurious results depending on the available sample.

This study contributes to a large body of work documenting the effects of WWII on FLFP. There is no debate that women rapidly joined the labor force during the war, but many studies question whether this effect was permanent (the "watershed" theory) or short-lived (the "revisionist" theory). Early historians of the topic promoted the watershed theory (Chafe, 1972), while others argued that the war had no persistent effect on female labor supply (Schweitzer, 1980; Milkman, 1987; Goldin, 1991; Kennedy, 1999). Schweitzer (1980) argued that "[t]he barriers to women had been breached temporarily, but the return to peacetime conditions left women pretty much where they were in 1941." Using a newly discovered dataset with retrospective work histories of women in six cities—the so-called "Palmer Study" (Palmer, 1954)—Goldin (1991) finds that more than half of women employed in 1950 had also been employed in 1940, and the rise in FLFP during the war was similar to the rise in the late 1940s. Many of these studies relied on descriptive evidence from small samples and could not disentangle various factors affecting supply and demand for female labor during WWII.

To address these concerns, Acemoglu et al. (2004) introduced an innovative and influential strategy to isolate exogenous variation in female labor supply during the war. Due to pre-war differences in age, ethnic, and occupation structures, as well as idiosyncratic behavior of local draft boards, the share of men mobilized for the war differed across states. The mobilization rate of 18-44 year old men ranged about 41% to 54%. AAL argue that this mobilization rate provides a source of exogenous variation in female labor supply.

This strategy has subsequently been used to study female labor supply in many other papers. Fernández et al. (2004) find that boys raised in states with a higher WWII mobilization rate were more likely to marry working women, suggesting an intergenerational effect of higher FLFP on children's outcomes. Jaworski (2014) shows that high school-aged women during the war in states with a higher mobilization rate delayed their education, had lower employment and earnings, and got married and had children earlier. Doepke et al. (2015) argue that the increase in female labor supply during WWII was a major cause of the baby boom. They find that the wartime increase in FLFP (proxied by the mobilization rate) increased labor market competition for younger women who reached working age soon after the war, leading these younger cohorts to have lower labor force participation rates and therefore higher marriage and fertility rates. Bellou and Cardia (2016) study the long-run effects of WWII on female occupational choice, finding that women who were working-age during WWII in states with a higher mobilization rate permanently shifted into blue-collar relative to white-collar jobs, and the next generation of women shifted into clerical occupations.

This wave of studies using the mobilization rate and census samples therefore finds support for the original "watershed" theory, suggesting that "WWII mobilization led to a permanent increase in female employment" (Bellou and Cardia, 2016). My results revisiting this strategy with the complete count census data do not support this premise, as I find that the mobilization rate does not have a statistically or economically significant effect on FLFP from 1940 to 1950.

This paper is not the first to suggest that the mobilization rate may not be strongly associated with an increase in FLFP. Rose (2018) finds that local military supply contracts are strongly correlated with the rise in female workers in war industry, while the mobilization of men is not.[1] Though they do not explicitly test the effect of the mobilization rate on FLFP, Garin and Rothbaum (2025) find that the construction of manufacturing plants during the war had long-run positive effects on income and labor force participation for men but not for women. These findings suggest that local wartime production may have affected FLFP during the war but did not have persistent postwar effects. I corroborate these findings by leveraging new data to show that the mobilization rate does not affect FLFP from 1940 to 1950, and I reconcile why AAL may have originally detected a large and statistically significant effect by demonstrating that such effects can be generated by different samples of the complete count data.

2 Data

The key difference between my analyses and those of AAL and GO is my reliance on complete count 1940 and 1950 census data. These data were not available to those authors at the time of writing but present a new opportunity to analyze the effects of the war on FLFP with greater precision. In this section, I describe the differences between these datasets.

2.1 1% Samples of 1940 and 1950 Census Data

The 1% samples of the 1940 and 1950 census (used by AAL and GO) are a nationally representative sample of households in the U.S. in those years (Rug-

[1] Rose (2018) explicitly notes that "[t]he weak relationship between female wartime work and mobilization makes it difficult to interpret results that use the latter as a proxy for the former."

gles et al., 2024). Although they may be nationally representative, these samples may not be representative of particular subgroups within states. For privacy reasons, the Census Bureau does not release the complete count data from any given census until 72 years after it is taken. Until then, IPUMS provides publicly available samples. At the time of writing, AAL and GO only had access to these 1% samples.

2.2 Complete Count 1940 and 1950 Census Data

The 1940 and 1950 complete count censuses Ruggles et al. (2024) contain publicly available information on the entire U.S. population. However, in 1950 only about 20% of the population were "sample line" individuals who answered detailed questions about their educational background and labor market outcomes like wages. Therefore my analyses use the entire 1940 population but only sample line individuals from 1950 (AAL and GO follow similar restrictions within their 1% samples).[2]

The complete count data (as well as the 1% samples) processed by IPUMS contain a "SUBSAMP" variable that allocates each household to one of 100 nationally representative subsamples. Each of these subsamples from the complete count data should therefore be similar to the original 1% samples used by AAL and GO prior to the release of the complete count data. In addition to replicating the AAL and GO specifications on the entire complete count data, I also do so on each of these subsamples, allowing me to plot the distribution of resulting estimates.

3 Replicating Acemoglu, Autor, and Lyle (2004)

This section describes the AAL approach to estimating the effects on mobilization on FLFP. After replicating their findings, I implement their approach with the complete count data, as well as with 10,000 random 1% samples of the complete count data.

[2] There are known transcription errors and issues with certain variables in the complete count 1950 data. Some of these issues are detailed in the IPUMS release notes. I will re-run my analyses on any updated version of the complete count data upon release.

3.1 No Strong Relationship Between Mobilization Rate and FLFP

Contrary to AAL, I do not find that an increase in the mobilization rate is associated with a significant increase in FLFP. To explore the effect of the mobilization rate on weeks worked, I run the regression described in AAL Equation (8):

$$y_{ist} = \delta_s + \gamma \cdot d_{1950} + X'_{ist}\boldsymbol{\beta}_t + \varphi d_{1950} m_s + \epsilon_{ist}.$$

The outcome y_{ist} is weeks worked for woman i living in state s in year t, d_{1950} is a dummy variable for 1950, X_{ist} includes controls for state or country of birth, age, race, and the following state-level 1940 characteristics interacted with the 1950 dummy: share of farmers, nonwhites, and average schooling. The coefficient φ on the interaction between the mobilization rate m_s and the 1950 dummy captures whether states with a higher mobilization rate had a larger increase in female employment from 1940 to 1950. This approach is a two-period difference-in-differences model with continuous treatment, comparing pre-post (1940 vs. 1950) differences in FLFP from individuals in states with a low vs. high mobilization rate.

When I re-run the AAL specifications on the complete count data, I find no effect of the mobilization rate on FLFP. Table 1 replicates Panel A of AAL Table 5, which shows the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on weeks worked for white women between 1940 and 1950. Columns (1) through (4) replicate the original AAL specifications, where they find that a ten percentage point increase in the mobilization rate is associated with a 0.85-1.1 increase in weeks worked, with all of these estimates being highly significant. By contrast, columns (5) through (8) repeat these same specifications on the complete count data and do not reveal any meaningful effect on weeks worked. These estimates suggest that a ten percentage point increase in the mobilization rate is associated with a 0.1-0.2 increase in weeks worked. These effect sizes are about eight to ten times smaller than in AAL, and none are statistically significant. Appendix Table A1 shows results for all females, where again results are much smaller than in AAL. Appendix Table A2 shows no effect of the mobilization rate on white male labor supply, similar to the original AAL result.

Despite the fact that the mobilization rate does not appear to be strongly correlated with FLFP, I nevertheless proceed to use it to estimate the effects of an increase in FLFP on male and female wages, following the same approach as AAL. These results are therefore uninterpretable but informative in that they clearly differ from the main findings in AAL. Formally, AAL estimate

$$\ln w_{ist} = \delta_s + \gamma_{1950} + X'_{ist}\beta_t + \phi Y_{st} + u_{ist}$$

(their Equation (10)) where $\ln w_{ist}$ is the logarithm of weekly wages for individual i in state of residence s in year t, Y_{st} is the average weeks worked by women in individual i's state s, and X_{ist} includes the following individual-level characteristics interacted with a 1950 dummy: education, marital status dummy, veteran status, and a quartic in potential experience. AAL instrument for average female weeks worked with the mobilization rate interacted with a 1950 dummy.

I find that the mobilization rate is a weak instrument for FLFP, and using it as an instrument produces nonsensical estimates of the effects of FLFP on wages. Table 2 replicates Table 9 in AAL, showing the effect of an increase in FLFP on male and female wages. While AAL find that a one week increase in average female labor from 1940 to 1950 reduces female wages by a statistically significant 7%-12% across columns (1)-(3), my corresponding estimates in columns (4)-(6) are statistically insignificant and range from nonsensical negative effects (-103%) to nonsensical positive effects (157%). Depending on the specification, the first-stage F-statistic in the complete count data ranges from 0.07 to 4.39, making explicit what was already clear in Table 1: the mobilization rate is a weak instrument and is not strongly correlated with the rise in FLFP from 1940 to 1950.

3.2 Different 1% Census Samples Yield Very Different Results

How can the same specifications yield such different results in the complete count data compared to the 1% samples? To explore this question, I repeat these analyses with 10,000 different random 1% samples of the complete count data.[3]

[3] IPUMS includes a "SUBSAMP" variable that already allocates each observation in the complete count census to one of 100 nationally representative random subsamples. Given that these specifications pool data across 1940 and 1950, there are 10,000 different possible combinations of subsamples.

Each of these samples, therefore, is similar to the 1% samples originally used by AAL and GO. I replicate key specifications from AAL and GO 10,000 times, generating a distribution of estimates for each specification.

Across these 10,000 different census samples, I find a high degree of variability in the coefficients and their statistical significance. Figure 1 shows the distribution of estimates from AAL Table 5, Column (4), which estimates the effect of the mobilization rate on weeks worked for white women, with a full set of controls. There are two striking features of this figure. First, the distribution of estimates is quite wide, with both positive and negative effects frequently occurring. Second, the positive AAL coefficient, while within the distribution, is clearly in the far right tail. In fact, according to this figure, it is statistically more likely that a ten percentage point increase in the mobilization rate is associated with a 0.5 week *decrease* in female weeks worked than the positive 0.85 weeks found by AAL.

Figure 2 shows the same distribution as a scatterplot, with the coefficient on the x-axis and the corresponding p-value on the y-axis. This figure shows that the AAL estimate happens to fall in a small cluster of points that show a large and statistically significant effect, compared to most estimates which are smaller in magnitude and unlikely to be statistically significant. Appendix Figures A1 and A2 show the same plots for AAL Table 9, Column (3), the effect of an increase in female weeks worked on female wages. Once again the AAL estimate is an outlier both in magnitude and statistical significance. These results suggest that estimates of state-level treatment effects using small individual-level census samples can be highly variable depending on the chosen sample.

4 Replicating Goldin and Olivetti (2013)

GO follow a similar approach as AAL, pooling 1940 and 1950 census data and estimating the effect of the state mobilization rate on FLFP.[4] By estimating the effect of the mobilization rate separately on different groups of women, GO offer an

[4]There are some differences in their approaches. For example, GO assign the mobilization rate based on birth state, whereas AAL do so by state of residence. In section 5 I describe robustness checks to both approaches. GO also look at longer-run effects from 1940 to 1960, but I focus on the shorter-run 1940 to 1950 effect since the complete count 1960 data have not been released.

interpretation that helps reconcile the "watershed" perspective with other results showing that the war had limited effect on FLFP. They focus on the group most affected—white, non-farm, married (by 1950) women, with at least a high school degree, who were young during the war (25-34 in 1950)—but allow the effects of the mobilization rate to vary by whether the women were married with children, married without children, or unmarried during the war.[5] The regression specification in their Equation (1) closely mirrors that of AAL (though it has slightly different notation):

$$y_{its} = \varphi_s + \gamma d_\tau + \alpha_t Z_{it} + \beta_t \, d_\tau X_{s1940} + \delta \, d_\tau MOB_s + \varepsilon_{its}.$$

The coefficient of interest, δ, is once again the interaction between the mobilization rate and a 1950 dummy variable, Their main results extend this approach and estimate the effects of the mobilization rate on FLFP for the aforementioned three mutually exclusive groups of women. GO find that women who were married without children during WWII had the strongest labor supply response to the mobilization rate between 1940 and 1950.

4.1 GO Results do not Hold in the Complete Count Data

Unlike GO, I do not find strong evidence that the mobilization rate affected FLFP for women who were married without children more than those who were married with children or unmarried. Columns (1) and (3) of Table 3 replicates the first two columns of GO Table 1, which shows the effect of the mobilization rate on weeks worked and labor force participation separately for married women with children, married women without children, and unmarried women. Columns (2) and (4) repeat the same specifications using the complete count data. While estimates using the complete count data are positive for each category of women and for each outcome variable, many are statistically insignificant or smaller than the corresponding GO estimates from the 1% samples. GO find that a ten percentage point increase in the mobilization rate is associated with a statistically significant 4.3 week increase in weeks worked for married women without chil-

[5] These women in 1950 are compared to demographically similar women in 1940, who were aged 25-34 during a "pseudo-WWII" period in the 1930s.

dren, compared to an insignificant 2.4 weeks for married women with children and a marginally significant 3.8 weeks for unmarried women.

By contrast, in the complete count data, I find a significant but much smaller effect of 1.4 weeks for married women without children, still larger than the (now insignificant) 0.02 weeks for unmarried women, but smaller than the (now significant) 2.2 week increase for married women with children. Turning to labor force participation rate, the effect on married women without children is ten times smaller in the complete count data and no longer statistically significant. The effect on married women with children is significant at the 10% level but is over 2.5 times smaller than the original GO effect. While the results using the complete count data do not necessarily rule out that WWII had an effect on some subgroups of women, these effects are much smaller than the original GO estimates and are sensitive to the outcome variable of choice.

GO impose several sample restrictions that make their final regression sample highly unlikely to represent the population of interest. The GO table contains more than 25 times fewer observations than AAL Table 5. Some of this reduction is expected given the GO restrictions on age and education status, for example. But GO also impose additional restrictions based on variables with a high degree of missingness. For example, they restrict to women with $MARRNO == 1$ (women in their first marriage) despite many missing values of this variable. Appendix Tables A3 and A4 show an unweighted and weighted (by sample line weights) comparison of means of several variables in the 1% samples vs. the complete count data, after already imposing restrictions on age, sex, farm status, education, and limiting to women who are currently married. These tables reveal some stark differences between the 1% samples and the complete count data on variables like marriage number that are key to GO's analysis, in addition to differences on other demographic and geographic variables.[6] Appendix Table A5 lists the number of women included in GO Table 1 in each of the three categories, by state and census year, revealing that many of these cells are likely too small to be representative.

[6]It is possible that some of these differences may become less pronounced as future versions of the complete count data improve. However, some questions, like times married, were only asked of a subset of one in every six sample line women, or about 3.3% of women. Restricting on such variables with high missingness makes it less likely that the resulting sample is representative.

4.2 Different 1% Census Samples Yield Very Different Results

Similar to the AAL analyses, I replicate the GO regressions with 10,000 different 1% random samples of the complete count data to demonstrate that different samples can lead to vastly different conclusions. The results in Figures 3 and 4, for weeks worked and labor force participation rate, respectively, show that while the GO estimates are not necessarily large outliers, there is a wide range of possible outcomes, including both positive and negative effects. For weeks worked, these distributions include nonsensical values above 52 weeks or below -52 weeks, while for labor force participation the distributions include nonsensical values above one (suggesting an increase in LFPR by more than 100%) and below -1 (a decrease of more than 100%). The previously discussed issues of combining small census samples with state-level treatment are likely to be exacerbated when the samples are extremely small as in GO.

5 Robustness and Alternative Specifications

In this section, I show that my results are not explained by choice of sample weights or the allocation of the mobilization rate by birth state vs. state of residence. I also show that AAL results are sensitive to the definition of FLFP and that some AAL specifications in the complete count data find modest support for an effect of mobilization on FLFP for the subset of women studied by GO.

5.1 Alternative Measures of Labor Force Participation

Though AAL motivate their story with figures showing the female labor force participation rate over time, their main specifications use weeks worked as the primary measure of FLFP. In Appendix Table A6, I show that this distinction matters. When the outcome variable is a dummy variable for labor force participation, columns (1) and (2) suggest that, within the 1% samples used by AAL, an increase in the mobilization rate is associated with a statistically significant *decrease* in FLFP, while columns (3) and (4) reveal a small, insignificant, positive effect. The estimates using the full count data in columns (5)-(8) are all negative, with three of four statistically significant. Appendix Table A7 repeats this analysis with the outcome as a dummy variable for positive weeks worked. Though columns (3) and (4) suggest a positive, statistically significant effect of mobilization on FLFP, all specifications using the complete count data are insignificant. These analyses confirm that the complete count data can yield different results than the 1% samples and that different definitions of labor force participation matter in this context.[7]

5.2 State of Birth vs. State of Residence

The census reports both an individual's state (or country) of birth and their state of residence at the time of the census. While these are the same for the majority of native-born individuals, the effects of WWII on labor supply (and other outcomes) may differ for inter-state migrants and may differ depending on when they migrated. AAL assign the "treatment" of mobilization based on an individual's state of residence in 1940 or 1950, whereas GO assign this treatment based on state of birth. In Appendix Tables A8 and A9, I reverse the assignments; Appendix Table A8 replicates AAL Table 5, Panel A, showing the effect of the mobilization rate—assigned by birth state—on FLFP, while Table A9 replicates GO but assigns the effects of the mobilization rate based on state of residence instead of state of birth. Similar to the main results, I find that the estimates using the complete count data are much smaller. All AAL estimates using the complete count data are insignificant, as are all but one of the GO estimates.

5.3 Alternative Weights

My results do not depend on the choice of sampling weights. AAL weight their 1940 observations by "person weight" and their 1950 observations by "sample line weight," while GO weight all observations by sample line weight. In Appendix Table A10 I use sample line weights for AAL, and in Appendix Table A11 I use 1940 person weights and 1950 sample line weights for GO. In both

[7] See Rose (2018) for a discussion of changes in the census definition of weeks worked between 1940 and 1950. Rose (2018) also finds that the effect of mobilization on FLFP can be sensitive to differences in the outcome variable.

cases, the results are largely similar to the main specifications, and I still find much smaller and insignificant results with the complete count data.

5.4 AAL Results for Educated White Women

Though many AAL specifications control for age and marital status, they do not look at the effect of mobilization on the particular subset of women who are the focus in GO: those who are white, married, have at least a high school education, and are aged 25-34. In Appendix Table A12, I re-run the AAL Table 5 specifications with the 1% samples and the complete count data for this set of women. Across all specifications, I find a positive, statistically significant effect of the mobilization rate on female weeks worked in the AAL sample. In the complete count data, columns (5) and (6) reveal a small and insignificant effect, whereas columns (7) and (8) show a positive, statistically significant effect, though less than half the magnitude of the comparable AAL estimates. Thus while there may be some positive effect of the mobilization rate on weeks worked for some subgroups of women, these results are typically much smaller in magnitude than in the 1% samples and can be sensitive to controls.

6 Conclusion

Through no fault of their own, researchers studying the effects of WWII on the labor supply of women were constrained for decades by relatively small sample sizes. I use the previously inaccessible complete count census data from 1940 and 1950 to revisit this question, finding results that contradict some of the prior literature. Specifically, I find that the state mobilization rate of men, a widely adopted measure thought to be an exogenous source of variation in FLFP, does not actually meaningfully explain the growth in female labor supply from 1940 to 1950. This result therefore calls into question the findings in several other papers that use the WWII mobilization rate to study the effects of female labor supply on a host of other outcomes. Further, I show that these classic results from the prior literature may simply be an artifact of a quirk in data sampling. Holding all data cleaning and regression specifications constant, different 1% samples of the complete count census data can lead to drastically different conclusions when estimating the effects of a state-level treatment. Beyond the effects of WWII on FLFP, these results suggest that other studies using the 1% census samples in conjunction with state-level treatment, regardless of topic, may contain highly biased estimates. In future work, I will replicate several such studies and develop a method to correct for this bias.

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Table 1. Replicating Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle Table 5
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply, 1940-50
Annual Weeks Worked
Panel A: White Females

	Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle				Full Count			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mobilization rate x 1950	11.2***	9.85***	10.6***	8.51***	1.13	1.81	1.89	1.06
	(1.89)	(2.05)	(2.65)	(2.37)	(2.85)	(2.56)	(3.54)	(4.05)
1940 male share farmers x 1950			1.74	1.04			0.464	0.189
			(1.08)	(1.05)			(0.777)	(0.828)
1940 male share nonwhite x 1950			-1.96*	-0.717			-0.607	-0.093
			(1.15)	(1.37)			(0.891)	(1.02)
1940 male share average education x 1950				0.525***				0.217
				(0.163)				(0.173)
Observations	530,026	530,026	530,026	530,026	47,263,000	47,263,000	47,263,000	47,263,000
R^2	0.012	0.182	0.182	0.182	0.018	0.169	0.169	0.169
Includes marital status, age, state of birth	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on weeks worked for women. Columns (1)-(4) replicate the original results in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Columns (5)-(8) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data.

Table 2. Replicating Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle Table 9
IV Specifications: Impact of Female Labor Supply on Female Earnings, 1940-50
Dependent Variable: Log Weekly Earnings
Panel A: White Females

	Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle			Full Count		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Weeks worked per female	-0.124***	-0.108***	-0.072*	1.57	-1.03	0.018
	(0.029)	(0.025)	(0.037)	(5.86)	(2.52)	(0.033)
Wald (1st stage), Weeks worked per female	32.0	29.6	17.0	0.070	0.162	4.39
Observations	69,335	69,335	69,335	5,545,733	5,545,733	5,545,733
Female age structure and birth state	no	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
Share farmers, share nonwhite, avg education	no	no	yes	no	no	yes

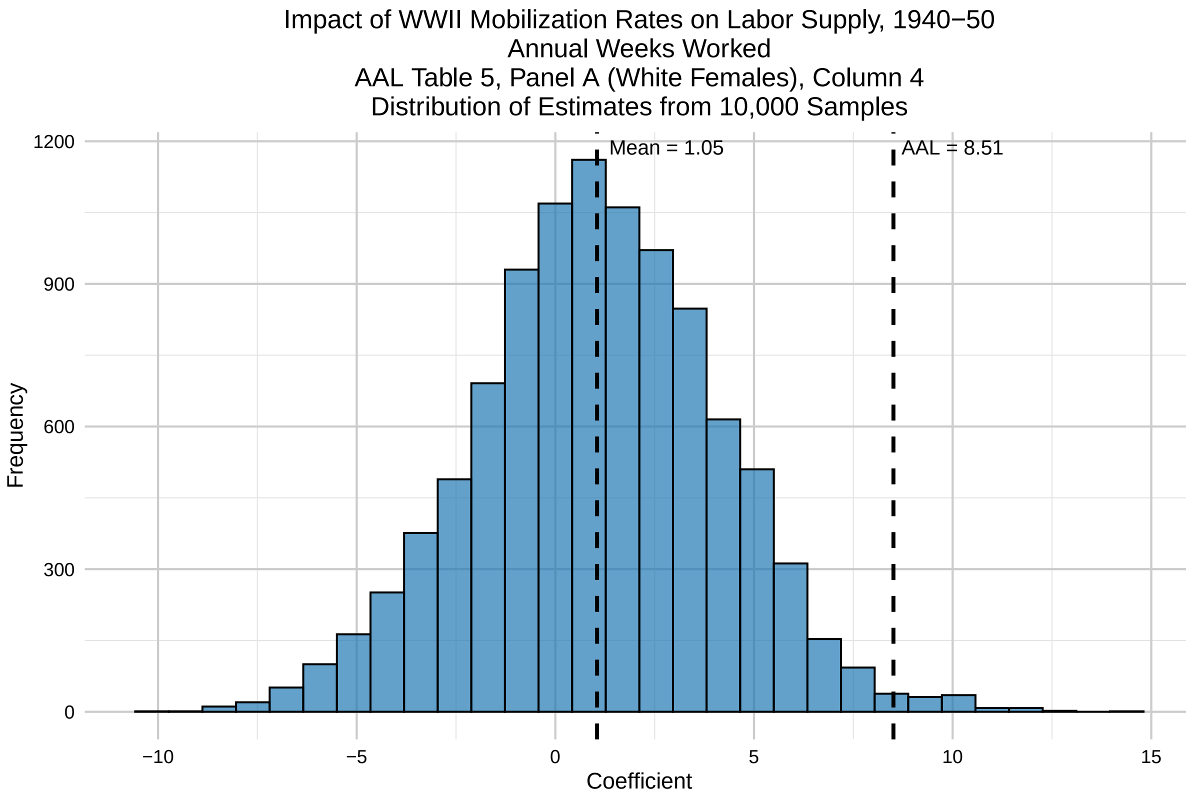
Panel B: White Males

	Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle			Full Count		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Weeks worked per female	-0.080***	-0.070***	-0.021	-8.03	-0.511	-0.053**
	(0.018)	(0.015)	(0.017)	(199.0)	(0.746)	(0.025)
Wald (1st stage), Weeks worked per female	29.1	29.0	17.6	0.002	0.398	4.77
Observations	198,385	198,385	198,385	16,428,007	16,428,007	16,428,007
Female age structure and birth state	no	yes	yes	no	yes	yes
Share farmers, share nonwhite, avg education	no	no	yes	no	no	yes

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in female weeks worked on female and male wages.

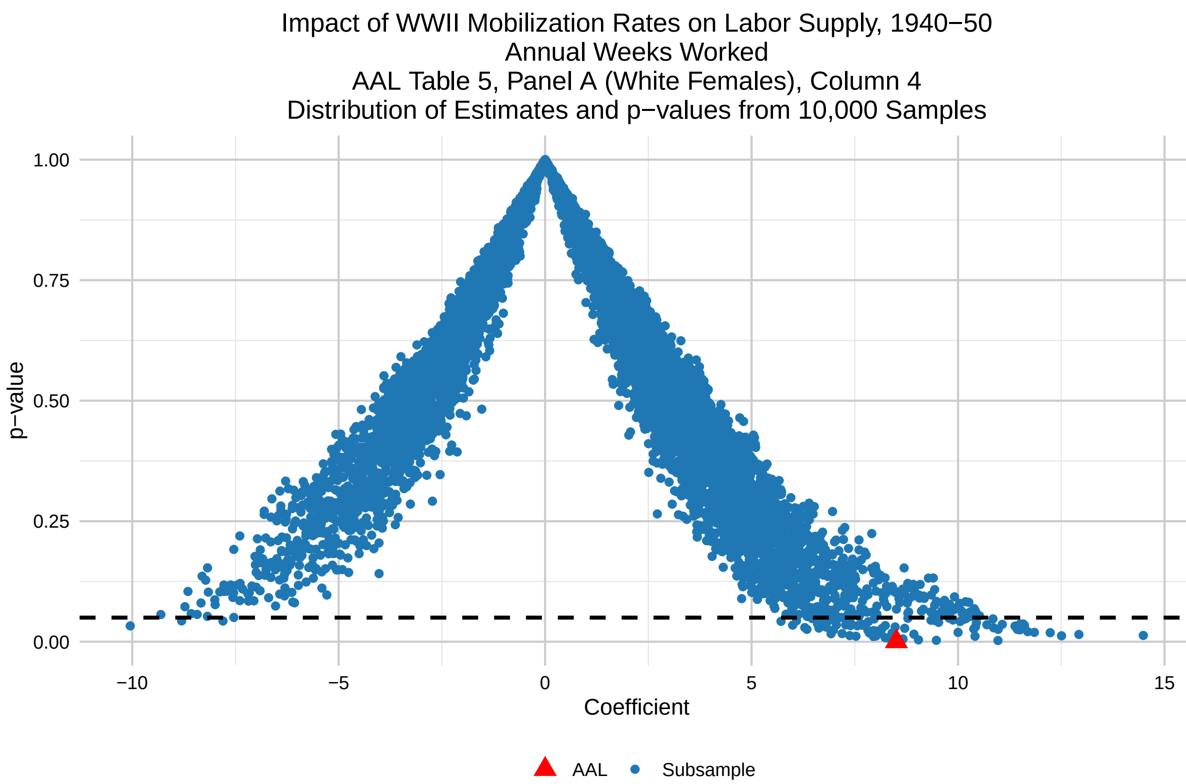
Columns (1)-(3) replicate the first three columns of Table 9 in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Columns (4)-(6) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data.

Figure 1



Notes: This figure shows the distribution of estimates from 10,000 separate regressions modeled after Table 5, Column 4 in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Each regression pools a different 1% subsample of the 1940 and 1950 full count census data. One vertical dashed line indicates the mean estimate from these 10,000 regressions and the other represents the AAL coefficient.

Figure 2



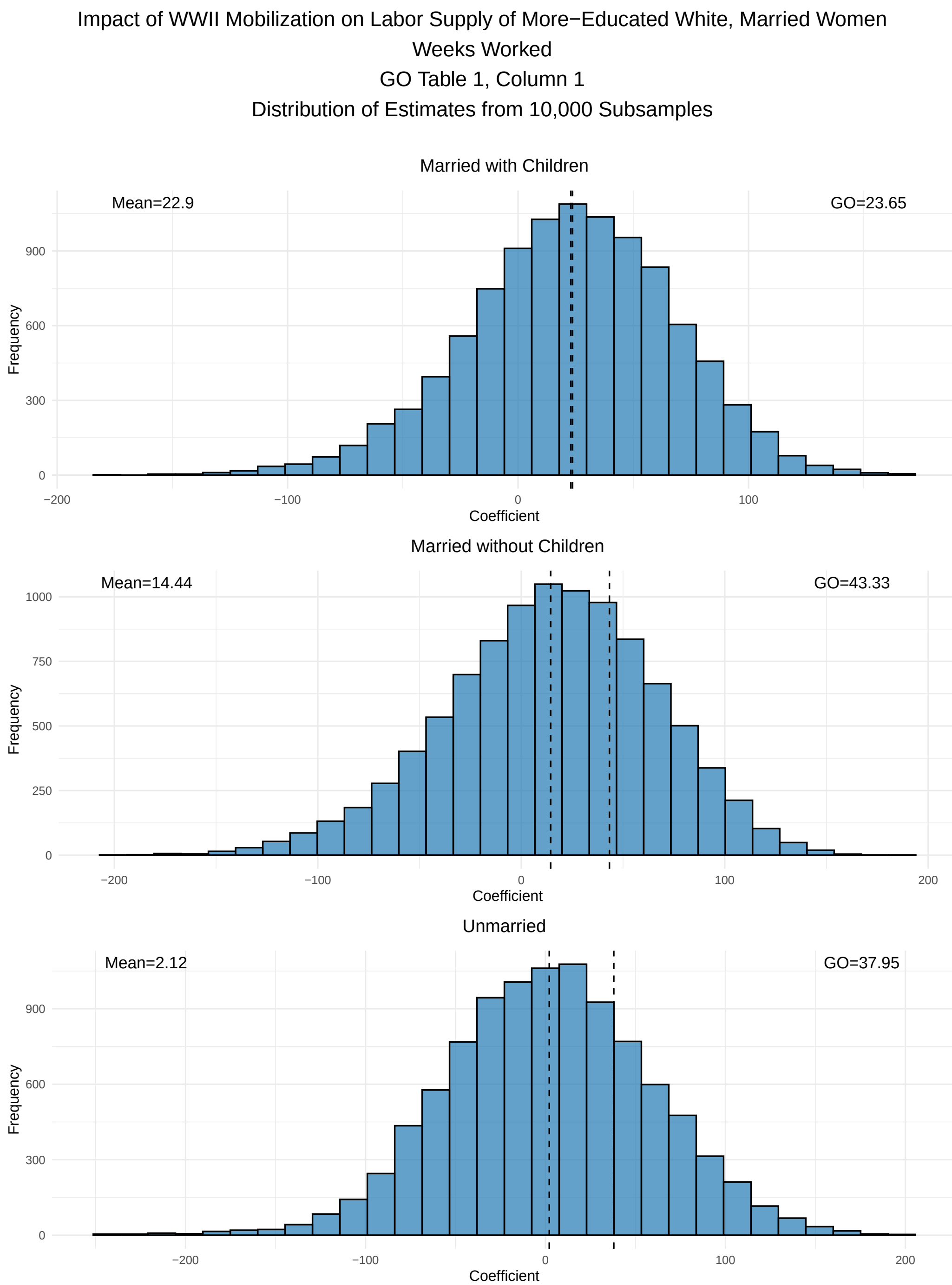
Notes: This figure shows the distribution of estimates and corresponding p-values from 10,000 separate regressions modeled after Table 5, Column 4 in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Each regression pools a different 1% subsample of the 1940 and 1950 full count census data. The horizontal dashed line represents a p-value of 0.05.

Table 3. Replicating Goldin and Olivetti Table 1
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply of More-Educated White, Married Women
Women 25-34 years old in 1950

	Weeks Worked		LFPR	
	Goldin/Olivetti	Full Count	Goldin/Olivetti	Full Count
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
τ x MOB x MarrChildWWII	23.7	22.3***	0.899***	0.344*
	(15.5)	(7.66)	(0.303)	(0.182)
τ x MOB x MarrNoChildWWII	43.3**	13.9***	0.958***	0.096
	(17.1)	(5.29)	(0.340)	(0.183)
τ x MOB x UnmarrWWII	37.9*	2.08	0.791	0.023
	(19.5)	(5.86)	(0.492)	(0.197)
Observations	20,846	198,134	20,846	198,134
R^2	0.162	0.115	0.137	0.113

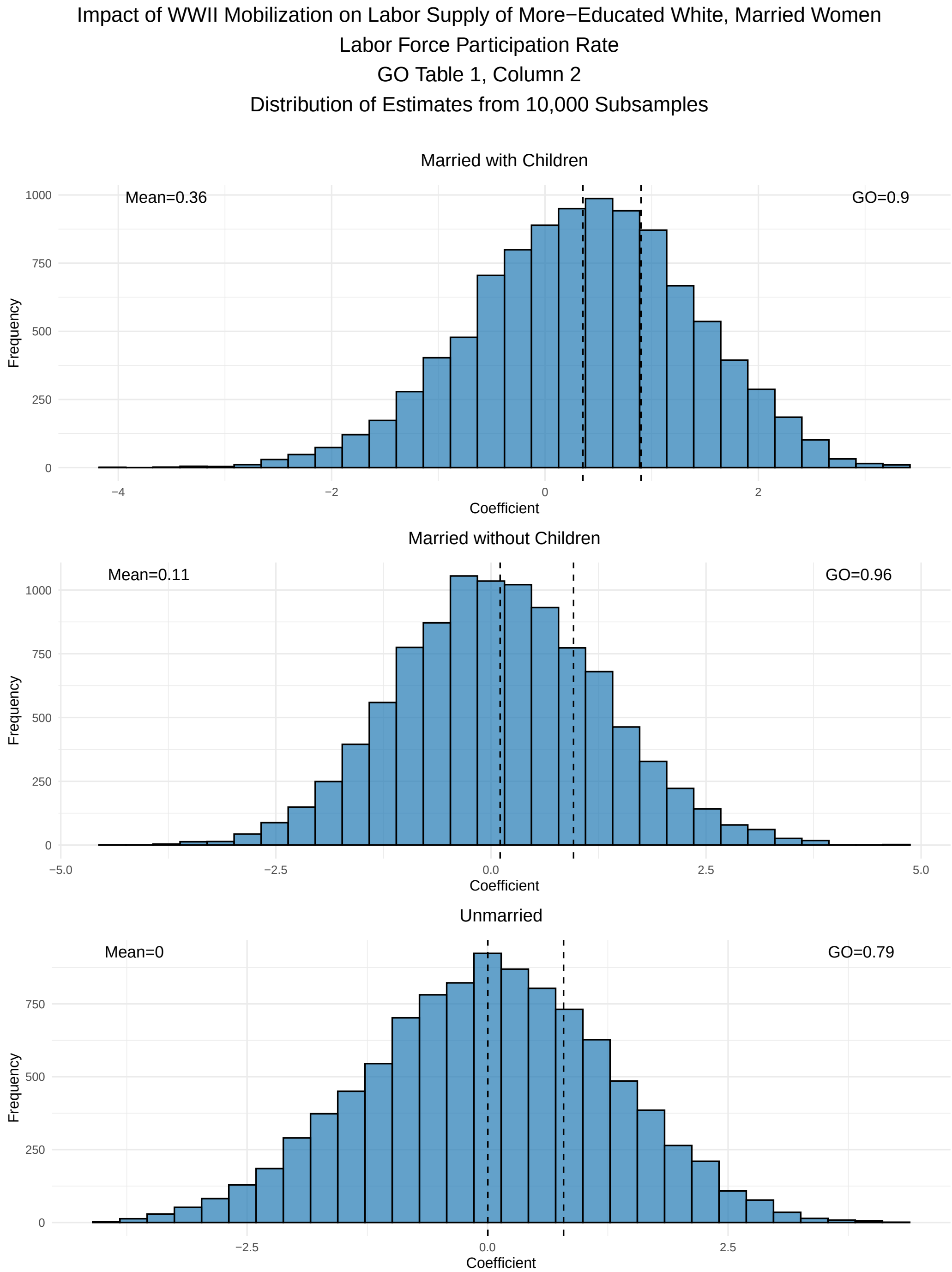
Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on female labor supply. Columns (1) and (3) replicate the original results in Goldin and Olivetti (2013) for weeks worked and labor force participation rate, respectively. Columns (2) and (4) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data. Regressions are weighted by sample line weights.

Figure 3



Notes: This figure shows the distribution of estimates from 10,000 separate regressions modeled after Table 1, Column (2) in Goldin and Olivetti (2013). Each regression pools a different 1% subsample of the 1940 and 1950 full count census data. One vertical dashed line indicates the mean estimate from these 10,000 regressions and the other represents the GO coefficient.

Figure 4



Notes: This figure shows the distribution of estimates from 10,000 separate regressions modeled after Table 1, Column (2) in Goldin and Olivetti (2013). Each regression pools a different 1% subsample of the 1940 and 1950 full count census data. One vertical dashed line indicates the mean estimate from these 10,000 regressions and the other represents the GO coefficient.

Table A1. Replicating Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle Table 5
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply, 1940-50
Annual Weeks Worked
Panel B: All Females

	Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle				Full Count			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mobilization rate x 1950	13.9***	9.06***	10.2***	8.51***	5.43**	2.23	2.24	1.06
	(1.78)	(2.35)	(2.61)	(2.37)	(2.63)	(2.65)	(3.35)	(4.05)
1940 male share farmers x 1950			2.04*	1.04			0.922	0.189
			(1.13)	(1.05)			(0.807)	(0.828)
1940 male share nonwhite x 1950			-2.04	-0.717			-1.21	-0.093
			(1.24)	(1.37)			(0.969)	(1.02)
1940 male share average education x 1950				0.525***				0.217
				(0.163)				(0.173)
Observations	585,745	585,745	585,745	530,026	52,082,755	52,082,755	52,082,755	47,263,000
R^2	0.013	0.172	0.172	0.182	0.019	0.160	0.160	0.169
Includes marital status, age, state of birth	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on weeks worked for women. Columns (1)-(4) replicate the original results in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Columns (5)-(8) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data.

Table A2. Replicating Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle Table 5
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply, 1940-50
Annual Weeks Worked
Panel C: White Males

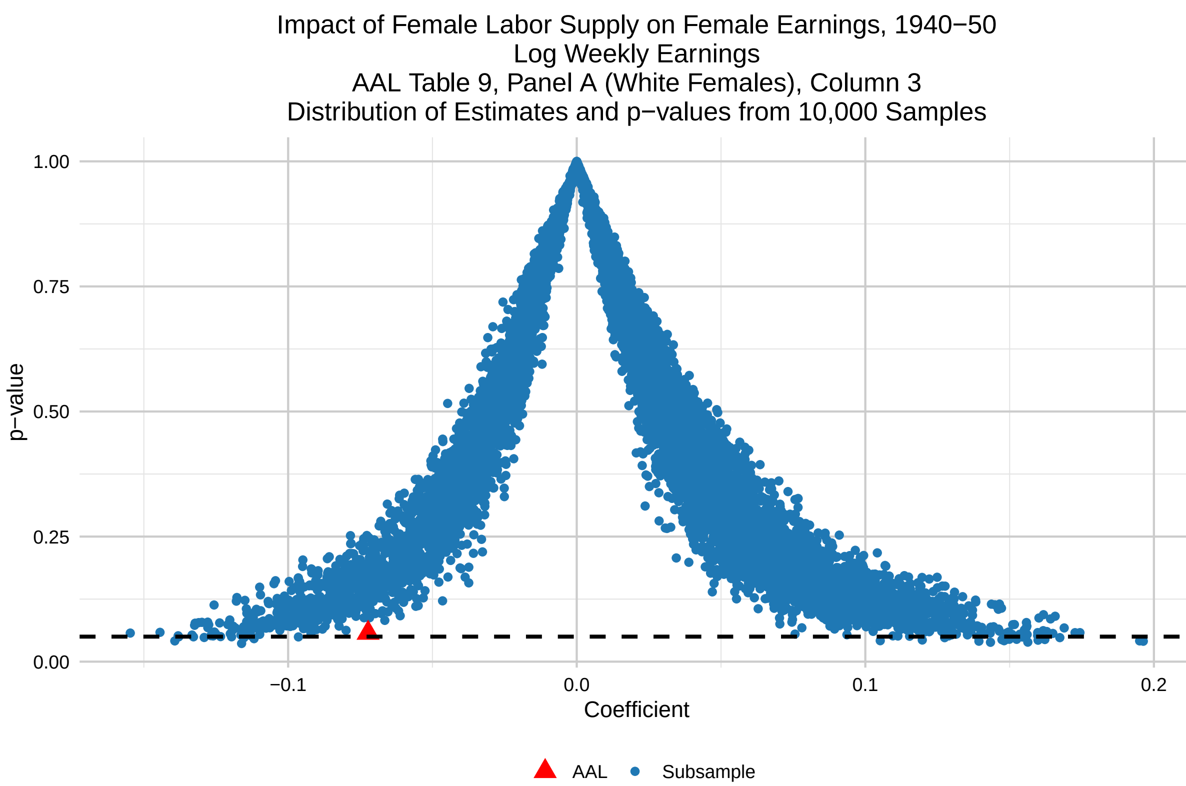
	Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle				Full Count			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mobilization rate x 1950	0.463	3.60	-6.56	-6.56	2.02	4.89	-5.22	-5.39
	(5.98)	(5.43)	(7.12)	(7.59)	(5.74)	(5.58)	(7.46)	(8.18)
1940 male share farmers x 1950			1.97	1.97			1.27	1.21
			(1.27)	(1.41)			(1.13)	(1.26)
1940 male share nonwhite x 1950			-9.11***	-9.11***			-8.07***	-7.91***
			(1.21)	(1.46)			(1.09)	(1.23)
1940 male share average education x 1950				-0.0002				0.066
				(0.436)				(0.425)
Observations	441,343	441,343	441,343	441,343	39,785,536	39,785,536	39,785,536	39,785,536
R^2	0.018	0.356	0.357	0.357	0.013	0.306	0.306	0.306
Includes marital status, age, state of birth	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on weeks worked for white males. Columns (1)-(4) replicate the original results in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Columns (5)-(8) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data.

Figure A1

Notes: This figure shows the distribution of estimates from 10,000 separate regressions modeled after Table 9, Column 3 in Acemoglu et al. (2004). The specification estimates the effect of an increase in female labor supply on female earnings, using the mobilization rate to instrument for the growth in FLFP. Each regression pools a different 1% subsample of the 1940 and 1950 full count census data. One vertical dashed line indicates the mean estimate from these 10,000 regressions and the other represents the AAL coefficient.

Figure A2



Notes: This figure shows the distribution of estimates and corresponding p-values from 10,000 separate regressions modeled after Table 9, Column 3 in Acemoglu et al. (2004). The specification estimates the effect of an increase in female labor supply on female earnings, using the mobilization rate to instrument for the growth in FLFP. Each regression pools a different 1% subsample of the 1940 and 1950 full count census data. The horizontal dashed line represents a p-value of 0.05.

Table A3. Summary statistics by dataset

Variable	Goldin & Olivetti	Full Count	Difference
Age	29.537 (2.838)	29.460 (2.845)	0.077 (0.007)***
Weeks Worked	4.708 (13.755)	4.805 (13.748)	-0.098 (0.033)***
Labor Force Participation	0.172	0.195	-0.023 (0.001)***
Northeast	0.273	0.279	-0.005 (0.001)***
Midwest	0.333	0.339	-0.005 (0.001)***
South	0.318	0.312	0.006 (0.001)***
West	0.075	0.071	0.004 (0.001)***
Married Once	0.239	0.030	0.208 (0.001)***
Times Married Missing	0.735	0.099	0.636 (0.001)***
Times Married N/A	0.000	0.868	-0.868 (0.000)***
Married with Child	0.661	0.744	-0.083 (0.001)***
Married without Child	0.238	0.245	-0.007 (0.001)***
Unmarried	0.101	0.011	0.091 (0.001)***
Sample Line	0.265	0.132	0.133 (0.001)***
N	173184	15129674	

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table shows sample means and standard deviations (in parentheses) of several variables in the 1940 and 1950 1% samples used by Goldin and Olivetti (2013) and in the complete count census data. The data are already processed to include GO's restrictions on age, race, farm status, and education, but are not restricted by marriage number (*MARRNO*). The final column shows the mean of the difference between the two datasets and a standard error in parentheses from a t-test of difference in means.

Table A4. Summary statistics by dataset (weighted by slwt)

Variable	Goldin & Olivetti	Full Count	Difference
Age	29.467 (2.842)	29.461 (2.843)	0.006 (0.014)
Weeks Worked	9.105 (17.844)	9.911 (17.754)	-0.806 (0.088)***
Labor Force Participation	0.192	0.197	-0.005 (0.002)***
Northeast	0.272	0.279	-0.006 (0.002)***
Midwest	0.340	0.339	0.001 (0.002)
South	0.313	0.312	0.001 (0.002)
West	0.075	0.070	0.004 (0.001)***
Married Once	0.902	0.430	0.471 (0.002)***
Times Married Missing	0.000	0.534	-0.534 (0.000)***
Times Married N/A	0.000	0.000	0.000 (0.000)
Married with Child	0.509	0.644	-0.135 (0.002)***
Married without Child	0.264	0.259	0.005 (0.002)**
Unmarried	0.227	0.097	0.130 (0.002)***
Sample Line	1.000	1.000	0.000 (0.000)
N	15,298,560	15,070,635	

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table shows sample means and standard deviations (in parentheses) of several variables in the 1940 and 1950 1% samples used by Goldin and Olivetti (2013) and in the complete count census data. Means and number of observations are weighted by sample line weights. The data are already processed to include GO's restrictions on age, race, farm status, and education, but are not restricted by marriage number (*MARRNO*). The final column shows the mean of the difference between the two datasets and a standard error in parentheses from a t-test of difference in means.

Table A5. Distribution of Women by Category, State, and Census Year

	1940				1950			
State	MarrChildWWII	MarrNoChildWWII	UnmarrWWII	Total	MarrChildWWII	MarrNoChildWWII	UnmarrWWII	Total
AL	46	42	36	124	85	60	37	182
AR	27	43	30	100	84	55	30	169
AZ	4	4	6	14	14	10	9	33
CA	60	101	84	245	184	132	106	422
CO	35	36	24	95	64	46	32	142
CT	12	38	35	85	60	75	57	192
DE	5	5	7	17	15	4	6	25
FL	7	17	14	38	38	35	27	100
GA	46	63	48	157	85	63	40	188
IA	93	117	92	302	147	108	82	337
ID	17	16	11	44	45	23	18	86
IL	128	184	178	490	345	269	224	838
IN	91	101	76	268	195	120	95	410
KS	74	73	57	204	114	86	74	274
KY	33	42	35	110	92	73	43	208
LA	22	40	34	96	82	36	46	164
MA	81	87	123	291	206	146	163	515
MD	21	28	36	85	59	35	32	126
ME	20	18	22	60	49	29	25	103
MI	72	108	103	283	242	163	141	546
MN	64	77	96	237	171	107	113	391
MO	105	124	70	299	174	133	96	403
MS	25	40	26	91	52	48	37	137
MT	11	18	15	44	38	33	16	87
NC	55	60	55	170	99	61	66	226
ND	20	31	21	72	53	31	30	114
NE	64	86	55	205	95	61	53	209
NH	4	12	6	22	20	15	10	45
NJ	36	62	61	159	179	110	122	411
NM	10	11	8	29	16	14	9	39
NY	164	282	273	719	491	433	430	1354
OH	132	189	178	499	332	244	196	772
OK	68	87	39	194	147	104	56	307
OR	20	24	26	70	53	27	35	115
PA	169	226	196	591	481	371	339	1191
RI	3	12	18	33	16	31	20	67
SC	26	21	33	80	38	40	26	104
SD	14	31	22	67	56	33	23	112
TN	42	45	30	117	92	50	49	191
TX	129	159	91	379	251	178	112	541
UT	22	18	12	52	63	33	16	112
VA	32	51	40	123	83	69	57	209
VT	10	8	12	30	18	12	7	37
WA	30	39	41	110	96	62	49	207
WI	56	85	87	228	149	114	113	376
WV	27	33	30	90	73	46	49	168
WY	4	3	6	13	13	10	7	30

Notes: This table shows the distribution of women included in the regressions in Goldin and Olivetti (2013) Table 1, Columns (1) and (2). Each row shows the number of women from a given state falling into each of three groups separately for 1940 and 1950: women married with children during WWII, women married without children, and unmarried women.

Table A6. Replicating Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle Table 5
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply, 1940-50
Labor Force Participation
Panel A: White Females

	Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle				Full Count			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mobilization rate x 1950	-0.164***	-0.187***	0.078	0.009	-0.329***	-0.330***	-0.077	-0.127**
	(0.043)	(0.048)	(0.074)	(0.061)	(0.042)	(0.044)	(0.064)	(0.052)
1940 male share farmers x 1950			0.148***	0.125***			0.119***	0.102***
			(0.029)	(0.026)			(0.022)	(0.020)
1940 male share nonwhite x 1950			-0.051**	-0.010			-0.018	0.013
			(0.019)	(0.022)			(0.014)	(0.018)
1940 male share average education x 1950				0.017***				0.013***
				(0.003)				(0.003)
Observations	530,026	530,026	530,026	530,026	47,263,000	47,263,000	47,263,000	47,263,000
R^2	0.013	0.222	0.222	0.222	0.012	0.208	0.208	0.208
Includes marital status, age, state of birth	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on labor force participation for women. Columns (1)-(4) replicate the original results in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Columns (5)-(8) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data.

Table A7. Replicating Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle Table 5
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply, 1940-50
Any Weeks Worked
Panel A: White Females

	Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle				Full Count			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mobilization rate x 1950	0.045	0.063	0.261***	0.174**	-0.240	-0.150	0.045	0.063
	(0.065)	(0.069)	(0.089)	(0.070)	(0.148)	(0.140)	(0.188)	(0.197)
1940 male share farmers x 1950			0.137***	0.109***			0.039	0.044
			(0.031)	(0.029)			(0.048)	(0.050)
1940 male share nonwhite x 1950			-0.076**	-0.025			0.060	0.049
			(0.030)	(0.037)			(0.046)	(0.047)
1940 male share average education x 1950				0.022***				-0.005
				(0.004)				(0.009)
Observations	530,026	530,026	530,026	530,026	47,263,000	47,263,000	47,263,000	47,263,000
R^2	0.016	0.180	0.180	0.180	0.081	0.184	0.184	0.184
Includes marital status, age, state of birth	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on weeks worked for women. Columns (1)-(4) replicate the original results in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Columns (5)-(8) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data.

Table A8. Replicating Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle Table 5
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply, 1940-50
Weeks Worked
Panel A: White Females
Mobilization Rate Assigned by Birth State

	Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle				Full Count			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mobilization rate x 1950	8.90**	9.25***	11.3***	10.4***	-3.45	0.735	2.67	2.54
	(3.68)	(2.09)	(3.26)	(3.27)	(4.07)	(2.49)	(3.45)	(3.64)
1940 male share farmers x 1950			1.91*	1.48			1.19*	1.12
			(1.03)	(1.02)			(0.706)	(0.752)
1940 male share nonwhite x 1950			-1.58	-0.700			-0.633	-0.471
			(1.03)	(1.14)			(0.795)	(0.911)
1940 male share average education x 1950				0.353**				0.064
				(0.168)				(0.169)
Observations	470,326	470,326	470,326	470,326	42,085,875	42,085,875	42,085,875	42,085,875
R^2	0.012	0.187	0.187	0.187	0.018	0.172	0.172	0.172
Includes marital status, age, state of residence	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on weeks worked for women. Columns (1)-(4) replicate the original results in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Columns (5)-(8) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data.

Table A9. Replicating Goldin and Olivetti Table 1
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply of More-Educated White, Married Women
Women 25-34 years old in 1950
Mobilization Rate Assigned by State of Residence

	Weeks Worked		LFPR	
	Goldin/Olivetti	Full Count	Goldin/Olivetti	Full Count
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
τ x MOB x MarrChildWWII	16.4	23.8**	0.593*	0.287
	(16.1)	(9.55)	(0.300)	(0.208)
τ x MOB x MarrNoChildWWII	38.5**	11.5	0.820**	0.015
	(18.8)	(7.26)	(0.360)	(0.220)
τ x MOB x UnmarrWWII	51.0***	5.31	1.13***	-0.103
	(16.8)	(8.69)	(0.388)	(0.230)
Observations	21,750	205,414	21,750	205,414
R^2	0.159	0.116	0.138	0.113

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on female labor supply. Columns (1) and (3) use the 1940 and 1950 1% census samples originally used in Goldin and Olivetti (2013). Columns (2) and (4) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data. Regressions are weighted by sample line weights.

Table A10. Replicating Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle Table 5
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply, 1940-50
Weeks Worked
Panel A: White Females
Sample Line Weights

	Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle				Full Count			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mobilization rate x 1950	10.8***	9.75***	10.9***	8.81***	0.487	1.41	1.29	0.420
	(1.99)	(2.10)	(2.68)	(2.42)	(2.85)	(2.54)	(3.51)	(4.04)
1940 male share farmers x 1950			3.05***	2.39**			0.536	0.249
			(1.13)	(1.08)			(0.781)	(0.828)
1940 male share nonwhite x 1950			-3.61***	-2.41**			-0.823	-0.288
			(1.02)	(1.20)			(0.878)	(1.02)
1940 male share average education x 1950				0.505***				0.226
				(0.155)				(0.176)
Observations	247,636	247,636	247,636	247,636	10,495,709	10,495,709	10,495,709	10,495,709
R^2	0.012	0.183	0.183	0.183	0.018	0.169	0.169	0.169
Includes marital status, age, state of birth	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on weeks worked for women. Columns (1)-(4) replicate the original results in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Columns (5)-(8) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data.

Table A11. Replicating Goldin and Olivetti Table 1
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply of More-Educated White, Married Women
Women 25-34 years old in 1950
1940 Person Weights and 1950 Sample Line Weights

	Weeks Worked		LFPR	
	Goldin/Olivetti	Full Count	Goldin/Olivetti	Full Count
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
τ x MOB x MarrChildWWII	37.5**	22.5***	1.10***	0.384**
	(16.2)	(7.15)	(0.308)	(0.188)
τ x MOB x MarrNoChildWWII	49.0**	14.3**	1.13***	0.129
	(18.6)	(6.47)	(0.392)	(0.189)
τ x MOB x UnmarrWWII	41.7*	1.67	0.845	0.048
	(22.1)	(5.91)	(0.516)	(0.190)
Observations	20,846	198,134	20,846	198,134
R^2	0.184	0.142	0.146	0.126

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on female labor supply. Columns (1) and (3) use the 1940 and 1950 1% census samples originally used in Goldin and Olivetti (2013). Columns (2) and (4) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data. Regressions are weighted by sample line weights.

Table A12. Replicating Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle Table 5
Impact of WWII Mobilization Rates on Labor Supply, 1940-50
Annual Weeks Worked
Panel A: White Females
Married Women Aged 25-34 with at Least a HS Degree

	Acemoglu, Autor, Lyle				Full Count			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Mobilization rate x 1950	12.1**	11.3**	41.6***	34.8***	1.19	0.456	18.1***	15.7**
	(4.63)	(4.70)	(8.69)	(7.82)	(3.44)	(3.53)	(6.20)	(6.32)
1940 male share farmers x 1950			12.1***	10.0***			7.34***	6.58***
			(3.63)	(3.30)			(2.35)	(2.19)
1940 male share nonwhite x 1950			1.79	4.91**			0.551	1.72
			(1.54)	(1.89)			(1.20)	(1.37)
1940 male share average education x 1950				1.24***				0.464*
				(0.352)				(0.252)
Observations	42,351	42,351	42,351	42,351	3,522,608	3,522,608	3,522,608	3,522,608
R^2	0.005	0.010	0.011	0.011	0.009	0.013	0.013	0.013
Includes marital status, age, state of birth	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	yes	yes

Notes: * $p < 0.1$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$. This table reports the effect of an increase in the mobilization rate on weeks worked for women. Columns (1)-(4) replicate the original results in Acemoglu et al. (2004). Columns (5)-(8) show the results from the same regressions using the complete count 1940 and 1950 census data.